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Contents

1. Executive Summary
   1.1 Key findings
   1.2 Recommendations for policy bodies and police agencies

2. Introduction: Why do the project?

3. Youth and police relationships
   3.1 Youth and police intervention: where and why does it happen?
   3.2 Ethnic minority youth and the police: A site of rights violation
   3.3 A local perspective: African youth and the police
   3.4 Ethnic youth and police attitudes: A ‘self-fulfilling prophecy’
   3.5 Conclusion

4. Methodology
   4.1 Research design
   4.2 Participants
   4.3 Procedure
   4.4 Materials – Survey
   4.5 Data analysis & research questions
   4.6 Ethical considerations

5. Findings
   5.1 Youth and police contact
   5.2 Types of police contact
   5.3 Young people’s satisfaction with outcomes of police contact
   5.4 Young people’s attitudes toward police
   5.6 Differences in attitudes and police contact
   5.7 Young people and their rights with police

6. Discussion

7. Conclusion

8. Bibliography
List of tables

Table 5.1.6  Comparison between participant country of birth, gender and police contact  Page 22
Table 5.1.7  Comparison between participant country of birth, gender and frequency of police contact  Page 22
Table 5.1.8  Comparison between participant country of birth and suburb where police contact took place  Page 23
Table 5.2.2  Comparison between participant country of birth and being stopped by police  Page 24
Table 5.2.3  Comparison between participant country of birth, gender and receiving a summons or infringement from police  Page 25
Table 5.2.4  Comparison between participant country of birth, gender and experiencing insulting comments from police  Page 25
Table 5.2.5  Comparison between participant country of birth, gender and police threatening to use force  Page 26
Table 5.2.6  Comparison between participant country of birth, gender and police use of force  Page 26
Table 5.2.7  Comparison between participant country of birth, gender and being charged by police  Page 26
Table 5.2.9  Comparison between participant country of birth, gender and fairness of police stopping  Page 27
Table 5.3.1  Comparison between participant country of birth, gender and participants’ evaluation of police behaviour  Page 28
Table 5.3.2  Comparison between participant country of birth, gender and impact of police behaviour  Page 29
Table 5.3.4  Comparison between participant country of birth, gender and level of happiness with police contact  Page 30
Table 5.3.6  Comparison between participant country of birth, gender and police discrimination  Page 31
Table 5.4.6  Comparison between participant country of birth and gender with answers to the question “do you feel like you can hang out with your friend(s) without worrying about being stopped by police?”  Page 35
Table 5.4.9  Comparison between participant country of birth and gender with answers to the question “do you feel like you can walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by the police?”  Page 37
Table 5.5.2 Comparison between participant country of birth and gender with how participants felt they would be treated if they got into trouble with the police Page 38

Table 5.5.5 Comparison between participant country of birth and gender with agreement that racial tensions exist in the community between young people and the police Page 40

Table 5.5.8 Comparison between participant country of birth and gender with agreement that police are influenced by a person’s race or religion when police are dealing with members of the community Page 42

Table 5.6.6 Comparison between trust in police with police making insulting comments Page 46

Table 5.6.7 Comparison between trust in police with threats of police force Page 46

Table 5.6.8 Comparison between trust in police with police use of force Page 46

Table 5.6.9 Comparison between youths’ attitudes that police are racially biased towards members of the community with youth who experienced verbal insults from police Page 47

Table 5.7.3 Comparison between participant country of birth, gender and knowledge of rights with police Page 48

Table 5.7.6 Comparison between participant country of birth and gender with level of confidence in exercising rights with police Page 50

Table 5.7.7 Comparison between participant country of birth and gender with likelihood of making a FORMAL complaint against the police if treated unfairly by police Page 51
List of graphs

Graph 4.2.1  Age of participants  Page 13
Graph 4.2.2  Participant country of birth  Page 13
Graph 4.2.3  Participants’ religion  Page 14
Graph 4.2.4  Participant suburb  Page 14
Graph 4.2.5  Participants’ dwelling type  Page 15
Graph 4.2.6  Number of specific groups (country of birth) of young people who reported their type of dwelling  Page 15
Graph 5.1.1  Number of young men and women who reported having contact with police in the last 12 months  Page 19
Graph 5.1.2  Number of young men and women who reported having one or more contacts with police in the last 12 months  Page 20
Graph 5.1.3  Number of young men and women who reported their most recent contact with police  Page 20
Graph 5.1.4  Number of young men and women who reported the place where police contact took place  Page 21
Graph 5.1.5  Number of specific groups (country of birth) of young people who reported having contact with police in the last 12 months  Page 21
Graph 5.2.1  Number of young men and women who reported being stopped and approached by police on their most recent contact  Page 24
Graph 5.2.8  Number of specific groups (country of birth) of young people who reported receiving a reason from police for being stopped  Page 27
Graph 5.3.3  Number of young men and women who reported their level of happiness with outcomes of police contact  Page 29
Graph 5.3.5  Number of specific groups (country of birth) of young people who reported being stopped by police because of their race or religion  Page 30
Graph 5.4.1  Number of young people who reported their level of trust in police  Page 32
Graph 5.4.2  Number of young men and women who reported their level of trust in police  Page 32
Graph 5.4.3  Number of specific groups (country of birth) of young people who reported their level of trust in police  Page 33
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Graph</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.4.4</td>
<td>Number of young men and women who reported that they could hang out with friend(s) without worrying about being stopped by police</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.5</td>
<td>Number of specific groups (country of birth) of young people who reported that they could hang out with friend(s) without worrying about being stopped by police</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.7</td>
<td>Number of young people who reported that they can walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by police</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.8</td>
<td>Number of specific groups (country of birth) of young people who reported that they could walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by police</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>Number of young people who reported how they felt they would be treated if they got into trouble with the police</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.1</td>
<td>Number of specific groups (country of birth) of young people who reported how they felt they would be treated if they got into trouble with the police</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.3</td>
<td>Number of young people who agreed or disagreed with the statement that racial tensions exist between young people and the police in their community</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.4</td>
<td>Number of specific groups (country of birth) of young people who agreed or disagreed with the statement that racial tensions exist between young people and the police in their community</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.6</td>
<td>Number of young people who agreed or disagreed with the statement that police are influenced by a person's race or religion when police are dealing with members of the community</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.7</td>
<td>Number of specific groups (country of birth) of young people who agreed or disagreed with the statement that police are influenced by a person's race or religion when police are dealing with members of the community</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.1</td>
<td>Comparison between the number of young people who had contact with the police in the last 12 months and their level of trust in police</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.2</td>
<td>Comparison between the number of young people who had one or more contacts with the police in the last 12 months and their level of trust in police</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Graph 5.6.3  Comparison between the number of young people who had contact with the police in the last 12 months and their perceptions of how they would be treated if they got into trouble with the police  Page 44

Graph 5.6.4  Comparison between the number of young people who had contact with the police in the last 12 months and young people’s perceptions regarding racial tensions existing between youth and the police  Page 44

Graph 5.6.5  Comparison between the number of young people who had contact with the police in the last 12 months and young people's perceptions that police are influenced by a person's race or religion when police are dealing with members of the community  Page 45

Graph 5.7.1  Number of young people who reported their level of knowledge about their rights with police  Page 47

Graph 5.7.2  Number of specific groups (country of birth) of young people who reported their level of knowledge about their rights with police  Page 48

Graph 5.7.4  Number of young people who reported their level of confidence in exercising their rights with the police  Page 49

Graph 5.7.5  Number of specific groups (country of birth) of young people who reported their level of confidence exercising their rights with police  Page 49
List of appendices

Appendix A: Survey ........................................ Page 62
Appendix B: Project Information Sheet ............... Page 67
Appendix C: Project Consent Form .................. Page 68
1. Executive Summary

The following research examines the role that demographic factors, such as country of birth and gender, play in shaping young people’s experiences with and attitudes toward the police. The Flemington and Kensington Community Legal Centre (FKCLC) commissioned the study at a time of growing concern about young people being treated unfairly by the police in the Flemington and Kensington community.

The relationship between police and youth is fraught with difficulties and there is growing evidence that ethnic minority youth are more vulnerable to being treated unfairly by the police (Alder et al, 1992; Chan, 1997; White, 1994). In particular, the interaction between police and African youth has been a source of increasing concern of late with research identifying that African youth experience frequent unwarranted stopping, searching and police harassment in the areas of Flemington, Braybrook and City of Greater Dandenong (Duff, 2006; Reside & Smith, 2010).

This study contributes to current research on race and gender by offering further evidence of the differential police treatment experienced by African youth. The findings of this study warrant further investigation and at the same time contribute to an increased awareness of the issues and challenges faced by this group of young people. A total of 151 young people, aged 15-24 participated in this research by completing an anonymous survey. The young people who were surveyed lived in Flemington and the surrounding areas, were roughly equal numbers of young men and women, and included young people from diverse ethnicities and non-English speaking backgrounds.

1.1. Key findings

Overall, young men of African descent experienced more difficulty with police than other youth, were less likely to have their rights respected, were more likely than other youth to feel that they experienced some form of inappropriate treatment by police and reported feeling racially targeted by the police.

The specific experiences that young men of African descent reported, compared with other youth, are as follows:

Young men of African descent experienced frequent encounters with the police – they were considerably more likely to be stopped by the police within the past 30 days compared with young males of Australian descent (51.4% n18 compared with 34.2%, n13).

Young men of African descent were slightly more likely than their Australian-born counterparts to experience heavy-handed treatment by the police. Their experiences were characterised by police using physical force (23.8%, n5 compared to 11.8%, n2), police threatening to use physical force (23.8%, n5 compared to 11.8%, n2) and police giving verbal insults (23.8%, n5 compared to 11.8%, n2). Accordingly, whilst no Australian-born males received a summons or infringement almost 20% of African-born males did and almost 15% of African-born males were charged by the police for minor offences compared with none of the male Australian-born participants.

Young men of African descent were considerably more likely to report a negative impact as a result of the police behaviour they experienced, in contrast with young men of Australian descent. The responses that young men of African descent described included feeling “scared,” “angry,” “targeted,” “small and dumb,” and “cruelly treated.”

In reference to their most recent encounter with police, almost half (47.6%, n10) of the young men of African descent strongly felt that they were stopped by the police because of their race.
Key findings with regard to young people’s attitudes toward police:

Youth of African descent were noticeably more likely than youth of Australian descent or any other ethnic group to worry about being stopped by police when walking alone down the street. Almost 30% (n19) of African-born youth responded ‘not at all’ to the question of being able to walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by the police, compared to only 1.8% (n1) of Australian-born youth.

Youth of African origin were considerably more likely than youth of Australian descent to report being treated tougher than other people if they got into trouble with the police (73.2%, n41 compared to 42.6%, n26). Young men of African descent were more likely than their Australian-born counterparts to report being treated tougher than other people if they got into trouble with the police (52.8%, n19 compared to 28%, n7). Young women of African descent were significantly more likely to feel that they would be treated tougher by the police when compared to their Australian-born counterparts (56%, n14 compared to 16%, n5).

The majority of youth in this study regardless of race or gender agreed, either somewhat (37.1%, n56) or strongly (24.5%, 37), that police are influenced by a person’s race or religion when dealing with members of the community. Youth of African descent characterised the largest group to strongly agree with this statement (34.4%, n22).

Young people’s experiences with the police shape their attitudes toward the police, however young people who did not report any personal experience of negative outcomes with the police were still likely to perceive the police as being racially biased towards members of the community.

1.2. Recommendations for policy bodies and police agencies

1. Education for police and the general public about what racial/religious profiling is and its effects on communities.

2. Introduction of stop and search receipting and data collection and reporting (Recommendation 61 of the Stephen Lawrence Inquiry 1999 – further information below.)

3. Anti-racism training within police agencies (not just cross cultural- training, which can lead to stereotyping and compound the problem).

4. Ongoing integrity testing of officers about attitudes to racial and religious minority groups.

5. De-escalation training for all police in responding to minority groups and young people who are attempting to assert their rights.

6. Introduction of a protocol limiting police interaction with youth and minority groups to situations where police have statutory/common law grounds to question a young person or where police contact is invited by the young person.

In particular we recommend the adoption of recommendation 61 of the Stephen Lawrence Inquiry which states as follows:

“That the Home Secretary, in Consultation with Police Service should ensure that a record is made by police officers of all “stops” and “stops and searches” made under any legislative provision (not just the Police and Criminal Evidence Act). Non-statutory or so-called “voluntary” stops must also be recorded. The record to include the reason for
the stop, the outcome, and the self-defined ethnicity of the person stopped. A copy of
the record shall be given to the person stopped.”¹

**Mandatory recording and receipting**

It is now mandatory under the *Police and Evidence Code A* (as amended on 1 January
2009) that police in the UK provide people they stop and search with a document
containing the following data:

1. Their name and station where they work.
2. The legal basis for the stop.
3. The person's rights.
4. The reason the person has been stopped and searched.
5. Why the police chose that person.
6. What the police were looking for.

The police also keep a record of the following data:

1. The officer's details.
2. The date, time and place of the stop.
3. The reason for the stop.
4. The self-defined ethnicity of the person.
5. Vehicle registration (if any).
6. What the officers were looking for and anything they found.
7. Name or description of the person stopped (if the person doesn't give their name).

(Source – Metropolitan Police – Stop and Search information)².

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2 [www.met.police.uk/stopandsearch/what_is.htm#paperwork](http://www.met.police.uk/stopandsearch/what_is.htm#paperwork).
2. Introduction: Why do the project?

This report is the product of a one-year research study exploring young people’s experiences with, and attitudes toward, the police in Melbourne’s inner west. The Flemington and Kensington Community Legal Centre (FKCLC) commissioned the study at a time of growing concern about young people being treated unfairly by the police in the Flemington and Kensington community. The FKCLC has worked closely with young people and their families who have reported frequent negative experiences with the police (Hopkins, 2007a; Hopkins, 2007b). On behalf of these young people and their families, the FKCLC has lodged a significant number of complaints with the Office of Police Integrity (OPI) about police behaviour in the Flemington region (Hopkins, 2007a; Hopkins, 2007b).

In many cases, young people have reported being stopped and searched by police without reason and with frequency, in addition to being subjected to excessive force in arrests, assault, harassment and threats of violence (Hopkins, 2007a; Hopkins, 2007b). As a result of these disturbances, young people have reported feeling unsafe walking in their neighbourhoods and that they are being unnecessarily criminalised for every day and lawful activity, such as congregating in groups at the bottom of a high rise or walking alone on the street at night time.

The suburbs of Flemington and Kensington are made up of a complexity of people from different cultural backgrounds. Newly arrived populations of migrants frequently settle to the areas of Flemington and Kensington where there are a high number of public housing estates, as well as access to services and public transport. The Flemington High Rise Housing Estate alone is home to about 4000 people, many of whom are refugees from the horn of Africa, including Ethiopia, Eritrea, Sudan, and Somalia. Many others are from countries such as Afghanistan, Turkey and Vietnam (Hopkins, 2007a: 1).

The majority of complaints made to the FKCLC of being treated unfairly by police have been reported by youth from ethnic backgrounds, particularly African youth who reside in these housing estates. For example, out of 60 complaints received during 2007 to 2009, 40 were made by youth of African descent. Complaints consisted of duty failures, police using excessive force, racial or religious harassment, discrimination, and false imprisonment or arrest.3

Underlying these complaints made by African youth in the Flemington and Kensington area is a pattern of over-policing. Over-policing can be defined as unfair targeting and harassment by police (Chan, 1997: 21), and has been identified as one of the biggest problems experienced by African youth across Victoria. In 2010, a report commissioned by the Springvale Monash Legal Service, Fitzroy Legal Service and the Western Suburbs Legal Service identified that almost all of the African young people who participated in the research, experienced over-policing in the regions of Braybrook, Flemington and the City of Greater Dandenong. African young people in their study reported being regularly stopped and questioned in public by police and asked for their name and address without police providing a reason. The authors of the study concluded that race was the underlying motivation behind African youths’ experiences of over-policing (Reside & Smith, 2010).

Prior to this, in 2006, Moonee Valley City Council Youth Services produced a report about the needs of young people living in Flemington, Kensington, North Melbourne and Ascot Vale. The report raised concerns about police harassment and discrimination against young people from CALD (Culturally and Linguistically Diverse) communities. Participants in the research consisted of young people of Afghani, Turkish, Chinese, Vietnamese and Greek descent. More than half of the participants were of African origin. Their findings showed that young people, particularly African young people, did not hang out in public spaces for fear of being hassled by the police (Duff, 2006).

These two reports combined with the seriousness of complaints being made to the FKCLC have prompted the FKCLC to undertake this project. As mentioned, there appears to be a negative relationship between ethnic groups of young people and the police in the areas identified by the Moonee Valley City Council Youth Services (see Duff, 2006). This is particularly true for African youth, whose relations with the police are more frequent and hostile (Reside & Smith, 2010).

As a result, the aim of this research is to contribute to these reports by increasing our knowledge and understanding of the relationship that young people have with the police. Young people from various ethnic backgrounds, aged 15-24 who live in Flemington and the surrounding areas, were targeted to complete an anonymous survey about their experiences with, and attitudes toward, the police. Of particular interest to this research is finding out if youth demographic factors, such as country of birth and gender, influence the frequency and nature of police contact. The problem of over-policing as documented by the Springvale Monash Legal Service, Fitzroy Legal Service and the Western Suburbs Legal Service (Reside & Smith, 2010), and the unfair treatment of African youth by police need to be statistically analysed to identify the scope of the problem. Accordingly, young people’s attitudes toward the police will also be explored to better understand these complexities.

Through research and analysis, a much clearer picture of what is happening in youth-police relationships can be established. The FKCLC hopes that the findings of this research will not only inform the community about police-youth relations but stimulate further discussion and debate.
3. Youth and police relationships

3.1 Youth and police intervention: Where and why does it happen?

The ‘street,’ defined as an open public space such as the footpath or a shopping centre, is where police-youth relationships most often begin (White, 1994: 103). The street is an important site for social activity and where young people are likely to congregate in groups (White, 1994: 103). Given their presence on the street, it is no surprise then that young people have more frequent contact with the police than their adult counterparts (Brunson & Weitzer, 2009a; Brick et al, 2009; Hurst et al, 2000; Hurst & Frank, 2000; Sharp & Atherton, 2007; Taylor et al, 2001; Brunson & Miller, 2006a; Brunson & Miller, 2006b; Fine et al, 2003).

The idea that the ‘street’ constitutes the most frequent form of police-youth contact is supported in Australian research conducted by the National Youth Affairs Research Scheme (NYARS). Findings from the research indicated that of the young people who participated in the research, the police had stopped 80 per cent, and of these all but 17 percent had been stopped on the street. It was also reported that 25 percent had been stopped while in a public building such as a train station, and 23 percent in a shopping centre (Alder et al, 1992: 21). The young people who participated in the NYARS study came from a wide range of economic and social backgrounds and were of both sexes (Alder et al, 1992).

It is clear from NYARS’ findings that there is a great deal of police intervention in young people's activities. Youth's visible presence in public spaces means that they are subject to frequent police surveillance and contact (Hurst et al, 2000; Brown et al, 2009), and the outcomes are often characterized by high rates of arrests, use of force during interactions, juvenile court involvement, and counterproductive imprisonment (Thurau, 2009: 30). These outcomes are particularly worrisome when one considers that young people are generally not arrested for extremely dangerous offences (Thurau, 2009: 30). A punitive approach appears to be the predominant response to policing youth but research suggests that specific groups of young people are more vulnerable to this kind of treatment because of their gender, class or ethnicity (White, 1994).

3.2 Ethnic minority youth and the police: A site of rights violations

Youth experiences with the police are fraught with difficulties and there is growing evidence that ethnic minority youth are more vulnerable to being treated unfairly by the police. For example, in the NYARS study, ‘the police were more likely to be heavy handed in their dealings with young men, Aboriginal youth and marginal youth’ compared with other youth (Alder et al, 1992: 20). These groups were also more likely than other youth to be stopped and spoken to by police, taken to a police station; strip-searched or asked to remove pieces of clothing, and to report being 'roughed up' (Alder et al, 1992: 20). Evidently, this pattern is also reported in the type of behaviours at the police station: boys, Aboriginal and marginal youth were more likely than other youth to report being yelled or sworn at, pushed around and hit by police (Alder et al, 1992: 20).

One explanation as to why ethnic minority youth more often report having negative experiences with the police is because they are more ‘visible’ and therefore perceived as being more of a threat to mainstream society (White, 1994: 122). For instance, in the NYARS report (Alder et al, 1992: 32), police described Aboriginal and Torres Straight Islander youth as being mostly more difficult to deal with than other groups of young people. Additionally, police frequently used the word 'gangs' to describe these encounters (Alder et al, 1992: 32). Chan (1997: 20-21) notes that the police in Australia have been known to form stereotypical opinions about the criminality of certain ethnic groups, and that this form of stereotyping and prejudice on the part of police officers can easily lead to harassment and community resentment.
In the US and UK, claims that the police form stereotypical opinions about the criminality of certain ethnic groups is supported by research showing the over representation of ethnic minorities in the justice system (Sharp & Atherton, 2007; Sharp, 2006; Brunson & Miller, 2006a; Brunson & Miller, 2006b). For example, research in the US has consistently shown that African-American and other ethnic minority youth groups are more likely than whites to be viewed with suspicion and stopped and questioned by police (Brunson & Miller, 2006a; Brunson & Miller, 2006b; Brunson, 2007; Hurst et al, 2000; Solis et al, 2009). The nature of the contact and the outcomes of these interactions are also likely to be more severe. Young minority males are more likely to experience verbal abuse, excessive force, and unwarranted street stops by police than white young men, young minority women and older minority men (Brunson & Weitzer, 2009a). In response to this kind of treatment, young ethnic minority males are less likely to file complaints against the police, and are more likely to engage in protective techniques like running away from police officers or resorting to verbal resistance (Brunson & Weitzer, 2009a: 241-2).

In the US, unfair targeting and harassment by police towards African-American young men in disadvantaged neighborhoods has been well documented (Brunson & Miller, 2006a; Brunson & Miller, 2006b; Weitzer & Tuch, 2006; Brunson & Weitzer, 2009a; Brunson & Weitzer, 2009b; Sharp & Atherton, 2007; Brunson, 2007, Fine et al, 2003). For example, a small qualitative study conducted by Brunson & Miller (2006a) in the US with African-American youth from disadvantaged neighborhoods, found that young African-American men, regardless of their criminal behaviour, were just as likely to be harassed or mistreated by the police when compared with young African-American offenders. Youth in their study described repeated instances of being verbally abused by officers and also protested against the physically invasive nature of police stops and searches (2006a: 235). The authors concluded that regardless of the participant’s involvement in criminal behaviour, young African-American men felt themselves to be tainted by suspicion because of their race, but also because of their presence in public spaces, their peer associations, the way they dressed and their previous contacts with the police (2006a: 636).

Similar experiences of African youth feeling targeted by the police because of their race have also been reported in the UK (Sharp, 2006). In 2004, interviews with a total of 47 youth of African descent living in Birmingham, London and Manchester were conducted to collect information about their experiences of policing in the community (Sharp, 2006). Overall, the findings demonstrated that youth of African descent felt themselves to be targeted by police as a result of prejudice and stereotypes characterizing them as potential sources of crime and anti-social behaviour (Sharp, 2006: 12). As a result, almost all of the African youth in the study reported a general lack of trust and confidence in the police force. Participants in the study also avoided having contact with the police at all costs because they firmly believed that the police had nothing to offer them or to their communities. Sharp (2006) concluded that the complete lack of faith held by African youth towards police carried serious ramifications. For instance, young people could choose not to report crime – even if it had an immediate impact on their own families - and would not voluntarily provide information to the police investigating even serious crime (2006: 13).

3.3 A local perspective: African youth and the police

In Australia, police discrimination has been well documented in relation to the treatment of indigenous Australians (for an overview see Chan, 1997). More recently, this attention has shifted towards other visible ethnic minority groups such as the African community (Reside & Smith, 2010; SEACC, 2008; Grossman & Sharples, 2010). Negative experiences with the police, as reported by the African community, are largely rooted in accounts of racially discriminatory over-policing, and documented in various regions located throughout Melbourne, Victoria. For example, in the City of Greater Dandenong, Sudanese youth have reported to the Southern Ethnic Advisory & Advocacy Council (SAECC) of being regularly stopped and questioned by police in public and told to move on by police without police citing a legitimate reason. Sudanese youth have also reported negative experiences of unwarranted use of police force and racist comments made by police (SAECC, 2008: 3).
Allegations of racial discrimination by Victoria Police members towards youth of African descent is often spoken about by youth of African descent but not widely reported (SEACC, 2008; Hopkins 2007a; Hopkins, 2007b). There have only been two reports of late which have specifically sought to research and document African youths’ experiences of policing in the areas relevant to this research project (see Duff, 2006; Reside & Smith, 2010). The first report conducted by Duff (2006) sought to identify whether young people in Flemington and the City of Moonee Valley felt connected with their community. A total of 93 young people aged 11 through to 20 were surveyed from various ethnic origins such as Afghanistan, Turkey, China, Vietnam, Greek and Africa.

The reports’ findings demonstrated that almost half of the young people who participated in the research did not feel safe living in their community. Particularly for African youth, the police were identified as one of the main reasons why they felt unsafe in their community, with majority reporting feeling harassed by police. The nature of this harassment was articulated in two ways; frequently being asked by police for their name and address and being told by police to move on without legitimate reason. One third of the sample also reported experiences of racism, assault and excessive use of force by police (Duff, 2006: 11). The findings from the Duff (2006) report highlight that youth, and especially African youth, in the Flemington and Moonee Valley area were discriminated by police through the restriction of their use of public spaces. As a result, the report gives a fresh perspective into the nature of police discrimination as experienced by African youth.

More recently, a report conducted by Reside & Smith (2010) sought to investigate experiences of policing with African youth only. The research adopted a qualitative framework, through the use of semi-structured in-depth interviews with 30 young people from African descent, aged 15-25, who lived in the regions of Braybrook, Flemington, and the City of Greater Dandenong. Through in-depth discussions with participants, the report’s findings identified that African youths’ experiences of policing were for the most part negative.

For example, African youth in their study expressed a predominantly hostile relationship with the police as a result of feeling targeted and harassed by police. Their experiences characterised discriminatory forms of over-policing such as restrictions on freedom of movement, harassment and unlawful threats and excessive use of force by police. African youth in their research were frequently stopped and questioned in public by police, sometimes several times a day; asked to move on; and asked for personal details such as their name and address without police providing a reason (Reside & Smith, 2010). Almost all of the African youth reported experiencing routine harassment and racism, with some experiencing violence by police. Fewer participants reported serious assaults requiring hospitalization and some were incarcerated in prison cells for short to longer periods of time. Of those incarcerated, charges typically involved police-related offences from resisting arrest to using obscene language, and assaulting police (2010: 7-8).

The authors concluded that over-policing was largely to blame for the hostile relationship between police and African youth in the areas of Flemington, Braybrook and the City of Greater Dandenong. To make matters worse this over-policing was, as the authors argued, racialised. Concomitantly, the use of public space added to the conflict between police and African youth. Many African youth in their research attempted to assert their legal rights during their encounters with police, only to experience an intensification of police aggression. As with White (1994), Reside & Smith (2010: 10) claimed that African youth were being perceived as a ‘threat’ only to be subjected to frequent exclusionary practices by the police.

The report also sought to examine African young peoples’ experiences of ‘community policing’ activities in the regions of Flemington, Braybrook and the City of Greater Dandenong. Community policing can be defined as a collaborative effort between the police and the community to help identify problems of crime and disorder and provide solutions for these problems (Chan, 1997). In the regions of Flemington, Braybrook and the
City of Greater Dandenong, community policing attempts have emerged as a form of intervention designed to improve the relationship between African young people and the police (Reside & Smith, 2010: 19). Usually, some examples of community policing initiatives involve police-youth camps, sports games, collaborative creative activities and joint dialogue/problem solving groups (Reside & Smith, 2010: 19).

With this in mind, the report found that community policing initiatives were seen as simultaneously contributing to African young people’s experiences of over-policing, due to the increased level of police presence and surveillance in African youths lives. Rather than fostering positive and cohesive relationships between African youth and the police, Reside & Smith (2010) argued that community policing initiatives were seen as just another approach by police to exercise their authority. For example, many of the African youth in their report who were involved in these programs ultimately found themselves exposed to increased coercive contact with police (2010: 25). These programs also acted as a way for police to gather intelligence, which if refused led to suspicion or police aggression (2010: 25). Accordingly, whilst many of the African youth in their study expressed a strong desire and commitment to these programs, these feelings eventually turned to frustration and distrust, largely because the young people felt these programs were being used by police to reinforce cultural differences (2010: 24).

Over-policing has been recognised as being a discriminatory form of policing (Chan, 1997: 22; Reside & Smith, 2010). Nonetheless, from a policy point of view, over-policing is seen as a necessary form of police patrol most apparent in neighborhoods with severe socio-economic disadvantage and high crime rates (Chan, 1997: 22). The police, who patrol these neighborhoods more frequently compared to other areas, perceive residents as untrustworthy. Therefore, tensions between the police and the general public are most apparent in these types of neighbourhoods, and the experiences residents have with the police are therefore more likely to be hostile (Brunson & Weitzer, 2009a: 236; Brunson & Miller, 2006a).

3.4 Ethnic youth and police attitudes: A ‘self-fulfilling prophecy’

Despite its policy reasoning, over-policing carries important ramifications through the shaping of negative police attitudes (Weitzer & Tuch, 2006). For example, research in the US and UK has found that ethnic minorities, in particular youth of African descent living in inner cities, were more critical of police and more hostile towards police than other ethnic groups regardless if they had previous contact with police (Hurst & Frank, 2000; Hurst et al 2005; Fine et al, 2003; Sharp & Atherton, 2007).

Particularly in the US, research has demonstrated that perceptions of police misconduct and unfair treatment are cultural and widespread amongst majority of African-American youth, and are likely to shape future relations with police (Hurst & Frank, 2000). Hurst & Frank (2000: 40) describe this as a ‘self-fulfilling prophecy’ whereby the police expect trouble from African-American youth, and in turn young African-American youth expect to be disrespected and harmed by the police. The overall outcome is more conflict between African-American youth and the police as a result of increased frequency of police contact.

Internationally, research has consistently shown racial differences in attitudes toward police (Taylor et al, 2001; Hurst et al, 2000; Brick et al, 2009; Leiber et al, 1998). Gender differences in attitudes toward police also exist with females rating the police more positively than males (Taylor et al 2001). Other demographic factors to do with city of residence have also been speculated to influence perceptions toward police but little research has sought to examine this (Taylor et al, 2001). Research in Australia is small in number and scope but suggests that some minorities are afraid of police and do not trust them (Chan, 1997; Duff, 2006).

In Australia, past research has demonstrated that youth generally hold strong negative opinions of the police. For example in the NYARS study, only 13% of youth held great respect for the police (Alder et al, 1992: 22). Furthermore, 58% of the young people indicated that they would first seek help from parents, relatives or friends if they got
attacked from a stranger (Alder et al, 1992: 23). Of more concern was the finding that 35% of participants would not report the attack to police (Alder et al, 1992: 23).

Research of late has also demonstrated that youth in Australia trust the police but are less likely to contact the police if they needed to. For example, a study conducted by Grossman & Sharples (2010) examined how youth aged 15-19 in the Brimbank area think about community safety, and about the ways in which police and young people interact on these issues. The study utilized a mixed method approach surveying 500 young people and engaging a further 58 young people in focus group discussions of whom roughly 47 were from Sudanese and Pacific Islander backgrounds. The findings suggest that although half of the youth in the research trusted the police and felt safer when they saw police on the streets, one fifth of young people still felt hesitant to contact the police if they or someone else was in danger for fear of negative consequences. The belief that the police won't respond in time to the call, will be ineffective in handling the situation, will not be interested in the problem, or won't take their call seriously were some of the reasons why youth were hesitant to contact police (Grossman & Sharples, 2010: 157). Both Sudanese and Pacific Islander youth particularly expressed these views.

For Sudanese young people and particularly Sudanese young men there was a strong belief that police in general are racially and culturally biased against people from Sudanese backgrounds, which results in the police being less responsive to their safety needs. Sudanese young men were especially untrustworthy of police with their lack of safety in the community often linked to a fear of being racially targeted on the basis of their skin colour and ethnicity as well as cultural stereotypes (Grossman & Sharples, 2010: 129). Negative experiences of policing as articulated by delays in police responding to calls for assistance or failing to respond to calls at all, being singled out for stop and search procedures and police unnecessarily cautioning or arresting Sudanese youth, were often linked to feelings of police discrimination which influenced a general lack of trust and confidence in police by Sudanese youth (2010: 139). For the Sudanese youth in the research, trust in police served to ultimately shape how they engaged with police, with most reporting a reluctance to contact police in their local area regarding crime and safety issues. This finding supports international research, which suggests that ethnic minority youth are hesitant to contact the police for fear of becoming targets of racially based discrimination (Sharp, 2006).

The idea that police are perceived as being racially biased against particular ethnic groups has been examined in recent Australian research conducted by Sivasubramaniam & Goodman-Dalehunty (2008). In the form of a survey with 1,296 ethnically diverse university students in New South Wales, the research focused on measuring demographic characteristics such as age, gender, race and socioeconomic status with perceived police bias and contact with the justice system. Participants in the research characterised as being Australian/Caucasian/Anglo (20.3%), Chinese (19%), Asian 6.9%), Indian (2.3%), Korean (2.2%), Vietnamese (1.8%), Greek (1.4%), Lebanese (1%), Sri Lankan (0.9%), Filipino/Hong Kong Chinese, Indonesian Chinese (0.6%), and Cantonese/Indonesian/Italian-Australian/Japanese/South American (0.5%).

Sivasubramaniam & Goodman-Dalehunty’s (2008) findings showed that regardless of race, gender, age and socioeconomic affluence, majority of the young people in the study agreed that police target particular ethnic groups of young people. Asian, Lebanese and Middle Eastern youth were identified as being the most frequently nominated by this sample as subject to police targeting (2008: 398). However, young people of Asian, Indian and Middle Eastern appearance considered police to be biased against them significantly more than those who described themselves as Australian or Caucasian (2008: 399). This finding was consistent with previous research regarding perceived police bias by ethnic minority youth (Hurst & Frank, 2000; Hurst et al, 2005; Fine et al, 2003; Sharp & Atherton, 2007).
3.5 Conclusion

Both international and local research suggests that race and gender play a significant role in shaping the nature and outcomes of police interactions with youth. The role that youths’ gender and race play in shaping the nature and outcomes of police interactions has been a predominantly negative one. Research in the UK and US has consistently demonstrated that ethnic minority young men are vulnerable to being treated unfairly by the police, with experiences characterised by verbal abuse, excessive force and unwarranted street stops. Race and gender have also been shown to shape attitudes toward police, with ethnic minority young men generally rating the police unfavourably, regardless of their experiences with the police.

Likewise, research in Australia suggests that refugee and migrant youth often feel targeted and ‘hassled’ by police due to racial, religious, ethnic and cultural stereotypes. Youth from the horn of Africa have been the focus of recent research. In Victoria, African youth experience discrimination by police through the restriction of their use of public spaces (Duff, 2006) and are likely to experience discriminatory forms of over-policing such as restrictions of freedom of movement, harassment, unlawful threats, excessive use of force, and unwarranted police stopping and questioning (Reside & Smith, 2010). Accordingly, youths’ attitudes toward police have also been explored despite this focus being limited in Australia. Nonetheless, local research reveals a similar pattern to that identified by international studies involving ethnic minorities and the police- that ethnic minorities are hesitant to contact the police for fear of becoming targets of racially based discrimination (Grossman & Sharples, 2010). Interestingly however, perceptions that the police target particular ethnic groups of young people are quite widespread amongst youth regardless of their race, gender and socioeconomic status (Sivasubramaniam & Goodman-Dalehunty, 2008).

Research in Australia involving ethnic minority youth and the police is small in number and scope. It also tends to be qualitative, which provides a unique opportunity to explore the meanings involved, but limits any further exploration that a large-scale study can provide. For this reason, the present study will attempt to build on and expand previous research findings about ethnic youth and the police by incorporating a quantitative method. Ultimately, a quantitative method will not only increase our understanding of the relationship that ethnic youth have with the police but also reveal new patterns and differences.
4. Methodology

The main focus of this research is to explore the role that young people’s country of birth plays in influencing their experiences with the police. Differences according to gender will also be incorporated in this analysis. Finally, a statistical analysis will be carried out to explore if attitudes toward police varies across country of birth, gender and experiences with police.

4.1 Research Design

This study incorporated a quantitative approach to collect and analyse data. The study was conducted in the form of an anonymous survey, administered in paper. A quantitative approach was considered to be the most suitable method as it was considered to complement previous qualitative data exploring young people’s experiences of policing in Melbourne (see Duff, 2006; Reside & Smith, 2010). Conducting a survey is particularly useful as it can highlight general trends and attitudes through statistical analysis. Paper surveys are also a reliable tool for collecting large amounts of data. Furthermore, surveys are less time consuming than in person interviews and phone surveys, and the easiest to complete as well as the least expensive (Maxfield & Babble, 2006). In the absence of police statistics, surveys of this nature are also the only way to obtain information on who is being stopped and searched.

The survey collected demographic information, and measured attitudes toward police and contact with the police. Demographic characteristics such as gender, age, race/ethnicity, length of residence in Australia, religion, language mostly spoken at home, suburb and housing situation were collected. The attitude section of the survey measured factors like the amount of trust participants had in police, and what general impressions the participants held about police officers. Additionally, the survey measured the likelihood of making a formal complaint if treated unfairly by police. Contact with police was measured according to participants’ self-reported contact with police during the 12-month period prior to the study. For a full copy of the survey please see Appendix A.

4.2 Participants

Young people aged 15-24, who live in the Flemington community or surrounding areas were approached to fill out the survey. Surveys were distributed to the year 10 students at various government schools, with the exception of one school in which the year 11 and 12 students were also approached. The secondary schools were located in the areas of Flemington, Brunswick, Princess Hill, and Maribyrnong. Young people undertaking Tafe and University courses were also approached to participate in the research. These young people consisted of first, second and third year students undertaking Youth Studies at Victoria University in Footscray. Students completing the ESL program at Victoria University in Footscray were also approached to complete the survey. Additionally, Tafe Students in the YAMEC (Young Adult Migrant Education Course) at NMIT in Collingwood and Preston were also approached to complete the survey.

Furthermore, efforts were made to include the views of young people not engaged in mainstream schooling. These young people were targeted at local train stations and shops located in Flemington and North Melbourne. Data was also collected through various community centres. These community centres and programs were located in North Melbourne, Footscray, Maidstone and Braybrook.

A total of 151 young people provided survey responses. Of these, 47.7% (n72) were female, and 52.3% (n79) were male. The mean age of the total sample was 19.13 years with ages ranging from 15-24 (graph 4.2.1).
Participants in this research were a culturally and linguistically diverse group of young people. Of these, 43% (n=65) were born in Africa, 37.7% (n=57) were born in Australia, 13.9% (n=21) were born in Asia, 2.6% (n=4) were born in the Middle East, 1.3% (n=2) were born in Europe and 1.3% (n=2) were identified as ‘other’ (graph 4.2.2):

Country of birth was divided into 6 categories: (1) Australia (2) Asia (3) Middle East (4) Africa (5) Europe (6) Other. Participants were assigned to one of these categories by the researcher based on the country of birth that they provided in response to the question about what country they were born in. These are as follows: (1) Australia (2) Asia: China, Burma, Vietnam, Indonesia, Korea, India, Pakistan (3) Middle East: Turkey, Iraq, Lebanon, Afghanistan (4) Africa: Sudan, Somalia, Eritrea, Ethiopia, The Congo (5) Europe: England, Greece, Bosnia, Malta, Italy, and (6) Other: New Zealand.

Males born in Africa dominated the sample (45.6%, n=36), followed by 31.6% (n=25) for those born in Australia, 15.2% (n=12) in Asia, 3.8% (n=3) in the Middle East, 2.5% (n=2) in Europe and 1.3% (n=1) in other.

Females born in Australia dominated the sample (44.4%, n=32), followed by 40.3% (n=29) for Africa, 12.5% (n=9) for Asia, 1.4% (n=1) for the Middle East, and 1.4% (n=1) for other.

The majority (60.3%, n=91) of participants spoke a language other than English at home. Out of the remaining participants, 38.4% (n=58) spoke English at home and 1.3% (n=2) of participants did not reply.
For participants who were not born in Australia, the average amount of time spent living in Australia was 6.25 years.

Religion also played an important role amongst the sample. The majority of participants (47%, n=71) identified with Christianity, whilst 26.5% (n=40) identified with Islam. The rest of the sample identified themselves with Buddhism (4.6%, n=7), other religion (4.6%, n=7) or as having no religion (15.2%, n=23). Participants who refused to answer this question consisted of 1.3% (n=2) whilst 0.7% (n=1) did not reply (graph 4.2.3):

The majority of participants in this sample lived in four areas: Flemington (11.3%, n=17), Braybrook (9.3%, n=14), North Melbourne (9.3%, n=14), and Collingwood (7.9%, n=12). The remaining participants lived in surrounding areas (Graph 4.2.4). Young people who did not live in Flemington or the surrounding areas were also included in the final analysis if they had formal contact with the police in the research focus areas in the past 12 months.
Data was also collected on the type of housing that participants lived in. The majority of participants in this sample lived in government housing (39.1%, n=59), with the remaining participants living in more or less private rental (28.5%, n=43) or a home owned by family or guardians (29.1%, n=44). The remaining participants reported 'other' for homeless or couch surfing (graph 4.2.5):

A comparison between participant country of birth and type of house dwelling revealed that 72.9% (n=43) of participants who lived in government housing were of African descent. Participants in the sample who were Australian-born were most likely to be living in a home owned by family or guardians (70.5%, n=31) (graph 4.2.6).

A total of 755 surveys were distributed to students at various government secondary schools located in and around Flemington. This total also includes surveys that were distributed to students at Victoria University and NMIT, and to young people located at various community organizations and programs in the areas of research focus. Clients of the Flemington and Kensington Community Legal Centre (FKCLC) were not surveyed for the purposes of this research.
A total of 205 surveys were completed however 54 of these surveys (26.3%) were not included in the final analysis. Pre-selected criteria such as age and suburb were crucial information given the focus of this research. Participants whom were aged 25 and over and did not live in the research focus areas, or did not have contact with police in the research focus areas were screened out before the final analysis. Screening participants for these factors therefore affected the survey response rate, which was 27.25%. Other factors to do with obtaining written parental consent for under age participants and incomplete surveys, also affected the survey response rate.

4.3 Procedure

This study was conducted in the form of an anonymous survey, administered in paper form to young people undertaking secondary education, tafe and higher education. Young people not engaged in mainstream schooling were also targeted to complete the survey at various community organisations and also at train stations and local shops. To limit bias, coeducational secondary schools in and around Flemington were randomly targeted. Victoria University and NMIT are also co-educational. Data were collected over a four-month period from February 2010 until June 2010.

Prior to distributing the survey to the target population, a pilot survey was conducted with a total of 74 young people aged 15-18, to ensure clarity of the survey questions. The pilot survey was conducted at a non-government school with the researcher and school principal present. Completion of the pilot resulted in significant revisions of survey questions and the addition of new questions. Pilot testing indicated that the survey required 10-15 minutes for completion. The final survey can be found in Appendix A.

Participants completed the final revised survey in two ways: as a take home instrument to be sent back in prepaid envelopes, or filled out during class time with teachers and the researcher present. Participants who were interested in being a part of the research were firstly briefed on the project and then asked to fill out a consent form and those under the age of eighteen were further required to obtain parental consent.

Written consent was also obtained from the principals of the secondary schools prior to research commencing. Conducting the survey with students at Victoria University and NMIT tafe also required initially contacting coordinators and teachers for permission. This process also applied with the program coordinators at the community organisations. When approaching young people at train stations and local shops, effort was made to screen out participants who were under the age of 18, if parents were not physically available to give consent. The researcher was then able to carefully explain the research to those who were mature enough (aged 18+) to understand the risks. Once participants signed the consent forms, the survey could be completed. The majority of surveys were completed in person with teachers, coordinators and the researcher present.

4.4 Materials - Survey

The survey consisted of mostly close-ended questions, however some questions were open-ended so that if necessary participants could elaborate on their responses. The survey was divided into three sections: demographic characteristics, attitudes toward police and contact with police.

Regarding demographic characteristics, participants were required to provide close-ended responses about their sex, religion and current housing situation. Participants also provided open-ended answers in relation to their age, what country they were born in, how many years they have lived in Australia (if not born in Australia), mother's country of birth, father's country of birth and the suburb they currently lived in.

Participants were measured on their attitudes toward police by answering questions on a five point Likert scale. Positive and negative choices were provided in addition to a middle score so that participants were not forced to either agree or disagree about the statement. Pilot testing and subsequent discussion with pilot participants justified this decision, as some of the statements were judged too difficult to either agree or disagree with. The five
point Likert questions focused on asking participants to rate their level of agreement about their attitudes toward the police. Other statements in this section sought to explore participants’ feelings of vulnerability to police encounters. For the remaining attitudes section, participants choose a response that closely described their knowledge of a particular issue such as the knowledge of their rights with police.

In the final section, participants were asked to report ‘yes’ or ‘no’ if they had contact with the police in the last 12 months. Those that answered ‘yes’ were required to continue on with questions about the frequency of their contact with police. The rest of the survey sought to explore in more detail the most recent encounter the participant had with the police. Questions therefore focused on gathering details to do with the suburb in which the contact took place, where the contact took place (i.e. on the street), whether the participant was stopped and approached by police, whether the police gave the participant a reason for being stopped, the outcomes of the police contact (i.e. if they were charged, arrested etc) and if the participant thought the police behaviour directed to them was reasonable.

Those that did not have contact with the police in the last 12 months were directed to an open-ended question at the end of the survey, that asked them to provide any additional comments about their experiences with and attitudes toward the police.

The survey also incorporated open-ended questions to gain a deeper understanding of how participants felt about their encounters with police and if relevant, why they thought they were stopped by the police (i.e. because of their race or religion). Open-ended responses were qualitatively analysed and coded into either 3 or 4 categories for statistical analysis. For example, in the survey participants were asked to describe how they felt as a result of their police contact. The researcher then interpreted and coded these responses into 4 categories; positive, negative, indifferent or no reply.

4.5 Data analysis & Research questions

The overall aim of this study is to explore young people’s experiences with, and attitudes toward, the police in the Flemington community and surrounding areas. Of particular interest to this research is examining the role that country of birth and gender play in influencing young people’s experiences with the police. Young people’s attitudes toward the police will also be explored to find out how young people see the police in their community, and if these attitudes vary according to country of birth and gender. Quantitative statistical analysis was employed to address the following research questions:

1. Does participant country of birth influence the frequency of police contact in the Flemington community and surrounding areas?

2. Does participant gender influence the frequency of police contact in the Flemington community and surrounding areas?

3. Does participant country of birth influence the nature of police contact in the Flemington community and surrounding areas?

4. Does participant gender influence the nature of police contact in the Flemington community and surrounding areas?

5. Do young people’s attitudes toward the police in the Flemington community and surrounding areas vary according to their country of birth?

6. Do young people’s attitudes toward the police in the Flemington community and surrounding areas vary according to their gender?

7. Do young people’s attitudes toward the police in the Flemington community and surrounding areas vary according to their experiences with police?

Survey responses were coded and analysed using SPSS. Correlations were run between major demographic categories (gender and country of birth) and police contact/attitudes.
4.6 Ethical Considerations

Some of the topics discussed in this research might have been personal, mainly in relation to negative experiences with the police. Youth in this research were advised about the aims of the research and topics being discussed so that they were able to make an informed decision to participate in the study. The project information sheet was distributed to each of the young people (see Appendix B) and referral to counselling was offered in the event of any discomfort. The participants were assured of the anonymity of their responses, and were free to not answer any question.

Confidentiality and informed consent were taken seriously. Prior to commencement of surveys, participants were required to sign the informed consent form, which was then stored in a secure and private location (see Appendix C). Surveys were also anonymous to ensure confidentiality.
5. Findings

5.1 Youth and police contact

Overall, a frequency count showed that 57.6% (n87) of young people compared with 41.7% (n63) in this sample had contact with the police in the last 12 months (one person did not answer this question). Of these, 59.5% (n47) of males answered 'yes' to having contact with the police in the last 12 months compared with 56.3% (n40) of females (graph 5.1.1):

Of the young people that did have contact with the police in the last 12 months, 17.9% (n27) reported that they had less than three contacts with the police, followed by 15.2% (n23) for one only, and 13.9% (n21) for three-five contacts. Furthermore, a Spearman's rho correlation revealed that there was a small but significant relationship between gender and the number of police contacts in the last 12 months (r=.254*, n=151) (correlation is significant at the 0.05 level). For example, graph 5.1.2 shows that 11% (n5) of males reported numerous (more than 10) contacts with the police in last 12 months compared with only 2.5% (n1) for females:
The frequency of police contact was also measured with 21.2% (n32) of participants reporting that contact with police occurred within the past 30 days, followed by 14.6% (n22) who identified that it happened more than 30 days ago but less than 3 months ago, and 13.2% (n20) who reported for the contact occurring more than 3 months ago but less than 6 months ago. The least amount of participants, 7.9% (n12), reported that their last contact with police occurred more than 6 months ago but less than a year ago.

A Spearman’s rho correlation revealed that that there was a small but significant relationship between gender and recentness of police contact (r=.226*, n=151) (correlation is significant at the 0.05 level). For instance, 44.7% (n21) of males reported having contact with the police within the past 30 days compared to only 28.2% (n11) of females (graph 5.1.3):
A frequency count showed that young people’s contact with police are most likely to take place on the street (24.5%, n37) (see graph 5.1.4) and in the following suburbs: Central Business District (8.6%, n13), North Melbourne (5.3%, n8), Braybrook (4.6%, n7), Footscray (4.6%, n7), Flemington (4.6%, n7) and 7.3% (n11) of participant’s did not remember in which suburb the contact took place. ‘Other’ responses in graph 5.1.4 included ‘at a friends place,’ ‘at a party’ or ‘in the city.’

![Graph 5.1.4: Number of young people who reported the place where police contact took place](image)

In this sample, participants who reported ‘yes’ to having police contact in the last 12 months were from Australia (43.7%, n38), Africa (41.4%, n36), Asia (10.3%, n9), Middle East (1.1%, n1), Europe (1.1%, n1) and other (2.3%, n2). From this sample, African-born and Australian-born participants represented the two most likely groups to have contact with the police in the last 12 months (graph 5.1.5).

![Graph 5.1.5: Number of specific groups (country of birth) of young people who reported having contact with police in the last 12 months](image)

When comparing participant country of birth and gender with police contact, a cross-tabulation revealed that 65.6% (n21) of Australian-born females reported having contact with the police in the last 12 months compared with 53.6% (n15) of their African-born counterparts. Likewise, 68% (n17) of Australian-born males reported having contact with the police in the last 12 months compared with 58.3% (n21) of their African-born counterparts (table 5.1.6):
Even though Australian-born youth were slightly more likely than African-born youth to have contact with the police in the last 12 months, the timing of this contact varied across the two groups. Youth born in Africa were more likely to experience contact with the police within the past 30 days compared with their Australian-born counterparts (51.4% n18 compared with 34.2%, n13).

A cross-tabulation comparing participant country of birth and gender with the timing of police contact, showed that 66.6% (n14) of young men of African descent reported being stopped by the police within the past 30 days compared with only 35.3% (n6) of their Australian-born counterparts. For young women of Australian descent, 33.3% (n7) reported being stopped by the police within the past 30 days compared with 28.6% (n4) for their African-born counterparts (table 5.1.7):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of birth</th>
<th>Australia</th>
<th>Asia</th>
<th>Middle East</th>
<th>Africa</th>
<th>Europe</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male Yes</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Yes</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.1.7: Comparison between participant country of birth, gender and frequency of police contact
A cross-tabulation comparing participant country of birth with suburb where police contact took place revealed that Braybrook, Flemington and North Melbourne were the three common areas where this police contact took place for youth of African descent. The CBD represented the most common suburb of police contact for youth of Australian descent (see table 5.1.8):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thinking about your last contact with the police, did it take place in the suburb where you live?</th>
<th>Country of birth</th>
<th>Australia</th>
<th>Asia</th>
<th>Middle East</th>
<th>Africa</th>
<th>Europe</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Melbourne</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Footscray</td>
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<td>7</td>
</tr>
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<td>Carlton</td>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
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<td>Essendon</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East</td>
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<tr>
<td>Box Hill</td>
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<td>Fitzroy</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>Avenale Heights</td>
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<td>Kensington</td>
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<td>Spotswood</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Don't know/Can't remember</td>
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<td>Collingwood</td>
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<tr>
<td>Richmond</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.2 Types of police contact

Of the young people who did have contact with the police in the last 12 months, 39.7% (n60) reported being stopped and approached by the police compared with 17.2% (n26) who reported that they approached the police themselves. For young men, 80.9% (n38) reported being stopped by the police compared with only 56.4% (n22) for young women (graph 5.2.1):

A frequency count revealed that 25.8% (n39) of participants reported being with family or friends on the most recent occasion they were stopped by the police, compared with 13.9% (n21) who reported being alone. Of these, 48.9% (n23) of young men were with friends or family compared with 41% (n16) of young women.

African-born and Australian-born youth were the two most common groups out of all to be stopped and approached by police in the last 12 months. For African-born youth, 74.3% (n26) reported being stopped by police compared with 65.8% (n25) of Australian-born youth (table 5.2.2):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of birth</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Australia</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
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<td>Asia</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Middle East</td>
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<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>26</td>
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<td>35</td>
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<td>Europe</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>60</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Overall, 31.1% (n47) of youth in this sample reported being asked for their name and address during their most recent contact with the police, compared with 25.2% (n38) who were not asked to give their details. Again, 35.4% (n28) of males reported being asked for their name and address compared with 26.4% (n19) of females. Other types of police behaviour experienced by the youth in this study such as searching, arresting and the use of force were much less common. However, when these types of police contact were compared with country of birth and gender, some discrepancies were revealed.

For example, as a result of their most recent contact with police, young men of African descent were more likely than Australian-born males to receive a summons or infringement, experience verbal insults, experience physical force by police, have police threaten to use physical force, and to be charged. Table 5.2.3 shows that no Australian-born males reported receiving a summons or infringement but almost 20% (n4) of the African-born males did.

Interestingly, receiving a summons or infringement from police was also experienced by 9.5% (n2) of Australian-born females compared with zero for Australian-born males and African-born females (table 5.2.3):

| Table 5.2.3: Comparison between participant country of birth, gender and receiving a summons or infringement from police |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Country of birth | | | | | |
| | Australia | Asia | Middle East | Africa | Europe | Other | Total |
| Male Did the police officer(s) ask you a summons or infringement? | Yes | 0 | 1 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 5 |
| | No | 17 | 5 | 1 | 17 | 1 | 14 |
| Total | 17 | 6 | 1 | 17 | 1 | 1 | 42 |
| Female Did the police officer(s) ask you a summons or infringement? | Yes | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 3 |
| | No | 19 | 3 | 13 | 0 | 0 | 35 |
| Total | 21 | 3 | 13 | 1 | 1 | 38 |

Young boys of African descent were also slightly more likely to experience verbal insults from the police when compared with young men of Australian descent (23.8%, n5 compared to 11.8%, n2). Also, 15.4% (n2) of young women of African descent reported experiencing verbal insults compared with 14.3% (n3) for their Australian-born counterparts (table 5.2.4):

| Table 5.2.4: Comparison between participant country of birth, gender and experiencing insulting comments from police |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Country of birth | | | | | |
| | Australia | Asia | Middle East | Africa | Europe | Other | Total |
| Male Did the police officer(s) make insulting comments to you? | Yes | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 7 |
| | No | 15 | 6 | 1 | 16 | 1 | 1 | 40 |
| Total | 17 | 6 | 1 | 17 | 1 | 1 | 47 |
| Female Did the police officer(s) make insulting comments to you? | Yes | 3 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| | No | 18 | 3 | 11 | 1 | 1 | 33 |
| Total | 21 | 3 | 13 | 1 | 1 | 38 |

Young men of African descent were also slightly more likely to experience threats of force by police officer(s) compared with young men of Australian descent (23.8%, n5 compared to 11.8%, n2). For young women of Australian and African descent, there were no major differences for threats of force by police officer(s) (table 5.2.5):
Again, young men of African descent were slightly more likely to experience physical force by police officer(s) compared with young men of Australian descent (23.8%, n5 compared to 11.8%, n2). Yet again, there were no major differences for young women of Australian and African descent for physical force by police officer(s) (table 5.2.6):

A Spearman’s rho correlation revealed that there was a small but significant relationship between participant country of birth and being charged by police (r= -0.235*, n=151) (correlation is significant at the 0.05 level). For example, table 5.2.7 shows that no Australian-born males were charged by the police for minor offences but almost 15% (n3) of African born males were. Minor charges included being drunk in public, possession of alcohol in public, and driving with a faded car brake light. Young men of African descent were also slightly more likely than their Australian-born counterparts to report being charged for other (unspecified) offences (14.3%, n3 compared to 5.9%, n1):
In addition to these findings, 42.8% (n15) of African-born youth reported not receiving a reason from the police for being stopped compared with only 26.3% (n10) of Australian-born youth. In contrast, Australian-born youth were slightly more likely than African-born participants to get a reason from the police for being stopped (39.5%, n15 compared with 31.4%, n11) (graph 5.2.8):

For those who did receive a reason from police for being stopped, Australian-born males were slightly more likely to report this reason as fair compared with their African-born counterparts (11.8%, n2 compared with 4.8%, n1). Similarly, 28.6% (n6) of Australian-born females reported this reason to be fair compared with 21.4% (n3) for their African-born counterparts (table 5.2.9).

In contrast, African-born males were slightly more likely than their Australian-born counterparts to report that they did not feel the reason to be fair (23.8%, n5 compared to 11.8%, n2) (table 5.2.9):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of birth</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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</tr>
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<td>Asia</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
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<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
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<tr>
<td>Middle East</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
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<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.3 Young peoples’ satisfaction with outcomes of police contact

Overall, 26.5% (n40) of young people reported that the behaviour they received from the police as a result of their most recent contact was reasonable compared with 23.8% (n36) who reported that it was unreasonable. 6.6% (n10) reported that they did not know. A frequency count revealed that 59% (n23) of young women reported the police behaviour as reasonable compared with 36% (n17) for young men. Instead, 47% (n22) of young men reported the behaviour as unreasonable compared with only 36% (n14) for young women.

When comparing these findings according to country of birth and gender, young men of African descent reported that they were slightly more likely to find the police behaviour unreasonable when compared with young men of Australian descent (52.4%, n11 compared to 47%, n8). For young women of Australian descent, 66.7% (n14) reported the police behaviour as unreasonable when compared with young men of Australian descent (52.4%, n11 compared to 47%, n8).

Participants were asked open-ended questions regarding how the behaviour of the police made them feel. In response to this, a greater number of participants (24.5% n37) reported a negative impact when compared with 17.9% (n27) who reported a positive impact. Almost half of the participants did not answer this question. Of these, 27.8% (n22) of young men had more negative things to say compared with 20.8% (n15) of young women. Some examples of the negative responses that participants described included feeling “scared,” “not important,” “angry,” “belittled,” “upset, nervous and frustrated,” “small and dumb,” “uncomfortable and mistreated,” “intimidated and paranoid,” and “targeted.” Other responses included “they made me feel like a fool in someone else’s country,” “I hate them more,” “I felt like a kid... I felt like they abused their power,” “like I was beneath them— that I wasn’t important, that I am a liar,” “like an idiot – they were rude and forceful as well as threatening,” “like they were superior and unfair,” “angry/frustrated but not surprised,” and “vulnerable and inhuman, not listened to and not heard.”

A few participants also frequently reported feeling ‘safe’ in the presence of police. Other positive responses included “they [police] made me feel better about the situation I was in,” “it made me feel better because I was provided with advice and told what to do next,” and “[the police] made me feel good because they [police] made me feel comfortable.”

A cross-tabulation comparing participant country of birth with impact of police behaviour revealed that 61.9% (n13) of young men of African descent reported a negative impact as a result of the police behaviour they experienced, in contrast with 41.7% (n7) of young men of Australian descent. Young women of African descent also reported a slightly negative impact when compared with their Australian-born counterparts (45.5%, n5, compared to 38.1%, n8). However, 42.8% (n9) of young women of Australian descent reported a positive impact when compared with only 14.3% (n3) of young women of African descent (table 5.3.2):
Once again, the responses that young men of African descent described included feeling “scared,” “angry,” “unfair,” “targeted,” “small and dumb,” and “cruelly treated.” Other responses included, “I hate them more,” “very upset, nervous and frustrated...I have lost all respect for Victoria police, “they act like they will assault you even before they get out of the car,” and “surprised because they came out of nowhere.”

In general, there were mixed feelings regarding how participants felt about the outcomes of their contact with police. 11.3% (n=17) of participants reported feeling very unhappy, followed by 10.6% (n=16) who reported that they were somewhat unhappy, 9.3% (n=14) who were somewhat happy, 7.9% (n=12) who were extremely unhappy, 7.9% (n=12) who were neither happy nor happy, 5.3% (n=8) who were very happy and 4.6% (n=7) who were extremely happy. Of these, young men were generally the least happy about their outcomes with their police contact when compared with young women in this sample (graph 5.3.3):

A cross-tabulation comparing participant country of birth and gender with level of happiness with police contact revealed that young men and women of African descent were generally less likely than young men and women of Australian descent to be happy with the outcomes of their police contact (table 5.3.4):
The reasons for this level of unhappiness may be in connection with reports of African youth feeling stopped and approached by the police because of their race or religion. A Spearman’s rho correlation revealed that there was a significant relationship between participant country of birth and the likelihood that participants felt they were stopped by the police because of their racial or religious background ($r = -0.285^*, n=151$) (Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level). Young people of African descent felt a very strong association between their race and the police encounter as graph 5.3.5 shows:

Table 5.3.6 demonstrates that this association was particularly dominant for African-born males, when compared with their Australian-born counterparts (47.6%, n10 compared to 11.7%, n2). As a result of their most recent contact with police, almost half of the African-born young men (47.6%, n10) who answered this question felt that they were stopped by the police because of their race.
Police targeting based on racial characteristics was the strongest theme to come out of qualitative accounts described by young men of African descent in reference to their most recent encounter with police. Responses included, “because I’m Congolese black African,” “I am coloured skin – nothing more to say,” “because they see a big group of black people.” Other detailed responses included “they [police] come to black people every time something happens,” “...there was another person walking on the other side of the street and they didn’t even bother asking him anything,” and “I was inside my friends car peacefully eating while there was a group of drunk underage teens drinking outside and they randomly ask for my details and then arrested and searched me while the drunk teenagers [were] having a food fight.”

African-born participants were also slightly more likely than Australian-born participants to leave negative comments about their general feelings about the police. It is important to note that majority of these comments were left by African youth who reported having no contact with the police in the last 12 months. Open ended comments included, “stop picking on the black people,” “they [police] should get a better job and stop being racist,” “stop bullying and harassing,” and “there are a couple of good cops most are dogs [and] power trippers.” More detailed responses consisted of; “...I don’t want to call Footscray police because I know they won’t help me, they will come to my house and not listen to my problem.” “police are sometimes unfair towards people they can be so racist sometimes. Police threaten young people like animals,” “police is racist to African people. They see Africans like we’re nothing. Africans get sworn at by police- this is my experience [and] that of my community.”
5.4 Young people’s attitudes toward police

Overall, a frequency count revealed that 29.2% (n44) of young people in this study reported that they had some level of trust in police, followed by 23.2% (n35) who reported quite a lot of trust in police, 17.9% (n27) who reported a great deal, 16.6% (n25) who reported very little and 12.6% (n19) who reported none at all (graph 5.4.1).

When comparing trust in police by gender, 25.3% (n20) of males reported that they had some level of trust with the police. This was followed by 20.3% (n16) who reported that they had quite a lot of trust, 20.3% (n16) who reported very little, 19% (n15) who reported a great deal and 15.2% (n12) who reported not at all.

Likewise, 33.8% (n24) of females reported that they had some level of trust in the police, followed by 26.8% (n19) who reported quite a lot, 16.9% (n12) who reported a great deal, 12.7% (n9) who reported very little and 9.9% (n7) who reported not at all (graph 5.4.2):
Furthermore, a Spearman’s rho correlation revealed that there was a small but significant relationship between participant country of birth and trust in police \((r = .199^*, n=151)\) (Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level). Graph 5.4.3 shows that 35.7\% \((n=20)\) of youth who were born in Australia reported quite a lot of trust in the police. However, youth born in Africa were less likely to hold favorable attitudes. For example, 30.8\% \((n=20)\) of youth born in Africa reported some level of trust in the police, followed by 21.5\% \((n=14)\) who reported no level of trust in the police:

Graph 5.4.3: Number of specific groups (country of birth) of young people who reported their level of trust in police

Again, young men of African descent compared with other ethnic groups and gender were more likely to report very little (22.2\%, \(n=8\)) and no level of trust (22.2\%, \(n=8\)) in the police. Whilst, other ethnic groups were more likely to report quite a lot of trust in the police or some level of trust, with no significant differences according to male and female responses.

A large majority of youth in this sample also indicated that they could hang out with their friends without worrying about being stopped by the police. Of these, 24.5\% \((n=37)\) reported that they always felt this way, followed by 24.5\% \((n=37)\) who mostly felt this way, 24.5\% \((n=37)\) who sometimes felt this way, 15.2\% \((n=23)\) who did not feel this way at all, and 9.3\% \((n=14)\) who rarely felt this way.

Graph 5.4.4 shows that 31\% \((n=22)\) of females always felt they could hang out with their friends without worrying about being stopped by the police compared with only 19\% \((n=15)\) of males. On the other hand, 27\% \((n=21)\) of young men reported sometimes feeling as though they could hang out with their friends without worrying about being stopped by the police compared with 23\% \((n=16)\) of young women.
Furthermore, a Spearman's rho correlation revealed that there was a significant relationship between participant country of birth and the degree to which participants felt they could hang out with their friends without worrying about being stopped by police ($r = .354^{**}$, $n=151$) (Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level). Graph 5.4.5 shows that the majority (37.5%, $n=21$) of participants born in Australia reported always feeling they could hang out with their friends without worrying about being stopped by the police, compared with only 12.7% ($n=8$) of participants born in Africa. The majority of participants born in Asia also reported always feeling they could hang out with their friends without worrying about being stopped by the police.

Only one (1.7%) participant born in Australia reported ‘not at all’ for this statement, whereas the majority of young people born in Africa reported that they sometimes (31.7% $n=20$) felt they could hang out with their friends without worrying about being stopped by the police, followed by 27% ($n=17$) who reported ‘not at all.’ Likewise, 24% ($n=5$) of participants born in Asia also reported not at all for this statement (graph 5.4.5):
When incorporating gender into this analysis, a cross-tabulation revealed that 36% (n=9) of young men born in Australia, compared with only 5.7% (n=2) of their African-born counterparts, reported 'always' feeling as though they could hang out with their friends without worrying about being stopped by the police. Instead, almost 26% (n=9) of young men born in Africa reported 'not at all' for this statement compared with zero for Australian-born males. In other words, 26% of young men born in Africa, compared with zero for their Australian-born counterparts, reported always feeling worried about being stopped by the police when congregating with friend(s) (table 5.4.6).

Likewise, 28.6% (n=8) of young women born in Africa were also likely to report 'not at all' for this statement compared with only 3.2% (n=1) of their Australian-born counterparts. Similar to the above findings, the majority of Australian-born females reported 'always' feeling that they could hang out with their friends without worrying about being stopped by the police (38.7%, n=12) (table 5.4.6):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of birth</th>
<th>Australia</th>
<th>Asia</th>
<th>Middle East</th>
<th>Africa</th>
<th>Europe</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male Do you feel like you can hang out with your friend(s) without worrying about being stopped by the police?</td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mostly</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Do you feel like you can hang out with your friend(s) without worrying about being stopped by the police?</td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mostly</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A frequency count revealed that almost half (43.7%, n=66) of participants in this study reported 'always' feeling that they could walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by the police. This was followed by 18.3% (n=28) who reported 'sometimes,' 15.2% (n=23) who reported 'mostly,' 14.6% (n=22) who reported 'not at all,' and 6.6% (n=10) who reported that they 'rarely' felt they could walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by police (graph 5.4.7). Of these, 49.3% (n=35) of females never felt worried about being stopped by police when walking alone down the street compared with 39.7% (n=31) of their counterparts.
A Spearman's rho correlation revealed that there was a significant relationship between country of birth and the degree to which participants felt they could walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by police (r = .335**, n=151) (Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level). For example, graph 5.4.8 shows that 50% (n28) of Australian-born youth reported 'always' being able to walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by the police, compared with only 28.1% (n18) of African-born youth. In contrast, 29.7% (n19) of African-born youth reported 'not at all' being able to walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by the police, compared to only 1.8% (n1) of Australian-born youth (graph 5.4.8):
When comparing these findings according to gender, Australian-born males were slightly more likely than their African-born counterparts to report ‘always’ being able to walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by the police (40%, n10 compared with 22.8%, n8). Instead, 28.5% (n10) of African-born males reported ‘not at all’ being able to walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by the police, compared with only 4% (n1) of their Australian-born counterparts (table 5.4.9).

Similarly, 58% (n18) of Australian-born females reported ‘always’ being able to walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by the police compared with 34.5% (n10) of their African-born counterparts. As with African-born males, 31% (n9) of African-born females were likely to report ‘not at all’ being able to walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by the police compared with zero for their Australian-born counterparts (table 5.4.9):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of birth</th>
<th>Australia</th>
<th>Asia</th>
<th>Middle East</th>
<th>Africa</th>
<th>Europe</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male Do you feel like you can walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by the police?</td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mostly</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Female Do you feel like you can walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by the police? | Always | 18 | 6 | 1 | 10 | 0 | 55 |
| | Mostly | 9 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 15 |
| | Sometimes | 2 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 0 | 9 |
| | Rarely | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 4 |
| | Not at all | 0 | 1 | 0 | 9 | 0 | 10 |
| Total | 51 | 9 | 1 | 39 | 1 | 71 |

A frequency count showed that a large majority (60.3%, n91) of young people in this sample reported that they would be treated the same as anyone else if they got into trouble with the police. This was followed by 32.5% (n49) who reported that they would be treated tougher than other people and 4.0% (n6) who reported that they would be treated better than most people (graph 5.5). Of these, 62.7% (n42) of females compared with 62% (n49) of males reported that they would be treated the same as anyone else if they got into trouble with the police.
A Spearman's rho correlation revealed that there was a significant relationship between participant country of birth and the degree to which participants felt vulnerable to being treated differently by the police (r = -\.336**, n=151) (Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level). For example, 73.2% (n=41) of Australian-born participants reported that they would be treated the same as anyone else if they got into trouble with the police, compared with only 42.6% (n=26) for African-born participants. In contrast, 54.1% (n=33) of African-born participants reported that they would be treated tougher than other people if they got into trouble with the police, compared with only 21.4% (n=12) for Australian-born participants (graph 5.5.1):

When comparing these findings according to gender, 52.8% (n=19) of young men born in Africa reported that they would be treated tougher than anyone else if they got into trouble with the police, compared with only 28% (n=7) for their Australian-born counterparts. Concomitantly, 56% (n=14) of young women born in Africa reported that they too would be treated tougher than anyone else if they got into trouble with the police, compared with only 16% (n=5) for their Australian-born counterparts (table 5.5.2):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Country of birth</th>
<th>Tougher than other people</th>
<th>Same as anyone else</th>
<th>Better than most people</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Male</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Female</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Youth in this sample were asked if they felt that there were racial tensions between young people and the police in their community. The majority, (33.1%, n50) reported that they strongly agreed with this statement. This was followed by 32.5% (n49) who somewhat agreed, 18.5% (n28) who neither agreed nor disagreed, 8.6% (n13) who strongly disagreed and 5.2% (n8) who somewhat disagreed (graph 5.5.3). There were no significant differences in these statements according to gender. Both young men and women in this research held more or less similar attitudes toward this statement.

![Graph 5.5.3: Number of young people who agreed or disagreed with the statement that racial tensions exist between young people and the police in their community](image)

When comparing this statement with country of birth, 41.3% (n26) of African-born participants reported that they strongly agreed that there were racial tensions between young people and the police in their community, followed by 31.7% (n20) who somewhat agreed. The majority, (35.7%, n20) of Australian born youth in this research also reported that they strongly agreed with this statement followed by 32.1% (n18) who somewhat agreed and 23.2% (n13) who neither agreed nor disagreed. Participants of Asian descent were just as likely to report that they somewhat agreed in addition to neither agreeing nor disagreeing with the statement (n8) (graph 5.5.4).
A cross-tabulation revealed that most youth in this research, regardless of gender and ethnicity, agreed with the statement that racial tensions between young people and the police exist in their community. There were only slight differences in country of birth and gender. For instance, 40% (n10) of Australian-born males strongly agreed with the statement compared with 37% (n13) of African-born males. Likewise, 46.4% (n13) of African-born females strongly agreed with the statement compared with 32.2% (n10) of Australian-born females (table 5.5.5):

### Table 5.5.5: Comparison between participant country of birth and gender with the statement that racial tensions exist in the community between young people and the police

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Australia</th>
<th>Asia</th>
<th>Middle East</th>
<th>Africa</th>
<th>Europe</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither agree nor disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat agree</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|        |            |      |             |        |        |       |       |
| Female |            |      |             |        |        |       |       |
| Strongly disagree | 2     | 0    | 0           | 2      | 0      | 0     | 4     |
| Somewhat disagree   | 0     | 1    | 0           | 1      | 0      | 0     | 2     |
| Neither agree nor disagree | 10    | 2    | 0           | 5      | 0      | 1     | 17    |
| Somewhat agree      | 9     | 4    | 1           | 7      | 1      | 2     | 22    |
| Strongly agree      | 10    | 2    | 0           | 13     | 0      | 0     | 25    |
| Total               | 31    | 9    | 1           | 28     | 1      | 1     | 79    |

When participants were asked if they thought police were influenced by a person's race or religion when dealing with members of the community, the majority (37.1%, n56) somewhat agreed with this statement, followed by 24.5% (n37) who strongly agreed, 21.9% (n33) who neither agreed nor disagreed, 10.6% (n16) who strongly disagreed and 5.2% (n8) who somewhat disagreed. Graph 5.5.6 shows that the majority of participants agreed with this statement:
The majority of participants in this research, regardless of their ethnic background, agreed with the statement that police are influenced by a person’s race or religion when police are dealing with members of the community. In this sample, Australian-born participants characterised the largest ethnic group to agree somewhat with the statement (43.9%, n=25), followed by Asian-born with 42.9% (n=9) and 37.5% (n=21) for African-born. African-born participants also characterised the largest group to strongly agree with this statement (34.4%, n=22) (graph 5.5.7):
There were no significant differences when comparing participants' gender with their attitude that police are biased towards a person's race. The majority of Australian-born males and females were more likely to agree somewhat with this statement. African-born females on the other hand were more likely to report that they agreed strongly with this statement, and their African-born counterparts were more likely to agree somewhat. If we are to compare the males with each other, the findings suggest that 27.8% (n10) of African-born males strongly agreed with this statement compared with 12% (n3) of their Australian-born counterparts (table 5.5.8):

Table 5.5.8: Comparison between participant country of birth and gender with the statement that police are influenced by a person's race or religion when police are dealing with members of the community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of birth</th>
<th>Australia</th>
<th>Asia</th>
<th>Middle East</th>
<th>Africa</th>
<th>Europe</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree/Disagree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither agree/disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat agree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>12</td>
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<td>36</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree/Disagree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither agree/disagree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat agree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.6 Differences in attitudes & police contact

Overall, the findings suggest that young people's attitudes toward police are influenced by their contact with police. For instance, a Spearman's rho correlation revealed that there was a significant relationship between trust in police and police contact (r = -0.367**, n=150) (Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level). Graph 5.6.1 depicts that of the young people who did not have any contact with the police in the last 12 months, 35.5% (n22) reported that they held a great deal of trust in police. On the other hand, only 4.6% (n4) of youth who did have contact with the police in the last 12 months rated that they held a great deal of trust in police.

Graph 5.6.1: Comparison between the number of young people who had contact with the police in the last 12 months and their level of trust in police

42
The findings also suggest that youth who had more contacts with police were more likely to hold less favourable attitudes toward the police. A Spearman's rho correlation revealed that there was a small but significant relationship between trust in police and number of police contacts ($r = -0.240^*, n=150$) (Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level). For example, graph 5.6.2 shows that out of the young people who had more than ten contacts with police in the last 12 months, 50% (n3) of these held no trust in police. In contrast, out of the young people who had only one contact with police in the last 12 months, 39.1% (n9) rated that they had quite a lot of trust in police:

Youth who had contact with the police in the last 12 months were also significantly more likely than those who did not have contact with police, to report feeling that they would be treated tougher than other people if they got into trouble with police. A Spearman's rho correlation revealed that there was a significant relationship between young people and their feelings of vulnerability when in trouble with police and their contact with police ($r = -0.286^{**}, n=150$) (Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level). Graph 5.6.3 shows that of the young people that had contact with the police in the last 12 months, 44.7% (n38) reported they would be treated tougher by the police compared with only 18% (n11) who had no contact with police:
A Spearman's rho correlation revealed that there was a significant relationship between police contact and young people's perceptions regarding racial tensions existing between youth and the police ($r = -0.325^{**}$, $n=150$) (Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level). Graph 5.6.4 shows that of the young people that had contact with the police in the last 12 months, 46% ($n=40$) strongly agreed that there were racial tensions between young people and the police in their community, compared with only 16.4% ($n=10$) who did not have any contact with police:
Accordingly, a Spearman’s rho correlation revealed that there was a significant relationship between police contact and young people’s perceptions that police are racially or religiously biased in their dealings with community members (r= -.338**, n=150) (Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level). For example, graph 5.6.5 shows that of the young people that had contact with the police in the last 12 months, 33.3% (n=29) strongly agreed with the statement that police are racially or religiously biased towards community members, compared with only 12.7% (n=8) who did not have any contact with police:

Attitudes toward police were also measured against type of police contact. The findings suggest that for the youth in this research who experienced negative types of police behaviour (i.e. police making insulting comments towards them, police threatening to use force or police using force), their perceptions that the police were racially biased were stronger in addition to their trust in police being significantly lower.

For example, trust in police was correlated using a Spearman’s rho against the following variables: young people’s experience with police making insulting comments towards them (r=-.310, n=150), young people who experienced police threatening to use force (r=-.299, n=150), and young people who experienced police force (r=-.291, n=150). The results show that all correlations were significant at the 0.01 level.

More specifically, table 5.6.6 shows that for the youth who experienced verbal insults from the police, none reported that they had a great deal of trust or quite a lot of trust in police. Whereas youth who did not experience this kind of treatment reported a great deal and quite a lot of trust in police (table 5.6.6):
Similar results were found for those who experienced police force and for those who experienced police threatening to use force against them (see tables 5.6.7 and 5.6.8).

Table 5.6.7: Comparison between trust in police with threats of police force

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How much trust do you have in the police?</th>
<th>Did the police officer(s) threaten to use force against you?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A great deal</td>
<td>Yes  No Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quite a lot</td>
<td>0     4  4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some</td>
<td>0     22  22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very little</td>
<td>2     23  25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>3     16  19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9     76  85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.6.8: Comparison between trust in police with police use of force

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How much trust do you have in the police?</th>
<th>Did the police officer(s) use any type of physical force?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A great deal</td>
<td>Yes  No Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quite a lot</td>
<td>0     4  4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some</td>
<td>0     22  22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very little</td>
<td>2     23  25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>3     16  19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9     76  85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A Spearman's rho correlation also revealed a small but significant relationship (r=-.264*, n150) between youths' attitudes that police are racially biased toward members of the community and youth who experienced police verbal insults (correlation significant at the 0.05 level). For example, table 5.6.9 shows that youth who experienced this type of police behaviour were more likely to agree (strongly and somewhat) with the statement that police are racially biased with members of the community.
Interestingly however, youth in this research who did not experience these types of police behaviour (i.e. verbal insults, police force and threats of police force) were also considerably likely to rate the police in an unfavourable way. For example, in the previous table (table 5.6.9) youth who did not experience verbal insults from the police were just as likely to agree (both strongly and somewhat) with the statement that police are racially biased towards members of the community.

5.7 Young people and their rights with police

Overall a frequency count revealed that half (51%, n77) of the sample reported that there were some things that they knew and other things that they did not know about their rights with the police. This was followed by 21.9% (n33) who indicated that they knew very little about their rights with police, 13.9% (n21) who specified that they considered themselves to be an expert and 12.6% (n19) who reported that they had no idea (graph 5.7.1):
Australian-born participants represented the largest (51.9%, n40) ethnic group in the sample who reported that there were some things that they knew and other things that they did not know about their rights with the police. African-born participants characterised the second largest group with 33.8% (n26) followed by Asian-born with 10.4% (n8). African-born participants also represented the largest ethnic group (76.2%, n16) in this sample that considered themselves to be experts compared with 9.5% (n2) for Australian and Asian-born, and 4.8% (n1) for European-born (graph 5.7.2):

A cross-tabulation revealed that young men of African descent was the largest group in this research to consider themselves as experts in relation to their level of knowledge about their rights with the police. For example, African-born males were more likely to view themselves as experts compared with their Australian-born counterparts (30.5%, n11 compared to 4%, n1). Majority of Australian-born and African-born females reported that there were some things that they knew and other things that they did not know about their rights with the police (table 5.7.3):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>How much do you know about your rights with the police?</th>
<th>Australia</th>
<th>Asia</th>
<th>Middle East</th>
<th>Africa</th>
<th>Europe</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>I consider myself to be an expert</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>There are some things I know but other things I don't know</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I know very little about my rights with the police</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I have no idea about my rights with the police</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>I consider myself to be an expert</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>There are some things I know but other things I don't know</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I know very little about my rights with the police</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I have no idea about my rights with the police</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>33</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>71</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When participants were asked how confident they were exercising their rights with the police, 47% (n71) reported somewhat, followed by 31.8% (n48) who reported that they were fully confident, and 19.9% (n30) who reported that they were not at all confident (graph 5.7.4):

A Spearman’s rho correlation revealed that there was a small but significant relationship between participant country of birth and whether participants felt confident exercising their rights with police (r = -0.172*, n=151) (Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level). Graph 5.7.5 shows that 60.4% (n29) of African-born participants reported feeling fully confident in exercising their rights with police followed by 22.9% (n11) for Australian-born, 8.3% (n4) for Asian-born and 6.3% (n3) for participants born in the Middle East. Graph 5.7.5 also illustrates that Australian-born participants represented the largest ethnic group (47.9%, n34) in this sample who reported feeling somewhat confident in exercising their rights with the police. On the other hand, African-born participants represented the largest ethnic group in this sample who reported being fully confident exercising their rights with police:

Graph 5.7.5: Number of specific groups (country of birth) of young people who reported their level of confidence in exercising their rights with police
A cross-tabulation comparing this statement with participant country of birth and gender shows that both African-born young men and women represented the largest group to report feeling fully confident in exercising their rights with police. For example, 44.4% (n16) of African-born males reported feeling fully confident in exercising their rights with police compared with only 28% (n7) for their Australian-born counterparts. This was also the case with African-born females who were more likely than Australian-born females to report feeling fully confident in exercising their rights with police (48%, n13 compared with 12.5%, n4). African-born females were also slightly more likely to report feeling fully confident in exercising their rights with police compared with their African-born counterparts (48%, n13 compared with 44.4%, n16) (table 5.7.6).

However, Australian-born young men and women were more likely to report feeling somewhat confident in exercising their rights with the police. For example, 65.6% (n21) of Australian-born females reported feeling somewhat confident in exercising their rights with the police compared with 52% (n13) for their Australian-born counterparts (table 5.7.6).

Table 5.7.6: Comparison between participant country of birth and gender with level of confidence in exercising rights with police

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of Birth</th>
<th>Fully confident</th>
<th>Somewhat confident</th>
<th>Not at all confident</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>Middle East</td>
<td>Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Australia</th>
<th>Asia</th>
<th>Middle East</th>
<th>Africa</th>
<th>Europe</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A frequency count revealed that the majority (64.9%, n98) of participants in this research reported that they would make a formal complaint if they felt the police unfairly treated them. This was followed by 19.9% (n30) who reported that they were not sure, 5.3% (n8) who reported no, 2% (n3) who reported that it wasn’t worth it, 1.3% (n2) who did not know how to make a formal complaint, 1.3% (n2) who said that nothing was going to happen out of it, and 1.3% (n2) who reported that they will end up being treated even more unfairly. Other responses that participants reported included feeling ‘scared’ (0.7%, n1), ‘I don’t want to be labelled’ (0.7%, n1), ‘it’s too much effort’ (0.7%, n1), ‘the police would back up their fellow employees’ (0.7%, n1) and ‘I don’t like talking to police unless I really have to’ (0.7%, n1).

When comparing this statement according to country of birth, an equal number (38.8%, n29) of Australian-born and African-born participants reported that they would make a formal complaint against the police if they felt they were treated unfairly, followed by 16.3% (n16) for Asian-born. Other less common responses that African-born participants reported included not making a formal complaint against the police because they felt scared, did not feel it was worth it, or would end up being treated more unfairly. In contrast, Australian-born participants reported that they would not make a formal complaint against the police because it was too much effort, they did not know how to make a complaint, or did not like talking to police unless they really had to.

Furthermore, it seems that most participants in this sample, regardless of gender or ethnicity, would make a formal complaint if they felt unfairly treated by the police. However, Australian-born males were slightly more likely to make a formal complaint than African-born males (68%, n17 compared with 61%, n22). Likewise, Australian-born females were slightly more likely than African-born females to make a formal complaint against the police if treated unfairly (65%, n21 compared with 57%, n16) (table 5.7.7).
There were no significant differences when comparing participants’ gender with this statement. The majority of both Australian-born males and females in addition to African-born males and females were more or less likely to make a formal complaint against the police if they were treated unfairly (table 5.7.7):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of birth</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.7.7: Comparison between participant country of birth and gender with likelihood of making a FORMAL complaint against the police if treated unfairly by police.
6. Discussion

Young people’s experiences with the police

Overall, the findings in this research were not as straightforward as those found in other local and international studies. Whereas previous research has consistently found that youth of African descent have more contact with the police than their white counterparts (Brunson & Miller, 2006a; Brunson & Miller, 2006b; Brunson, 2007; Brunson & Weitzer, 2009a; Brunson & Weitzer, 2009b; Sharp, 2006), the findings of this study suggest that Australian youth were slightly more likely to have at least one contact with the police in the last 12 months than African youth. Furthermore, young women from all ethnic backgrounds were as likely to have contact with the police as young men from all ethnic backgrounds. At first glance, this finding seems to contradict previous local and international research that suggests youth of African descent have more contact with the police and are over-policed than whites, with young men experiencing this frequency of police contact more so than young women. On closer inspection, the findings suggest that there is a clear discrepancy in the frequency and nature of police contact when one factors in the participants gender and country of birth. Discussion around the following research questions will address these issues in more detail:

1. Does country of birth influence the frequency of police contact in the Flemington community and surrounding areas?

Results indicate that there is some relationship between country of birth and police contact, although this relationship is not strong. A cross-tabulation revealed that the majority of youth born in Africa reported having contact with police within the past 30 days. The majority of Australian-born youth also reported having contact with police within the past 30 days. When these two groups are compared, we see that youth born in Africa were more likely than Australian-born youth to experience contact with the police within the past 30 days (51.4% n18 compared with 34.2%, n13). Furthermore, a cross-tabulation revealed that young men of African descent reported having contact with the police more often within the past 30 days than young men of Australian descent (66.6%, n14 compared to 35.3%, n6).

These results suggest that youths’ country of birth may play a role in shaping how often they experience police encounters; for youth of African descent, encounters with the police are more frequent. This finding may lend support to Reside & Smith’s (2010) argument that African youth are being over-policed, but differs in the sense that there was no strong relationship. The discrepancy between the findings of Reside & Smith’s (2010) study and the current research could perhaps be explained by the number of participants. Reside & Smith’s (2010) analysis used data collected from 30 African participants and the current study has data from 151 ethnically diverse participants. Further research will be needed to provide more of an argument that African-born youth are being over-policed. Nonetheless, in this study young men of African descent experienced more frequent contact with the police compared with young men of Australian descent and conducting a larger scale study may illustrate the extent of this frequency difference. To this end, we see that country of birth may play a role in shaping police contact, but what role does gender play?

2. Does participant gender influence the frequency of police contact in the Flemington community and surrounding areas?

Results indicate that gender plays a significant role in shaping the frequency of police contact. A Spearman’s rho correlation revealed a small but significant relationship, with young men experiencing contact with the police within the past 30 days more so than young women. A cross-tabulation also showed that young men were more likely to experience more than 10 contacts with the police in the past 12 months than young women. When incorporating country of birth into this analysis, the results indicate that young men of African descent reported being stopped by the police within the past 30 days more so than their Australian-born counterparts (66.6%, n14 compared to 35.3%, n6). However, young
women of Australian descent reported being stopped by the police within the past 30 days more so than their African-born counterparts (33.3%, n=7 compared with 28.6%, n=4).

These results suggest that gender plays a considerable role in shaping the frequency of police contact. If you are a young male living in Flemington or the surrounding areas, you are more likely than young women to experience frequent encounters with the police. But the extent of this frequency is dependent on youths’ country of birth, as the findings also suggest that there is an interconnected relationship between gender and country of birth in shaping frequency of police contact. For instance, young men of African descent were more likely to experience frequent encounters with the police than their Australian-born counterparts. This finding brings to the forefront a much clearer picture of the individuals experiencing frequent contact with the police. Whilst Reside & Smith (2010) highlighted that African youth in general were experiencing frequent contact with the police, in this research the findings suggest that African young men were more prone than other groups to having frequent contact with the police. According to Thurau (2009) youths’ increased contact with police can result in negative outcomes for the youth involved. The significance of this will be explored in the next research question.

3. Does participant country of birth influence the nature of police contact in the Flemington community and surrounding areas?

Results indicate that country of birth alone may play a role in shaping the nature of police contact. A cross-tabulation revealed that African-born youth were more likely to report not receiving a reason from the police for being stopped compared with Australian-born youth (42.8%, n=15 compared to 26.3%, n=10). This finding is particularly interesting considering that both these groups had the most contact with police in the last 12 months. Clearly, there is some differentiation with the two groups in their experiences with the police, and the role that gender plays may contribute to this differentiation. Once again, the findings suggest that there is an interconnected relationship between gender and country of birth in shaping the nature of police contact. The next research question directly addresses this relationship:

4. Does gender influence the nature of police contact in the Flemington community and surrounding areas?

Results indicate that young men reported being more likely to be stopped and approached by police and asked for their name and address when compared with young women. When incorporating country of birth into this analysis, we see that young men of African descent reported being more likely than their Australian-born counterparts to be charged by police for minor offences to do with being drunk in public, possession of alcohol in public, and driving with a faded brake light. Particularly for young men of African descent, the impact of their most recent encounter with the police was more likely to be negative compared with young men of Australian descent. Furthermore, as discussed earlier, African-born youth compared with Australian-born youth were less likely to feel that the police respected their rights. For those who received a reason from the police for being stopped, young men and women of African descent were generally less likely to feel that these reasons were fair when compared with young men and women of Australian descent.

These results may suggest that young men of African descent are being dealt with by the police in harsher ways than their Australian-born counterparts and lends support to Alder et al’s (1992) finding that police are more likely to be ‘heavy handed’ in their dealings with marginal ethnic youth. This idea warrants further discussion. Are young men of African descent being treated more harshly by the police because they are doing more things wrong or are they, as Chan (1997) argues, the victims of police stereotyping and prejudice? The findings in this study may suggest that African boys are being discriminated by the police. Almost half of the African-born young men felt they were stopped by the police because of their race or religion. Responses like “...they see a big group of black people,” “they [police] come to black people every time something happens,” and “...there was another person walking on the other side of the street and they didn’t even bother asking him anything,” illustrate support for Reside & Smith’s (2010) argument that police approach African youth without justification because they are African.
Furthermore, young men of African descent in this research reported feeling ‘targeted,’ ‘scared’ and ‘cruelly treated’ by the police as a result of their most recent encounter with police. These responses demonstrate that young men of African descent particularly feel that they are being singled out by the police because of their race. Likewise, African youth who did not have any contact with the police in the last 12 months also reported negative comments about the police being racist, unfairly targeting and mistreating African youth. As Chan (1997: 20-21) argues, stereotyping and prejudice about the criminality of certain ethnic groups on the part of police officers can easily lead to harassment and community resentment. Therefore, if young men of African descent are experiencing frequent contact with the police and feel that this contact is vastly shaped by their race then this association could potentially develop into a ‘self-fulfilling prophecy’ as described by Hurst & Frank (2000). In other words, if young black men expect to be mistreated and harmed by the police than this expectation will only serve to shape future negative relations with police.

These findings strongly suggest that regardless of experiences with the police, African youth feel that they are being racially targeted. However, it is important to note that there may be other variables impacting on how African youth evaluate their experiences with the police. Firstly, there is often a language barrier, which may have affected African youths’ interpretation of the police encounter. Secondly, what African youth consider to be fair and reasonable police behaviour may be entirely different to what Australian youth think and thirdly, past negative experiences with the police could potentially shape future negative encounters. For these reasons, it is not entirely reasonable to assume that race is the main predictor behind African youths’ experiences of policing. Even though this research suggests that it does play a role, further research is needed to explore these issues in greater depth.

Overall, Australian-born youths’ experiences with the police were for the most part more positive. Compared with African-born youth, Australian-born youth were more likely to report getting a reason from the police for being stopped, were more likely to feel that these reasons were fair and were generally happy with the outcomes of their contact with police. Negative experiences such as being charged and verbal insults were much less common for Australian youth than those reported by African youth. The outcomes were also drastically different for young men of Australian descent who reported no summons or infringements compared with young men of African descent. With this in mind, there is a clear difference in the experiences of the two groups and this is reinforced by reports that African youth feel strongly about being targeted by police, regardless if they have had contact with the police or not. As the next section will discuss, experiences with the police can significantly shape attitudes toward police and vice versa. If African youth feel targeted by police than this may serve to shape a general distrust in police and a fertile ground for future conflict and community resentment.

**Young people’s attitudes toward police**

On the whole, the young people in this research were not critical of the police. The majority still held some level of trust in police and still felt as though they could hang out in public with their friends or walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by the police. Likewise, the majority of the young people in this research felt that they would be treated the same as anyone else if they got into trouble with the police. The majority were not very knowledgeable about their rights with police, yet felt somewhat confident in exercising their rights with police. Interestingly, youth in this study still reported that they would follow through with making a formal complaint if they felt the police had treated them unfairly. This finding is worthy of note and may imply that young people are more confident in their dealings with police than previous research suggests. As with the previous findings, when one factors in gender and country of birth, differences begin to appear. These differences will be explored in more detail with the following research questions:
5. Do young people’s attitudes toward the police in the Flemington community and surrounding areas vary according to their country of birth?

The results indicate that country of birth plays a considerable role in shaping young people's attitudes toward the police. For the most part, African youth were considerably less likely than any other group to rate the police favourably. African youth in this research consistently expressed feeling worried that they were going to be stopped by police when hanging out with friends and that they would be treated tougher than other people if they got into trouble with the police. This level of anxiety was not emphasized by Australian youth. Australian youth reported a great deal of trust in police and were not significantly worried that police would stop them. Clearly, there is some discrepancy in how the police are perceived. African youth are skeptical towards the police but more importantly they are noticeably more likely than any other ethnic group to be worried about contact with the police and this may have something to do with their previous experiences with the police.

African youth were also considerably more likely than any other ethnic group to be critical of the police treatment of ethnic communities, with young men of African descent representing a huge proportion of this criticism. But African youth were not alone in their criticism of police treatment of ethnic communities. Australian-born youth in addition to Asian-born also agreed with the statement that police are influenced by a person’s race or religion when dealing with members of the community. The view from all youth regardless of racial background, that the police are influenced by a person’s race in their treatment of people, suggests that perceptions of racially motivated treatment are held beyond the victims themselves. This finding suggests that African youth are not the only ones concerned about police treatment of ethnic minorities and lends support to Sivasubramaiam & Goodman-Delahunty’s (2008) finding that regardless of race, young people agree that police target particular ethnic groups of young people. This is an interesting finding and warrants further exploration. Attitudes that the police are discriminatory toward ethnic members of the community may be the result of young people hearing negative stories about the police or witnessing the police acting inappropriately towards ethnic minorities. This idea is purely speculative and future research will need to examine this along with what particular ethnic groups (if any) are perceived as being treated differently by police and how their treatment differs. Now we turn to discussions on whether young people’s attitudes toward the police vary according to their gender:

6. Do young people’s attitudes toward the police in the Flemington community and surrounding areas vary according to their gender?

Unlike other research, the findings reported herein do not suggest any significant gender differences in attitudes toward police. However, young women were slightly more likely to not worry about being stopped by police when hanging out friends or walking alone down the street compared with young males. Young women may not tend to worry about being stopped by police because their counterparts are more likely to experience frequent contact with the police and are more likely to be asked for their name and address. If we factor country of birth into this analysis, variations in attitudes toward police appear. Once again as with the previous section on experiences with police, the findings suggest that there is an interconnected relationship between gender and country of birth in shaping attitudes toward police in the Flemington community and surrounding areas.

The results indicate that for young men of African descent, attitudes toward police went from some, to very little and eventually to no level of trust. Young men of African descent were also the most anxious about being stopped by the police when hanging out with friends or walking alone down the street, and were considerably more likely to feel that they would be treated tougher than anyone else if they got into trouble with the police. As with international research (Taylor et al., 2001; Hurst et al., 2000; Brick et al., 2009; Leiber et al., 1998), these findings suggest that African males, more so than any other ethnic or gender group in this study, are particularly apprehensive in their views of the police. Their female counterparts were not far behind. Even though they had less encounters with the police and experienced fewer to no negative outcomes, young women of African descent were still
considerably likely to report ‘not at all’ to the question, “do you feel like you can walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by the police?”

Young men of African descent may feel victimized and mistreated by the police as a result of their frequent encounters with police and reportedly harsher penalties resulting from these encounters. This could explain why they are more hostile towards the police. If the police are more likely to engage youth in practices which are perceived as adversarial or ‘harassing,’ one could expect youth to hold less favourable attitudes of the police. Yet young women of African descent were also considerably likely to view the police in a hostile way, why is this the case when they experienced less contact with the police and fewer to no negative outcomes with police? One explanation could be that they have experienced indirect encounters with police or they have heard second-hand reports of police mistreatment as discussed earlier. A good direction for future research would be to examine how attitudes are formed and whether such adversarial contacts with police may change what would be otherwise favourable attitudes toward police. Also, it may be useful for future research to examine what impact negative police experiences have on youths’ future encounters with police or if positive experiences with the police can help to create positive attitudes toward the police. It is plausible to say that young men of African descent are more skeptical of the police because of their negative experiences with the police. This idea is addressed by the next research question:

7. Do young people’s attitudes toward the police in the Flemington community and surrounding areas vary according to their experiences with police?

The results indicate that young people’s attitudes toward police are strongly influenced by their experiences with police. Similar to Grossman & Sharples (2010) findings, we see that young people who had negative experiences with the police were significantly less likely to trust in police. Also, youth who had negative encounters with the police were considerably more likely to feel that the police targeted ethnic minorities. This is an interesting finding because most interactions with the police from participants in this sample were not negative in a legal sense. Again further research is needed to understand what is happening during these encounters that leave such a negative impression. Another interesting finding was that young people who did not experience negative outcomes with the police also perceived the police as being racially biased towards members of the community. Once again this could be the result of young people hearing negative stories about the police or witnessing the police acting inappropriately towards ethnic minorities. Or it could be a consequence of police stereotypes.

Given what the findings suggest so far, it is conceivable to assume that young men of African descent are more skeptical of the police because of their negative experiences with the police. Or it could be that young men of African descent get into more trouble with police or generally hold negative attitudes toward police as a result of police stereotypes or bad experiences in their country of birth. Either way, this raises a chicken or egg scenario- are young men of African descent more hostile because they are frequently stopped and mistreated by police or are they stopped and treated differently by police because they are more hostile? Or is it something else entirely - are they stopped because they are doing something wrong? As discussed in the beginning, all youth no matter what colour or shape congregate on the streets, so what is going on to cause African youth to feel more hostile towards the police?

Overall, African youth were considerably more likely than any other ethnic group in this research to be critical of the police. Particularly for young men of African descent, trust in police was reported in the lower end of the scale (i.e. some, to very little, to no level of trust in police). Young men of African descent were also the most anxious group when it came to worrying about being stopped by the police when hanging out with their friends or walking alone down the street, and were considerably more likely to feel that they would be treated tougher than anyone else if they got into trouble with the police. Interestingly, despite not having many negative experiences with the police, young women of African descent also reported worrying about being stopped by the police when walking alone down the street. African youth were also considerably more likely than any other ethnic group to be
disapproving in their attitudes toward police treatment of ethnic communities, with young men of African descent representing a huge proportion of this criticism.

In contrast, for the most part Australian youth held favourable attitudes toward the police and were less critical of the police. Compared with African youth, Australian youth were significantly more likely to report a lot of trust in police and were also the least anxious and apprehensive group when it came to, worrying about being stopped by the police when hanging out with friend(s) or walking alone down the street. Accordingly, more than half of Australian youth reported that they would be treated the same as anyone else if they got into trouble with the police. However, despite being more trustful of the police, Australian youth still felt that the police are influenced by a person’s race or religion when dealing with members of the community. In fact, the majority of participants regardless of race or gender agreed either somewhat or strongly with that statement. Finally, this research shows that young people’s attitudes toward the police are significantly shaped by the types of contact they had with the police. Youth who reported negative experiences with the police (as characterised by police use of force, police threatening to use force or police making verbal insults) were noticeably more likely than those who did not experience this kind of treatment to rate the police unfavourably. But interestingly, those that did not experience this kind of negative treatment also reported unfavourable attitudes.

There are some limitations to the present study. Firstly, the sample size does not permit conclusive generalizations to the larger population. Secondly, this research lacks qualitative data, which may have provided a deeper level of understanding to the ways in which race and gender may help to shape young people’s experiences with, and attitudes toward, the police. Thirdly, this research was concerned with youths’ accounts of their encounters with the police and do not include those of police officers’ accounts or independent observations. Fourthly, as with all survey-based research, the results rely on self-reporting. Young people may have misinterpreted their police encounters, which may have resulted in negative outcomes with police. Therefore, the data may not have accurately reflected the veracity of the youths’ reported experiences. Finally, a study such as this despite having a reasonable sample size cannot conclusively determine whether individual race and gender solely shape youths’ experiences with, and attitudes toward, the police. However, the findings of this research are consistent with other research involving minority ethnic youth, and shows that race and gender continue to be a significant factor in youths’ experiences with, and attitudes toward, the police.
7. Conclusion

This study sought to investigate the relationship that young people have with the police, focusing on youths’ experiences with, and attitudes toward, the police as shaped by demographic factors to do with country of birth and gender. The findings of this research suggest that African youth, and particularly young men of African descent, were more likely than any other youth sub-group to report frequent contacts with the police and adverse experiences with the police. Moreover, it is clear that for African youth, and particularly young men of African descent, reports of police mistreatment had important consequences for shaping perceptions toward the police.

This study contributes to research on race and gender by offering further evidence of the differential police treatment experienced by African youth. In particular, this study raises significant issues that may direct further research concerning the relationship between African youth and the police. A large-scale multi-method approach incorporating both qualitative and quantitative techniques focusing on the intersections of race and gender may provide answers to some of the questions raised by the current research. Young people’s assessments of the police are multifaceted and therefore require comprehensive methods to allow us to better understand how youth come to understand their experiences with, and attitudes toward, the police.

On a separate note, it is vital for authority figures to instill a sense of cooperation, support and unbiased treatment during encounters. This could be achieved by increased police training in cultural and language issues, which may help to foster a greater sense of understanding and cultural awareness. Though it is essential that cultural awareness training does not re-enforce negative stereotypes of young Africans (noted by Chan, 1997). To ensure negative attitudes are not re-enforced, anti-racism training must underline the structure of any course run for police. This training must examine the harms caused by suspicions based on race, and the unconscious racism that can influence police discretion alongside the need for police questioning to occur in circumstances where reasonable grounds exist.
8. Bibliography


Stewart, E. A. (2007) ‘Either they don’t know or they don’t care: Black males and negative police experiences,’ *Criminology and Public Policy, 6*(1): 123-130


APPENDIX A

Young people’s experiences with, and attitudes toward, police in the Flemington community and surrounding areas.

THIS SURVEY IS ANONYMOUS AND CONFIDENTIAL

Please ☑ the appropriate box and record your answers on the lines.

SECTION 1: BACKGROUND

The first few questions are about you and a little bit about your background. Please answer all of the following questions in this section.

1. Are you male or female?
   - A) Male
   - B) Female

2. How old are you currently? ________________

3. Were you born in Australia or elsewhere?
   - A) Australia (SKIPP TO Q.5)
   - B) Elsewhere (WHICH COUNTRY?) __________________________

4. If you were not born in Australia, how many years have you lived in Australia? ________________

5. How would you describe your cultural background? You can tick more than one box if you need to.
   - A) Anglo-Australian
   - B) Asian
   - C) Somali
   - D) Sudanese
   - E) Eritrean
   - F) Ethiopian
   - G) European
   - H) Middle Eastern
   - I) Turkish
   - J) Afghani
   - K) Indian
   - L) Pakistani
   - M) Other (WHAT CULTURAL BACKGROUND?) __________________________

6. Where was your mother born?
   - A) Australia
   - B) Elsewhere (WHICH COUNTRY?) __________________________
   - C) Don’t know
7. Where was your father born?
   - A) Australia
   - B) Elsewhere (WHICH COUNTRY?) __________________________
   - C) Don't know

8. What language do you mostly speak at home?
   - A) English
   - B) Other (WHAT LANGUAGE/S?) ____________________________

9. What is your religion?
   - A) Christianity
   - B) Islam
   - C) Buddhism
   - D) No religion
   - E) Other (WHAT RELIGION?) ______________________________
   - F) I don't want to answer this question

10. What suburb do you currently live in? _______________________ 

11. How long have you lived in this suburb? ________________________ 

12. What kind of housing do you currently live in?
   - A) Public Housing/ High rise flat / Government Housing
   - B) Private rental
   - C) Home owned by family or guardians
   - D) Other (for example: homeless, couch surfing etc) __________

**SECTION 2: ATTITUDES TOWARD POLICE**

The next few questions are about your attitudes toward the police. Please answer all of the following questions in this section. Please tick one box for each answer unless stated otherwise.

13. How much trust do you have in the police?
   - A) A great deal
   - B) Quite a lot
   - C) Some
   - D) Very little
   - E) Not at all

14. Do you feel like you can hang out with your friend(s) without worrying about being stopped by the police?
   - A) Always
   - B) Mostly
   - C) Sometimes
   - D) Rarely
   - E) Not at all

15. Do you feel like you can walk alone down the street without worrying about being stopped by the police?
   - A) Always
   - B) Mostly
   - C) Sometimes
   - D) Rarely
   - E) Not at all

16. If you got into trouble with the police do you think that you would be treated:
   - A) Tougher than other people
   - B) Same as anyone else
   - C) Better than most people
17. Do you agree or disagree that there are racial tensions between young people and the police in your community?

☐ A) Strongly agree  
☐ B) Somewhat agree  
☐ C) Neither agree nor disagree  
☐ D) Somewhat disagree  
☐ E) Strongly disagree

18. Do you agree or disagree that police are influenced by a person’s race or religion when police are dealing with members of the community?

☐ A) Strongly agree  
☐ B) Somewhat agree  
☐ C) Neither agree nor disagree  
☐ D) Somewhat disagree  
☐ E) Strongly disagree

19. How much do you know about your rights with the police?

☐ A) I consider myself to be an expert  
☐ B) There are some things I know but other things I don’t know  
☐ C) I know very little about my rights with the police  
☐ D) I have no idea about my rights with the police

20. How confident are you exercising your rights with the police?

☐ A) I am fully confident  
☐ B) I am somewhat confident  
☐ C) I am not at all confident

21. Would you make a FORMAL complaint if you felt you had been unfairly treated by the police?

☐ A) Yes  
☐ B) No (WHY NOT?) ________________________________________________  
☐ C) Don’t know

SECTION 3: POLICE CONTACT

The next few questions are about any face to face contact you may have had with the police during the last 12 months. Please exclude any contacts with security guards, police officers you see socially, relatives who are police officers, or police contacts that occurred as a result of employment or volunteer work. Please answer all of the following questions in this section.

22. Did you have any face to face contact with the police during the last 12 months?

☐ A) Yes  
☐ B) No (SKIP TO Q. 39)

23. How many face to face contacts with the police did you have during the last 12 months?

☐ A) Numerous (more than 10)  
☐ B) Several (less than 10, more than 5)  
☐ C) Some (3-5)  
☐ D) Few (less than 3)  
☐ E) One only
24. How long has it been since your last face to face contact with the police?
   - [ ] A) Within the past 30 days
   - [ ] B) More than 30 days but less than 3 months ago
   - [ ] C) More than 3 months but less than 6 months ago
   - [ ] D) More than 6 months but less than a year ago

**FOR THE REST OF THIS SECTION, PLEASE THINK ABOUT THE MOST RECENT FACE TO FACE CONTACT YOU HAD WITH THE POLICE**

25. On this last occasion, did the police stop and approach you?
   - [ ] A) Yes
   - [ ] B) No, I approached them *(SKIP TO Q. 31)*

26. Was anyone (friend or family) with you?
   - [ ] A) Yes
   - [ ] B) No

27. Did the police give you a reason for stopping you?
   - [ ] A) Yes
   - [ ] B) No *(SKIP TO Q. 30)*

28. What was the reason the police gave you?

___________________________________________________________________________________________________________________________________________________________

29. Did you feel this reason was fair?
   - [ ] A) Yes
   - [ ] B) No
   - [ ] C) Don’t know

30. Where did the police stop you?
   - [ ] A) On the street
   - [ ] B) In a public park
   - [ ] C) At the train station
   - [ ] D) Other *(EXPLAIN)*

31. Did this contact with the police take place in the suburb where you live?
   - [ ] A) Yes
   - [ ] B) Elsewhere *(WHICH SUBURB?)*
   - [ ] C) Don’t know / can’t remember

32. During your contact, did the police officer(s) do any of the following to you? *You can tick more than one answer.*
   - [ ] A) Provide you with helpful information
   - [ ] B) Look after you
   - [ ] C) Be respectful to you
   - [ ] D) Take you home
   - [ ] E) Ask for your name and address
   - [ ] F) Search you (this includes bag searching)
   - [ ] G) Arrest you
   - [ ] H) Handcuff you
   - [ ] I) Send you a summons or infringement
   - [ ] J) Give you a written or verbal warning
   - [ ] K) Make insulting comments to you
   - [ ] L) Threaten to use force against you
   - [ ] M) Use any type of physical force
   - [ ] N) Other *(EXPLAIN)*
   - [ ] O) I don’t want to answer this question
33. Did you feel that the police behaviour towards you was reasonable?

☐ A) Yes
☐ B) No
☐ C) Don’t know

34. Please describe how this (the way the police treated you) made you feel?

________________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________________

35. If you were charged, what was the charge?

________________________________________________________________________________________

36. How happy or unhappy were you with the outcomes of your contact with the police on this last occasion?
   Please tick one box.
   ☐ A) Extremely happy
   ☐ B) Very happy
   ☐ C) Somewhat happy
   ☐ D) Neither happy nor unhappy
   ☐ E) Somewhat unhappy
   ☐ F) Very unhappy
   ☐ G) Extremely unhappy

37. On the most recent contact, do you think that you were stopped by the police because of your racial or religious background?

☐ A) Yes
☐ B) No
☐ C) Don’t know

38. If you answered ‘yes’ to Question 37 above, please explain your answer:

________________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________________

39. If you would like to make any additional comments about your experiences with and attitudes toward the police please do so:

________________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________________

Thanks for your help 😊

Should you have any queries concerning this research please contact the Secretary to the Department of Justice Human Research Ethics Committee, Level 21, 121 Exhibition Street, Melbourne Vic 3000. Tel: 8684 1514.
PLAIN LANGUAGE INFORMATION STATEMENT
FOR PARTICIPANTS

Project Title: “Young people’s experiences with, and attitudes toward, the police in the Flemington community and surrounding suburbs.”

Researcher: Zrinjka Dolic

We would like you to be a part of the above research project, which is being conducted by Zrinjka Dolic & the Flemington and Kensington Community Legal Centre (FKCLC).

The aim of this study is to explore what the experiences and attitudes of young people are in relation to the police in the Flemington and Kensington community and surrounding areas.

You can participate in 2 ways: fill out an anonymous survey and/or agree to be interviewed by the researcher.

Participating in this study is completely voluntary. If you do decide to participate in an interview discussion you may stop and leave the interview at any stage or avoid answering questions which you feel are too personal or intrusive.

In the final report, you will be referred to by a fake name to protect your identity. Any suggestions to personal information that might allow someone to guess your identity will be removed. Your name and contact details will be kept in a separate, password-protected computer file from any data that you give.

Data will be stored on password protected computer files and in locked files at the FKCLC. Only the researcher will have access to this data. A report of the study may be used for publication, but only fake names will be used in this report.

If you would like to access the research findings, please contact Zrinjka Dolic on 0413 621 928. If you would like access to counseling/debriefing facilities and trained personnel please contact Tamar Hopkins on 9376 4355.

You should not disclose specific information about illegal behaviours that you have not been charged with or have not been dealt with by a court. Researchers cannot guarantee absolute confidentiality in relation to illegal behaviours of which they are made aware.

Attached is an informed consent form which needs to be signed by you before any part of the survey and/or interview takes place. Please do not sign the form until the research has been explained to you clearly, and until you believe that you have a full understanding of what is being asked of you.

Any questions or concerns regarding this project can be directed to either the principal researcher, Zrinjka Dolic on 0413 621 928 or email Zrinjka@fkclc.org.au or Tamar Hopkins on 9376 4355, the principal solicitor at the FKCLC or email principal@fkclc.org.au

Should you have any queries concerning this research please contact the Secretary to the Department of Justice Human Research Ethics Committee, Level 21, 121 Exhibition Street, Melbourne Vic 3000. Tel: 8684 1514.

Thank You.
PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Project Title: “Young people’s experiences with, and attitudes toward, the police in the Flemington community and surrounding areas.”

Researcher: Zrinjka Dolic

I agree to take part in the research project specified above. I have had the project explained to me, and I have read the Plain Language Statement, which I keep for my records. I understand that agreeing to take part means that I am willing to:

I agree to complete an anonymous survey ☐ Yes ☐ No
I agree to be interviewed by the researcher ☐ Yes ☐ No
I agree to allow the interview to be audio-taped ☐ Yes ☐ No

I understand that my participation is VOLUNTARY, that I can choose not to participate in part or all of the project, and that I can withdraw at any stage of the project without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way.

I understand that any data that the researcher extracts from the survey and interview discussions for use in reports or published findings will not, under any circumstances, contain names or identifying characteristics. I agree to the publication of results from this study provided details that might identify me are removed.

I understand that any information I provide is confidential, and that no information that could lead to the identification of any individual will be disclosed in any reports on the project, or to any other party.

I understand that data from the survey and interview discussions will be kept in a secure storage and accessible only to the research team. I also understand that the data will be destroyed after a 5 year period unless I consent to it being used in future research. I agree that I can obtain a summary of the results of the study when it is completed.

I understand that I may contact the researcher Zrinjka Dolic on 0413 621 928 or Tamar Hopkins from the FKCLC on 9376 4355 with any concerns I may have about my participation in this research.

You should not disclose specific information about illegal behaviours that you have not been charged with or have not been dealt with by a court. Researchers cannot guarantee absolute confidentiality in relation to illegal behaviours of which they are made aware.

Name of participant giving consent: _________________________________
Signed by the participant: __________________________________ Date: ___________________

Signed by an independent witness: __________________________________ Date: ___________________
(Print name in full – independent witness) ________________________________
Address of independent witness (Professional or Home): ________________________________
Signed by the researcher: __________________________________ Date: ___________________

Should you have any queries concerning this research please contact the Secretary to the Department of Justice Human Research Ethics Committee, Level 21, 121 Exhibition Street, Melbourne Vic 3000. Tel: 8684 1514.