THE BENEFITS OF CRIME PREVENTION: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Report from the National Rural Crime Prevention Center

Submitted to

Andrus Foundation, American Association of Retired Persons

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Crime prevention: does it actually work? Is it truly effective?

What are the real pay-offs of crime prevention for society? Is crime prevention worth the cost in time, effort, and money?

There are dozens of ways of asking the same question, but each variation means the same. It is the search to determine the benefits of crime prevention for citizens, and for the neighborhoods in which they reside.

The goal of this research study is the same: to document the extent to which crime prevention makes a difference in the lives of people. This study represents an analysis of the ways in which crime prevention improves the quality of life of citizens in terms of their attitudes toward crime, in their practice of crime prevention, and in their preceptions of the kind of community in which they live.

This study also has two added dimensions. First, it has been well documented that crime disproportionately and adversely affects older persons, both rural and urban (Dubow et. al., 1979;). This research will conversely examine whether crime prevention disproportionately and benevolently affects the elderly, both rural and urban.

Second, the research examines the impact of crime prevention at two levels: among those who are active volunteers in crime prevention and

among those who are residents, but not volunteers, within the program areas.

REACTIONS TO CRIME

Dubow et. al. (1979) list several types of reactions to crime.

These include both attitudinal and behavioral consequences. Attitudinal reactions include both cognitive aspects (i.e., perceptions of the extent and seriousness of crime) and affective aspects (i.e., expressions of fear and vulnerability to crime).

Behavioral impacts of crime include avoidance behavior (i.e., restrictions of daily activities), protective behavior (i.e., actions taken to increase personal and property protection), communicative behavior (i.e., takling about crime in much the same way that people talk about the weather), and participatory behavior (i.e., informing law enforcement of suspicious activities, joining neighborhood crime prevention groups).

In general, research on attitudinal reactions to crime is far more extensive than behavioral reactions. For example, Cohen and Felson (1979: 154) note that:

"We have a meager literature on the measures that individuals take to reduce their vulnerability to crime—measures that sometimes amount to radical reorganization of their lives. All of these are facets of the societal reaction to crime. They are interrelated in ways that we have hardly begun to explore. It is now time to approach, in a serious and systematic way, the interfaces and interaction of all these sectors with one another and with the politically organized criminal justice sector and the study of their joint effects."

When examining a rural population, it is difficult to estimate the relationship between attitudinal and behavioral reactions to crime. Previous research still finds that rural residents "worry" less about crime than urban residents (Boggs, 1971). However, expectations of rural culture specify that crime should be less problematic in the countryside. Hence, if exposure to crime increases in rural areas, what are the consequences? Does fear increase disproportionate to the level of actual crime because rural people expect crime to be lower? Or instead, despite rising crime rates, do rural people cling to their traditional beliefs that the countryside is "crime free?" Within this context, what would be the impact of a crime prevention program on rural residents? Would its impact be greater or lesser than on urban residents?

Braungart et. al. (1979), Lawton et. al. (1975), and Norton and Courlander (1982) suggest that the aged are less able to adjust psychologically with changing situations, among which the rising crime rate, vicarious victimization via mass media depictions of sensational crime events, and actual victimization, are especially traumatic.

When applied to older rural persons, tolerance of crime may be extremely low, due to both age and residence. Older rural persons grew up during a time of lower crime rates, when crime was largely restricted to urban environments, and national crime levels in general were historically lower (U.S. Department of Justice, 1985). Now that crime in both rural and urban areas has increased dramatically over the past quarter century, and the rural elderly are exposed to an increasing number of both direct and indirect (through mass media-based stories) crime incidents, the impact may be most acutely felt among older rural persons.

THE BENEFITS OF CRIME PREVENTION

Crime prevention has been defined in a variety of ways. By far, the most common element in these various definitions stresses the idea of reducing criminal opportunity (Dubow et. al., 1979; Lavrakas and Lewis, 1980; Greenberg et. al., 1985). Reduction of criminal opportunity is defined as occurring primarily through the cooperative actions of citizens and law enforcement (O'Block et. al., 1982). On the part of citizens, crime prevention includes two levels of behavior, the personal-level and the interpersonal-level (Hall, 1982). Personal level actions include those behaviors associated with an individual reducing his own vulnerability to crime, including both person and property, such as a woman carrying mace in her purse, or the installation of an alarm system in the person's residence. Personal-level actions also are defined to include any action that provides added protection to other persons in the same household (James and Gladman, 1982).

Interpersonal-level actions are defined as cooperative actions among individuals from different households, such as asking a neighbor to watch one's property during vacation. Interpersonal-level actions generally are identified as those which stress greater cooperation between neighbors and between citizens and law enforcement. An example of the latter would be a reward program which provides a money incentive for citizens to provide information to local law enforcement about specific crimes which have occurred in the community (National Rural Crime Prevention Center, 1983).

There exists nearly universal agreement among crime prevention practitioners in both the public and private sectors that crime

prevention is beneficial. The benefits most often cited include reduction in crime rates, reduction in fear or concern about crime, adoption of better security habits, and improvements in the quality of community life (Mock, 1977; National Crime Prevention Council, 1985).

Despite the widespread acceptance of crime prevention, and the proliferation of thousands of programs across the United States, there is one over-riding concern: have the benefits of crime prevention ever really been documented? The answer is that little systematic evaluation of program impacts has ever occurred. The National Crime Prevention Council (1985: 4) noted that:

"The problems that confront the crime prevention field today have less to do with whether crime prevention works (there was clear consensus that it does) and more to do with how to document its effectiveness and develop public and institutional support at all levels."

The purpose of this research is to examine the program impacts of crime prevention. Three types of impacts will be examined: attitudes about crime, adoption of security practices, and satisfaction with the local community. The goal of the research is to test if there are differences between repondents who reside within crime prevention program areas and those who reside outside programs areas on each of these three program impacts. If there are differences such that residents of program areas, when compared to residents outside of program areas, are less fearful of crime, are more likely to adopt and home and personal security practices, and are more satisfied with their communities, then it can be concluded that each represents a benefit or positive outcome of crime prevention. In the present research, the reduction of crime will not be considered directly as a benefit of crime prevention. However, exposure

to crime, both indirectly through interpersonal and mass media channels of communication, and directly through crimes occurring to the respondent or to members of his household, will be considered a factor which should be accounted for in the evaluation of the other three program impacts.

VOLUNTEERS IN CRIME PREVENTION

By definition, a volunteer is someone who provides a service to the community without monetary remuneration. What motivates volunteers is the subject of much research. In general, the conclusion is that no single factor can explain the willingness of individuals to take time away from famility activities, work, and other personal pursuits (Edwards and White, 1980: 69). At the same time, the research literature shows that most people volunteer based on a sense of altruism (AARP, 1980: IV-4 - IV-6). The complexity of voluntaristic motivations is based on the fact that individual definitions of the altruistic are highly variable, and vary by many factors, including age, sex and educational levels (Cutler, 1980: 9).

Research on volunteers in crime prevention is sparse and often fails to develop an adequate definition of what constitutes volunteerism. For example, on an individualistic basis, a citizen may decide to improve the security of his home, or enroll in a course on self-defense. These activities represent the crime prevention practitioners' definition of "good" security habits, but do not represent volunteering for a community-based crime prevention program. A crime prevention volunteer more typically would be involved in such activities as organizing crime

prevention meetings, distributing crime prevention literature, or patrolling neighborhood streets. A volunteer is not only working for himself, but also for the larger community of which he is a member.

Just as it is impossible to provide an accurate inventory of the number of currently operating crime prevention programs in the United States, so too there is no accurate estimate of the number of volunteers in crime prevention programs. However, there is some relatively meager research on the reasons why people volunteer for crime prevention.

Lavrakas et. al. (1981: 9) found that neither "fear of crime and experiences as crime victims" are sufficient motivators of volunteerism in crime prevention. Lavrakas et. al. (1981:9) suggest that:

"There is considerable evidence here that territorial measures which involve groups of neighbors in some organized anti-crime activity are generally not originating from spontaneous and/or informal voluntary action. Rather the preponderance stem from the workings of on-going community organizations, many of which have crime prevention as a major purpose. Yet, we can surmise that most of these organizations were not initially formed for crime prevention reasons...Anti-crime activities become part of an organization's agenda, depending on the perception of neighborhood crime/ delinquency as a problem."

Beyond the reasons for volunteering for crime prevention, there is no research on program benefits accuring to the volunteers. However, a publication from the American Association of Retired Persons (1984) does list several possible advantages, including:

reduction of fear of crime; enrichment of daily life; increase in life satisfaction; and increase in scope of learning and self-confidence.

THE RESEARCH MODEL

The over-all purpose of the research is to measure the relative benefits of crime prevention. The location of the research is Shelby County, Ohio, which is located in west-central portion of the state. The county seat of Shelby is Sidney.

The "Sidney-Shelby Eyes and Ears" (S.E.E.) crime prevention program was founded in 1979. It is a combination of two programs, a CB patrol and a block watch, which involves over 200 citizen volunteers. The CB patrol covers the rural areas, and the block watch includes the urban areas of Shelby County. The program is jointly sponsored by the Shelby County Sheriffs' Department and the City of Sidney Police Department.

The S.E.E. program was selected for this research for several reasons. First, it is one of the longest running programs in the state of Ohio. Second, the S.E.E. program provides a unique opportunity for a naturalistic experiment (Phillips, 1971:109). The CB patrol program is limited to the southern and eastern sections of the county, and the block watch program includes only about one-third of Sidney. Hence, the benefits of the S.E.E. crime prevention program can be examined from a comparative perspective. With regard to each of the three program impacts identified above, it is possible to compare residents who live within a crime prevention program area with residents who live outside of program areas.

The research model is illustrated in Table 1 (page 9). The model incorporates four sets of factors, including program impacts, exposure to crime, program factors, and control variables.

TABLE 1: RESEARCH MODEL FOR THE EVALUATION OF CRIME PREVENTION PROGRAM IMPACTS

CONTROL VARIABLES	PROGRAM FACTORS	EXPOSURE TO CRIME	PROGRAM IMPACTS
Age	Program Residence	Direct	Attitudes Toward Crime
Rural-Urban Residence	Volunteer Status	Indirect	Crime Prevention Behavior
Other Personal Characteristics			Perceptions of the Community

PROGRAM IMPACTS: There are three levels of program impacts for consideration in the S.E.E. study. The first is attitudes toward crime. Attitudes toward crime includes two dimensions: cognitive and affective. Cognitive aspects include both perceptions of the increase of crime in the local community, and perceptions of the vulnerability of one's person and property to crime. Affective aspects of attitudes toward crime refers to the emotional component of fear for the safety of others, of oneself, and of one's property.

Crime prevention behavior refers to various security habits which are performed relative to personal and household security, as well as informally with neighbors. Conceptually, crime prevention behavior as a crime prevention program impact is to be distinguished from voluntary activities on behalf of a crime prevention program. Crime prevention behavior as a program impact will be measured relative to what respondents are doing for themselves, their household property and for their neighbors in order to reduce vulnerability. Additionally, an individual also may be actively involved as a volunteer in the S.E.E. program, but according to the model, this would affect only his program status.

The final aspect of crime prevention impact concerns perceptions of satisfaction with the local community. This is divided into two dimensions. The first is a perception of the type of neighborhood in which one lives. The second is a perception of the type of local community in which one lives. Both dimensions were included in this research project.

EXPOSURE TO CRIME: Exposure to crime may be divided into two types:

direct and indirect. Direct exposure to crime refers to the crime experiences of the individual respondent and the immediate members of his household. Indirect exposure includes two different sources. The first is knowledge of friends and neighbors who have been recent victims of crime. The second refers to the type of source from which information about crime and crime related issues is obtained, including interpersonal and mass media channels of communication.

PROGRAM FACTORS: Program factors refer specifically to two aspects of the S.E.E. program. The first is program residence which has two categories: either respondents live within areas covered by the S.E.E. program or they live outside of S.E.E. program areas. The second is volunteer status. Respondents will be classified as to whether or not they are active volunteers in the S.E.E. program.

CONTROL VARIABLES: Control variables include demographic and personal characteristics of the respondent which may affect the proposed relationships between program factors, exposure to crime, and program impacts. Most prominent among these characteristics are age and rural-urban residence. Differences in exposure to crime, attitudes about crime, crime prevention behavior, and perceptions of the community may be due to the influence of age and rural-urban residence. Without accounting for these factors, spurious conclusions relative to the program impacts might be made.

Based on these sets of factors, a study of the S.E.E. crime prevention programs is comprised of three major research questions:

- 1. WHAT ARE THE IMPACTS OF THE S.E.E. PROGRAM? This research question may be answered by comparing differences in attitudes about crime, crime prevention behavior, and perceptions of the community between those who live within S.E.E. program areas with those who live outside of S.E.E. program areas. In order to adequately test whether such differences exist, differential exposure to crime also must be considered.
- 2. HOW IS AGE RELATED TO THE IMPACTS OF THE S.E.E. PROGRAM? In order to answer this research question, it will be necessary to compare differences about attitudes toward crime, crime prevention behavior, and perceptions of the community between older persons who live inside and outside of the S.E.E. program areas. Additionally, it will be necessary to compare differences among the elderly with differences among younger persons according to their residence inside or outside a program area.
- 3. WHAT ARE THE IMPACTS OF THE S.E.E. PROGRAM ON THE VOLUNTEERS? Assessment of program impacts on volunteers will require comparison of differences about attitudes toward crime, crime prevention behavior, and perceptions of the community between three groups, including volunteers, non-volunteers residing inside of S.E.E. program areas, and non-volunteers living outside of S.E.E. program areas.

OUTLINE OF THE REPORT

Chapter 2 of the report will describe the procedures adopted for the evaluation of the S.E.E. program. This will be followed by Chapter 3, which will cover the relative exposure to crime between those who live inside versus those who live outside of S.E.E. program areas. Chapters 4, 5, and 6 will examine each of the three program impacts outlined in the research model. Chapter 4 will review attitudes about crime. Chapter 5 will report on crime prevention behavior. Chapter 6 will focus on attitudes toward the community.

Chapter 7 will review the impact of the S.E.E. program on its volunteers. Finally, Chapter 8 will summarize the results and discuss their implications.

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH METHODS

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the procedures by which the data for this study were collected. The chapter is divided into four parts: background information about Shelby County and the S.E.E. program, interview procedures, operationalization of variables, and a demographic profile of the respondents.

LOCATION OF THE STUDY

The research site for this study is Shelby County, Ohio. Shelby County is located in west-central Ohio (see map on page 18). According to the 1980 Census of Population, the population was 43,089. The county seat and major city of Shelby County is Sidney, with a population of 17,657. Other population centers are small by comparison. Anna, Botkins, and Jackson Center in northeastern Shelby County had 1980 populations of 1,038, 1,372, and 1,310 respectively. Fort Loramie on the western edge of Shelby County had a 1980 population of 997.

Only 1.5 percent of the population is non-white. The median or middlemost age of the population was 28.0 years. Persons age 55 years and over represented 18.8 percent (8,111 persons) of the total population. Within the over 55 age group, 54.9 percent (4,456 persons)

were female compared to 50.5 for the total Shelby County population.

There were 14,251 households in Shelby County in 1980, with an average of 3.02 members per household. Single person households represented 17.7 percent of the total, and two person households made up 29.8 percent of the total.

The Shelby County economy is a mixture of agriculture and industry.

In 1980, nearly 1,000 persons in the county were employed in agriculture.

However, almost 5,000 persons occupied jobs in manufacturing industries.

THE S.E.E. PROGRAM

The Shelby County "Eyes and Ears" (S.E.E.) program originated in 1979 in response to a rising crime rate and the growing concern about crime among citizens of the county. One factor in initiation of the program was the perception that Interstate 75, which runs in a north/south direction through the middle of the county, contributed to the growing crime problem.

For several reasons, the S.E.E. program is an example of a successful crime prevention effort. First, it is a cooperative effort between two different law enforcement agencies. The Sidney Police Department and the Shelby County Sheriffs' Department each assign an officer to the S.E.E. program, and the officers share an office located in Sidney at the police department. Second, the program itself includes over 200 citizen volunteers who are actively involved in carrying out various tasks and responsibilities. Third, the volunteers meet on a

monthly basis (by township of residence), and as a total group on a quarterly basis. These meetings have served to create a high degree of solidarity among the volunteers. The meetings themselves have evolved beyond the conduct of business pertaining to the S.E.E. program to the point where meetings also have a social function, that is, refreshments are served, and members chat informally before and after the meetings. Fourth, since its inception in 1979, the reported crime rate has decreased by nearly 50 percent within the S.E.E. program areas.

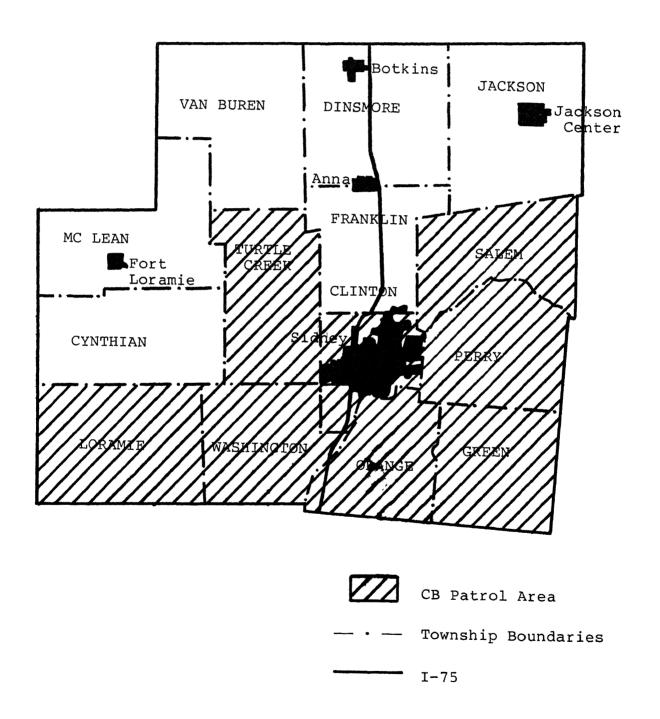
The S.E.E. program itself is actually two different programs. In the rural townships, a CB patrol program was begun. In the city of Sidney, a block watch program was initiated.

The CB patrol program includes about half of the townships in the county (see map on page 16). The 1980 population of the county outside the city of Sidney is 25,432. Of this population, 11,716 (46.1 percent) live within the CB patrol townships.

Of the two programs, the CB patrol involves the most active participation of its volunteers. Based on an analysis of when and where crimes occurred in Shelby County, a citizen-based patrol program was initiated for Friday and Saturday nights. The program includes nearly 170 citizen volunteers who patrol the roads in their townships in two separate shifts. On both nights, there is a 9:00 P.M. to Midnight and Midnight to 3:00 A.M. shift.

During each shift in each township, three citizens are actively involved in the CB patrol effort. Two citizens are actually patrolling the townships roads, looking for potentially suspicious situations. In addition, they act as good samaritans for people with car problems, and

Map 1: Township Boundaries and CB Patrol Areas Within Shelby County



on rare occasions, assist in case of accidents. The third volunteer is a base station operator who monitors the status of the patrol team. Every fifteen minutes, those on patrol briefly check-in with the base station operator. If suspicious activity is observed, those on patrol call in their report to the base station operator who in turn will telephone either the sheriffs' department or the Sidney Police Department. In this way, most of the communications are between citizens, and law enforcement is not required to expend resources in the monitoring of routine calls from those on patrol.

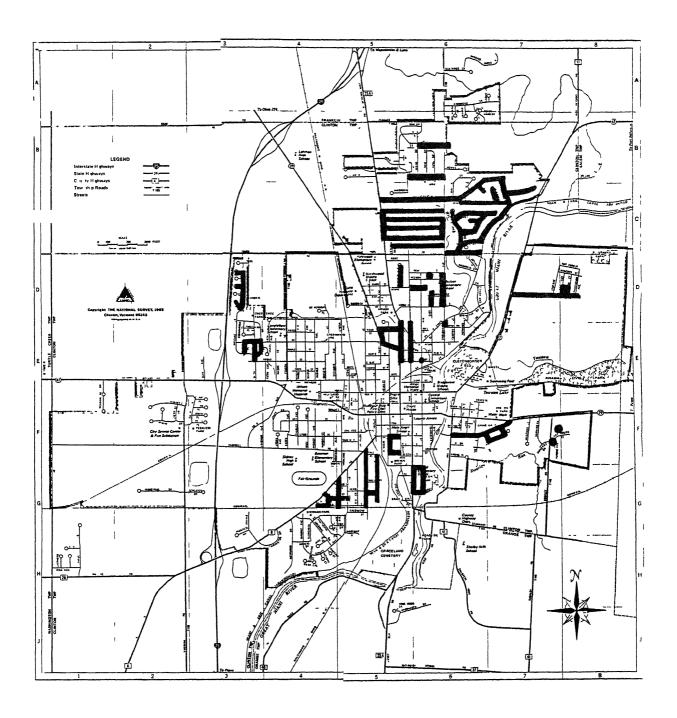
All communication over the CB radio is conducted through a set of code numbers, each number designating a specific type of situation. Most communication is conducted over Channel 19, which is the most popular CB channel. The code system allows the volunteers to conduct their business both efficiently and confidentially.

On many roads entering into the CB patrol towships are roadsigns advertising that the program exists. The function of the roadsigns is to deter crime by advertising the presence of the program to potential criminals. A second function of the signs is to remind residents of Shelby County that the program remains vital and active.

The block watch program is entirely located within the city of Sidney (see map on page 18). It is typical of most block watch and neighborhood watch programs (National Rural Crime Prevention Center, 1983). The citizens in a block watch group usually include residents who live on both sides of the entire length of a block. Residents will attend one or more neighborhood meetings during which they are introduced to the concept of crime prevention and the specific mechanics of block

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Map 2: Block Watch Areas Within Sidney, Ohio



Block Watch Area

watch. These mechanics include the idea that neighbors should be more vigilant about watching out for each other's property and should be more willing to contact law enforcement if they observe an activity which they believe to be suspicious. In addition, residents who attend the meetings are encouraged to improve the security of their homes, such as by replacing inadequate door locks and by applying identification numbers to their most valuable possessions. In most block watch programs, participants are given block watch decals to affix on doors and windows. The decals function as warning signs to potential burglars and thieves. In addition, roadsigns advertising the program are posted at the entrances to block watch areas.

Due to their nature, participants in the CB patrol program fit the definition of a volunteer. They are actively engaged in patrolling their roads and attending S.E.E. meetings. Residence within a block watch area of Sidney is not sufficient to be counted as a volunteer. However, within each of the block watch areas, there is a "block captain." The block captain is a citizen volunteer who acts as the liason between the law enforcement officers and the residents of the block watch area. The block captain may perform a variety of other tasks, from passing out crime prevention literature, to encouraging attendance at crime prevention meetings, to surveying residents on how they feel about crime in their community. As such, all block captains in the S.E.E. program can be counted as volunteers.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

The Shelby County study included two separate research projects.

Both projects involved the same structured survey asking respondents about their perceptions of crime, their crime experiences, and their adoption of various types of crime prevention measures. The first study included a county-wide random sample of approximately 800 respondents who were not volunteers in the S.E.E. program. The second study included a survey among the volunteers in the S.E.E. program.

Initial contacts with the Shelby County Sheriffs' Department, the Sidney Police Department, citizen representatives of the S.E.E. program, the Shelby County Cooperative Extension Serivce, and the County Prosecutor's Office were made in order to explain the purpose and methodology of the study. Based on their acceptance and cooperation, the study was able to proceed.

COUNTY-WIDE STUDY: Three program impacts were identified for inclusion in this study: attitudes toward crime, crime prevention behavior, and attitudes about the community. The question of crime prevention program benefits is more complicated than a simple comparison of teach impact between those who reside inside and those who reside outside the S.E.E. areas. There are two additional complications which were discussed earlier and directly affect the sampling frame for the study.

The first is the question of age. Most research suggests that older persons are more concerned about crime than younger persons (Dubow et.

al., 1979; Donnermeyer et. al., 1983). Hence, age may affect program impacts and must in some way be controlled for. Second, the S.E.E. program itself is divided into two parts: che rural areas are covered by the CB patrol, and the city of Sidney is covered by block watch. In addition, previous research indicates that despite the recent increase in rural crime rates, most rural residents remain concerned and fearful about crime than rural residents (Boggs, 1971; Dubow et. al., 1971; Baumer, 1985). Hence, the effect of rural-urban residence on program impacts must be controlled for.

The sampling frame was developed so that group comparisons ofprogram effects by both age and rural-urban residence were possible. The solution to controlling for the joint effects of age, residence, and program impact was a stratified area sample.

The first step in the sampling process was to determine the boundaries for the CB patrol and block watch programs. Once this was accomplished, it was possible to divide the total sample into four separate groups. These groups were: 1) urban (city of Sidney) and residence outside of a block watch area; 2) urban and residence inside of a block watch area; 3) rural (remainder of Shelby County) and residence outside of a CB patrol area; and 4) rural and residence inside of a CB patrol area.

Two hundred households were randomly selected from each of the four groups. For the first group (urban and residence outside of a block watch area), a series of six steps were taken in order to assure the random and unbiased selection of residences. First, a list of all street intersections was created. From this, a set of 40 intersections was

TABLE 2: SAMPLE SIZE BY TOWNSHIP AND TOWN FOR THE RURAL HALF OF THE SHELBY COUNTY STUDY

TOWNSHIP (TOWN)	POPULATION	PERCENT	SAMPLE SIZE
A. THIRD GROUP: C	OUTSIDE CB PATROL AREAS	3	
CYNTHIAN	1,808	13.2	26
DINSMORE	3,179	23.2	46
(2/3 OF ANNA)	(695)		(11)
(BOTKINS)	(1,372)		(20)
FRANKLIN	2,142	15.6	31
(1/3 OF ANNA)	(343)		(5)
JACKSON	2,225	16.2	33
(JACKSON CENTER)	(1,310)		(19)
MCLEAN	2,653	19.3	39
(FT. LORAMIE)	(997)		(15)
VAN BUREN	1,709	12.5	25
(KETTLERSVILLE)	(199)		(3)
TOTAL	13,716	100.0	200
B. FOURTH GROUP:	INSIDE CB PATROL AREAS	5	
CLINTON	1,262	10.8	22
(OUTSIDE SIDNEY	-,		
CITY LIMITS)			
	0.7.5		
·	9/3	8.3	17
GREEN	975 2.169	8.3 18.5	17 37
GREEN LORAMIE	2,169	8.3 18.5	37
GREEN LORAMIE (RUSSIA)	2,169 (438)	18.5	37 (7)
GREEN LORAMIE (RUSSIA) DRANGE	2,169 (438) 1,167		37 (7) 20
GREEN LORAMIE (RUSSIA) DRANGE PERRY	2,169 (438) 1,167 1,293	18.5 10.0 11.0	37 (7) 20 22
GREEN LORAMIE (RUSSIA) DRANGE PERRY SALEM	2,169 (438) 1,167 1,293 1,888	18.5	37 (7) 20 22 32
GREEN LORAMIE (RUSSIA) DRANGE PERRY GALEM (PORT JEFFERSON)	2,169 (438) 1,167 1,293 1,888 (482)	18.5 10.0 11.0 16.1	37 (7) 20 22 32 (8)
GREEN LORAMIE (RUSSIA) DRANGE PERRY SALEM (PORT JEFFERSON) CURTLE CREEK	2,169 (438) 1,167 1,293 1,888 (482) 1,319	18.5 10.0 11.0 16.1	37 (7) 20 22 32 (8) 22
GREEN LORAMIE (RUSSIA) DRANGE PERRY SALEM	2,169 (438) 1,167 1,293 1,888 (482)	18.5 10.0 11.0 16.1	37 (7) 20 22 32 (8)

randomly selected. Second, one of the two streets which converged at the intersection was randomly selected. Third, a direction to proceed (north, south, east, or west) along that street was randomly determined. Fourth, a residence (between the first and the fifth residence inclusively) was randomly selected. Fifth, either the residence on the left hand or the right hand side of the street (as the interviewer faced in the direction selected in step three) was randomly determined. Finally, the interviewer was instructed to select residences for inclusion in the study by one of four procedures: consecutive residences on the same side of the street; every other residence on the same side of the street; and every other residence on alternating sides of the street; and every other residence on alternating sides of the street. One of these four procedures was randomly assigned.

An example of a typical instruction for an interviewer was as follows:

"Arrowhead Drive and Spearhead Court. Go south on Spearhead Court. Start at the second residence on the right side of Spearhead Court and contact the next five residences on that side."

Five residences from each of the 40 areas were selected in order to achieve a quota of 200 completed surveys. Eight supplemental areas were developed because some streets did not have five eligible residences based on the instructions provided to the interviewers.

The same procedures described above were also used in the selection of residences for the second group (urban and residence within a block watch area).

Selection of residences in rural Shelby County (the third and fourth groups) proceeded along similar lines. However, prior to the creation of a list of county and township road intersections (including those within the small towns and villages), two additional procedures were required. First, according to the Bureau of the Census, township populations in Shelby County varied widely. Hence, it was necessary to set quotas within each township based on the proportion of the township population to the total population within either the third or fourth groups respectively. The total population within the third group (rural and residence outside of a CB patrol area) was 13,716. McLean township, for example, had a 1980 population of 2,653. This represented 19.3 percent of the total population of the third group. Therefore, a quota of 39 (.193 X 200) completed surveys was set for McLean township. Second, in order to assure that the residents of small towns and villages in rural Shelby County had an equal chance of participating in the survey, a second quota was set which represented the proportion of a town's population to the total township population in which it was located. example, the population of Fort Loramie was 37.58 percent of McLean Township. Hence, the quota of surveys to be completed within Fort Loramie was set at 15 (.3758 X 39). Table 2 (page 24) shows the quotas set within each of the townships and towns for the sample drawn from the third and fourth groups.

Two additional considerations were placed upon the sampling frame.

There is a tendency in surveys to disproportionately sample females

because they are more likely to be at home during the day. Therefore,

within each of the four groups, the attempt was made to make sure that at

least 40 percent of the sample included male respondents. This was achieved by monitoring the gender of the respondents within each of the four sampling groups as the completed surveys were returned by the interviewers. If the proportion of males fell below the 40 percent minimum, then the interviewers were instructed to specifically request that the survey be filled out by an adult male in the household. The over-all results indicate that this quota was barely reached. Female respondents numbered 460 out of a final sample size of 774. Male respondents numbered 309 or 39.9 percent of the total (based on a total of 769 because 5 respondents did not indicate whether they were male or female).

In addition to gender, the age distribution of the sample was also carefully monitored since one of the principal research questions of the Shelby County study was the relative benefits of crime prevention among older persons. Again, within each of the four sampling groups, the proportion of respondents age 55 and over was monitored. Again, the goal was to stay within a 40/60 split on age. The final results indicate less success on this factor. Out of 764 respondents who indicated their age (10 respondents did not answer the age question), 288 or 37.7 percent were age 55 and older. The median age of the sample was 45 years. Fortunately, within each of the four sampling groups, there are a sufficient number of persons age 55 and over to conduct an adequate statistical analysis. In addition, it should be noted that the proportion of the population in Shelby County over 55 years was 18.8 percent in 1980. Due to the special effort made during the interview process, the proportion of older persons in the county-wide study was twice as high.

Once the various quotas had been set for the study, the interviewers entered the field. The method used to solicit the cooperation of potential respondents was the drop-off/pick-up method. The survey instrument itself was designed to be self-administered by the respondent (see survey instrument, Appendix A). The survey contained all the instructions necessary for the respondent to answer each of the questions without assistance from the interviewer. The interviewer only assisted the respondent when so requested and based on the physical impairments of the respondent. Assistance was provided in only 6 cases by the interviewers.

A cover letter was attached to the survey instrument which further explained the nature of the study. The cover letter listed four organizations that the respondent could call if additional information about the study was needed. These organizations were the National Rural Crime Prevention Center, the Shelby County Sheriffs' Department, the Sidney Police Department, and the Shelby County Cooperative Extension Service.

The interviewers had two major tasks. The first was to contact the respondent, explain the nature of the survey, and solicit their cooperation. The second was for the interviewer to arrange a time for the completed survey instrument to be picked up.

For the purposes of maintaining the confidentiality of responses, two procedures were employed. The first was for the interviewer to leave a plain brown envelope in which the respondent was instructed to place the survey instrument upon its completion. Hence, in situations when the respondent was personally handing the completed survey instrument over to

the interviewer, any fears that the interviewer would "glance" at the answers would be allayed. Second, the respondent was given the opportunity to mail the completed survey instrument directly back to the offices of the National Rural Crime Prevention Center. If this option was desired by the respondent, the interviewer would provide a stamped self-addressed envelope. This option was chosen by 51 (6.6 percent) of the 774 respondents.

The advantage of the drop-off/pick-up method is that it is more efficient than personal interviewing, however, personal contact was maintained between the agency conducting the research and the respondents via the interviewers. Although mailed surveys are even more efficient, response rates above 80 percent (due in part to the impersonal nature of contact with the respondents) can be difficult to achieve.

In order to encourage cooperation among the citizens of Shelby

County, the local newspaper carried a story about the upcoming study,

which included a picture of the interviewers and the principal

investigator. This story was used by the interviewers as a form of

identification. Proper identification was considered crucial, especially

by the two law enforcement agencies, because of a recent incident in

which someone had posed as an insurance salesman for the American

Association of Retired Persons and tried to con several older residents

of the county out of their savings.

The response rate, based on the logs kept by the interviewers, indicated a refusal rate among those contacted of only 8.4 percent (see Table 2). Nearly all the refusals were based on either the excuse that "we're too busy" or the disclaimer that "we don't know anything about the

TABLE 3: SUMMARY OF RESULTS FROM DROP-OFF/PICK-UP METHOD

Α.	TOTAL NUMBER OF CONTACTS	= 1,005
В.	TOTAL NUMBER NOT AT HOME	= 109
с.	TOTAL NUMBER OF COMPLETED SURVEYS (NUMBER RETURNED BY MAIL)	= 774 = (51)
D.	TOTAL NUMBER OF REFUSALS	= 71
E.	REFUSAL RATE (71/(1,005 - 109))	= 8.4%

problem of crime, we keep to ourselves."

The interviewers were instructed to make three attempts to contact a residence. Each attempt was made at a different time of the day (on different days) in order to maximize the chances of finding someone at the residence. However, despite the efforts of the interviewers, there were 109 cases (11.4 percent) when no one was at the residence after three attempts. In these cases, the interviewer was instructed to contact a sixth residence on the selected street or road by following the specified selection procedures.

The quota of 800 completed surveys was not quite reached for two reasons. First, 8 of the surveys to be returned by mail either were not returned, or were returned incomplete. These were counted as refusals, but did subtract from expectations of the study's goal. Second, 18 of the respondents who were randomly selected for inclusion in the study were active volunteers in the S.E.E. program. Hence, their completed survey instruments were included in the second sub-study described below.

The interviewers were in the field contacting respondents by the first of June. All surveys were completed by the end of August. Coding and data entry operations began July 1.

THE S.E.E. VOLUNTEER STUDY: The two S.E.E. crime prevention officers had available a list of all volunteers in the program. The list contained names, addresses, and telephone numbers. Altogether, there were 24 block watch captains and 182 CB patrol volunteers.

To each volunteer, a copy of the identical survey instrument used in

the county-wide study was mailed. In many cases, both spouses were volunteers in the S.E.E. program. Hence, it was necessary in the introductory cover letter (see Appendix B) to emphasize that each spouse should fill out a separate survey instrument, and that they not collaborate on their answers. A special announcement about the survey was made at the next quarterly meeting of the S.E.E. program in order to encourage more volunteers to cooperate.

Altogether, 139 volunteers completed the survey. This included those volunteers who were contacted and responded from the county-wide survey. From the original list, 14 responded by indicating that they were no longer active in the S.E.E. program. This reduced the number of eligible respondents to 192. Hence, the completion rate was 72.4 percent.

OPERATIONALIZATION OF VARIABLES

PROGRAM IMPACTS: Attitudes toward crime included two separate dimensions: cognitive and affective. The cognitive dimension itself was operationalized by three different scales. The first scale concerned perceptions of changes in crime in the respondent's neighborhood. The question read (see question 1 in Appendix A): "Compared to 1980, how much do you think crime in your NEIGHBORHOOD was changed?" There were five response categories: "increased a lot," "increased a little," "about the same," "decreased a little," and "decreased a lot." In addition, there was a "don't know" category, but for the purposes of analysis,

"don't know" responses were combined with "about the same" responses. This question included five types of crime which the respondent indicated as having increased or decreased: burglary, vandalism, theft, assault, and littering. Responses to the five crime types were added up, with a high score indicating a perception that crime in the neighborhood had increased. The range of scores was from 25 (answered "increased a lot" on all five crime types) to 5 (answered "decreased a lot" to all five crime types). When subjected to the Alpha test of reliability, a score of .77 was achieved, which indicates that the five items formed an internally consistent scale.

The second cognitive scale of attitudes toward crime was similar to the first, except that it concerned perceptions about changes in crime in all of Shelby County. The reason for two different questions about changes in crime stems from the fact that people often perceive crime in their neighborhood or immediate vicinity as different from crime in surrounding areas. In particular, it may be that residence within a crime prevention program area might specifically affect perceptions about the local neighborhood while affecting to a lesser degree perceptions about the whole county. The operationalization of this variable was identical to the procedures described above. The introduction to this (see question 2 in Appendix A) was modified to reflect a focus on the whole county. It reads as follows: "Compared to 1980, how much do you think crime in SHELBY COUNTY has changed?" The Alpha reliability coefficient for the scale formed from this question was .84 indicating an internally consistent scale.

The third and final way in which the cognitive dimension of

attitudes toward crime was measured was in terms of perceptions about the likelihood of crimes occurring in the neighborhood. The question reads as follows (see Question 3 in Appendix A): "Compared to other parts of SHELBY COUNTY, how likely is it that people in this NEIGHBORHOOD...", which was then followed by a list of the same five crime types listed above. These included: "Will have their houses broken into?", "Will have their property vandalized?", "Will have something stolen from their yard?", "Will be attacked or assaulted?", and "Will have trash/litter thrown on their property?" The five response categories were: "much less likely," "somewhat less likely," "about the same," "somewhat more likely," and "much more likely." A "don't know" category was also included, but these responses were combined with the "about the same" responses during the statistical analysis. Responses to the five crime types were added up in order to develop a scale indicating perceptions about the proability of crime occurring in the neighborhood. A score of 25 meant a perception in which the respondent thought the chances of crime occurring in his neighborhood were "much more likely" (the respondent answered "much more likely" to all five crime types). A score of 5 meant a perception that the chances were "much less likely" (the respondent answered "much less likely" to all five crime types). The alpha reliability statistic for the scale was .88, indicating that the five items in the scale were internally consistent.

The second dimension of attitudes toward crime is the affective or emotional dimension. Three scales were developed in order to measure the affective dimension of attitudes toward crime. The first scale was a question about how safe the respondent felt people in his neighborhood

would be if walking alone at night (see Question 5 in Appendix A). Four types of people were used in the question: "a young man," "an elderly man," "a young woman," and "an elderly woman." The question was introduced to the respondent in the following way: "How safe from crime do you feel these people are when WALKING alone at night in YOUR NEIGHBORHOOD?" There were five possible responses: "very safe," "somewhat safe," "undecided," "somewhat unsafe," and "very unsafe." The four items in the question were added to form a scale, with values ranging from 20 (answered "very safe" to all four items) to 4 (answered "very unsafe" to all four items). The alpha reliability statistic for the scale .93, which indicated that the items were internally consistent.

The second scale was identical to the first in terms of response categories, but the focus was on how safe the respondent felt the same four types of people would be when they were at home alone during the night. The introduction to the question reads as follows (see Question 6 in Appendix A): "How safe from crime do you feel these people are when ALONE AT HOME during the night in YOUR NEIGHBORHOOD." The alpha reliability statistic for this scale was .94, indicating that the four items were internally consistent with each other.

The final scale measured fear of crime more directly than the previous two scales. It was a five item scale asking the respondent specifically if he was fearful of crime under specific circumstances. There were five response categories to this question: "strongly disagree," "disagree," "undecided," "agree," and "strongly agree." The five items were worded as follows (see Question 8E, F, G, H, and M in Appendix A): "When I am away from home overnight, I worry about the

safety of my property," "I worry a great deal about my personal safety from crime and criminals," "There is no reason to be afraid of becoming a victim of crime in this community," "I worry a great deal about the safety of my loved ones from crime and criminals," and "Even in my own home, I'm not safe from people who want to take what I have." The alpha reliability statistic for this scale was .77, which is sufficiently high to be judged internally consistent.

The second program impact to be measured was crime prevention behavior. Crime prevention behavior was operationalized along two dimensions: the presence of home security measures, and the practice of crime prevention behavior.

The presence of home security measures included 7 items (see

Questions 9 through 15 in Appendix A): automatic light timers, deadbolt

locks on entrance doors, insurance policy to cover losses from theft,

valuable property marked with an identification number, property

identification stickers placed on windows/doors of the residence,

presence of an alarm system, and presence of a watchdog for the purposes

of security. The responses to each item was either "yes" or "no."

There was no attempt to develop a scale from these items since each

represented a separate and discrete form of behavior.

Crime prevention behavior was measured by a series of 7 items divided into three scales. For each of the 7 items, there were four response categories, including: "always," "most of the time," "less than half the time," and "never." The seven items were as follows (see Question 16, 17, and 18 in Appendix A): 1) locking doors scale -- "How often do you lock all your doors: a. at night when someone is at home?

b. during the day when someone is at home? and c. when the house is vacant for a few days?"; 2) going out scale -- "For reasons of safety, when you go out, do you: a. make arrangements to go with other people? and b. carry mace or a whistle?"; and 3) vacation scale -- "When you are out of town, how often do you: a. arrange for a neighbor to watch your home and property? and b. arrange to have mail and newspaper deliveries taken care of?"

Alpha reliability statistics were calculated for each of the three scales, however, only the third scale had a sufficiently high alpha value (.74). The first scale did not work out because responses to the third item (locking doors when house is vacant) were highly skewed (over 93 percent responded "always"). It was decided that the other two items would be used as two separate indicators of crime prevention behavior. The second scale failed for similar reasons. Over 93 percent of the respondents "never" carried mace or a whistle when going out. Therefore, the one remaining item (making arrangments to go with other people) will be treated as a separate indicator of crime prevention behavior.

The final program impact concerns perceptions of the community.

Perceptions of the community was divided into two dimensions. The first has to do with satisfaction about the community in general. There were four items which made up the community satisfaction scale. These included (see Questions 8A, B, C, D in Appendix A): "The best thing that can happen around here is that it stays exactly as it is now," "There is a strong need for improvement of services and facilities around here,"

"This area has many changes that need to be made before a person can live a satisfying life here," and "This area is very close to being the kind

of place I would hate to leave." There were five response categories to the community satisfaction scale: "strongly disagree," "disagree," "undecided," "agree," and "strongly agree." Scale scores ranged from 20 (very satisfied with the community) to 4 (very unsatisfied with the community). The alpha reliability coefficient for the community satifaction scale was .74, indicating that the scale was internally consistent.

The second indicator of perceptions of the community was trust of neighbors. A trust of neighbors scale was developed using the following four items (see Questions 8I, J, K, and L in Appendix A): "Most people in this neighborhood can be trusted," "Most people in this neighborhood are truthful and dependable," "I would not trust my neighbors to watch my house and property," and "My neighbors can be relied upon to call the police if someone suspicious is on my property." The same five response categories as mentioned above for the community satisfaction scale were used. A score of 20 indicated very high trust of neighbors, while a score of 4 indicated very high distrust of neighbors. The alpha statistic for the trust of neighbors scale was .80, indicating that the scale was internally consistent.

EXPOSURE TO CRIME: There are two dimensions associated with exposure to crime. The first is direct exposure through crime incidents that occurred specifically to the respondent or members of his household. The second is indirect exposure which refers to the frequency with which the respondent was aware of crime incidents occurring to friends, neighbors, or relatives, and the frequency with which he hears or reads about crime

stories through both the mass media and acquaintances.

Direct exposure to crime was measured by a series of four questions that asked the respondent if "during the past 12 months" there had been any crimes occurring to himself or members of his household. The four crime types were (see Questions 26A, B, C, D in Appendix A) vandalism, burglary, larceny-theft, and violent crime (including armed robbery, assault, and threats). Responses to each question were "yes" or "no." In order to develop a scale, the respondent was scored as being the victim of a crime if he answered "yes" to any of the four questions. If he answered "no" to all four, then he was classified as a non-victim.

Indirect exposure to crime was measured in three different ways.

The first way was to ask the respondent the same four questions about crimes occurring "during the past 12 months" to "people who you know personally" (see Questions 27A, B, C, D in Appendix A). If the respondent answered "yes" to any of the four questions, he was classified as having been exposed to crime indirectly. If the respondent answered "no" to all four questions, he was classified as not having been indirectly exposed to crime.

A second method by which indirect exposure to crime was operationalized consisted of asking how often the respondents "talked about crime" with other people. Four types of people were used, including (see Question 4 in Appendix A): with other members of the household, with other relatives, with neighbors, and with other friends and acquaintances. Four response categories were utilized, including: "everyday," "once a week," "rarely," and "never." In order to form a scale the reponses were added up, with a score of 16 representing very

frequent talking about crime (responded "everyday" about each of the four types of people), and a score of 4 representing never talking about crime (responded "never" about each of the four types of people). The Alpha reliability coefficient for this scale was .77, indicating that the items were internally consistent with each other.

The final way in which indirect exposure to crime was operationalized consisted of asking how often respondents obtained information about crime. There were 6 possible sources, including (see Question 7 in Appendix A): television, radio, newspaper, friends/acquaintances, members of household, and other relatives. There were four response categories: "frequently," "occasionally," "rarely," "never." The Alpha reliability coefficient for all 7 items was too low to warrant construction of a scale. However, when the scale was split into two parts, mass media channels (television, radio, and newspaper) and interpersonal channels (friends, household members, other relatives), one alpha was significant. The alpha for interpersonal sources was .79. However, the alpha for the mass media channels was still too low, hence the analysis will proceed by treating each source as a separate variable.

PROGRAM FACTORS: Two factors were included under program factors. The first has to do with program residence and is directly tied to the sampling frame. The factor itself was operationalized by forming two categories: residence inside of a crime prevention program area, and residence outside of a crime prevention program area.

The second factor concerned volunteer status. Whether a respondent was a volunteer was determined primarily by participation in the mailed

survey, which was sent to all persons on the list of volunteers supplied by the crime prevention officers. In addition, 18 respondents to the county-wide study were re-classified as volunteers based on their response to Questions 38, 38A, 38B, 38C, and 38D (see Appendix A). These questions concerned the amount of time and effort devoted to the S.E.E. program, and their motivations for joining the S.E.E. program. Most of the 18 also wrote personal notes that indicated they were part of the S.E.E. program. For the purposes of analysis, this group will be examined separately in Chapter 7, and will not be included in the analysis of the county-wide group (non-volunteers only) as covered in Chapters 3, 4, 5, and 6.

CONTROL VARIABLES: Control variables consist of demographic characteristics of the respondent which may affect the impacts of the S.E.E. program. The two primary control factors which will be used throughout this study are age and rural-urban residence. Care was taken in the development of the sampling frame to make sure that sufficient variation in both factors was achieved. Age was determined by asking the respondent "How old are you?" (see Question 29 in Appendix A).

Respondents were classified into two age groups: those less than 55 years of age, and those 55 years of age and older.

Rural-urban residence was operationalized by whether the respondent's residence was in the city of Sidney or somewhere else in Shelby County.

Other demographic variables incorporated into the study (but for which no specific hypotheses were developed) included: gender (Question

28); years of residence in the county (Question 30); marital status (Question 31); educational status (Question 32); farm status (Question 33); number of household members (Question 34); age of other household members (Question 35); distance to nearest neighbor (Question 36); and name of community of residence (Question 37).

METHOD OF ANALYSIS

Aside from frequency distributions, the primary method of analysis will be cross-tabular. The cross-tabulations will include four separate variables: 1) a dependent variable; 2) prevention program status; 3) rural - urban residence; and 4) age.

Each of the four variables in the cross-tab will be dichotomized. For example, on the various measures of program impact, each scale or indicator will be divided into two groups and given labels such as "more" verus "less," "high" versus "low," "safe" versus "unsafe," and "agree" versus "disagree." Of course, prevention program status is a natural dichotomy of those living inside versus those living outside S.E.E. program areas. Likewise, rural-urban residence is a natural dichotomy. Finally, age was dichotomized into two groups: those under 55 and those 55 years of age and older.

Chi-square and Phi values will be reported for each of the cross-tabulations. Chi-square is a statistical measure of the independence between two categorical (such as dichotomized) variables

(Mueller et. al., 1970). A chi-square value must be statistically significant at or below the .05 level in order to conclude that the variables in the cross-tabulation are not independent, which means that in some fashion they are related to each other.

However, chi-square cannot measure the strength of the relationship between the two variables. An additional statistic, called Phi, is also required. Phi is a statistical measure of association or relationship for dichotomized variables. It is calculated directly from the chi-square value, and corrects for the fact that chi-square values increase with the number of cases. Studies with a large enough number of cases can have statistically significant chi-square values even though the two variables under consideration may be very marginally related (Hie et. al., 1975). The value of Phi ranges from 0 (no relationship) to +1.0 (highest possible relationship).

On page 41 is an example of a typical cross-tabulation employed in this research report. For the purposes of illustration, the table shows the relationship between frequency of obtaining information about crime from newspapers by prevention program status, rural-urban residence, and age. No numbers are reported; however, for the sake of illustration a number is placed where each cell in the table is located.

The table itself is divided into two different sections. The top half shows the relationship between newspapers as a source of information (more frequently versus less frequently) by first, prevention program status, second, by age, and third, by residence. The Chi-square and Phi values show only the strengh of association between two variables without controlling for the effects of the two remaining variables. Hence, by

TABLE 4: SAMPLE TABLE SHOWING HYPOTHETICAL RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE, AND AGE WITH FREQUENCY OF USING THE NEWSPAPER AS A SOURCE OF INFORMATION ABOUT CRIME

	MORE	REQUENCY OF U LESS FREQUENTLY	MORE	LESS	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		ВУ	7		
TOTAL	P INSIDE	REVENTION PRO AREA	OGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE		
IOTAL	1	2	3	4	
TOTAL	YOUNG		OLDE		
	5	6	7	8	
TOTAL	RESIDENCE RURAL URBAN				
	9	10	11	12	
RESIDENCE/ AGE	P INSI DE	REVENTION PRO	OGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE		
Rural Younger	13	14	15	16	
Older	17	18	19	20	
Urban Younger	21	22	23	24	
Older	25	26	27	28	

examining cell 1 and cell 3, one can see the percentage difference of frequency of using newspapers as a source of information about crime between those who live inside versus those who live outside the S.E.E. program. Likewise, cell 5 versus cell 7 will show newspaper usage by age, and cell 9 versus cell 11 by rural-urban residence.

The bottom half of the table considers all four variables at the same time. Differences in using newspapers as a source of information about crime between those who live inside versus those who live outside the S.E.E. area are calculated while controlling for the effects of both rural-urban residence and age. Hence, there are four separate sets of Chi-square and Phi values for the relationship between prevention program status and use of newspapers: for rural-younger, rural-older, urban-younger, and urban-older.

By comparing different cells, the individual effect of prevention program status, age, and rural-urban residence respectively on use of newspapers while controlling for the other two variables can be calculated. To examine the effect of rural-urban residence while controlling for age and prevention program status, the following cells must be compared: cell 13 versus cell 21; cell 17 versus cell 25; cell 15 versus cell 23; and cell 19 versus cell 27. Throughout the narrative, the average percentage difference based on these four comparisons will be provided to the reader. The average percentage difference will simply be the total percentage derived from adding up the differences between each of the four sets of cells, divided by 4.

In order to examine the effect of age while controlling for the effects of rural-urban residence and prevention program status, the

following cells must be compared: cell 13 versus cell 17; cell 15 versus 19; cell 21 versus cell 25; and cell 23 versus cell 27. In order to examine the effect of prevention program status while controlling for the effects of rural-urban residence and age, the following cells must be compared: cell 13 versus cell 15; cell 17 versus cell 19; cell 21 versus cell 23; and cell 25 versus cell 27.

CHAPTER 3

EXPOSURE TO CRIME

INTRODUCTION

The research model presented in Chapter 1 did not identify exposure to crime as a program impact of crime prevention, despite the obvious notion that crime prevention is supposed to reduce criminal opportunity and therefore ultimately, to reduce crime itself. Instead, the research model for this study views exposure to crime as a factor that intervenes in the relationship between the program and its impacts. This approach is taken for several reasons. First, it is difficult to prove (or disprove) a hypothesis that a lower crime rate among residents of a crime prevention program area compared to residents outside of the area is due directly to the program itself, based solely on information from a survey conducted at only one point in time. Many others factors may be responsible that cannot be controlled for in a single survey. In addition, many crime prevention programs are started in "high crime" areas, hence a comparative analysis at one point in time would be inappropriate.

Second, exposure to crime includes more than direct victimization, for it also includes talking about crime with others in the community,

and reading or hearing about crime events through the media and acquaintances. It is possible that residents of a crime prevention program area, because of the awareness created by the program itself, may be more interested in crime stories and therefore more exposed to crime in the indirect sense. However, to conclude that this is a negative side-effect would be inappropriate without also examining whether increased indirect exposure leads to increased concern and fear about crime, to a lessened willingness to practice crime prevention, or less satisfaction with the community. Hence, exposure to crime is more appropriately viewed for the purposes of this report as a possible intervening variable between the S.E.E. program and the three impacts specified in the research model.

Given these qualifications, the purpose of this chapter is to examine differences in both direct and indirect exposure to crime between those who live inside versus those who live outside S.E.E. program areas.

DIRECT EXPOSURE

Table 5 shows the proportion of respondents to the county-wide survey to whom a crime had occurred (or to a member of the respondent's household) during the previous 12 months. Of the four crime types, vandalism was the most frequently mentioned, followed by larceny, burglary, then violent crime. This re-confirms other victimization research of rural and small town areas which have likewise found vandalism to be the leading crime type (Donnermeyer, 1984).

TABLE 5: DIRECT EXPOSURE TO CRIME: CRIMES OCCURRING TO SHELBY COUNTY RESIDENTS, BY TYPE OF INCIDENT (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

TYPE OF INCIDENT	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
VANDALISM			
None	602	78.3	
One or More Incidents	167	21.7	
Total	769	100.0	
No Answer	5		
BURGLARY			
None	700	91.6	
One or More Incidents	64	8.4	
Total	764	100.0	
No Answer	10	***	
LARCENY			
None	615	80.2	
One or More Incidents	152	19.6	
Total	767	100.0	
No Answer	7	***	
VIOLENT CRIME			
None	731	95.2	
One or More Incidents	37	4.8	
Total	768	100.0	
No Answer	6		

areas (56.7 percent).

Altogether, slightly over 27 percent of the sample had been directly exposed to one of the four crime types. This proportion closely approximates the national average (U.S. Department of Justice, 1985).

In Table 6, the sample is divided into two basic groups: those who answered affirmatively to at least one of the four crime types, and those who had no crimes occurring. These two groups were then further broken down by the three variables of prevention program status, age, and rural-urban residence. The results indicate that direct exposure to crime is not identical from group to group. Referring first to the top half of the table, those who live outside of S.E.E. program areas were more likely (28.4 percent to 25 percent) to have experienced crime, but the difference was not statistically significant at the .05 level. However, for both age and residence, the difference was more substantial. Younger persons were more likely to be the victims of crime than older persons (39.6 percent to 29.3 percent). Urban residents (i.e., residents of Sidney) were more likely to be crime victims than rural residents (42.1 percent to 29.2 percent).

Simultaneously controlling for the effects of all three variables on direct exposure to crime is reported in the bottom half of Table 6. The results indicate that only one of the four combinations was statistically significant. Among rural residents below the age of 55 (younger), more crimes were experienced by those who live inside than those who live outside the S.E.E. program area (37.0 percent to 23.3 percent). However, this reverses itself for older rural people where those living inside the S.E.E. area reported less crime, although the difference was not statistically significant. Over-all, the highest rate of crime was among

TABLE 6: DIRECT EXPOSURE TO CRIME: CRIMES (ALL TYPES) OCCURRING TO SHELBY COUNTY RESIDENTS, BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	NONE	ONE OR MORE	CCURRING TO NO NE	ONE OR MORE	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		В	Y		
	P	REVENTION PR	OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE	AREA	OUTSIDE	AREA	
TOTAL	246 (66.0)	127 (34.0)	237 (62.0)	145 (38.0)	1.09 .29 .04
		AG	E		• 04
	YOUNG	ER	OLDE	R	
TOTAL	284 (60.4)	186 (39.6)	198 (70.7)	82 (29.3)	7.64 .006 .10
		RESID			
	RURA	L	UR BA	.N	
TOTAL	255 (70.8)	105 (29.2)	230 (57.9)	167 (42.1)	13.09 .0003 .13
	p	REVENTION PR	OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE		OUTSIDE		
RESIDENCE/ AGE	NO NE	ONE OR MORE	NO NE	ONE OR MORE	
Rural					
Younger	63 (63.0)	37 (37.0)	99 (76.6)	30 (23.3)	4.50 .03 .15
Older	50 (73.5)	18 (26.5)	38 (66.7)	19 (33.3)	.41 .52
Urban					.07
Younger	66 (56.4)	51 (43.6)	52 (43.3)	68 (56.7)	3.55 .06 .13
Older	64 (77.1)	19 (22.9)	46 (63.9)	26 (36.1)	2.66 .10

urban residents below the age of 55 living outside of S.E.E. program areas (56.7 percent).

An analysis of the average percentage differences between various cells in the bottom half of Table 6 indicates that prevention program status, age, and rural-urban residence were largely independent of each other, that is, they do not conjointly influence exposure to crime. For example, the influence of prevention program status while controlling for age and rural-urban residence as calculated by the average percentage difference of the appropriate cells (see Chapter 2 for a complete explanation) was 4.9. This again indicates that residents of the S.E.E. area were slightly less likely to have experienced crime than non-residents. The difference of 4.9 percent was little different from the percentage difference of 4.0 percent found in the top half of Table 6 (34.0 percent inside the S.E.E. area versus 38.0 percent for those living outisde the S.E.E. area).

The average percentage difference for age while controlling for the effect of rural-urban residence and prevention program status was 13.1. This was somewhat higher from the 10.3 percent noted above and shows that the age difference is increased by the other two. However, it should be noted that in both the urban and rural areas of Shelby County, fewer older persons living inside of S.E.E. program areas reported crimes than those living outside the S.E.E. program area. The difference was greatest in the urban portion of the S.E.E. program.

Likewise, the average percentage difference for rural-urban residence was 9.8, which was little different from the 12.9 percent differential noted above.

INDIRECT EXPOSURE TO CRIME

KNOWLEDGE OF CRIME VICTIMS: From time to time, most people hear stories about crimes occurring to persons they know, such as friends, neighbors, and relatives. This is a form of exposure to crime, because many people empathize and react to the crime story as if it happened to them. Table 7 shows the proportion of respondents in the county-wide study who were aware of crimes occurring to other people during the previous 12 months. The percentages were much higher than for direct exposure as reported in Table 5. Almost 36 percent were aware of vandalism incidents, followed by burglary (31.5 percent), larceny (30.6 percent), and violent crime (17.6). Vandalism was again the leading crime type, and violent crime again had the lowest proportion relative to exposure. However, larceny, which was the second leading crime type in Table 5, was overtaken by burglary. This indicates either that incidents of larceny tend to get re-interpreted as stories about burglary (especially if the incident happened on the victim's premises) or that incidents of burglary were far more likely to be re-told.

In total, nearly 58 percent of the sample had knowledge of a crime victim during the previous 12 months. Knowledge of other crime victims (all four crime types added together) is broken out by prevention program status, age, and residence in Table 8. Although the difference is not statistically significant, residents of S.E.E. areas were slightly more likely (60.3 percent) than those residing outside of S.E.E. areas (55.5 percent) to have knowledge of other crime victims. When controlling for the effects of age, and rural-urban residence, the average percentage difference for prevention program status increased from 4.8 to 7.3

TABLE 7: INDIRECT EXPOSURE TO CRIME: KNOWLEDGE OF THE CRIME EXPERIENCES OF FRIENDS, NEIGHBORS, AND OTHER PEOPLE KNOWN PERSONALLY (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

TYPE OF INCIDENT	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
VANDALISM			
No	492	64.1	
Yes	276	35.7	
Total	768	100.0	
No Answer	6	Mills som the	
BURGLARY			
No	521	67.3	
Yes	244	31.5	
Total	765	100.0	
No Answer	9	Made rate Alex	
LARCENY			
No	513	68.4	
Yes	237	30.6	
Tot al	750	100.0	
No Answer	24	Ania con tree	
VIOLENT CRIME			
No	622	80.4	
Yes	136	17.6	
T ot a l	758	100.0	
No Answer	16		

TABLE 8: INDIRECT EXPOSURE TO CRIME: KNOWLEDGE OF THE CRIME EXPERIENCES (ALL CRIME TYPES) OF FRIENDS, NEIGHBORS, AND OTHER PEOPLE KNOWN PERSONALLY BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	NO	YES	CCURRING TO NO	YES	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		В	Y		
	P INSIDE		OGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE		
	INSIDE	AREA	0013106	AKEA	
TOTAL	145 (39.7)	220 (60.3)	166 (44.5)	207 (55.5)	1.54 .22 .05
		AG	E		.05
	YOUNG		OLDE	R	
TOTAL	178 (38.0)	290 (62.0)	132 (49.3)	136 (50.7)	8.34 .004 .11
		RESID	E NCE		
	RURA	L	UR BA	.N	
TO'TAL	171 (48.9)	179 (51.1)	139 (35.6)	251 (64.4)	12.70 .0004 .13
	P	REVENTION PR	OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE		OUTSI DE		
RESIDENCE/ AGE	NO	YES	NO	YES	
Rural					
Younger	42 (42.0)	58 (58.0)	58 (46.0)	68 (54.0)	.22 .64 .04
Older	35 (55.6)	28 (44.4)	36 (63.2)	21 (36.8)	.44 .51
Urban					.08
Younger	41 (35.0)	76 (65.0)	36 (29.8)	85 (70.2)	•54 •46
Older	25 (30.9)	56 (69.1)	36 (53.7)	31 (46.3)	.06 7.00 .008 .23

percent. Specifically, older persons living in the urban or block watch portions of the S.E.E. program were far more likely (69.1 percent) to know of crime victims than older persons who lived elsewhere in the city of Sidney (46.3 percent). This may be due in part to the S.E.E. program creating greater interest in the problem of crime among older persons in the block watch areas.

Persons under 55 were more likely to know of crime victims (62.0 percent) than older persons (50.7 percent). This difference was statistically significant. The average percentage difference by age when controlling for rural-urban residence and prevention program status was 12.7. This indicates that the age difference was not due to either of the other two factors. However, there were smaller percentage differences between younger and older persons in S.E.E. program areas than outside of S.E.E. program areas. This is another indicator that the S.E.E. program has increased awareness of crime among both younger and older persons.

Rural-urban differences in knowledge of crime victims were substantial. While 51.1 percent of rural residents were aware of other people who had experienced a crime, 64.4 of the urban residents knew of crime victims. When controlling for prevention program status and age, the average percentage difference was 14.4, indicating that the effect of rural-urban residence on knowledge of crime victims was independent. For both the young and the old, and regardless of whether they lived inside or outside of S.E.E. program areas, fewer rural residents personally knew crime victims.

TALKING ABOUT CRIME: Crime is much like the weather: it is something to

talk about. Dubow et. al. (1979) identify talking about crime as a type of behavioral impact. Talking about crime functions in one of two possible ways. First, it can help people understand and gain insight into the circumstances of specific crime incidents, hence alleviating their concern and anxiety. This may happen to residents in a neighborhood where a violent crime may have occurred. Second, talking about crime could increase concern and anxiety, especially if the discussion focuses on more heinous crimes that are typically reported through national news outlets.

Table 9 shows the frequency of talking about crime with various types of people for all respondents in the county-wide study. An examination of the table indicates that other members of the same household were the most likely sources with whom respondents were conversant. The second most frequent source were other relatives, following closely by neighbors, and in last place came friends/acquaintances.

The joint effects of prevention program status, age, and rural-urban residence on frequency of talking about crime (all sources) are reported in Table 10. No statistically significant percentage differences emerge from the analysis. Residents of S.E.E. program area were slightly less likely to talk about crime (53.4 percent versus 58.8 percent). When controlling for age and rural-urban residence, the average percentage difference was 6.7, which was slightly larger but still inconsequential.

The same patterns holds for age. Older people were more likely to talk about crime than younger people (58.8 percent versus 54.2 percent), despite the tendency of younger people to know more crime victims.

Controlling for the effects of prevention program status and rural-urban

TABLE 9: INDIRECT EXPOSURE: FREQUENCY OF TALKING ABOUT CRIME, BY SOURCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

SOURCE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
OTHER HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS		te Marines e de Marines de Communicación de La Agrico de L	
Everyday	145	19.1	
Once a Week	292	38.4	
Rarely	281	36.9	
Never	43	5.7	
Total	761	100.1	
No Answer	13	tings who was	
WITH OTHER RELATIVES			
Everyday	28	3.7	
Once a Week	231	30.2	
Rarely	457	59.8	
Never	48	6.3	
Total	764	100.0	
No Answer	10	other trade printer	
WITH NEIGHBORS			
Everyday	26	3.4	
Once a Week	149	19.4	
Rarely	498	64.8	
Never	95	12.4	
Total	768	100.0	
No Answer	6	This rate map	
WITH FRIENDS/ACQUAINTANCES			
Everyday	42	5.5	
Once a Week	216	28.2	
Rarely	466	60.8	
Never	43	5.6	
Total	767	100.1	
No Answer	7		

TABLE 10: INDIRECT EXPOSURE TO CRIME: FREQUENCY OF TALKING ABOUT CRIME (ALL SOURCES) BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	MORE FREQUENTLY	LESS FREQUENTLY	MORE FREQUENTLY	LESS FREQUENTLY	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		В	Y		
			OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE	AREA	OUTSIDE	AREA	
TOTAL	175 (46.6)	200 (53.4)	156 (41.2)	222 (58.8)	2.01
		AG	F		.05
	YOUNG		OLDE	R	
TOTAL	216 (45.8)	256 (54.2)	114 (41.3)	162 (58.8)	1.23 .27
		RESID	ENCE		.05
	RURA		URBA	N	
TOTAL	147 (40.6)	215 (59.4)	185 (47.1)	208 (52.9)	2.94 .09 .07
	p	REVENTION PR	OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE		OUTSI DE		
RESIDENCE/ AGE	MORE FREQUENTLY	LESS FREQUENTLY	MORE FREQUENTLY	LESS FREQUENTLY	
Rural	49	52	47	81	2.76
Younger	(48.5)	(51.2)	(36.7)	(63.3)	.10
Older	30	38	18	41	.12 1.94
01401	(44.1)	(55.9)	(30.5)	(69.5)	.16
Urban	E /		63	E 0	0.71
Younger	54 (45.8)	64 (54.2)	63 (52.1)	58 (47.9)	0.71 .40
					.06
Older	40 (47.6)	44 (52.4)	26 (40.0)	39 (6 0.0)	0.58 .46
	(,,,,,,,,	()~ • • • /	(, , , , ,	(00.0)	.08

residence resulted in an average percentage difference of 5.3. Again, this was not much different from the original percentage difference.

The largest difference, but still statistically insignificant, was between rural and urban residents. Rural residents were less likely to talk about crime than urban residents (40.6 percent versus 47.1 percent). Controlling for the effects of prevention program status and age created a slightly lower average percentage difference of 5.9.

Despite the lack of relationships between talking about crime and the three factors under consideration, some patterns do emerge from Table 10. First, older persons, both rural and urban, who live inside of S.E.E. program areas talk more about crime than older persons who live outside of S.E.E. program areas. Second, among rural persons, residents of S.E.E. program areas were more likely to talk about crime. However, among urban persons, residents who lived outside of S.E.E. program areas were more likely to talk about crime. This suggests that rural-urban residence conditions the relationship between prevention program status and talking about crime. Residence in the rural portion of the S.E.E. program areas increased the level of discussion about crime. Since the volunteers were not included in this portion of the study, we can say that this is a program impact which has occurred through the accumulation of 180 CB patrol volunteers talking about crime to their friends, neighbors, and relatives.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ABOUT CRIME: One of the more intriguing questions to emerge in criminological research is the impact of mass media on the development of fearful attitudes about crime (Dubow et. al., 1979).

Table 11 shows the extent to which people indicate that they find out

information about crime from various sources. The responses clearly show that mass media sources were the primary sources of information.

Television and newspaper were virtually tied in the degree to which they were mentioned, followed by the radio. Among the three interpersonal sources of information, friends/acquaintances, and members of the household were mentioned most often, followed distantly by other relatives.

One interesting pattern found in Tables 9 and 11 is that friends/acquaintances were mentioned as the most frequent interpersonal sources of information about crime, but were mentioned less frequently as the type of people to whom the respondents talked to about crime. This would indicate that after hearing about a crime incident from friends/acquaintances, the respondents took the information home and discussed the events with other family members.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, it was not possible to develop a scale of the three mass media channels of communication due to a low alpha reliability value. However, the interpersonal channels were scable. Hence, Tables 12, 13, and 14 show the frequency of television, radio, and newspapers respectively, while Table 15 includes the three interpersonal channels added together into a scale.

Table 12 shows little difference in frequency of use of television for information about crime by prevention program status, age, and rural-urban residence. Among each of the groups, roughly 85 percent of the respondents had indicated that they used television for crime information frequently. When controlling for the three factors simulataneously, little variation in use occurred. The average percentage difference by prevention program status was 2.7 (compared to

TABLE 11: INDIRECT EXPOSURE: SOURCES OF INFORMATION ABOUT CRIME (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

RCE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
ELEVISION			_
Frequently	656	85.1	
Occasionally	82	10.6	
Rarely	27	3.5	
Never	6	.8	
Total	771	100.0	
No Answer	3	-	
RADIO			
Frequently	433	56.4	
Occasionally	229	29.8	
Rarely	80	10.4	
Never	26	3.4	
Total	768	100.0	
No Answer	6		
IEWSPAPER			
Frequently	671	87.0	
Occasionally	82	10.6	
Rarely	13	1.7	
Never	5	.6	
Total	771	100.0	
No Answer	3	-	
RIENDS/ACQUAINTANCES			
Frequently	177	23.1	
Occasionally	452	59.0	
Rarely	129	16.8	
Never	8	1.0	
Total	766	99.9	
No Answer	8		
MEMBERS OF HOUSEHOLD			
Frequently	195	25.7	
Occasionally	356	46.9	
Rarely	165	21.7	
Never	43	5.7	
Total	759	100.0	
No Answer	15	-	
THER RELATIVES			
Frequently	113	14.8	
Occasionally	356	46.5	
Rarely	258	33.7	
Never	38	5.0	
Total	765	100.0	

TABLE 12: INDIRECT EXPOSURE TO CRIME: USING TELEVISION AS A SOURCE OF INFORMATION ABOUT CRIME, BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

FREQUENCY OF USING TELEVISION LESS MORE LESS CHI-SQUARE FREQUENTLY FREQUENTLY FREQUENTLY LEVEL PHI BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS INSIDE AREA OUTSIDE AREA 54 329 TOTAL 324 61 . 02 (84.4) (85.7) (14.3)(15.6).67 .02 AGE YOUNGER OLDER TOTAL 407 69 241 44 .06 (85.5) (14.5) (84.6) (15.4).80 .01 RESIDENCE RURAL UR BAN .39 TOTAL 314 340 51 64 (86.0)(14.0)(84.2) (15.8).53 .03 PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE AREA INSIDE AREA RESIDENCE/ MORE LES S MORE LESS AGE FREQUENTLY FREQUENTLY FREQUENTLY FREQUENTLY Rural 89 117 .06 12 13 Younger (88.1)(11.9)(90.0)(10.0).81 .03 11 Older 58 45 .78 14 (84.1)(15.9)(76.3)(23.7). 38 .10 Urban Younger 100 19 97 .55 25 (84.0)(16.0).46 (79.5)(20.5).06 Older 74 10 64 .001 (88.1) (16.0)(87.7). 99 (12.3).006

1.3 percent in the top half of Table 12). The average percentage difference by age was 1.4 (compared to 0.9 percent) when controlling for the effects of prevention program status and rural-urban residence. Finally, the average percentage difference for rural-urban residence when controlling for prevention program status and age was .05 (compared to 1.8 percent).

In contrast to television, there were variations in use of radio for information about crime (Table 13). There were statistically significant differences by prevention program status and use of the radio. Nearly 54 percent who lived in S.E.E. program areas used the radio frequently, compared to nearly 59 percent of those who live outside of S.E.E. areas. When controlling for the effects of age and rural-urban residence, the average percentage difference did not change, indicating the effect of prevention program status is not modified by either of the other two variables.

There was no difference by age in use of the radio. Both older and younger persons used the radio with equal frequency. Controlling for the effect of prevention program status and rural-urban residence had little effect on the outcome. The average percentage difference was 2.9 percent (compared to 1.5 in the top half of Table 13).

The most marked difference in the use of the radio was by rural-urban residence. Rural residents were far more likely to use a radio than urban residents (10.1 percent difference). Controlling for the effects of prevention program status and age produced an average percentage difference of 12.0. Specifically, the big difference in the use of the radio for information about crime was between the rural elderly who reside inside S.E.E. program areas (60.9 percent—"more

TABLE 13: INDIRECT EXPOSURE TO CRIME: USING RADIO AS A SOURCE OF INFORMATION ABOUT CRIME, BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	MORE FREQUENTLY	LESS	USING RADIO MORE FREQUENTLY	LESS FREQUENTLY	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		В	Y		
	P	REVENTION PR	OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE	AREA	OUTSI DE	AREA	
TOTAL	203	174	228	160	1.68
	(53.8)	(46.2)	(58.8)	(41.2)	.02
		AG	TC .		.05
	YOUNG		OL DE	R	
TOTAL	266	210	162	120	.12
	(55.9)	(44.1)	(57.4)	(42.6)	.99 .02
		RESID	ENCE		.02
	RURA		UR BA	Ň	
TOTAL	225	139	208	194	7.48
	(61.8)	(38.2)	(51.7)	(48.3)	.006
					.10
and the state of t	ľ	DEVENTION DR	OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE		OUTSIDE		
RESIDENCE/	MORE	LESS	MORE	LESS	
AGE	FREQUENTLY	FREQUENTLY	FREQUENTLY	FREQUENTLY	
Rural	58	43	77	53	.02
Younger	(57.4)	(42.6)	(59.2)	(40.8)	.88
					.02
Older	42	27	44	14	2.59
	(60.9)	(39.1)	(75.9)	(24.1)	.11 .16
Urban					•10
Younger	60	59	69	53	.68
	(50.4)	(49.6)	(56.6)	(43.4)	.41
0.1.1				• •	.06
Older	42	41	34	38	.07
	(50.6)	(49.4)	(47.2)	(52.8)	.80 .03

frequently") versus the rural elderly who live outside of S.E.E. program areas (75.9 percent--"more frequently").

Furning now to an examination of Table 14, use of the newspaper as a source of information about crime, reveals another rural-urban difference. There were no differences by either prevention program status and age in the use of newspapers for information about crime. However, urban residents were more likely (91.8 percent) to use the newspaper than were rural residents (82.2 percent). The average percentage difference for rural-urban residence while controlling for prevention program status and age was 8.3 percent. This indicates that the effect of rural-urban residence was not reduced by the influence of the other two variables.

An examination of Table 15 indicates that the only statistically significant difference was again on the basis of rural-urban residence. Residents of S.E.E. program areas and younger persons were slightly more likely to use interpersonal sources for information about crime. However, the largest difference occurred between rural people (77.7 percent used interpersonal sources frequently) and urban people (69.3 percent used interpersonal sources frequently). Hence, it can be seen that rural residents use the mass media less than urban residents, but tend to use interpersonal channels of communication more.

When controlling for the effects of prevention program status and age, the average percentage difference increased to 10.4. Among the four comparative groups found in the bottom of Table 15, the larger differences were between younger persons, both rural and urban, living inside S.E.E. program areas versus those living outside of S.E.E. program

TABLE 14: INDIRECT EXPOSURE TO CRIME: USING THE NEWSPAPER AS A SOURCE OF INFORMATION ABOUT CRIME, BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	MORE FREQUENTLY	LESS FREQUENTLY	MORE FREQUENTLY	LESS FREQUENTLY	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		Е	ΣΥ		
	P INSIDE		OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE	ARCA	OUISIDE	AREA	
TOTAL	329 (86.8)	50 (13.2)	339 (87.1)	50 (12.9)	.001
		AG	ידי		.005
	YOUNG		OLDE	R	
TOTAL	410 (86.1)	66 (13.9)	253 (88.5)	33 (11.5)	.66 .42 .03
		RESIC	ENCE		•03
	RURA		URBA	.N	
TOTAL	301 (82.2)	65 (17.8)	370 (91.8)	33 (8.2)	15.00 .0001 .14
	p	REVENTION PE	ROGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE		OUTS I DE		
RESIDENCE/ AGE	MORE FREQUENTLY	LESS FREQUENTLY	MORE FREQUENTLY	LESS FREQUENTLY	
Rural	78	23	107	23	.63
Younger	(77.2)	(22.8)	(82.3)	(17.7)	.43
	4.0				.06
Older	60 (85.7)	10 (14.3)	50 (84.7)	9 (15.3)	.001 .99
	(0).//	(14.3)	(04.7)	(13.3)	.02
Urban					
Younger	109	10	113	9	.001
	(91.6)	(8.4)	(92.6)	(7.4)	.41 .02
Older	79	6	64	8	.37
	(92.9)	(7.1)	(88.9)	(11.1)	.54

TABLE 15: INDIRECT EXPOSURE TO CRIME: USING INTERPERSONAL SOURCES OF INFORMATION (ALL TYPES) ABOUT CRIME, BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	FREQUENC MORE FREQUENTLY	LESS	NTERPERSONAL MORE FREQUENTLY	LESS	CHI-SQUARI LEVEL PHI
		В	Y		
	P INSIDE		OGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE		
TOFAL	279 (75.0)	93 (25.0)	272 (71.6)	108 (28.4)	.96
		AG	' म		.04
	YOUNG		OLDE	R	
TOTAL	357 (75.5)	116 (24.5)	139 (69.5)	83 (30.5)	2.87 .09 .07
		RESIC	ENCE		.07
	RURA	L	UR BA	N	
TOTAL	279 (77.7)	80 (22.3)	273 (69.3)	121 (30.7)	6.39 .01 .095
	P	REVENTION PR	ROGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE		OUTSIDE		
RESIDENCE/ AGE	MORE FREQUENTLY	LESS FREQUENTLY	MORE FREQUENTLY	LESS FREQUENTLY	
Rural					
Younger	82 (81.2)	19 (18.8)	94 (72.9)	35 (27.1)	1.74 .19 .10
Older	53 (80.3)	13 (19.7)	45 (78.9)	12 (21.1)	.01 .98
Urban					.02
Younger	92 (78.0)	26 (22.0)	87 (71 . 9)	34 (28.1)	.86 .35 .07
Older	51 (62.2)	31 (37.8)	40 (59.7)	27 (40.3)	.02 .88

areas. In both cases, living in S.E.E. program areas increased the likelihood of using interpersonal sources of communication for information about crime.

SUMMARY

This chapter examined exposure to crime, both direct and indirect among residents of Shelby County. The results indicated several interesting patterns. Vandalism and theft were the leading crimes reported by Shelby County residents. Persons living in S.E.E. program areas were less likely to have been the victims of crime. In addition, older persons and rural residents were less likely to be crime victims. However, residents of S.E.E. program areas were slightly more likely to know someone else who had been the victim of crime. Younger persons and urban residents were also more likely to know other people who had been victimized.

S.E.E. area residents, younger persons, and urban residents were more likely to talk about crime, although none of the differences wasgltatistically significant. Prevention program status and rural-urban residence combined to create a reversal in frequency of talking about crime. In rural Shelby County, residents of CB patrol areas talked more about crime than residents who lived outside CB patrol areas. However, in Sidney, residents of block watch areas talked less about crime than residents outside of block watch areas. The nature of the CB patrol program requires a large number of active volunteers (over 180 currently

in a program which includes less than 12,000 residents). Their concern about crime and active participation in its reduction seems to have filtered down to the non-volunteers living in the prevention program areas in the form of talking about crime.

Over-all, the residents of Shelby County tended to use mass media channels of communication (television, radio, and newspaper) for information about crime than interpersonal sources (friends, relatives, members of same household). Residents of S.E.E. program areas were about as likely to use each of the sources as frequently as those who lived outside of S.E.E. program areas. However, rural and urban Shelby Countians seem to differ somewhat in where they obtain information about crime insofar as rural residents were more likely to use interpersonal sources.

CHAPTER 4

ATTITUDES TOWARD CRIME

INTRODUCTION

Attitudes toward crime was identified as the first type of impact of a crime prevention program. Attitudes toward crime may be divided into two types: cognitive and affective. The cognitive dimension consists of respondents' perceptions of the extent and nature of crime. In this research, perceptions were divided into three varieties: perceptions of changes in neighborhood crime rates, changes in perceptions of county-wide crime rates, and perceptions of vulnerability to crime relative to other parts of the county. The affective dimension of attitudes toward crime consists of respondents' emotional reactions, principally in terms of fear, anxiety, and concern. In this research, measures of fear and anxiety included concern for the safety of others and fear for oneself.

PERCEPTIONS OF CRIME

PERCEIVED CHANGE IN NEIGHBORHOOD CRIME: With regard to five different

TABLE 16: ATTITUDES TOWARD CRIME: PERCEIVED CHANGE IN NEIGHBORHOOD CRIME RATES SINCE 1980, BY CRIME TYPE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

YPE OF CRIME	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
BURGLARY		
Increased a Lot	47	6.2
Increased a Little	127	16.7
About the Same	489	64.1
Decreased a Little	78	10.2
Decreased a Lot	21	2.8
Total	762	100.0
No Answer	12	***
ANDALISM		
Increased a Lot	94	12.3
Increased a Little	184	24.1
About the Same	398	52.2
Decreased a Little	68	8.9
Decreased a Lot	19	2.5
Total	763	100.0
No Answer	11	
ARCENY		
Increased a Lot	52	6.8
Increased a Little	128	16.8
About the Same	500	65.4
Decreased a Little	64	8.4
Decreased a Lot	20	2.6
Tot al	764	100.0
No Answer	10	PO 100 -10
SSAULT		
Increased a Lot	49	6.4
Increased a Little	79	10.4
About the Same	567	73.3
Decreased a Little	39	5.1
Decreased a Lot	29	3.8
Total	763	99.9
No Answer	11	100 000 100
ITTERING		
Increased a Lot	152	19.9
Increased a Little	193	25.3
About the Same	309	40.5
Decreased a Little	86	11.3
Decreased a Lot	24	3.1
Total	764	100.0

TABLE 17: ATTITUDES TOWARD CRIME: PERCEPTION OF CHANGE IN NEIGHBORHOOD CRIME RATES (ALL TYPES) BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	PERCEPTION O INCREASED	F CHANGE IN DECREASED	NEIGH BORHOOD INCREASED		CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
]	ВҮ		
	P INSIDE		ROGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE		
TOTAL	202 (53.7)	174 (46.3)	215 (57.5)	159 (42.5)	.93 .34 .04
		A	GE		
	YOUNG		OLDE	R	
TOTAL	265 (56.9)	201 (43.1)	147 (53.1)	130 (46.9)	.87 .35 .04
		RESI	DE NCE		
	RURA	L	UR BA	.N	
TOTAL	195 (54.9)	160 (45.1)	222 (56.1)	174 (43.9)	.06 .81 .01
	Ţ	PREVENTION P	ROGRAM STATUS		
RESIDENCE/ AGE	INSIDE INCREASED	AREA	OUTSIDE	AREA	
Rura l					
Younger	57 (57.0)	43 (43.0)	69 (54.8)	57 (45.2)	.04 .84 .02
Older	36 (52.2)	33 (47.8)	30 (54.5)	25 (45.5)	.007 .93
Urban					.02
Younger	65 (55.1)	53 (44.9)	74 (62.2)	45 (43.5)	.96 .33 .07
Older	42 (50.0)	42 (50.0)	39 (56.5)	30 (43.5)	.41 .52

crime types (burglary, vandalism, larceny, assault, and littering), the respondents were asked two sets of questions. The first set concerned their perception of changes in local neighborhood crime rates. According to the results of Table 16, most respondents thought that local neighborhood crime rates had remained about the same. Litter was perceived as increasing more than any other crime type, followed by vandalism, larceny, burglary, and assault. Over-all, twice as many respondents thought that neighborhood crime rates were increasing rather than decreasing.

As Table 17 indicates, there were no significant differences on perception of change in neighborhood crime rates by prevention program status, age and rural-urban residence. Those residing inside of S.E.E. program areas were slightly less likely to perceive crime in their neighborhood as increasing. Controlling for the effects of age and rural-urban residence showed an average percentage difference of 3.6, which was only slightly lower than the original percentage difference.

Older persons were less likely to perceive neighborhood crime rates as increasing, however, the difference was not significant. When controlling for prevention program status and rural-urban residence, the average percentage difference was only 4.0 (compared to 3.8 percent in the bi-variate relationship).

Rural residents were slightly less likely to perceive neighborhood crime rates increasing when compared with urban residents. Controlling for prevention program status and age raised this percentage difference only marginally (to 1.3 percent).

One note of interest in Table 17 is that the larger difference in perception of changing neighborhood crime rates by prevention program

status was among the urban sample, both young and old. Although neither cross-tabulation was statistically significant, the percentage differences were clearly in the direction indicating that residents inside the block watch component of the S.E.E. program thought that crime was not increasing.

PERCEIVED CHANGES IN COUNTY-WIDE CRIME: Dubow et. al. (1979) have noted that in several studies on citizen attitudes toward crime a tendency for most people to believe that crime is not as bad in their neighborhood as in other neighborhoods. This tendency has been characterized as the inverse of the "grass is always greener on the other side of the fence" syndrome.

Shelby County residents fit this very same pattern. Table 18 shows their perceptions of changes in county-wide crime rates. Compared to the results in Table 16, there was a much greater tendency to indicate that all five crime types were increasing. A greater proportion of the respondents perceived that vandalism had increased more than any other crime type. Following vandalism was littering, burglary, assault and larceny. Hence, comparing Tables 16 and 18, there were several changes in the ordering among the five crime types. Vandalism and littering traded places, larceny dropped from the third to the fifth (or last) in the proportion of those who perceived an increase. Burglary moved from fourth to third place, and assault from fifth to fourth place.

Table 19 shows the relationship between perception of change in county-wide crime rates with prevention program status, age and rural-urban residence. Although the difference was not statistically significant, residents of S.E.E. program areas were less likely to

TABLE 18: ATTITUDES TOWARD CRIME: PERCEIVED CHANGE IN COUNTY-WIDE CRIME RATES SINCE 1980, BY CRIME TYPE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

TYPE OF CRIME	CRIME FREQUENCY		
BURGLARY			
Increased a Lot	185	24.3	
Increased a Little	259	34.0	
About the Same	246	32.3	
Decreased a Little	60	7.9	
Decreased a Lot	12	1.6	
Total	762	100.1	
No Answer	12	***	
/ANDALISM			
Increased a Lot	241	31.6	
Increased a Little	259	34.0	
About the Same	213	27.9	
Decreased a Little	43	5.6	
Decreased a Lot	6	.8	
Total	762	99.9	
No Answer	12	400 day 140	
LARCENY			
Increased a Lot	134	17.6	
Increased a Little	222	29.1	
About the Same	366	48.0	
Decreased a Little	36	4.7	
Decreased a Lot	5	.7	
Total	763	100.1	
No Answer	11		
ASSAULT			
Increased a Lot	181	23.8	
Increased a Little	237	31.1	
About the Same	297	40.3	
Decreased a Little	32	4.2	
Decreased a Lot	5	.7	
Total	752	100.1	
No Answer	12	and with the	
LITTERING			
Increased a Lot	213	27.8	
Increased a Little	179	23.4	
About the Same	274	35.8	
Decreased a Little	87	11.4	
Decreased a Lot	12	1.6	
Total	765	100.0	
No Answer	9	200.0	

TABLE 19: ATTITUDES TOWARD CRIME: PERCEPTION OF CHANGE IN SHELBY
COUNTY CRIME RATES (ALL TYPES) BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS,
AGE AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	PERCEPTION OF INCREASED	F CHANGE IN DECREASED	NEIGHBORHOOD INCREASED	CRIME RATES DECREASED	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		F	3Y		
	P INSIDE		ROGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE		
TOTAL	141 (37.7)	233 (62.3)	161 (42.7)	216 (57.3)	1.75 .19 .05
		AC	GE .		
	YOUNG		OLDE	R	
TOTAL	187 (40.0)	281 (60.0)	112 (40.4)	165 (59.6)	.003 .96 .005
		RESII	DENCE		
	RURA	L	UR BA	N	
TOTAL	134 (37.7)	221 (62.3)	170 (42.7)	228 (57.3)	1.72 .19 .05
	P	REVENTION P	ROGRAM STATUS		
RESIDENCE/ AGE	INSIDE INCREASED		OUTSIDE INCREASED		
Rural					
Younger	33 (32.7)	68 (67.3)	53 (42.1)	73 (57 . 9)	1.72 .19 .096
Older	20 (30.8)	45 (69.2)	22 (38.6)	35 (61.4)	.51 .47 .08
Urban					•00
Younger	42 (35.6)	76 (64.4)	55 (46.2)	64 (53.8)	2.34 .13 .11
Older	42 (49.4)	43 (50.6)	28 (40.0)	42 (60.0)	1.02 .31 .094

perceive crime as increasing in Shelby County (37.7 percent versus 42.7 percent). Controlling for the effects of age and rural-urban residence did not change the relationship. The average percentage difference of 4.7 remained close to the original percentage difference of 5.0.

The proportion of younger and older respondents who perceived crime as increasing was nearly identical. Controlling for prevention program status and rural-urban residence did little to modify the relationship, increasing the average percentage difference to only 0.6.

Rural residents were less likely to perceive crime as increasing when compared to urban residents (37.7 percent versus 42.7 percent).

Controlling for prevention program status and age did increase this 5 percent difference to 6.8 percent. An examination of the bottom half of Table 19 indicates that older rural residents inside CB patrol areas were far less likely to perceive an increase in county-wide crime rates than older urban residents residing inside of block watch areas (30.8 percent versus 49.4 percent). Rather puzzling, older urban residents residing inside block watch areas were more likely to perceive county-wide crime rates as increasing than older urban residents residing outside of the block watch areas (49.4 percent versus 40.0 percent). Perhaps these older residents, feel more secure in their block watch areas by believing that changes in their neighborhood crime rates lag behind those for the remainder of the county.

PERCEIVED VULNERABILITY TO CRIME: Table 20 shows respondents' estimates of crime occurring in their neighborhood compared to other parts of Shelby County. For each of the five crime types, a greater proportion were perceived the chance of crime occurences as less likely than more

TABLE 20: ATTITUDES TOWARD CRIME: PERCEIVED VULNERABILITY OF HOUSEHOLDS/PEOPLE TO CRIME IN NEIGHBORHOOD COMPARED TO OTHER PARTS OF COUNTY, BY CRIME TYPE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

TYPE OF CRIME	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
BURGLARY			
Much Less Likely	130	17.0	
Somewhat Less Likely	298	38.9	
About the Same	246	32.1	
Somewhat More Likely	76	9.9	
Much More Likely	16	2.1	
Total	766	100.0	
ANDALISM			
Much Less Likely	109	14.2	
Somewhat Less Likely	276	36.0	
About the Same	269	35.2	
Somewhat More Likely	82	10.7	
Much More Likely	30	3.9	
Total	766	100.0	
No Answer	8		
ARCENY			
Much Less Likely	106	13.9	
Somewhat Less Likely	238	31.2	
About the Same	301	39.5	
Somewhat More Likely	89	11.7	
Much More Likely	29	3.8	
Total	763	100.1	
No Answer	11	100.1	
NO Auswei	11		
SSAULT			
Much Less Likely	185	24.2	
Somewhat Less Likely	243	31.8	
About the Same	255	33.4	
Somewhat More Likely	61	8.0	
Much More Likely	19	2.5	
Total	763	99.9	
No Answer	11		
ITTERING			
Much Less Likely	76	9.9	
Somewhat Less Likely	172	22.4	
About the Same	295	38.4	
Somewhat More Likely	147	19.1	
Much More Likely	78	10.2	
Total	768	100.0	
No Answer	6		

likely. Littering was perceived by the largest proportion of respondents to be the crime most likely to occur in their neighborhood (19.1 percent "somewhat more likely" and 10.2 percent "much more likely"). The second most likely crime type was larceny, followed by vandalism, burglary, and assault. Over-all, the largest proportion of respondents indicated that the chances were about equal for larceny (39.5 percent), littering (38.4 percent), and assault (33.4 percent).

As Table 21 shows, there was not a statistically significant difference in perceived vulnerability by prevention program status. Those residing inside of S.E.E. program areas were 1.4 percent more likely to perceive their neighborhood as more vulnerable. Controlling for the effect of age and rural-urban residence did little to change this difference (the average percentage difference was 1.0). However, a closer examination of the bottom half of Table 21 does reveal an interesting reversal in perceived vulnerability. Among rural residents, both younger and older, those in the CB patrol area were more likely to perceive their neighborhoods as vulnerable to crime (29.0 percent versus 23.6 percent and 47.8 percent versus 37.9 percent respectively). In contrast, among urban residents, both younger and older, those in the block watch areas were less likely to perceive their neighborhoods as vulnerable to crime (45.8 percent versus 50.4 percent and 36.5 percent versus 43.5 percent respectively). Although none of the differences was statistically significant, it does indicate that the block watch portion of the S.E.E. program had a more positive impact on perceptions of crime.

Older persons were slightly less likely to perceive their neighborhood as vulnerable to crime than younger persons (37.2 percent versus 41.2 percent). However, the difference was not statistically

TABLE 21: ATTITUDES TOWARD CRIME: PERCEIVED VULNERABILITY OF HOUSEHOLDS/PEOPLE TO CRIME (ALL TYPES) IN NEIGHBORHOOD COMPARED TO OFHER PARTS OF COUNTY, BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE, AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	MORE VULNE RA BLE	PERCEIVED VU LESS VULNERABLE	MORE	LESS VULNERABLE	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		Е	Υ		
		PREVENTION PR AREA	OGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE		
TOTAL	149 (39.8)	225 (60.2)	146 (38.4)	234 (61.6)	.11 .75 .01
		AG	F		
	YOUNG		OLDE	R	
TOTAL	175 (37.3)	294 (62.7)	115 (41.2)	164 (58.8)	.97 .33 .04
		RESID	ENCE		
	RURA	AL.	UR BA	N	
TOTAL	115 (32.2)	242 (67.8)	179 (45.0)	219 (55.0)	12.36 .0004 .13
	1	PREVENTION PR	OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE	AREA	OUT S I DE		
RESIDENCE/ AGE	MORE VULNERABLE	LESS VULNERABLE		LESS VULNERABLE	
Rural					
Younger	29 (29.0)	71 (71.0)	30 (23.6)	97 (76.4)	.58 .44
Older	32 (47.8)	35 (52.2)	22 (37.9)	35 (62.1)	.06 .86 .35
Urban					.098
Younger	54 (45.8)	64 (54.2)	61 (50.4)	60 (49.6)	.35 .56
Older	31 (36.5)	54 (63.5)	30 (43.5)	39 (56.5)	.05 .52 .47 .07

significant. Controlling for prevention program status and rural-urban residence produced as average percentage difference of 4.2 percent, which is only slightly higher than the 3.9 difference found in the top half of Table 21.

The largest difference in perceived vulnerability was between rural and urban residents. Rural residents were less likely to perceive their neighborhoods as vulnerable to crime (32.2 percent versus 45.0 percent). Controlling for prevention program status and age produced an average percentage difference of 9.5. This lowering of the percentage difference sheds light on why the block watch portion of the S.E.E. program had a positive impact on perceived vulnerability, while the CB portion of the program did not. In general, rural Shelby Countians did not perceive themselves as vulnerable, hence reducing the ability of the S.E.E. program to have any measurable degree of impact. In contrast, because perceived vulnerability was higher in urban areas, the S.E.E. program had a greater chance of impacting perceptions, which the findings in Table 21 clearly show did occur.

FEAR OF CRIME

The concept of fear of crime has shown a remarkable history of definitional ambiguity and inconsistent measurement (Dubow et. al., 1979). A movement toward solving these problems is to develop multiple measures of fear. In this section of ATTITUDES TOWARD CRIME, three measures of fear will be examined: perceived safety of walking alone at

TABLE 22: ATTITUDES TOWARD CRIME: PERCEIVED SAFETY OF WALKING ALONE AT NIGHT IN NEIGHBORHOOD, BY TYPE OF PERSON (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

YPE OF PERSON	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
YOUNG MAN		The Provider with Madde water (Place with a May with a sold a half higher made
Very Safe	286	37.1
Somewhat Safe	326	42.3
Undecided	63	8.2
Somewhat Unsafe	84	10.9
Very Unsafe	11	1.4
Total	770	99.9
No Answer	4	
N ELDERLY MAN		
Very Safe	208	27.0
Somewhat Safe	300	39.0
Undecided	79	10.3
Somewhat Unsafe	143	18.6
Very Unsafe	39	5.1
Total	769	100.0
No Answer	5	
YOUNG WOMAN		
Very Safe	144	18.7
Somewhat Safe	280	36.4
Undecided	77	10.0
Somewhat Unsafe	185	24.1
Very Unsafe	83	10.8
Total	769	100.0
No Answer	5	Spile winds have
n ELDERLY WOMAN		
Very Safe	149	19.4
Somewhat Safe	264	34.4
Undecided	91	11.9
Somewhat Unsafe	173	22.6
Very Unsafe	90	11.7
Total	767	100.0
No Answer	7	Non-use was

night in the neighborhood, perceived safety of being alone at night in the neighborhood, and personal fear of crime.

PERCEIVED SAFETY OF WALKING ALONE AT NIGHT: The first construct of fear of crime concerned a series of questions eliciting the respondents' estimates of the relative safety in their own neighborhoods of four different types of people "walking alone at night." The four types included: a young man, an elderly man, a young woman, and an elderly woman.

The results in Table 22 indicate that most respondents perceived each of the four types as either "somewhat safe" or "very safe." However, there were differences in the degree of perceived safety from one type of person to another. "A young man" was perceived as being safer than the other three types. Only 12.3 percent thought that a young man in their neighborhood was either "somewhat unsafe" or "very unsafe." An "elderly man" was viewed as unsafe by 23.7 percent of the respondents (18.6 percent plus 5.1 percent).

Among males, there was a perceived difference in safety by the age of the person. This was not true for females. Both a "young woman" and an "elderly woman" were perceived as equally unsafe, and both were perceived as less safe than men. The proportion who perceived a "young woman" as being unsafe was 34.7 percent. The proportion who perceived an elderly woman as unsafe was 34.1 percent.

These results indicate that Shelby Countians believe that women and older people (to a lesser extent) are more vulnerable to crime. In both cases, these views represent and affirm generally held stereotypical pictures.

Table 23 shows the relationship between perceived safety and prevention program status, age and rural-urban residence. There was no difference in perceived safety between those who lived within versus those who live outside of S.E.E. program areas. Controlling for age and rural-urban residence did produce an average percentage difference of 4.3.

An examination of the lower half of Table 23 indicates no statistically significant differences, but a tendency for residents of the CB patrol portion of the S.E.E. program to perceive walking alone at night in their neighborhood as less safe than residents outside of the program area. This difference was true for both younger and older rural residents. However, the pattern was reversed for the urban sample, where those within the block watch areas were more likely to perceive walking alone at night as safe. It should be noted that this particular pattern was the same as displayed in perceptions of vulnerability to crime (Table 21).

PERCEIVED SAFETY OF HOME ALONE AT NIGHT: Table 24 shows the frequency distribution of responses to the question concerning the perceived safety of being alone at home in the respondents' neighborhood during the night. The vast majority of respondents perceived each type of person as safe. In comparison with Table 22, respondents perceive greater safety at night in a residence rather than out walking in the neighborhood.

Of the four types, "a young man" was perceived as the safest, followed by "an elderly man." "A young woman" and "an elderly woman" were not far behind and nearly identical proportions of respondents perceived them as safe.

TABLE 23: ATTITUDES TOWARD CRIME: PERCEIVED SAFETY OF WALKING ALONE AT NIGHT IN NEIGHBORHOOD (ALL PERSONS), BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE, AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	PERCEIVED MORE SAFE	SAFETY OF W. LESS SAFE	ALKING ALONE MORE SAFE	AT NIGHT LESS SAFE	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		В	Y		
	P' INSIDE		OGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE		
TOTAL	227 (60.1)	151 (39.9)	233 (60.4)	153 (39.6)	.0002 .99 .003
		AG	r		
	YOUNG		OLDE	R	
TOTAL	318 (67.1)	156 (32.9)	137 (48.4)	146 (51.6)	25.01 .0001 .18
		RESID	E NCE		
	RURA	L	UR BA	N	
TOTAL	227 (62.4)	137 (37.6)	233 (58.1)	168 (41.9)	1.27 .26 .04
	р	REVENTION PR	OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE		OUTSIDE		
RESIDENCE/ AGE	MORE SAFE	LESS SAFE	MORE SAFE	LESS SAFE	
Rural					
Younger	70 (69.3)	31 (30.7)	99 (76.2)	31 (23.8)	1.03 .31 .08
01der	26 (38.2)	42 (61.8)	28 (47.5)	31 (52.5)	.75 .39
Urban					.09
Younger	78 (65.5)	41 (34.5)	68 (56.7)	52 (43.3)	1.63 .20 .09
Older	51 (60.0)	34 (40.0)	32 (45.1)	39 (54.9)	2.89 .09

TABLE 24: ATTITUDES TOWARD CRIME: PERCEIVED SAFETY OF BEING ALONE AT HOME IN NEIGHBORHOOD DURING THE NIGHT, BY TYPE OF PERSON (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

TYPE OF PERSON	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
A YOUNG MAN		
Very Safe	352	45.8
Somewhat Safe	337	43.8
Undecided	36	4.7
Somewhat Unsafe	38	4.9
Very Unsafe	6	.8
Total	769	100.0
No Answer	5	400 sap day
AN ELDERLY MAN		
Very Safe	265	34.6
Somewhat Safe	360	46.9
Undecided	46	6.0
Somewhat Unsafe	85	11.1
Very Unsafe	11	1.4
Total	767	100.0
No Answer	7	
A YOUNG WOMAN		
Very Safe	233	30.3
Somewhat Safe	342	44.5
Undecided	45	5.9
Somewhat Unsafe	126	16.4
Very Unsafe	23	3.0
Total	769	100.1
No Answer	5	
An ELDERLY WOMAN		
Very Safe	234	30.4
Somewhat Safe	333	43.3
Undecided	51	6.6
Somewhat Unsafe	117	15.2
Very Unsafe	34	4.4
Total	769	99.9
No Answer	5	4000 0000 14400

An examination of Table 25 shows that there were no statistically significant differences between prevention program status and perceived safety of being alone at home during the night. Nearly identical percentages of those residing inside (77.2 percent) versus those residing outside of S.E.E. areas (78.2 percent) perceived someone home during the night as being relatively safe. When controlling for the effects of age and rural-urban residence, the average percentage difference was .9. This indicates that no effects are present from either test variable.

The same pattern, however, emerges in Table 25 as found in both Tables 23 and 21. Rural residents living within the CB portion of the S.E.E. program were less likely to perceive someone at home during the night in their neighborhood as safe than rural residents living outside of S.E.E. program areas. This difference was evident among both younger and older residents, although more pronounced among the former. In contrast, among urban residents, those living inside the block watch portion of the S.E.E. program were more likely to perceive someone at home during the night in their neighborhood as safe than urban residents living outside the S.E.E. program area.

In viewing each of the three tables it should be cautioned that none of the differences was statistically significant. However, the rural-urban reversal in attitudes toward crime by prevention program status is clearly evident. With respect to perceived vulnerability and both measures of perceived safety, block watch residents felt slightly better, while CB patrol members felt slightly worse.

The only statistically significant difference in Table 25 was by age. Younger persons were much more likely to perceive someone in their neighborhood alone during the night as safe (84.2 percent) when compared

TABLE 25: ATTITUDES TOWARD CRIME: PERCEIVED SAFETY OF BEING ALONE
AT HOME IN NEIGHBORHOOD DURING THE NIGHT (ALL PERSONS),
BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE, AND RURAL-URBAN
RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	MORE	LESS	BEING ALONE A MORE	LESS	CHI-SQUARE
	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	SAFE	LEVEL PHI
		В	Y		
	P INSIDE		OGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE		
TOTAL	291 (77.2)	86 (22.8)	302 (78.2)	84 (21.8)	.07 .79 .01
		AG	E		
	YOUNG		OLDE	R	
TO'TAL	399 (84.2)	75 (15.8)	189 (67.0)	93 (33.0)	29.12 .0001 .20
		RESID	ENCE		
	RURA	L	UR BA	N	
TOTAL	284 (78.5)	78 (21.5)	310 (77.1)	92 (22.9)	.13 .72 .02
and the second s	P	REVENIION PR	OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE	AREA	OUTSIDE		
RESIDENCE/ AGE	MORE SAFE	LESS SAFE	MORE SAFE	LESS SAFE	
Rural					
Younger	84 (83.2)	17 (16.8)	117 (90.7)	12 (9.3)	2.27 .13 .11
Older	40 (59.7)	27 (40.3)	37 (62.7)	22 (37.3)	.03 .87
Urban					.03
Younger	100 (84.0)	19 (16.0)	94 (77.7)	27 (22.3)	1.18 .28 .08
01der	64 (75.3)	21 (24.7)	48 (67.6)	23 (32.4)	.78 .38

to older persons (67.0 percent). When controlling for prevention program status and rural-urban residence, the average percentage difference was 17.6. This indicates that the impact of age on perceived safety was not diminished by the effect of the other two variables.

An examination of the bottom half of Table 25 shows the largest difference to be between younger and older rural residents living outside of S.E.E. program areas. Nearly 91 percent of the younger residents versus 62.7 percent of the older residents perceived a person alone at night in the neighborhood as safe.

Rural residents were only slightly more likely to perceive a person alone at home during the night as safe than urban residents. Controlling for prevention program status and age produced an averge percentage difference of 2.1, only slightly higher than the original difference of 1.4 percent.

FEAR OF CRIME: The final measure of attitudes toward crime was a five item scale measuring respondents' fear for their own safety. The results are reported in Table 26. In response to the first question ("When I am away from home overnight, I worry about the safety of my property"), 38.2 percent agreed and 52.2 percent disagreed. This indicates that more Shelby Countians were not fearful than were fearful. This basic pattern is repeated for the other four items, with the exception of the fourth. In response to the statement, "I worry a great deal about the safety of my loved ones from crime and criminals," 58.7 percent either said "agree" or "strongly agree," while 31 percent diagreed.

In comparison to the perceived safety of others (see Tables 22 and 24), Shelby Countians appear to exhibit more fear and concern about

TABLE 26: ATTITUDES TOWARD CRIME: FEAR OF CRIME SCALE ITEMS (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

ITEM	FREQUENCY	PERCENI
A. "WHEN I AM AWAY FROM HOME OVERNION PROPERTY"	GHT, I WORRY	ABOUT THE SAFETY OF MY
Strongly Disagree	57	7.5
Disagree	340	44.7
Undecided	73	9.6
Agree	236	31.1
Strongly Agree	54	7.1
Total	760	100.0
No Answer B. "I WORRY A GREAT DEAL ABOUT MY P. CRIMINALS"	14 ERSONAL SAFE	TY FROM CRIME AND
Strongly Agree	62	8.1
Disagree	379	49.6
Undecided	100	13.3
Agree	185	24.2
Strongly Disagree	38	5.0
Total	764	100.2
No Answer	10	
THIS COMMUNITY"	OF BECOMING	A VICTIM OF CRIME IN
Strongly Disagree	83	10.8
Disagree	371	48.4
Undecided	119	15.5
Agree	172	22.5
Strongly Agree	21	2.7
Total	764	99.9
No Answer	10	Many Sales Andre
D. "I WORRY A GREAT DEAL ABOUT THE AND CRIMINALS"	SAFETY OF MY	LOVED ONES FROM CRIME
Strongly Disagree	19	2.5
Disagree	218	28.5
Undecided	79	10.3
Agree	326	42.6
Strongly Agree	123	16.1
Total	765	100.0
No Answer E. "EVEN IN MY OWN HOME, I'M NOT SA WHAT I HAVE"	9 FE FROM PEOP	LE WHO WANT TO TAKE
Strongly Disagree	114	14.9
Disagree	307	40.2
Undecided	106	13.9
Agree	205	26.8
Strongly Agree	32	4.2
Total	764	100.0

themselves. This finding corresponds with the results of Dubow et. al.

(1979) who discovered different levels of fear when the point of
reference is personal versus someone else. In the case of this study,
when the measure is in terms of fear for the safety of someone else, most
Shelby Countians perceive less of a problem than they do for themselves.

Controlling for the impact of prevention program status, age and rural-urban residence on fear of crime produces some interesting patterns. Residents living within S.E.E. program areas were less likely to be fearful than those living outside of S.E.E. program areas.

However, the difference was not statistically significant. Controlling for age and rural-urban residence produced an average percentage difference of 3.0, which is only slightly at variance with the original percentage difference.

However, examining the lower half of Table 27 does reveal that younger rural persons living in the CB portion of the S.E.E. program area (48.0 percent) were much less likely to be fearful than those living outside of the program area (65.9 percent). In contrast, neither older rural residents, younger urban residents, nor older urban residents living in S.E.E. program areas were less fearful than their counterparts living outside of S.E.E. program areas. In fact, younger urban residents living inside the block watch portion of the S.E.E. program were clearly more likely to be fearful (although not statistically significant).

In contrast to the other two measures of fear, older persons were only slightly more likely to be fearful. The percentage difference was 4.5 percent. Controlling for prevention program status and rural-urban residence shows an average percentage difference of 5.4.

Rural residents were slightly more likely to be fearful of crime

TABLE 27: ATTITUDES TOWARD CRIME: FEAR OF CRIME SCALE (ALL ITEMS),
BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE, AND RURAL-URBAN
RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

		FEAR OF	CRIME		
	HIGH FEAR	LOW FEAR	HI GH FEAR	LOW FEAR	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		В	Y		
	P INSIDE	REVENTION PR	OGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE		
TOTAL	199 (53.6)	172 (46.4)	214 (57.1)	161 (42.9)	.75 .39 .03
		AG	E		
	YOUNG		OLDE	R	
FOTAL	249 (53.7)	215 (46.3)	160 (58.2)	115 (41.8)	1.25 .26 .04
	242	RESID			
	RURA	i.	URBA	.N	
TOTAL	208 (58.8)	146 (41.2)	206 (52.4)	187 (47.6)	2.78 .10 .06
	P	REVENTION PR	OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE		OUTSIDE		
RESIDENCE/ AGE	HIGH FEAR	LOW FEAR	HI GH FEAR	LOW FEAR	
Rural					
Younger	47 (48.0)	51 (52.0)	83 (65.9)	43 (34.1)	6.55 .01 .18
Older	39 (57.4)	29 (42.6)	33 (58.9)	23 (41.1)	.00 .99
Urban					.02
Younger	62 (53.0)	55 (47.0)	53 (44.5)	66 (55.5)	1.37 .24 .08
Older	48 (57.8)	35 (42.2)	40 (58.8)	28 (41.2)	.00

than urban residents, but the difference was not statistically significant. Controlling for prevention program status and age decreased the difference somewhat (from 6.4 percent to an average percentage difference of 4.0).

SUMMARY

Attitudes toward crime was the first form of program impact identified by this study. Over-all the results indicate that Shelby Countians living inside of S.E.E. program areas held about the same attitudes as those living outside of S.E.E. program areas. In most cases, there were no statistically significant differences in the six measures of attitudes toward crime by prevention program status. The exception was that younger rural persons living in the CB patrol areas were personally less fearful than younger rural persons living outside of CB patrol areas (see Table 27).

There were some differences in attitudes by age and rural-urban residence. For example, older persons were more likely to perceive people in their neighborhood walking alone at night or at home alone during the night to be unsafe compared to younger persons. Urban residents were more likely than rural residents to believe their neighborhoods were vulnerable to crime when compared to other parts of Shelby County.

However, the most interesting aspect of attitudes toward crime was the anomolous pattern of prevention program differences in attitudes

toward crime between rural and urban areas. Over-all, it can be concluded that residents of S.E.E. program areas were slightly better off relative to attitudes toward crime than those living outside of S.E.E. program areas. This pattern was conditioned by rural-urban variations. Clearly, for residents of the block watch areas, their attitudes indicated less perceived vulnerability and more perceived safety than urban residents living outside of the block watch areas. However, among rural residents, the opposite pattern arose. Residents of the CB patrol were slightly more likely to peceive their neighborhood as vulnerable to crime, and slightly more likely to perceive people in their neighborhood as unsafe than those living outside of CB patrol areas. This is especially troubling since the CB portion of the S.E.E. program is the more active (relative to the number and involvement of the volunteers). Only in terms of personal fear (the final measure of attitudes toward crime) do those residing in CB patrol areas appear less concerned than those living outside CB patrol areas.

The explanation for this pattern lies outside information available from the survey itself and must consider the nature of the county.

According to the information and observations provided by the two crime prevention officers to the S.E.E. program, the C.B. patrol is located in the higher crime areas of the rural portion of the county. In contrast, the block watch program is largely concentrated in the better, newer neighborhoods of Sidney. Hence, perceived vulnerability and concern for the safety of others may be even greater if it were not for the CB patrol program. Within the city of Sidney, the block watch is reinforcing positive feelings already associated with residence in the better neighborhoods. In both cases, the S.E.E. prevention program was having a positive impact.

CHAPTER 5

CRIME PREVENTION BEHAVIOR

INTRODUCTION

This chapter will discuss the second crime prevention impact identified in the research model was crime prevention behavior. Crime prevention behavior is divided into two parts: adoption of home security measures and the practice of security habits.

It has already been noted that little systematic research of crime prevention programs has been conducted (National Crime Prevention Council, 1985). Likewise, little systematic research on the types of preventive behaviors adopted by individual citizens has occurred (Cohen and Felson, 1979; Dubow et. al., 1979; Donnermeyer et. al., 1982). This chapter provides information on both individualistic actions and program benefits by examining crime prevention behavior within the comparative context of a prevention program.

ADOPTION OF HOME SECURITY MEASURES

Respondents to the county-wide study were asked a series of

TABLE 28: CRIME PREVENTION BEHAVIOR: PRESENCE OF HOME SECURITY FEATURES (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

PE OF SECURITY FEATURE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
PRESENCE OF AUTOMATIC LIGHT		
None	560	73.5
One or More	202	26.5
Total	762	100.0
No Answer	12	erica caria chip
PRESENCE OF DEADBOLT LOCKS		
No	544	72.0
Yes	212	28.0
Total	756	100.0
No Answer	18	Plant of the Nada
BOUGHT THEFT INSURANCE		
No	77	10.2
Yes	679	89.9
Total	756	100.1
No Answer	18	
OUSEHOLD PROPERTY MARKED W	ITH I.D. NUMBER	
No	563	74.3
Yes	195	25.7
Total	758	100.0
No Answer	16	
PROPERTY IDENTIFICATION STI	CKERS ON WINDOWS	TO RESIDENCE
No	688	90.5
Yes	72	9.5
Total	760	100.0
No Answer	14	
PRESENCE OF AN ALARM SYSTEM	l	
No	709	93.4
Yes	50	6.6
Total	759	100.0
No Answer	15	
PRESENCE OF A WATCHDOG		
No	481	63.6
Yes	275	36.4
ies		
Total	756	100.0

questions pertaining to the adoption of various home security measures.

Seven types of home security were measured and were included in the study. Each type represented measures normally recommended by crime prevention experts.

The results are summarized in Table 28. Over one in every four respondents had at least one automatic light timer, which are normally used to turn interior lights on and off. Automatic light timers are normally used to give the appearance that a residence is occupied during vacancies.

Deadbolt locks are recommended as the most effective type of exterior or entrance door lock. Among the respondents, only 28 percent had deadbolt locks on outside entrance doors.

One form of prevention is to transfer the cost of crime to some other agency, such as insurance. Most of the respondents (89.9 percent) in the study had house, apartment, or some other form of insurance which covers losses due to crime.

Approximately one in every four respondents had placed an identification number on their most valuable household items. A lower proportion (9.5 percent) had placed decals on windows or in some other visible place warning potential thieves that their property had been identified.

Only a small proportion (6.6 percent) of the respondents had an alarm system. In contrast, over one-third of the respondents had a dog who was used in part for the purposes of security.

Over-all, the adoption of home security measures was low among the Shelby County sample. Because the frequency distributions for insurance, property identification stickers, and alarm systems were so highly

skewed, it is not useful to analyze them relative to the three variables of prevention program status, age and rural-urban residence. Hence, only presence of automatic light timers, presence of deadbolt locks, marking household property with an identification number, and presence of a watchdog will be examined.

Table 29 shows the relationship of automatic light timers with prevention program status, age and rural-urban residence. The results indicate a number of statistically signficant relationships. Residents within S.E.E. program areas were more likely (32.7 percent) to have automatic light timers than residents living outside of S.E.E. program areas (20.4 percent). Controlling for age and rural-urban residence produced an average percentage difference of 11.1 percent, which was only slightly lower than the original percentage difference of 12.3 percent. This indicates that age and rural-urban residence had no influence on the relationship between adoption of automatic light timers and prevention program status.

In the CB portion of the S.E.E. program, older persons were more likely to have automatic light timers than those who outside the program area, but younger persons were only slightly more likely. In neither case were the differences statistically significant. However, in the block watch portion of the S.E.E. program, both younger and older residents were more likely to have automatic light timers. Both differences were statistically significant.

A very large difference in the presence of automatic light timers between older and younger respondents is evident in Table 29. Older respondents were three times more likely to have automatic light timers than younger respondents. Controlling for prevention program status and

TABLE 29: CRIME PREVENTION BEHAVIOR: PRESENCE OF AUTOMATIC LIGHT TIMERS FOR HOME SECURITY BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	NO NE	ONE OR MORE	NO NE	ONE OR MORE	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		В	Y		
		REVENTION PR			
	INSIDE	AREA	OUTSIDE	AREA	
TOTAL	253 (67.3)	123 (32.7)	305 (79.6)	78 (20.4)	14.23 .0002 .14
		AG	r		
	YOUNG		OLDE	R	
TOTAL	385 (82.1)	84 (17.9)	168 (59.2)	116 (40.8)	46.53 .0000 .25
		RESID	ENCE		
	RURAL UR BAN				
TOFAL	284 (78.9)	76 (21.1)	274 (68.5)	126 (31.5)	9.95 .002 .12
	р	REVENTION PR	OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE		OUTSIDE		
RESIDENCE AGE	NO NE	ONE OR MORE	NO NE	ONE OR MORE	
Rural					
Younger	83 (83.0)	17 (17.0)	108 (85.7)	18 (14.3)	.14 .71
Older	45 (65.2)	24 (34.8)	44 (74.6)	15 (25.4)	.04 .91 .34
Urban					.10
Younger	95 (72.0)	33 (28.0)	106 (87.6)	15 (12.4)	8.08 .005
Older	36	48	43	29	.19 3.76

rural-urban residence produced an average percentage difference of 21.5, hence indicating that neither control variable had an effect on the relationship of age and presence of automatic light timers. In both the rural and urban portions of the S.E.E. program, older respondents were about twice as likely to have automatic light timers than younger persons (34.8 percent versus 17.0 percent and 57.1 percent versus 34.8 percent respectively). However, outside of S.E.E. program areas, the age difference was much less in rural than in the urban areas (25.4 percent versus 14.3 percent and 40.3 percent versus 12.4 percent respectively). This would indicate that the S.E.E. program had a positive impact in both the CB patrol and block watch portions, and that the impact was more greatly felt among older residents.

Urban respondents were more likely (31.5 percent) to have automatic light timers than rural respondents (21.1 percent). This difference was likewise statistically significant. When controlling for the influence of prevention program status and age, the average percentage difference was increased slightly to 12.5.

Table 30 shows the relationship between the presence of deadbolt locks and prevention program status, age and rural-urban residence.

Although not statistically significant, respondents living inside S.E.E. program areas were more likely to have deadbolt locks on entrance doors. When controlling for age and rural-urban residence, the average percentage difference was lowered slightly to 3.5 percent. The largest difference was between older urban residents in the block watch program (42.9 percent) and older urban residents living outside of block watch areas (33.8 percent).

Older respondents were more likely to have deadbolt locks than

TABLE 30: CRIME PREVENTION BEHAVIOR: PRESENCE OF DEADBOLT LOCKS ON OUTSIDE ENTRANCE DOORS FOR HOME SECURITY BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	NOT PRESENT	PRESENT	ADBOLT LOCKS NOT PRESENT	PRESENT	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		В	Y		
	PE INSIDE A		OGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE		
TOTAL	260 (69.7)	113 (30.3)	282 (74.2)	98 (25.8)	1.68 .20 .05
		AG	E		
	YOUNG		OLDE	R	
TOTAL	346 (74.1)	121 (25.9)	193 (68.7)	88 (31.3)	2.29 .13 .06
		RESID	ENCE		
	RURAI		UR BA	N	
TOTAL	288 (81.1)	67 (18.9)	255 (63.9)	144 (36.1)	26.78 .00001 .19
	ָם	PEVENTION PR	OGRAM STATUS		
RESIDENCE/ AGE	INSIDE A NOT PRESENT		OUTSIDE NOT PRESENT		
Rural					
Younger	80 (81.6)	18 (18.4)	105 (84.0)	20 (16.0)	.08 .77
Older	52 (76.5)	16 (23.5)	46 (79.3)	12 (20.7)	.03 .03 .87
Urban					.03
Younger	79 (66.4)	40 (33.6)	80 (66.1)	41 (33.9)	.0001 .999 .003
Older	48 (57.1)	36 (42.9)	47 (66.2)	24 (33.8)	.98 .32 .09

younger respondents (31.3 percent versus 25.9 percent). When controlling for prevention program status and rural-urban residence, the average percentage difference was reduced slightly to 4.8 percent. With the exception of younger urban respondents, those living within S.E.E. program areas (i.e., rural younger, rural older, and urban older) were more likely to have deadbolt locks than those living outside of S.E.E. program areas.

The most dramatic difference with respect to the presence of deadbolt locks was by rural-urban residence. Urban respondents were nearly twice as likely to have deadbolt locks on outside entrance doors than rural respondents (36.1 percent versus 18.9 percent). When controlling for prevention program status and age, the average percentage difference was reduced only slightly to 16.4. This indicates that the relationship between the presence of deadbolt locks and rural-urban residence was not affected by either prevention program status or age.

Table 31 shows the percentage of respondents who have identified their property by prevention program status, age and rural-urban residence. Respondents living outside of S.E.E. program areas were slightly more likely to have identified property, although the difference was not statistically significant. When controlling for age and rural-urban residence, the average percentage difference was increased only marginally to 2.7. An examination of the bottom of Table 31 shows no statistically significant relationships. With respect to property identification, residence either inside or outside of S.E.E. program areas made little difference in the adoption of property identification.

Older and younger respondents were equally likely to have identified

TABLE 31: CRIME PREVENTION BEHAVIOR: HOUSEHOLD PROPERTY MARKED WITH IDENTIFICATION NUMBER FOR PURPOSE OF HOME SECURITY BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	HOUSEHOLD NO	PROPERTY MA. YES	RKED WITH I.	D. NUMBER YES	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		В	Y		
	P INSIDE	REVENTION PR	OGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE		
TOTAL	282 (75.2)	93 (24.8)	279 (73.4)	101 (26.6)	.23 .63 .02
	YOUNG	AG ER	E OL DE	R	
TOTAL	350 (74.8)	118 (25.2)	209 (73.9)	74 (26.1)	.04 .84 .01
		RESID	ENCE		
	RURA	L	UR BA	N	
TOTAL	257 (71.8)	101 (28.2)	306 (76.7)	93 (23.3)	2.13 .14 .06
		REVENTION PR			
RESIDENCE/ AGE	INSIDE NO	AREA YES	OUTSIDE NO	AREA YES	
Rural Younger	72 (72.0)	28 (28.0)	91 (72.8)	34 (27.2)	.0001
Older	50 (72.5)	19 (27.5)	40 (67.8)	19 (32.2)	.009 .15 .70
Urban Younger	93 (78.8)	25 (21.2)	92 (76.0)	29 (24.0)	.05 .13 .729
Older	66 (78.6)	18 (21.4)	53 (74.6)	18 (25.4)	.03 .15 .70 .05

their property. When controlling for prevention program status and rural-urban residence, the average percentage difference was only 1.9. This indicates that age was not related to the adoption of property identification.

Rural residents were slightly more likely to have identified their property than urban residents (28.2 percent versus 23.3 percent). This reversal in likelihood stands in stark contrast to the much greater proportion of urban residents to have automatic light timers and deadbolt locks. However, it should be kept in mind that the difference is not statistically significant. Controlling for prevention program status and age produced an average percentage difference of 5.7, which was only slightly larger than the original difference. Over-all, it can be concluded that identification of property has not been one of the benefits of the S.E.E. program, either among younger and older persons, or among rural and urban residents.

The final type of home security measure to be cross-tabulated with prevention program status, age and rural-urban residence was presence of a dog for the purposes of security (see Table 32). Respondents living inside of S.E.E. program areas were slightly more likely to have such a dog than those living outside of S.E.E. program areas (38.2 percent versus 34.6 percent). When controlling for age and rural-urban residence, several interesting differences emerge. First, among younger respondents in rural Shelby County, those residing inside CB patrol areas were significantly more likely to have a dog for security purposes than those residing outside the CB patrol area (63.3 percent versus 46.0 percent). However, the same pattern was not evident for older rural respondents. A similar pattern was found among the urban respondents.

TABLE 32: CRIME PREVENTION BEHAVIOR: PRESENCE OF A WATCHDOG FOR THE PURPOSE OF HOME SECURITY BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	NO	PRESENCE OF YES	A WATCHDOG NO	YES	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
Management and an advantage representation of the advantage and an advantage and advantage and an advantage and adva		В	Y		
		PREVENTION PR AREA	OGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE		
TOTAL	230 (61.8)	142 (38.2)	249 (65.4)	132 (34.6)	.86 .35 .04
		AG	E		
	YOUNG	GER	OLDE	R	
TOTAL	267 (57.3)	199 (42.7)	211 (74.6)	72 (25.4)	21.98 .0001 .17
		RESID	ENCE		
	RURA		UR BA	N	
TOTAL	187 (52.5)	169 (47.5)	294 (73.7)	105 (26.3)	35.5 .00001 .22
		PREVENTION PR	OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE	AREA	OUTSI DE		
RESIDENCE/ AGE	NO	YES	NO	YES	
Rural					
Younger	36 (36.7)	62 (63.3)	68 (54.0)	58 (46.0)	5.91 .02 .17
Older	44 (64.7)	24 (35.3)	37 (62.7)	22 (37.3)	.002 .96
Urban					.02
Younger	75	42	86	35	1.02
	(64.1)	(35.9)	(71.1)	(28.9)	.31 .07
Older	74 (87.1)	11 (12.9)	56 (78.9)	15 (21.1)	1.32 .25 .11

Younger urban respondents residing inside of block watch areas were more likely to have watchdogs than those living outlisde block watch areas (although the difference was not statistically significant). In contrast, older urban respondents living in the block watch areas were less likely to have a watchdog.

Apparently, dogs for the purposes of security were more prevalent among younger than older respondents. Nearly 43 percent of the younger respondents versus 25.4 percent of the older respondents had a dog for security purposes. This may seem perplexing at first glance given older persons greater concern and fear about crime. It would seem that a greater proportion of older persons would have watchdogs. However, the more likely explanation is that younger people with families have dogs primarily as a pet, and secondarily find dogs useful for security purposes. Hence, the dog is not initially purchased or obtained for security but later on assumes this role. Younger persons residing inside of S.E.E. program areas were more likely to recognize the role in home security that pet-dogs can play.

Controlling for the effects of prevention program status and rural-urban residence lowers slightly the average percentage difference to 16.9. An examination of the bottom half of Table 32 shows that younger rural respondents living in CB patrol areas were nearly twice as likely as older rural respondents living in CB patrol areas to have a dog for the purposes of security. Younger urban respondents residing inside of block watch areas were more than twice as likely to have a dog than older urban respondents inside of block watch areas. In contrast to both of these differences, outside of S.E.E. areas, the age difference was not as marked.

The largest difference in possession of a dog for security purposes was relative to rural-urban residence. Rural respondents (47.5 percent) were far more likely to mention they had a watchdog than urban residents (26.3 percent). As with the age difference noted above, the rural-urban difference in watchdog ownership would appear at first to be perplexing. Rural respondents were less concerned about crime, and were far less likely to have automatic light timers and deadbolt locks. The reason for their higher level of possession of a dog has less to do with concern over security and more to do with a longstanding rural tradition of dog ownership. However, because the dog is present, many rural families would secondarily find a canine useful for security purposes.

When controlling for the effects of prevention program status and age, the average percentage difference for rural-urban residence and possession of a watchdog was 20.8. This percentage difference was similar to the original difference of 21.2 percent. This illustrates that despite especially the relationship of age to watchdog ownership, the relationship of dogs and rural-urban residence was independent. An examination of the bottom of Table 32 shows that for both younger and older respondents, whether they lived inside or outside of S.E.E. program areas, those residing in rural areas were more likely to have a dog for security purposes than those who lived in urban areas.

PRACTICE OF SECURITY HABITS

Table 33 shows the frequency distribution from the county-wide study

on the practice of various types of security habits. The first three items in Table 33 concern the practice of locking outside entrance doors. Slightly over two-thirds of the respondents said that they always locked their doors at night ("when someone is at home"). Very few (4.7 percent) mentioned that they never locked their doors.

However, the proportion of those always locking their doors during the day ("when someone is at home") declined to only 19.5 percent. The proportion of those who "never" lock their doors rose to nearly one in every three respondents.

When the house is vacant for a few days was a time when nearly every respondent in the survey mentioned that they locked their doors. Only one in twenty did not mention "always."

The next two items in Table 33 concern security habits practiced by the respondents when they go out shopping or for other reasons leave their residence. Slightly over 30 percent of the respondents either "always" or "most of the time" make sure they are accompanied by someone else due to concerns about their security. However, only a few go so far as to carry mace or a whistle as forms of self-defense.

The final two items in Table 33 concerns arrangements which people often make for security purposes when they go on vacation. Over three-fourths of the respondents ask neighbors to watch their residences either "always" or "most of the time." Nearly 87 percent make arrangements with neighbors to have mail and newspapers deliveries taken care of either "always" or "most of the time."

Over-all, comparing Table 33 with Table 31, Shelby Countians seem more willing to practice security habits than to adopt security measures.

How is the practice of various security habits related to prevention

TABLE 33: CRIME PREVENTION BEHAVIOR: CRIME PREVENTION ACTIVITIES (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

PE OF PREVENTION ACTIVITY	FREQUENCY	PERCENI
OCKING DOORS AT NIGHT WHEN SOMEON	E IS AT HOME	
Always	524	68.2
Most of the Time	138	18.0
Less Than Half the Time	70	9.1
Never	36	4.7
Total	768	100.0
No Answer	6	man con num
OCKING DOORS DURING THE DAY WHEN	SOMEONE IS AT HO	OME
Always	150	19.5
Most of the Time	130	23.4
Less Than Half the Time	190	24.7
Never	249	32.4
Total	769	100.0
No Answer	5	
OCKING DOORS WHEN THE HOUSE IS VA	CANT FOR A FEW	DAYS
Always	727	95.0
Most of the Time	22	2.9
Less Than Half the Time	9	1.2
Never	7	.9
Total	765	100.0
No Answer	9	
HEN GOING OUT, BEING ACCOMPANIED	BY SOMEONE ELSE	
Always	48	6.3
Most of the Time	187	24.5
Less Than Half the Time	227	29.8
Never	300	39.4
Total	762	100.0
No Answer	12	
ARRY MACE OR A WHISTLE		
Always	14	1.8
Most of the Time	15	2.0
Less Than Half the Time	13	1.7
Never	725	94.5
Never	. = 3	
Total	767	100.0

TABLE 33: CRIME PREVENTION BEHAVIOR CONTINUED: CRIME PREVENTION ACTIVITIES (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

TYPE OF PREVENTION ACTIVITY	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
MAKING ARRANGEMENTS WITH NEIGHBORS TO			JT OF TOWN
Always	406	53.1	
Most of the Time	201	26.3	
Less Than Half the Time	80	10.5	
Never	78	10.2	
Total	765	100.1	
No Answer	9		
MAKING ARRANGEMENTS WITH NEIGHBORS TO TAKEN CARE OF WHEN GOING OUT OF TOWN	HAVE MAIL A	ND NEWSPAPERS	DELIVERIES
Always	509	66.4	
Most of the Time	150	19.6	
Less Than Half the Time	38	5.0	
Never	69	9.0	
Total	766	100.0	
No Answer	8	***	

program status, age and rural-urban residence? The first three items in Table 33 on locking doors did not form a scale (see Chapter 2). Because the third item on locking doors when the house is vacant for a few days had a highly skewed distribution, it will not be cross-tabulated with prevention program status, age and rural-urban residence. Tables 34 and 35 report on locking doors at night and during the day respectively.

Table 34 indicates a nearly statistically significant difference on locking doors at night ("when someone is at home") by prevention program status. Respondents living in S.E.E. program areas were more likely to always lock their doors than those living outside of S.E.E. program areas (71.2 percent versus 65.5 percent). Controlling for age and rural-urban residence, however, does reduce the percentage difference to 3.6 (from 5.7 percent). This indicates that some of the influence of prevention program status may be better understood in terms of the effects of age and rural-urban residence on locking doors.

Older persons were much more likely to lock their doors than younger persons (75.6 percent versus 64.1 percent who said "always").

Controlling for prevention program status and rural-urban residence produces an average percentage difference of 9.8, which is only slightly lower than the original percentage difference. An examination of Table 33 shows that with the exception of rural respondents residing inside CB patrol areas, older persons were more likely than younger persons to "always" lock their doors.

The largest difference on locking doors during the night was by rural-urban residence. Urban respondents were more likely (77.3 percent) than rural respondents (58.3 percent) to "always" lock their doors.

Controlling for prevention program status and age produced an averge

TABLE 34: CRIME PREVENTION BEHAVIOR: FREQUENCY OF LOCKING DOORS AT NIGHT WHEN SOMEONE IS AT HOME BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE SIUDY)

	FREG NOT ALWAYS	QUENCY OF LO ALWAYS	CKING DOORS NOT ALWAYS	ALWAYS	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		В	Y		
	P INSIDE A		OGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE		
TOTAL	109 (28.8)	270 (71.2)	133 (34.5)	253 (65.5)	2.61 .11 .06
		AG	E		
	YOUNG		OLDE	R	
TOTAL	170 (35.9)	303 (64.1)	70 (24.4)	217 (75.6)	10.50 .001 .12
		RESID	ENCE		
	RURA		URBA	N	
TOTAL .	151 (41.7)	211 (58.3)	92 (22.7)	313 (77.3)	30.00 .00001 .20
	a	DEMENTION DD	OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE.		OUTSI DE		
RESIDENCE/ AGE	NOT ALWAYS	ALWAYS	NOT ALWAYS	ALWAYS	
Rural					
Younger	39	62	60	68	1.25
	(38.6)	(61.4)	(46.9)	(53.1)	.26 .08
Older	26 (37.1)	44 (62.9)	23 (39.7)	35 (60.3)	.01 .91 .03
Urban					•03
Younger	29 (24.6)	გ9 (75 . 4)	39 (32.0)	83 (68.0)	1.27 .26
					.08
Older	13 (15.1)	73 (84.9)	8 (11.0)	65 (89.0)	.29 .59 .06

percentage difference of 20.0, indicating that the relationship between locking doors and rural-urban residence was not influenced by the other two variables.

An examination of the bottom half of Table 34 indicates that urban respondents, both younger and older and residing inside or outside of S.E.E. program areas, were more likely than rural residents to "always" lock their doors during the night.

Table 35 shows the relationship between locking doors during the day ("when someone is at home") and prevention program status, age and rural-urban residence. There was only a slightly higher likelihood that respondents residing inside of S.E.E. program areas were more likely to "always" lock their doors than those residing outside of S.E.E. program areas. However, the difference was not statistically significant. When controlling for the effect of age and rural-urban residence, the average percentage difference was .2, hence nearly reducing the original difference, which was already minor, to nearly 0.

A large difference in locking doors was found between younger and older respondents. Older respondents (53.5 percent) were much more likely than younger respondents (36.6 percent) to "always" lock doors. When controlling for prevention program status and rural-urban residence, the difference was reduced slightly from the original 16.9 percent to an average percentage difference of 14.7. Older rural respondents compared to younger rural persons residing inside of CB patrol areas were more likely to lock their doors, than were older rural persons compared to younger rural persons who lived outside of CB patrol areas. However, a similar pattern was not found among the urban respondents. Older persons residing both inside and outside of block watch areas were equally more

TABLE 35: CRIME PREVENTION BEHAVIOR: FREQUENCY OF LOCKING DOORS DURING THE DAY WHEN SOMEONE IS AT HOME BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	FRE NOT ALWAYS	QUENCY OF LO ALWAYS	CKING DOORS NOT ALWAYS	ALWAYS	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		В	Y		
	P INSIDE		OGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE	AREA	
TOTAL	212 (55.9)	167 (44.1)	224 (57.9)	163 (42.1)	.22 .64 .02
		AG	E		
	YOUNG	ER	OLDE	R	
TOTAL	301 (63.4)	174 (36.6)	133 (46.5)	153 (53.5)	20.04 .00001 .17
		RESID	ENCE		
	RURA		UR BA	N	
TOTAL	256 (70.5)	107 (29.5)	182 (44.9)	223 (55.1)	50.10 .00001 .26
	ď	DEVIENTION DD	OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE		OUTSIDE	AREA	
RESIDENCE/ AGE	NOT ALWAYS	ALWAYS	NOT ALWAYS	ALWAYS	
Rural					
Younger	69	32	97	32	1.01
	(68.3)	(31.7)	(75.2)	(24.8)	.31 .08
Older	44	26	41	17	.56
	(62.9)	(37.1)	(70.7)	(29.3)	.46
Urban					.08
Younger	69	50	62	60	.97
Ŭ	(58.0)	(42.0)	(50.8)	(49.2)	• 32
					.07
Older	29 (34.1)	56	19	54	.86
	1 71 1 1	(65.9)	(26.0)	(74.0)	. 35

likely to lock their doors when compared to younger persons.

Making arrangments to go out with someone else did not vary by prevention program status. Respondents living outside of S.E.E. areas were slightly more likely (62.1 percent) to make arrangements than were those living inside of S.E.E. areas (59.0 percent). However, the difference was not statistically significant. Controlling for age and rural-urban residence produced an average percentage difference of 2.1.

However, an examination of the bottom of Table 36 shows one statistically significant difference and two others that were marginally significant. Younger urban persons living in block watch areas were much less likely (49.2 percent) to make arrangements to go out with someone than younger urban persons living outside of block watch areas (28.9 percent). Additionally, older urban respondents living in block watch areas were less likely than older urban respondents living outside of block watch areas to make arrangements to go with someone else. However, among rural respondents, the trend was reversed. Those living outside of C.B. patrol areas were less likely to make arrangements to go with someone (differences not statistically significant).

Older and younger persons were equally likely to make arrangments to go with someone, and controlling for prevention program status and rural-urban residence produced an average percentage difference of only .2. Likewise, rural-urban residence was not related to making arrangments to go with someone. The average percentage difference was 3.4 when controlling for prevention program status and rural-urban residence.

Table 37 shows the relationship between making arrangements with neighbors to watch the house and take care of mail and newspaper

TABLE 36: CRIME PREVENTION BEHAVIOR: FREQUENCY OF MAKING ARRANGMENTS
TO GO OUT WITH SOMEONE ELSE BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS,
AGE AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	SOMETIMES	NEVER	KING ARRANGEME SOMETIMES	NEVER	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
			ВҮ		
	PE INSIDE A		ROGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE	AREA	
TOTAL	222 (59.0)	154 (41.0)	238 (62.1)	145 (37.9)	.64 .42 .03
		A	GE		
	YOUNGE		OLDE	R	
TOTAL	284 (60.3)	187 (39.7)	172 (60.8)	111 (39.2)	.003 .96 .005
		RESI	DENCE		
	RURAI		URBA	N	
TOTAL	212 (59.1)	147 (40.9)	250 (62.2)	152 (37.8)	.66 .42 .03
	Pl	REVENTION P	ROGRAM STATUS		
RESIDENCE/ AGE	INSIDE A SOMETIMES ALWAYS		OUTSIDE SOMETIMES ALWAYS	AREA NEVER	
Rural Younger	67 (66.3)	34 (33.7)	69 (54.3)	58 (45.7)	2.89
Older	44 (63.8)	25 (36.2)	29 (50.9)	28 (49.1)	.12 1.63 .20
Urban Younger	60 (50.8)	58 (49.2)	86 (71.1)	35 (28.9)	.13 9.45 .002
01der	48 (57.1)	36 (42.9)	51 (69. 9)	22 (30.1)	.21 2.19 .14 .13

deliveries and prevention program status, age and rural-urban residence. Respondents living within S.E.E. program areas were more likely than those living outside of S.E.E. program areas to "always" ask their neighbors to watch their residences (55.8 percent versus 41.7 percent). Controlling for age and rural-urban residence resulted in an average percentage difference of 14.6, which was only slightly higher than the original percentage difference.

An examination of the bottom half of Table 37 shows that the largest difference in the use of neighbors was among the older rural respondents. Those living in the CB patrol areas were over twice as likely to ask neighbors to take care of their residences than those living outside of CB patrol areas (61.8 percent versus 29.3 percent). In contrast, an identical proportion of younger rural respondents, both those living inside and outside of CB patrol areas, asked neighbors to watch their homes and take care of deliveries.

Older urban respondents living inside of block watch areas were also more likely to ask their neighbors than older urban respondents living outside of block watch areas (76.7 percent versus 61.1 percent). The same pattern was true for younger urban respondents, however, the difference was not statistically significant.

Given that prevention program differences in asking neighbors was stronger among older respondents, it is not surprising to find that age was also related. Older respondents were much more likely (59.5 percent) to ask neighbors to watch and take care of their homes than younger respondents (42.5 percent). Controlling for prevention program status and rural-urban residence reduced slightly the percentage difference to 15.3. Only among rural respondents living outside of CB patrol areas do

TABLE 37: CRIME PREVENTION BEHAVIOR: FREQUENCY OF MAKING ARRANGEMENTS WITH NEIGHBORS TO WATCH THE HOUSE AND TAKE CARE OF MAIL AND NEWSPAPER DELIVERIES (SCALE) BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE, AND AGE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	-	UENCY OF MAK ALWAYS	ING ARRANGEM NOT	ENTS ALWAYS	CHI - COHADE
	NOT ALWAYS	ALWAIS	ALWAYS	ALWAIS	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		В	Y		
			OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE	AREA	OUTSIDE	AREA	
TOTAL	167 (44.2)	211 (55.8)	224 (58.3)	160 (41.7)	14.71 .0001 .14
		AG	E		
	YOUNG		OLDE	R	
TOTAL	272 (57.5)	201 (42.5)	115 (40.5)	169 (59.5)	19.88 .0001 .16
		RESID	ENCE		
	RURA	L	URBA	N	
TOTAL	209 (58.2)	150 (41.8)	182 (44.9)	223 (55.1)	12.90 .0003 .13
			OGRAM STATUS		
RESIDENCE AGE Rural	INSIDE NOT ALWAYS	ALWAYS	NOT ALWAYS	ALWAYS	
Younger	62	39	78	49	.0001
	(61.4)	(38.6)	(61.4)	(38.6)	.9999
Older	26	44	41	17	.0003 11.96
	(38.2)	(61.8)	(70.7)	(29.3)	.0005
Urban					. 32
Younger	59	60	73	49	2.16
	(49.6)	(50.4)	(59.8)	(40.2)	.14
01der	20	66	28	44	.10 3.82
- 	(23.3)	(76.7)	(38.9)	(61.1)	.05

younger persons proportionately exceed older persons in the use of neighbors.

Urban respondents were more likely (55.1 percent) to ask neighbors to watch and take care of their residence when going away for a few days than were rural respondents (41.8 percent). Controlling for prevention program status and age increased slightly the average percentage difference to 14.3.

SUMMARY

The S.E.E. crime prevention effort made only slight differences (but generally positive), in attitudes toward crime. Attitudes varied more by age and rural-urban residence than by prevention program status. However, in the realm of crime prevention behavior, the S.E.E. program had a much greater impact.

Over-all, Shelby County residents were less likely to have adopted home security measures than crime prevention habits. Less than one-third of the respondents had automatic light timers, deadbolt locks on outside entrance doors, marked household property with an identification number, placed property identification stickers on their windows, and had an alarm system. Slightly over one-third of the respondents had a dog in part for security purposes, and nearly all the respondents had theft insurance.

Residents of S.E.E. program areas were more likely to have automatic light timers, deadbolt locks, and a dog for security purposes. However,

only the relationship of automatic light timers and prevention program status was statistically significant. With respect to automatic light timers, the largest benefit of the S.E.E. program was felt in the block watch or urban portion of the program. With respect to watchdogs, the largest difference was in the likelihood that younger rural residents of CB patrol areas, compared to younger rural residents outside of CB patrol areas, used a dog for security purposes.

Almost all Shelby County residents locked their outside entrance doors if their residence was to be vacant for several days, and very few carry mace or a whistle for security purposes. More than half of the respondents kept their doors locked at night when the residence was occupied, and asked neighbors to watch their property and take care of mail and newspaper deliveries when they were going out of town. Nearly one in every two kept doors locked during the day when the residence was occupied and almost one-third often accompanied someone else when going out in part for reasons of security.

S.E.E. program residents were more likely to lock their doors during the night when the residence was occupied, and to make arrangements with neighbors for watching their house and taking care of mail and newspaper deliveries. Only the latter was a statistically significant relationship. Although there was no difference in making arrangements to accompany someone when going out between those who live inside versus those who live outside of S.E.E. program areas, controlling for age and rural-urban residence showed an interesting pattern of differences between the original two variables.

With respect to locking doors, the greater differences were between younger rural and younger urban respondents residing inside of S.E.E.

program areas when compared to their counterparts residing outside of S.E.E. program areas. Hence, with respect to locking doors, the S.E.E. program had a greater benefit among younger residents. This may be explained by the fact that higher proportions of older respondents residing both inside and outside of S.E.E. program areas, compared to younger respondents, locked their doors. Given a greater concern about crime among older persons, this difference would be expected. Hence, the greater potential for program impact was among younger residents in the prevention program areas. The results indicate that the S.E.E. progam had its intended impact.

Rural respondents, both young and old, living in CB patrol areas were more likely than those living outside of CB patrol areas to make arrangements to accompany someone when going out. However, in urban areas, the pattern was the opposite. Those living outside of block watch areas, both young and old, were more likely to make such arrangements than those living inside of block watch areas. This perplexing contrast in program impact may be explained by noting two things. First, there were sizeable differences in concern about crime by rural-urban residence. Urban residents generally thought crime was increasing and were more fearful than their rural counterparts. Second, block watch neighborhoods in Sidney were generally more affluent, newer areas of the city, and respondents from these areas often displayed lower levels of concern about crime. Based on these considerations, two separate conclusions can be reached. In rural Shelby County, the CB patrol program had a positive impact in promoting a cooperative activity among its residents. In urbanized Sidney, the motivation to accompany someone

was based on concerns about victimization, fostered by sources other than the block watch program.

One of the primary goals of most crime prevention programs is to encourage cooperative prevention activities among citizens. The large percentage difference in making arrangements to watch the house and take care of mail and newspaper deliveries by prevention program status illustrates one area in which the S.E.E. program has had a positive benefit in Shelby County. The impact of the S.E.E. program on using neighbors cooperatively for crime prevention cuts across both rural and urban areas and younger and older respondents.

CHAPTER 6

PERCEPTIONS OF THE COMMUNITY

INTRODUCTION

The least tangible of the three crime prevention program impacts identified in this study is that of percpetions of the community.

Theoretically, those who live inside of prevention program areas, by being less frequently victimized, by being less concerned about crime, and by adopting more home and personal security measures, would feel better about the type of neighborhoods and communities in which they live.

In order to examine this dimension of prevention program impact, Chapter 6 is divided into two parts. The first part will examine the relationship between trust of neighbors and prevention program status. The second part will examine satisfaction with the community and prevention program status.

TRUST OF NEIGHBORS

The respondents were asked to agree or disagree with a series of four

statements having to do with trust of their neighbors. The first statement was "Most people in this neighborhood can be trusted."

Slightly over 85 percent of the respondents either "strongly agreed" or "agreed" with this statement (seel Table 38). In response to the statement "Most people in this neighborhood are truthful and dependable," 81.5 percent answered either "strongly agree" or "agree."

This pattern continues for the last two items in the trust of neighbors scale. Over 83 percent either "strongly disagreed" or "disagreed" with the statement "I would not trust my neighbors to watch my house and property." Finally, nearly 90 percent of the respondents felt that their neighbors "could be relied upon to call the police if someone suspicious is on my property."

Obviously, the results in Table 38 indicate that a large majority of Shelby County respondents were trustful of their neighbors. However, it is still useful to examine how trust of neighbors varied according to prevention program status, age and rural-urban residence. As Table 39 indicates, respondents living inside S.E.E. program areas were more trustful of their neighbors than those living outside of S.E.E. program areas. Controlling for age and rural-urban residence produced an average percentage difference of 4.5, which was slightly lower than the original percentage difference. The difference was not quite statistically significant, however. An examination of the bottom of Table 39 indicates three statistically significant prevention program differences, and a rather interesting set of results. First, respondents from the CB patrol portion of the S.E.E. program, both younger and old, were less trustful of their neighbors than those respondents residing outside of CB patrol areas. The difference among rural younger respondents was statistically

TABLE 38: PERCEPTIONS OF THE COMMUNITY: TRUST OF NEIGHBORS SCALE ITEMS (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

ITEM	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
A. "MOST PEOPLE IN THIS NEIGHBO	RHOOD CAN BE TRUST	'ED''
Strongly Disagree	8	1.0
Disagree	40	5.2
Undecided	65	8.4
Agree	484	62.6
Strongly Agree	176	22.8
Total	773	100.0
No Answer	1	
B. "MOST PEOPLE IN THIS NEIGHBO		
Strongly Agree	6	.8
Disagree	40	5.2
Undecided	97	12.6
Agree	474	61.5
Strongly Disagree	154	20.0
Total	771	100.1
No Answer	3	-
. "I WOULD NOT TRUST MY NEIGHB	ORS TO WATCH MY HO	USE AND PROPERTY"
Strongly Disagree	246	32.0
Disagree	396	51.6
Undecided	65	8.5
Agree	37	4.8
Strongly Agree	24	3.1
Total	768	100.0
No Answer	6	Militer state income
"MY NEIGHBORS CAN BE RELIED SUSPICIOUS IS ON MY PROPERTY		POLICE IF SOMEONE
Strongly Disagree	14	1.8
Disagree	33	4.3
Undecided	111	14.4
Agree	430	55.8
Strongly Agree	183	23.7
		100.0
Total	771	100.0
No Answer	3	

TABLE 39: PERCEPTIONS OF THE COMMUNITY: TRUST OF NEIGHBORS SCALE BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE AND RURAL URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

		TRUST OF	NEIGH BORS		
	LOW TRUST	HIGH TRUST	LOW TRUST	HIGH TRUST	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		В	Y		
	P	REVENTION PR	OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE	AREA	OUTSIDE	AREA	
TOTAL	106	272	128	256	2.26
	(28.0)	(72.0)	(33.3)	(66.7)	.13 .06
		AG	E		•00
	YOUNG	ER	OLDE	R	
TO'TAL	151	321	79	204	1.20
	(32.0)	(68.0)	(27.9)	(72.1)	.27 .04
		RESID	E NCE		•04
	RURA	L	URBA	N	
TOTAL	81 (22.4)	280 (77.6)	153 (38.1)	249 (61.9)	21.70 .0001 .17
	p	REVENTION PR	OGRAM STATUS		
	INSIDE		OUTSIDE		
RESIDENCE/ AGE	LOW TRUST	HIGH TRUST	LOW TRUST	HIGH TRUST	
Rural					
Younger	33 (33.0)	67 (67.0)	20 (15.6)	108 (84.4)	8.55 .004
					.20
Older	18 (26.1)	51 (73.9)	10 (17.2)	48 (82.8)	.97 .33
	(2011)	(,3,,,	(1,12)	(0210)	.11
Urban Younger	31	88	67	54	20.15
Toduget	(26.1)	(73.9)	(55.4)	(44.6)	.00003
Older	22	63	29	42	3.29
	(25.9)	(74.1)	(40.8)	(59.2)	.07 .16

significant. This finding indicates that residents of CB patrol areas, which were identified as higher crime areas, are less trusting of neighbors, despite a tendency to use neighbors cooperatively in crime prevention efforts (see Table 37). One probable explanation is that the S.E.E. program has taught residents to be more careful in whom they trust. Another explanation harkens back to the results from Table 5 which indicated that younger rural respondents from S.E.E. program areas were more likely to have been victimized by crime. More importantly, it means despite the ability of the S.E.E. program to modify attitudes (however slightly) and behavior in a positive way, it has not been able to reduce the distrust of neighbors which accompanies areas with higher crime rates.

In contrast to the rural pattern, in the block watch areas of Sidney, respondents were more trusting of their neighbors than those living outside of block watch areas. Among both younger and older respondents, the differences were statistically significant. The larger difference was among younger urban respondents. Although the fact that most of the block watches were in better neighborhoods, the fact remains that the S.E.E. program had at least some contribution in creating more positive feelings about neighbors.

There was only a slight difference in trust of neighbors by age.

Older respondents were more likely to trust their neighbors than younger respondents. Controlling for the effects of prevention program status and rural-urban residence produced an average percentage difference of 5.0, which was only slightly higher than the original percentage difference.

There was only a slight difference in trust of neighbors by age.

Older respondents were more likely to trust their neighbors than younger respondents. Controlling for the effects of prevention program status and rural-urban residence produced an average percentage difference of 5.0, which was only slightly higher than the original percentage difference.

Despite the contrasting pattern of trust of neighbors between the rural and urban portions of the S.E.E. program, over-all, rural respondents were more likely to trust their neighbors than urban respondents (77.6 percent versus 61.9 percent). Controlling for the effects of prevention program status and age lowered only slightly the percentage difference to 14.1. An examination of the bottom of Table 39 shows that rural and urban respondents residing in S.E.E. program areas, whether young or old, had about the same level of trust of neighbors. However, among those residing outside of S.E.E. program areas, whether young or old, rural respondents were far more trusting of their neighbors.

SATISFACTION WITH THE COMMUNITY

In order to measure perceptions of the community, a series of four statements was answered by the respondents. Respondents were evenly split in their feelings concerning the statement that "The best thing that can happen around here is that it stays exactly as it is now" (Table 40). Likewise, nearly equal percents either agreed or disagreed with the statement that "There is a strong need for improvement of services and

TABLE 40: PERCEPTIONS OF THE COMMUNITY: SATISFACTION WITH THE COMMUNITY SCALE ITEMS (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

ITEM	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
A. "THE BEST THING THAT CAN HAPPER EXACTLY AS IT IS NOW"	PEN AROUND HERE I	S THAT IT STAYS
Strongly Disagree	43	5.7
Disagree	243	31.9
Undecided	128	16.8
Agree	293	38.5
Strongly Agree	54	7.1
Total	761	100.0
No Answer	13	Miles some Annie
B. "THERE IS A STRONG NEED FOR AROUND HERE"	IMPROVEMENT OF SE	ERVICES AND FACILITIES
Strongly Agree	27	3.6
Disagree	241	31.8
Undecided	208	27.4
Agree	241	31.8
Strongly Disagree	41	5.4
Total	758	100.0
No Answer	16	and frage with
C. "THIS AREA HAS MANY CHANGES CAN LIVE A SATISFYING LIFE H		MADE BEFORE A PERSON
Strongly Disagree	109	14.3
Disagree	384	50.5
Undecided	105	13.8
Agree	132	17.3
Strongly Agree	31	4.1
Total	761	100.0
No Answer	13	
D. "THIS AREA IS VERY CLOSE TO TO LEAVE"	BEING THE KIND OF	F PLACE I WOULD HATE
Strongly Disagree	30	3.9
Disagree	92	12.1
Undecided	108	14.2
Agree	434	56.9
		13.0
Strongly Agree	99	23.0
	763	100.1

facilities around here." However, when it came to the statement that
"This area has many changes that need to be made before a person can live
a satisfying life here," over two-thirds either "disagreed" or "strongly
disagreed." Finally, nearly 70 percent of the respondents thought that
their communities were "...very close to being the kind of place I would
hate to leave." As these results indicate, the respondents were
generally well satisfied.

As Table 41 shows, satisfaction with the community was more likely found among respondents living in S.E.E. program areas (62.0 percent versus 56.4 percent). It should be pointed out that the difference was not statistically significant. Controlling for age and rural-urban residence produced an average percentage difference of 4.1, which was slightly lower than the original percentage difference. Examining the bottom half of Table 41 indicates no difference between rural respondents, either young or old, in community satisfaction based on prevention program status. However, among urban respondents, those residing inside block watch areas were more likely to be satisfied with their community than those living outside of block watch areas. The difference was statistically significant among younger urban respondents.

Older persons were significantly more likely to feel satisfied with their community than younger persons (65.6 percent versus 55.8 percent). Controlling for prevention program status and rural-urban residence resulted in an average percentage difference of 10.2, which was only slightly higher than the original percentage difference.

Satisfaction with the community varied most by rural-urban residence.

Rural respondents were far more likely to be satisfied with their

community than urban respondents (68.2 percent versus 51.0 percent).

TABLE 41: PERCEPTIONS OF THE COMMUNITY: SATISFACTION WITH THE COMMUNITY SCALE BY PREVENTION PROGRAM STATUS, AGE AND RURAL-URBAN RESIDENCE (COUNTY-WIDE STUDY)

	NOT SATISFIED	TRUST OF SATISFIED	NEIGHBORS NOT SATISFIED	SATISFIED	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
		ì	3Y		
	INSI DE		ROGRAM STATUS OUTSIDE		
TOTAL	141 (38.0)	230 (62.0)	163 (43.6)	211 (56.4)	2.17 .14 .06
			GE		
	YOUNG	GER	OLDI	ER	
TOTAL	206 (44.2)	260 (55.8)	94 (34.4)	179 (65.6)	6.42 .01 .10
			DENCE		
	RURA	AL	UR B.	AN	
TOTAL	112 (231.8	240 (68.2)	193 (49.0)	201 (51.0)	21.96 .0001 .17
eggene de egge egenple de de egge en men en de Aprophies de de dische dische dische dische dische dische dische		PREVENTION P	ROGRAM STATU	<u> </u>	
	INSIDE		OUTSID		
RESIDENCE/ AGE	NOT SATISFIED	SATISFIED	NOT SATISFIED	SATISFIED	
Rural					
Younger	33 (33.0)	67 (67.0)	42 (33.3)	84 (66.7)	.0001 .9999 .004
Older	22 (32.8)	45 (67.2)	13 (24.1)	41 (75.9)	.73 .39
Urban					.10
Younger	56 (48.3)	60 (51.7)	74 (61.7)	46 (38.3)	3.75 .05 .13
Older	28 (33.7)	55 (66.3)	31 (44.9)	38 (55.1)	1.54 .21

Controlling for prevention program status and age reduced the percentage difference only slightly to 16.4. This indicates that the relationship of community satisfaction to rural-urban residence was independent of the the other two variables. Of the four comparative groups in the bottom half of Table 41, only among rural and urban elderly living inside of prevention program areas were there comparable levels of community satisfaction. Among younger persons living in prevention program areas, and among younger and older persons living outside of prevention program areas, those respondents who were rural were more satisfied with their community.

SUMMARY

The results of Chapter 6 indicate that, over-all, the Shelby County respondents were trusting of their neighbors and satisfied with their community. Prevention program status produced a positive effect in that for both indicators those residing inside of S.E.E. program areas had higher levels of trust and satisfaction when compared with those living outside of S.E.E. program areas. Similar to the results in Chapter 4 concerning attitudes toward crime, age and rural-urban residence were even more influential than prevention program status.

Nearly all the difference in trust and satisfaction was found in the block watch portion of the S.E.E. program. This pattern matches somewhat the pattern found in Chapter 4 where attitudinal differences were stronger between those residing inside versus those residing outside of S.E.E. program areas.

CHAPTER 7

AN ANALYSIS OF S.E.E. VOLUNTEERS

INTRODUCTION

In the previous four chapters, the experiences, attitudes and behavior of the general citizenry of Shelby County were analyzed. Differences in these areas were examined with respect to residence within or outside of S.E.E. program areas, age, and rural-urban residence. In this chapter, a special group of citizen will be analyzed: the volunteers who have made the S.E.E. program one of the most successful in Ohio and the nation.

PROFILE OF S.E.E. VOLUNTEERS

All S.E.E. volunteers were mailed copies of the same survey administered to respondents in the county-wide survey. At the time of the mailing, there were 192 S.E.E. program volunteers. Most of these were members of the C.B. patrol portion of the program. As the description of the program in Chapter 2 noted, a citizen-based C.B.

patrol requires a large number of active volunteers in order to be successful. Approximately 23 of the volunteers were captains in the block watch portion of the S.E.E. program.

Nearly three in every four S.E.E. volunteers answered the survey.

For a questionnaire mailed out to a universe of respondents only once,
the return rate is very high. It is impossible to know if non-responding
S.E.E. volunteers were somehow different in their demographic
characteristics. However, given the high return rate, it can be argued
that the results presented in this chapter accurately portray S.E.E.
volunteers.

Table 42 shows the demographic characteristics of S.E.E. volunteers and compares them with respondents from the county-wide survey. For the purposes of comparison on most of the demographic characteristics, the county-wide survey is more appropriate than the 1980 Census of the Population because the former is a representative sample of the adult population, and both the county-wide sample and the S.E.E. volunteer group were administered the same questionnaire.

By age, the S.E.E. volunteers represent an older group than those in the county-wide survey. The average age of S.E.E. volunteers is 49.0, compared to 45.0 for the respondents. According to the 1980 Census of the Population, the median age for all persons in Shelby County is 28.0. Over two in five S.E.E. volunteers were older than 55 years, compared to 18.8 percent of the general population (according to the Census) and 37.7 percent of the respondents in the county-wide study.

By gender, only about 30 percent of the S.E.E. volunteers were female. In contrast, the Census indicates that 50.5 percent of the Shelby County population is female.

TABLE 42: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF S.E.E. VOLUNTEERS (VOLUNTEER STUDY)

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTIC	VOLUNTEE	R STUDY	COUNTY-WI	DE STUDY
	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
AGE				
Less Than 35 Years	22	15.8	237	31.0
35 - 44 Years	32	23.0	137	17.9
45 - 54 Years	28	20.1	102	13.4
55 - 64 Years	25	18.0	133	17.4
65 Years and Over	32	23.0	155	20.3
Total	139	99.9	764	100.0
No Answer	0	-	10	
Median Age	= 49	.0	= 45	.0
GENDER				
Male	97	70.3	309	40.2
Female	41	29.7	460	59.8
Tot al	138	100.0	769	100.0
No Answer	1		5	
Marital Status				
Married	120	86.3	614	80.3
Never Married	4	2.9	42	5.5
Separated/Divorced	5	3.6	39	5.1
Widowed	10	7.2	70	9.2
Total	139	100.0	765	100.0
No Answer	0		9	
ducational Status				
Some Grade School	13	9.4	46	6.0
Some High School	13	9.4	111	14.6
High School Graduate	66	47.5	310	40.7
Some College	33	23.7	177	23.2
College Graduate	14	10.1	118	15.5
Total	139	100.0	762	100.0
No Answer	0		12	
arming Status				
Not a Farmer	79	58.5	615	80.4
Part-time Farmer (>100 of:		18.5	93	12.2
farm work days) Full-time Farmer	31	23.0	56	7.5
Total	135	100.0	765	100.0
No Answer	4		9	

TABLE 42 CONTINUED: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF S.E.E. VOLUNTEERS (VOLUNTEER STUDY)

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTIC	VOLUNTEE	R STUDY	COUNTY-WIDE STUDY		
	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS					
One Member	1	5.1	81	10.6	
Two Members	50	36.2	243	31.8	
Three - Four Members	52	37.6	277	36.3	
Five and More Members	29	20.9	162	21.2	
Total	138	100.0	763	100.0	
No Answer	1	-	11	ndire state with	
NUMBER OF YOUNG DEPENDENTS Less Than 8 Years Old					
None	106	77.4	552	72.4	
One or More	31	22.6	210	27.6	
Total	137	100.0	762	100.0	
No Answer	2				
8 - 18 Years Old					
None	91	66.4	489	64.2	
One or More	46	33.6	273	35.8	
Total	137	100.0	762	100.0	
No Answer	2	como comb. della	12	-	
YEARS OF RESIDENCE IN SHELB					
Less Than 5 Years	5	3.7	56	7.3	
6 - 10 Years	5	3.7	65	8.5	
11 - 19 Years	13	9.5	87	11.4	
20 - 29 Years	20	14.6	132	17.3	
30 - 39 Years	21	15.3	154	20.1	
40 - 49 Years	29	21.2	80	10.5	
50 Years and More	44	32.1	191	25.0	
Total	137	100.0	765	100.0	
No Answer	2		9		
Mean Years of Residence	= ;	39.4	= 33	.7	

Over 86 percent of the S.E.E. volunteers were married, which was slightly higher than the respondents from the county-wide study. By educational status, there likewise appears to be little difference between the S.E.E. volunteers and county-wide respondents. Approximately equal proportions graduated from high school and attended college.

There was a large difference between S.E.E. volunteers and respondents from the county-wide study by farming status. Nearly one in four S.E.E. volunteers were full-time farmers, compared to only 7.5 percent in the county-wide study. This finding was expected given that the majority of volunteers were from rural Shelby County.

There was little difference between the two groups by number of household members. However, only one of the S.E.E. volunteers who answered the survey was from a single member household. Despite the age difference between the S.E.E. volunteers and the respondents from the county-wide survey, there was little difference in the proportion of those with young dependents less than 8 years old or between 8 and 18 years old.

S.E.E. volunteers had lived in Shelby County an average of over 39 years. This was about 6 years higher than the average from the county-wide survey. Nearly one-third of the S.E.E. volunteers had resided in the county for 50 or more years.

SERVICE IN THE S.E.E. PROGRAM

Table 43 shows the level of effort donated by volunteers to the

S.E.E. program. Most of the S.E.E. volunteers (80.2 percent) have been involved in the program for at least 3 years. Nearly nine out of every ten S.E.E. volunteers were active in the program once or twice per month. The average number of hours per month that the volunteers estimate they donated to the S.E.E. effort was largely between 2 and 4 hours.

Table 44 reviews the relationship between years in the S.E.E. program, average number of times and average number of hours per month devoted to the program. There was no difference in the number of times volunteered to the S.E.E. program by years in the program. Those with 4 or more years in the program had only a slightly higher rate of average monthly involvement. However, by the number of hours devoted to the program, there was a statistically significant difference. Those who had been S.E.E. members for four years of more had volunteered more hours to the program. The difference was quite large as over 50 percent of volunteers with four or more years of service averaged 4 or more hours per month, compared to only 20.7 percent for volunteers with three or fewer years of S.E.E. membership.

The bottom of Table 44 is a cross-tabulation between the number of times per month and the number of hours volunteered to the S.E.E. program. Somewhat surprisingly, there was no relationship between the two. There was only a slightly larger likelihood that those who volunteered two or more times per month devoted 4 or more hours to the program, compared to those who only volunteered once or less per month. This lack of a difference may be due largely to the nature of the volunteer service provided in the CB portion of the program. Patrols are in three hour shifts, hence even those who volunteered only once per month devoted a set minimum amount of time.

TABLE 43: SERVICE IN THE S.E.E. PROGRAM (VOLUNTEER STUDY)

TYPE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
LENGTH OF TIME IN S.E.E. PROGRAM			
Less Than 1 Year	12	8.3	
l Year	3	2.2	
2 Years	12	8.8	
3 Years	40	29.4	
4 Years	33	24.3	
5 and More Years	36	26.5	
Total	136	100.0	
No Answer	3		
AVERAGE NUMBER OF TIMES PER MONTH Once Twice Three Times Four Times Five and More Times Total	IN S.E.E. PROGRA 74 31 6 3 4	62.7 26.3 5.1 2.5 3.4	
No Answer AVERAGE NUMBER OF HOURS PER MONTH	21 IN S.E.E. PROGRA	 \M	
One Hour	5	4.2	
Two Hours	25	21.2	
Three Hours	45	38.1	
Four hours	34	28.8	
Five and More Hours	9	7.6	
Total	118	100.0	
No Answer	21		

TABLE 44: YEARS OF MEMBERSHIP IN THE S.E.E. PROGRAM BY AMOUNT OF TIME DEVOTED TO THE S.E.E. PROGRAM (VOLUNTEER STUDY)

TIME SPENT WORKING IN THE S.E.E. PROGRAM		E.E. PROGRAM 4 OR MORE	CHI-SQUARE LEVEL PHI
AVERAGE NUMBER OF TIMES PER MONTH			
Once Per Month	39	36	
	(66.1)	(60.0)	
Two or More Per Month	20	24	.25
	(33.9)	(40.0)	. 62
Total	59	60	.06
	(100.0)	(100.0)	
AVERAGE NUMBER OF HOURS PER MONTH			
3 or Less Hours	46	30	
	(79.3)	(49.2)	
4 or More Hours	12	31	10.43
	(20.7)	(50.8)	.0001
Total	58 (100.0)	61 (100.0)	.17
	(100.0)	(100.0)	
		JRS PER MONTH MORE THAN 4	
	J OR LEGG	HORE THAN 4	
AVERAGE NUMBER OF TIMES			
PER MONTH			
Once Per Month	49	25	
	(65.3)	(59.5)	1.0
Two or More Per Month	26	17	.18
m . 1	(34.7)	(40.5)	.67
Tot a l	75 (100.0)	42 (100.0)	.06

MOTIVATIONS OF S.E.E. VOLUNTEERS

The S.E.E. volunteers were asked to indicate the relative importance of a series of six statement, each representing a different type of motivation. Their responses are summarized in Table 45. Two of the motivations were most often answered "very important" by the S.E.E. volunteers. These were "To make people in this neighborhood feel safer about crime" and "Reduce crime in this neighborhood." The third highest ranked motivation was "To make a positive contribution to Shelby County." This was followed by the motivation of "I'm tired of hearing about crime in Shelby County" and "My friends urged me to join." The least rated motivations was "I was a victim."

Over-all, the reasons why volunteers were motivated to join the S.E.E. program match the findings of Lavrakas et. al. (1981) who noted that neither being the victim of a crime nor fear of crime stimulated joining an anti-crime organization. Responses of the S.E.E. volunteers tended to rank as very important those motivations that made their neighborhoods better places in which to live. The three highest rated motivations were those having to do with increasing feelings of safety, reducing crime, and making "positive contributions." On the other hand, the three lowest rated motivations were not directly related to increasing the quality of life of Shelby County.

The distinction between the top three motivations and the bottom three motivations can be visualized in terms of push and pull factors. The three highest rated motivations can be said to have "pulled" or attracted the volunteers into the program. The three lowest rated motivations were those which would have "pushed" the volunteers into S.E.E.

TABLE 45: MOTIVATIONS OF VOLUNTEERS IN S.E.E. PROGRAM (VOLUNTEER SIUDY)

TYPE OF MOTIVATION	FREQUENCY	PERCENI	
'MY FRIENDS URGED ME TO JOIN"			
Very Important	33	26.2	
Important	57	45.2	
Not Important	36	28.6	
Total	126	100.0	
No Answer	13		
'TO MAKE PEOPLE IN THIS NEIGHBORHO			
Very Important	86	63.7	
Important	46	34.1	
Not Important	3	2.2	
Total	135	100.0	
No Answer	4		
REDUCE CRIME IN THIS NEIGHBORHOOD			
Very Important	96	71.6	
Important	34	25.4	
Not Important	4	3.0	
Total	134	100.0	
No Answer	5		
"I WAS A VICTIM"			
Very Important	10	8.3	
Important	33	27.5	
Not Important	7 7	64.2	
Total	120	100.0	
No Answer	19	-	
"TO MAKE A POSITIVE CONTRIBUTION T	O SHELBY COUNTY	1	
Very Important	65	48.9	
Important	61	45.9	
Not Important	7	5.3	
Total	133	100.0	
No Answer	6		
"I'M TIRED OF HEARING ABOUT CRIME	IN SHELBY COUNT	Z ^{II}	
Very Important	50	38.8	
Important	6 0	46.5	
Not Important	19	14.7	
Total	129	100.0	
No Answer	10		

EXPOSURE TO CRIME: COMPARISON OF S.E.E. VOLUNTEER AND COUNTY-WIDE SURVEYS

How do S.E.E. volunteers compare to respondents from the county-wide survey with respect to exposure to crime? Table 46 shows the differences between S.E.E. volunteers, non-volunteers residing in S.E.E. program areas, and non-volunteers residing outside of S.E.E. program areas.

Of the three groups, S.E.E. volunteers were least likely to have had a crime occur. Both S.E.E. volunteers and those residing inside of S.E.E. program areas were more likely than those residing outside of S.E.E. areas to know of someone who was recently a crime victim. However, for both types of victimization, the differences were not statistically significant.

S.E.E. volunteers were much more likely than non-volunteers to talk about crime. The difference was statistically significant. S.E.E. volunteers were less likely to use television as a source of information about crime, but more likely to use the radio. The latter difference was also statistically significant. There were no local television stations in Shelby County, but several radio stations broadcast local news. The difference between volunteers and non-volunteers indicates how voluntary involvement influenced the selection of information sources.

There were no differences between volunteers and non-volunteers in the use of the newspaper as a source of information about crime. For all three groups, the newspaper was the most frequently mentioned source of information.

Almost statistically significant was the difference in using interpersonal sources of information about crime. S.E.E. volunteers most

TABLE 46: COMPARISON OF EXPOSURE TO CRIME BETWEEN NON-VOLUNTEERS AND VOLUNTEERS IN THE S.E.E. PROGRAM

EXPOSURE TO CRIME	VOLUNTEERS	NO N-VOI	LUNTEERS	CHI-SQUARE
	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	INSIDE	OUTSIDE	LEVEL
		S.E.E.	S.E.E.	CRAMER'S V
DIRECT EXPOSURE TO CRI	ME.			
None	96	246	237	
	(69.6)	(66.0)	(62.0)	
One or More Crime	42	127	145	2.87
	(30.4)	(34.0)	(38.0)	. 24
Total	138	373	382	.06
	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	
INDIRECT EXPOSURE TO C	RIME			
Knowledge of the Crime	Experiences of	Others		
No	54	145	166	
	(39.4)	(39.7)	(44.5)	
Yes	83	220	207	2.08
	(60.6)	(60.3)	(55.5)	. 24
Tot al	137	365	373	.05
	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	
Frequency of Talking A	bout Crime			
More Frequently	87	175	156	
	(62.6)	(46.7)	(41.3)	
Less Frequently	52	200	222	18.56
	(37.4)	(53.3)	(58.7)	.0001
Total	139	375	378	.14
	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	
Using Television as So	ource of Informat	ion About C	rime	
More Frequently	109	324	329	
	(78.4)	(85.7)	(84.4)	
Less Frequently	30	54	61	4.09
	(21.6)	(14.3)	(15.6)	.13
Total	139	378	390	.07
Using Radio as Source	of Information A	bout Crime		
More Frequently	98	203	228	
•	(70.5)	(53.8)	(58.8)	
Less Frequently	41	174	160	11.62
-	(29.5)	46.2)	(41.2)	.003
Total	139	377	388	.11
	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	

TABLE 46 CONFINUED: COMPARISON OF EXPOSURE TO CRIME BETWEEN NON-VOLUNTEERS AND VOLUNTEERS IN THE S.E.E. PROGRAM

XPOSURE TO CRIME	VOLUNTEERS	NON-VOLU	NTEERS	CHI-SQUARE
		INSIDE	OUTSIDE	LEVEL
		S.E.E.	S.E.E.	CRAMER'S
Using The Newspaper as	a Source of Info	ormation Abo	out Crime	
More Frequently	119	329	339	
•	(86.2)	(86.8)	(87.1)	
Less Frequently	19	50	50	.077
. ,	(13.8)	(13.2)	(12.9)	.96
Tot a l	138	379	389	.009
	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	
Using Interpersonal Sc	ources of Informa	tion About	Crime	
More Frequently	111	279	272	
	(80.4)	(75.0)	(71.6)	
Less Frequently	27	93	108	4.29
• •	(19.6)	(25.0)	(28.4)	.12
Total	138	372	380	.07
	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	

often used interpersonal sources, followed by non-volunteers living inside of S.E.E. areas. Least likely to use interpersonal sources were non-volunteers living outside of S.E.E. program areas.

The results from Table 46 show how the S.E.E. has made a difference in Shelby County. For almost every indicator in Table 46, the S.E.E. volunteers were on one side, the non-volunteers living outside of S.E.E. program areas on the other side, and non-volunteers living inside of S.E.E. program areas were in the middle. Hence, there was a gradient on most of the indicators from the former to the latter, and in most cases, the S.E.E. program was found to make a positive difference.

ATTITUDES TOWARD CRIME: COMPARISON OF S.E.E. VOLUNTEER AND COUNTY-WIDE SURVEYS

Table 47 shows the differences between the three comparative groups for each of the six indicators of attitudes toward crime. With respect to perceived change in neighborhood crime, volunteers were far less likely to perceive increases than either non-volunteer group. This same pattern was also true for perceived changes in county-wide crime. In both cases the differences were statistically significant.

A greater proportion of the volunteers were likely to perceive their neighborhood as less vulnerable to crime. Again, this difference was statistically significant.

However, for the three indicators of concern and fear about crime, there were no statistically significant differences between the three

TABLE 47: COMPARISON OF ATTITUDES TOWARD CRIME BETWEEN NON-VOLUNTEERS AND VOLUNTEERS IN THE S.E.E. PROGRAM

TTITUDES	TOWARD CRIME	VOLUNTEERS	NON-VOL	UNTEERS	CHI-SQUARE
			INSIDE S.E.E.	OUTSIDE S.E.E.	LEVEL CRAMER'S V
			3.6.6.	3.6.6.	CRAPILA 5 V
PERCEIVE	D CHANGE IN NEI	GHBORHOOD CRIME	RATES SINCE	E 1980	
Incre	ased	42	202	215	
		(30.7)	(53.7)	(57.5)	
Decre	ased	95	174	159	29.92
		(69.3)	(46.3))	(42.5)	.0000
Total		137	376	374	.18
		(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	
PERCEIVE	D CHANGE IN COU	NTY-WIDE CRIME	RATES SINCE	1980	
Incre	ased	31	141	161	
		(22.6)	(37.7)	(42.7)	
Decre	:ased	106	233	216	17.29
		(77.4)	(62.3)	(57.3)	.0005
Total		137	374	380	.13
		(100.0)		(100.0)	
		OF HOUSEHOLDS/	PEOPLE TO CI	RIME IN NE	I GH BORHOOD
	TO OTHER PARTS		005	0.27	
Less	Likely	107	225	234	
		(78.1)	(60.2)	(61.6)	15.01
More	Likely	30	149	146	15.01
		(21.9)	(39.8)	(38.4)	.0005
Total		137	374	380	.13
		(100.0)	(100.0)		
PERCEIVE	D SAFETY OF WAL	KING ALONE AT N	IGHT IN NEIG	GHBORHOOD	
More	Safe	83	227	233	
		(59.7)	(60.1)	(60.4)	
Less	Safe	56	151	153	.02
		(40.3)	(39.9)	(39.6)	.99
Total	L	139	378	386	.005
		(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	
PERCEIVE NIGHT	D SAFETY OF BEI	NG ALONE AT HOM	•		RING THE
More	Safe	117	291	302	
1101 C	barc	(84.8)	(77.2)	(78.2)	
Less	Safa	21	86	84	3.62
11693	Dare	(15.2)	(22.8)	(21.8)	.164
Tot al	i	138	377	386	.06
		(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	.00
TOCAL		(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	
	CRIME SCALE				
FEAR OF		78	199	214	
FEAR OF	CRIME SCALE Fearful	78 (56.9)	199 (53.6)	214 (57.1)	
FEAR OF	Fearful	(56.9)	(53.6)	(57.1)	1 . 00
FEAR OF		(56.9) 59	(53.6) 172	(57.1) 161	1.00
FEAR OF	Fearful Fearful	(56.9)	(53.6)	(57.1)	1.00 .61 .03

groups. Volunteers were only slightly more likely to believe that walking alone in the neighborhood and being alone at home in the neighborhood was relatively safe when compared to non-volunteers. The least personally fearful group were residents living inside of S.E.E. program areas, followed by S.E.E. volunteers and non-volunteers living outside of S.E.E. program areas.

The results in Table 47 show that volunteers were very much different from non-volunteers on the cognitive dimension of attitudes toward crime. For all three measures, they were less likely to perceive crime as increasing or to believe that their neighborhoods were more vulnerable to crime than other neighborhoods. However, they were no different than non-volunteers on the affective dimension. Generally speaking, all three groups were not fearful of crime.

CRIME PREVENTION BEHAVIOR: COMPARISON OF S.E.E. VOLUNTEER AND COUNTY-WIDE SURVEYS

Table 48 shows the differences in the crime prevention behavior of volunteers and non-volunteers. On several of the indicators, there were statistically significant differences, but not always in the expected direction.

S.E.E. volunteers were far more likely to have automatic light timers than either non-volunteer group. The difference was statistically significant. However, they were less likely to have deadbolt locks on their entrance doors. Non-volunteers residing inside of S.E.E. program

TABLE 48: COMPARISON OF CRIME PREVENTION BEHAVIOR BETWEEN NON-VOLUNTEERS AND VOLUNTEERS IN THE S.E.E. PROGRAM

PE OF CRIME PREVENTION	VOLUNTEERS		LUNTEERS	
				LEVEL
		S.E.E.	S.E.E.	CRAMER'S V
PRESENCE OF AUTOMATIC L	IGHT TIMERS			
One or More	74	123	78	
	(53.2)	(32.7)	(20.4)	
None	65	253	305	53.20
	(46.8)	(67.3)	(79.6)	.0000
Total	139	376	383	. 24
	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	
PRESENCE OF DEADBOLT LO		DOORS		
Yes	29	113		
	(20.9)			
No	110	260		5.00
	• • •	(69.7)	•	
Total	397	373		.02
	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	
PROPERTY MARKED WITH ID				
Yes	80	93		
	(57.6)	(24.8)		
No	59	282	279	56.33
	(42.4)	(75.2)		.0000
Total	139	375		.25
	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	
PRESENCE OF DOG FOR SEC	CURITY PURPOSES			
Yes	55	142	132	
	(39.6)	(38.2)		
No	84	230	249	1.51
	(60.4)		(65.4)	.47
Total	139	372	381	• 04
KEEPING ENTRANCE DOORS	LOCKED DURING T	HE DAY		
Always	83	270	253	
	(59.7)	(71.2)	(65.5)	
Less Frequently	56	109	133	6.79
	(40.3)	(28.8)	(34.5)	.035
Total	139	379	386	.09
	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	

TABLE 48 CONFINUED: COMPARISON OF CRIME PREVENTION BEHAVIOR BETWEEN

NON- VOLUNTEERS AND VOLUNTEERS IN THE

S.E.E. PROGRAM

YPE OF CRIME PREVENTION	VOLUNTEERS	NO N-VO	LUNTEERS	CHI-SQUARE
		INSIDE S.E.E.		LEVEL CRAMER'S
LOCKING DOORS DURING TH	E DAY			
Always	49	167	163	
•	(35.3)	(44.1)	(42.1)	
Less Frequently	90	212	224	3.26
•	(64.7)	(55.9))	(57.9)	.19
Total	139	379	387	.004
	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	
FOR REASONS OF SAFETY,	ACCOMPANY OTHER	S WHEN GOIN	G OUT	
Sometimes	87	222	238	
5555	(62.6)		(62.1)	
	•	•	145	
Never	52	154		.96
Never				
Never Total	(37.4) 139	(41.0) 376		.96 .62 .03
	(37.4)	(41.0) 376	(37.9)	•62
Total	(37.4) 139 (100.0)	(41.0) 376 (100.0)	(37.9) 383 (100.0)	.62
Total MAKE ARRANGEMENTS WITH	(37.4) 139 (100.0) NEIGHBORS TO WA	(41.0) 376 (100.0) TCH HOUSE A	(37.9) 383 (100.0)	.62
Total	(37.4) 139 (100.0) NEIGHBORS TO WA	(41.0) 376 (100.0) TCH HOUSE A	(37.9) 383 (100.0)	.62
Total MAKE ARRANGEMENTS WITH NEWSPAPER, AND OTHER DE	(37.4) 139 (100.0) NEIGHBORS TO WA LIVERIES WHEN O	(41.0) 376 (100.0) TCH HOUSE A OUT OF FOWN	(37.9) 383 (100.0) ND TAKE CA	.62
Total MAKE ARRANGEMENTS WITH NEWSPAPER, AND OTHER DE	(37.4) 139 (100.0) NEIGHBORS TO WA LIVERIES WHEN O	(41.0) 376 (100.0) TCH HOUSE A OUT OF FOWN 211	(37.9) 383 (100.0) ND TAKE CA	.62
Total MAKE ARRANGEMENTS WITH NEWSPAPER, AND OTHER DE Most of the Time	(37.4) 139 (100.0) NEIGHBORS TO WA LIVERIES WHEN 0 75 (54.3)	(41.0) 376 (100.0) TCH HOUSE A OUT OF FOWN 211 (55.8)	(37.9) 383 (100.0) ND TAKE CA 116 (41.7) 224	.62 .03 RE OF MAIL
Total MAKE ARRANGEMENTS WITH NEWSPAPER, AND OTHER DE Most of the Time	(37.4) 139 (100.0) NEIGHBORS TO WA LIVERIES WHEN 0 75 (54.3) 63	(41.0) 376 (100.0) TCH HOUSE A OUT OF FOWN 211 (55.8) 167	(37.9) 383 (100.0) ND TAKE CA 116 (41.7) 224	.62 .03

areas were more likely than S.E.E. volunteers and non-volunteers living outside of S.E.E. program areas to have deadbolt locks. The difference was nearly statistically significant.

S.E.E. volunteers were more likely to have marked their household property with an identification number than non-volunteers, and by a wide margin. However, they were only slightly more likely to have placed property identification stickers on their windows.

When it comes to locking doors, S.E.E. volunteers fall behind non-volunteers. With respect to keeping entrance doors locked during the day and during the night, S.E.E. volunteers were less likely to perform these activities.

There was no difference between volunteers and non-volunteers in accompanying others when going out for reasons of safety. However, both S.E.E. volunteers and non-volunteers living inside of S.E.E. program areas were more likely than non-volunteers living outside of S.E.E. program areas to make arrangements with neighbors to watch their house and take care of mail and newspaper deliveries when they are out of town for a few days. This difference was statistically significant.

The results in Table 48 that S.E.E. volunteers practice better security habits except with respect to their doors. Not only were they less likely to have deadbolt locks, but they were less likely to keep their doors locked. However, the differences between S.E.E. volunteers and the non-volunteers may be explained by one single fact -- most of the volunteers live in rural areas. The differences found in Table 48 were similar to the differences found earlier between rural and urban residents.

PERCEPTIONS OF THE COMMUNITY: COMPARISON OF S.E.E. VOLUNTEER AND COUNTY-WIDE SURVEYS

The final comparison to make between volunteers and non-volunteers by their perceptions of the community. Volunteers were as satisfied with their community was non-volunteers. Those residing inside of S.E.E. program areas were the most satisfied with their community. Comparing the three groups on trust of neighbors, volunteers were more trusting, followed by non-volunteers residing inside of S.E.E. program areas.

Non-volunteers residing outside of S.E.E. program areas were the least trusting of their neighbors.

SUMMARY

In some ways, S.E.E. volunteers were found not to be special. On most demographic characteristics, they were no different than those who participated in the county-wide study. The only major differences were that they were more likely to be male, farmers, and to have lived in the county for a longer period of time.

In other ways, S.E.E. volunteers were very much different from other Shelby Countians. Their motivations for getting involved in the S.E.E. program were positive, that is, they were "pulled" into the program by what they perceive to be its positive benefits. Volunteers with longer service in the S.E.E. must find the experience personally rewarding for they volunteer more time than volunteers who have not been as long

TABLE 49: COMPARISON OF PERCEPTIONS OF THE COMMUNITY BETWEEN NON-VOLUNTEERS AND VOLUNTEERS IN THE S.E.E. PROGRAM

TYPE OF PERCEPTION	VOLUNTEERS	NON-VOI	LUNTEERS	CHI-SQUARE	
		INSIDE	OUTSIDE	LEVEL	
		S.E.E.	S.E.E.	CRAMER'S V	
SCALE: SATISFACTION WIT	'H LOCAL COMMUN	ITY			
Less Satisfied	58	141	163		
	(42.6)	(38.0)	(43.6)		
More Satisfied	78	230	211	2.55	
	(57.4)	(62.0)	(56.4)	. 28	
Total	136	371	374	.05	
	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)		
SCALE: TRUST OF NEIGHBO	RS				
Less Trusting	32	106	128		
_	(23.2)	(28.0)	(33.3)		
More Trusting	106	272	256	5.74	
· ·	(76.8)	(72.0)	(66.7)	. 05	
Total	138	378	384	.08	
	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)		

involved.

S.E.E. volunteers have had fewer crimes occur to them, and talk about crime more often than non-volunteers. Volunteers were more likely to believe that crime was not increasing, and generally exhibited better security habits. S.E.E. volunteers were more likely to trust their neighbors and to ask their neighbors to watch their house and take care of deliveries during vacancies. However, they were less likely to have deadbolt locks and to keep doors locked. In both cases, S.E.E. volunteers, most being rural residents, reflect the same differences found in the county-wide study between rural and urban residents.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS: IMPACTS OF THE S.E.E. PROGRAM

INTRODUCTION

This report has sifted through a multitude of statistical tables, and noted a great many facts and conclusions about the S.E.E. program. However, often lost in the maze of numbers and generalizations is a sense of the significance of what has been found. The purpose of this chapter is to provide a perspective on the findings from the study of the S.E.E. crime prevention program. The chapter itself is organized according to the three research questions outlined in Chapter 1. These questions included: 1. What are the imapcts of the S.E.E. program? 2. How is age related to the impacts of the S.E.E. program? and 3. What are the impacts of the S.E.E. program on the volunteers?

WHAT ARE THE IMPACTS OF THE S.E.E. PROGRAM?

The most central question to this study was whether or not the S.E.E. program has made a difference in the lives of the Shelby

Countians. The answer is definitely -- "yes, and generally in a positive way."

Let's review briefly what was found. First, residents living inside of S.E.E. program areas were less likely to have recently been victimized. S.E.E. residents were slightly more likely than non-S.E.E. residents to know someone who had been a victim, tended to talk more about crime, and relied more upon interpersonal channels of communication (i.e., people they know) for information about crime. However, they were no more likely to use mass media channels of communication for information about crime.

For S.E.E. residents, crime seemed to be somewhat more of a personal matter in the sense that it was discussed more often and with people they knew. How did this affect their attitudes toward crime? Generally, S.E.E. residents were less concerned about crime than their non-S.E.E. counterparts. In terms of the cognitive measures, S.E.E. residents were slightly less likely to perceive crime as increasing and to perceive their neighborhoods as vulnerable to crime. Residents of the block watch areas in Sidney believed people walking alone in their neighborhoods and being alone at home during the night in their neighborhoods to be safer than Sidney residents living outside the block watch areas. Given the higher fear levels expressed by urban versus rural residents of Shelby County, a similar program impact in the CB patrol or rural portion of the program did not exist. However, in terms of personal fear, younger rural residents living inside of C.B. patrol areas were much less fearful than their counterparts living in the countryside outside of C.B. patrol areas.

The over-all conclusion to be reached from the findings in Chapters 3 and 4 is simple. Dubow et. al. (1979) mentioned that one reaction to crime was to talk about it, as people often do about the weather. In a sense, talking about the weather helps people adjust to the weather's changing and capricious nature. The greater tendency of S.E.E. program residents to talk about crime (and more often through interpersonal sources) has the similar function of relieving concern and anxiety about crime. Although few statistically significant differences between S.E.E. and non-S.E.E. residents were found in Chapter 4 (and in fact the larger differences were by age and rural-urban residence), the pattern was consistently in favor of the S.E.E. program. With respect to attitudes toward crime, the impact of the S.E.E. program was positive.

Perhaps the greatest impact from the S.E.E. program was in terms of crime prevention behavior. Residents of S.E.E. program areas were more likely to have automatic light timers, deadbolt locks, and a dog for security purposes. S.E.E. residents were more likely to lock their doors during the night. Most important of all, S.E.E. residents were more likely to ask their neighbors to watch their property and to take care of mail and newspaper deliveries when going away on overnight trips.

Cooperating with neighbors to reduce criminal opportunity -- this represents one of the major goals of citizen-based crime prevention programs. It is the pillar upon which all block watch programs rest, including the program in Sidney. It was equally important in the C.B. portion of the S.E.E. program. Of all the various forms of crime prevention behavior examined in Chapter 5, it was the one allied most closely with the explicit aim of the S.E.E. program that showed the greatest difference. With respect to the other forms of crime prevention reviewed in Chapter 5, but especially in regard to

cooperative activities with neighbors, the S.E.E. program had a positive benefit.

The final type program impact identified in this study was attitudes toward the community. S.E.E. residents were clearly more trusting of their neighbors than non-S.E.E. residents (although the difference was not quite statistically significant). Perhaps it is because S.E.E. residents were more likely to cooperate with their neighbors to reduce criminal opportunity that they were more trusting of their neighbors. Perhaps it was because they were more trusting of their neighbors that they were more willing to cooperate with their neighbors to reduce criminal opportunity. In either case, the S.E.E. program had a positive benefit.

S.E.E. residents were also more satisfied with their communities than non-S.E.E. residents (although, again, the difference was not quite statistically significant). For many reasons, S.E.E. residents may be more satisfied with their communities than non-S.E.E. residents. S.E.E. residents were less likely to perceive crime as increasing, less likely to be fearful of crime, more likely to practice crime prevention behavior, and more trusting of their neighbors. Added together, these factors help explain why S.E.E. residents feel better about their communities.

One final word about the impact of the S.E.E. program. Very often, the impact of the S.E.E. program was different in the rural versus the urban portions. It is difficult to explain completely why these patterns. However, in part they can be explained by the rural-urban differentials in attitudes about crime, in the practice of crime prevention, and in perceptions of the community. In part, they can be explained by the character of the areas in which the CB patrol and the

block watch programs were located. The CB patrol program was established in areas that had higher rates of reported crime. The block watch program was initiated, generally, in the better neighborhoods of Sidney.

Taken together, they indicate two things. First, crime prevention programs may have greater potential in urban areas to impact attitudes about crime, about trust of neighbors, and about satisfaction with the community, because urban people generally ranked lower on these indicators than rural people. In rural areas, crime prevention progams have greater potential to reinforce or hold in place generally less fearful attitudes about crime and more positive attitudes about neighbors and the community.

Second, rural-urban differences in many of the indicators utilized in this study sever as a reminder of the great diversity of communities. Crime prevention programs cannot be applied to these diverse settings without appropriate adjustments relative to goals and expectations of results.

HOW IS AGE RELATED TO THE IMPACTS OF THE S.E.E. PROGRAM?

A primary research question in the evaluation of the Shelby County
"Eyes and Ears" program was whether it "disproportionately and
benevolently" affected older persons. The results in Chapters 2 through
6 indicated many differences among younger and older persons. Older
persons were less likely to be the victims of crime or to know someone
who had been the victim of crime. Older persons were slightly more
likely than younger persons to talk about crime, but about equally likely

to use mass media channels of communication as sources of information about crime. Older persons were more likely to use interpersonal sources for stories about crime.

Older persons were no more likely than younger persons to perceive crime as increasing in their neighborhood and in Sheloy County, and were no more likely to perceive their neighborhoods as vulnerable to crime. However, despite their lower victimization and equal perception of the problem, they were far more likely to be fearful for the safety of others (both walking alone in their neighborhood at night and while at home alone).

Older persons were more likely than younger persons to have automatic light timers, to have leadbolt locks on their outside entrance doors, but less likely to have a dog for the purposes of security. Older persons were more likely to lock their doors during the day and night when they were at home and to make arrangments with their neighbors to have their house watched and mail and newspaper deliveries taken care of.

Finally, older persons were only slightly more likely to trust their neighbors, but more likely to be satisfied with their community.

These age differences were not unexpected. Previous research on age differences in reactions to crime have uncovered similar patterns. However, this study examined age relative to prevention program status and rural-urban residence, and in both cases, the findings were unexpected.

First, the S.E.E. program appears to have had the same benefits on both younger and older persons, and largely to the same degree. In nearly all of the tables from Chapters 3 through 6, the percentage differences between older persons residing inside of S.E.E. program areas versus older persons residing outside of S.E.E. program areas, were

similar in magnitude to the differences found among younger persons living inside versus living outside of S.E.E. areas.

It can therefore be concluded that prevention program status and age are independent of one another relative to their impact on victimization, attitudes toward crime, crime prevention behavior, and perceptions of the community.

Second, age and rural-urban residence were independent of one another. Older rural persons differed from younger rural persons to the same degree as older urban persons differed from younger urban persons. Another way of saying this is that the rural elderly and the urban elderly were as different from each other relative to victimization, attitudes toward crime, crime prevention behavior, and perceptions of the community as would be expected in terms of general rural-urban differences.

The implications for the design of crime prevention programs of the relative independence of program status, age, and rural-urban residence are important. First, it is possible to design programs especially customized to special groups, such as the rural elderly, the urban elderly etc. However, if a crime prevention program's goals are focused on a specific group, then the program's methodology must likewise be sensitive to the uniqueness of that group. For example, a program oriented specifically to the rural elderly cannot assume that all elderly, whether urban or rural, are alike. Clearly, the independence of age and rural-urban residence on the four sets of variables reviewed in Chapter 3 through 6 indicate that the rural elderly are indeed different from the urban elderly. Hence, the program must meet the specific needs and be sensitive to the specific perceptions of the rural elderly.

WHAT ARE THE IMPACIS OF THE S.E.E. PROGRAM ON THE VOLUNTEERS?

Volunteers to the S.E.E. program resembled Shelby Countians in the county-wide survey with respect to various demographic characteristics, with the exception that a greater proportion of the volunteers were full-time farmers. This is important to remember because it means that differences between the volunteers and non-volunteers from the county-wide survey are based on experiences derived through participation in the S.E.E. prorgram.

Volunteers were less likely to be the victims of crime, but more likely to talk about crime and to use the radio and interpersonal sources for information about crime.

Volunteers were much less likely than non-volunteers to perceive crime as increasing and to perceive that their own neighborhoods were vulnerable to crime. However, they expressed the same level of fear for the safety of other and for themselves.

The S.E.E. volunteers were more likely to have automatic light timers, to have marked their property with an identification number, and to develop cooperative arrangements with neighbors to watch their house and take care of mail and newspaper deliveries. However, true to the predominantly rural and farm character of the volunteers, they were less likely to have deadbolt locks on their entrance doors and to lock their doors during the day and night. Finally, volunteers were more trusting of their neighbors but no more satisfied with their communities as non-volunteers.

The benefits of the S.E.E. program were generally very positive, and in part this may be attributed to the predominant motivations which

attracted the S.E.E. volunteers to the program. The most often mentioned motivations were those which expressed a desire to make Shelby County a better place to live.

This conclusion has important implications for the recruitment and maintenance of volunteers in crime prevention programs. The S.E.E. program is comparatively old by the standards of most crime prevention organizations — nearly 8 years. In addition, the C.B. portion of the S.E.E. program demands an unusual amount of active participation on the part of the volunteers, yet according to the crime prevention officers, there has never been a case of "vigilantism," that is, of a volunteer taking inappropriate action or action that may only appropriately be taken by a law enforcement officer.

The reasons for the long-term success of the S.E.E. program may be found in the nature of the recruitment process and the methods by which the S.E.E. program is run. First, candidates for the C.B. patrol program must apply, and are given a background check (National Rural Crime Prevention Center, 1984). Second, the volunteers are given several hours of training relative to procedures for patrolling roads and for reporting suspicious incidents. These procedures help provide a code of conduct, a violation of which may invoke the displeasure of a great many of one's "peers." Third, the quarterly meetings serve to reinforce the goals of the program as well as clarify questions about procedures.

The lessons learned from the S.E.E. programs are as follows. First, in the long run, the experiences of being a volunteer in a crime prevention program are positive relative to the development of attitudes about crime, the adoption of personal and interpersonal level security measures, and perceptions of the community.

Second, recruitment efforts for a crime prevention program of any type should emphasize those things which attract or "pull" volunteers, and should not be based solely on more negative strategies which stress selective recruitment of victims or people who are merely "fed up" with a crime problem.

Third, regular group meetings serve as opportunities to reinforce the goals and established procedures of the program.

A FINAL NOTE

The Sheloy County study was an attempt to evaluate, in the field, the impacts of a crime prevention program. Its value goes beyond specific findings and statistical patterns. The real values of the Shelby County study are to demonstrate that the benefits of crime prevention are real, not simply "wishful thinking," and that the continued support of crime prevention within the law enforcement community and among citizens will be based on the ability of its supporters to systematically, comprehensively, and honestly measures results.

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Appendix: The Survey Instrument

The Ohio State University SHELBY COUNTY CRIME SURVEY

Dear Shelby County Resident:

You have been randomly selected to participate in a survey of Shelby County. The purpose of the survey is to find out what people in Shelby County think about crime. The survey is being conducted by the National Rural Crime Prevention Center, College of Agriculture, The Ohio State University.

The success of this survey is dependent upon your voluntary cooperation. Since we are not able to contact everyone, your answers are very important. You will only need about 15 minutes to answer all the questions in the survey.

Your answers will be kept <u>confidential</u>. We ask that you do <u>not</u> write your name or address anywhere on this survey.

We believe the information collected from this survey will be of great benefit to all Ohioans and to those who are attempting to reduce crime. Read each question carefully and answer to the best of your ability.

If you have any questions or concerns about this survey, please call collect or write National Rural Crime Prevention Center, 2120 Fyffe Road, Agricultural Administration Building, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio 43210 (614/422-1467). In addition, you may contact any of the persons and organizations listed below. They have been made aware of the survey and have been introduced to the interviewers.

Thomas Archer or Roger Bender Shelby County Cooperative Extension Service 129 East Court Street Sidney, OH 45365 498-7239

Chief Jack L. Wilson or Crime Prevention Officer Terry McFee Sidney Policy Department 201 West Poplar Street Sidney, OH 45365 498-2353

Sheriff John Lenhart or Sergeant Jim Moorman Shelby County Sheriff's Department 203 East Court Street Sidney, OH 45365 498-1111

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

WE WANT TO MAKE THIS SURVEY AS CONVENIENT FOR YOU TO ANSWER AS POSSIBLE. FOR MOST OF THE QUESTIONS, ALL YOU HAVE TO DO IS SIMPLY DRAW A CIRCLE AROUND THE ANSWER WHICH BEST DESCRIBES YOUR OPINION.

FIRST, WE WOULD LIKE TO ASK YOUR OPINIONS ABOUT CRIME.

1. Compared to 1980, how much do you think crime in your NEIGHBORHOOD has changed? Please answer for each of the five types of crime listed below.

(CIRCLE ONLY ONE ANSWER FOR EACH TYPE OF CRIME)

	(CI NCI	IE OUF! OUE	ANSWER FOR	C EACH TIPE	OF CRIPE,	
a. Houses broken	T NODE A CE D	TNODEACED	ABOUT	DECREACED	DECREACED	po w t m
into	INCREASED A LOT	INCREASED A LITTLE	ABOUT THE SAME	DECREASED A LITTLE	A LOT	DON'T KNOW
b. Vandalism	INCREASED A LOT	INCREASED A LITTLE	ABOUT THE SAME	DECREASED A LITTLE	DECREASED A LOT	DON'T KNOW
c. Things being stolen from						
the yard	INCREASED A LOT	INCREASED A LITTLE	ABOUT THE SAME	DECREASED A LITTLE	DECREASED A LOT	DON'T KNOW
d. Assault	INCREASED A LOT	INCREASED A LITTLE	ABOUT THE SAME	DECREASED A LITTLE	DECREASED A LOT	DON'T KNOW
e. Littering	INCREASED A LOT	INCREASED A LITTLE	ABOUT THE SAME	DECREASED A LITTLE	DECREASED A LOT	DON'T KNOW
0.00.1.1000	, , ,	.1 . 1			mx 1	10
2. Compared to 1980, Please answer for		-				gea :
	(CIRC	LE ONLY ONE	ANSWER FO	R EACH TYPE	OF CRIME)	
a. Houses broken						
into	INCREASED A LOT	INCREASED A LITTLE	ABOUT THE SAME	DECREASED A LITTLE	DECREASED A LOT	DON'T KNOW
b. Vandalism	INCREASED A LOT	INCREASED A LITTLE	ABOUT THE SAME	DECREASED A LITTLE	DECREASED A LOT	DON'T KNOW
c. Things being stolen from						
the yard	INCREASED A LOT	INCREASED A LITTLE	ABOUT THE SAME	DECREASED A LITTLE	DECREASED A LOT	DON'T KNOW

ABOUT

A LITTLE

THE SAME A LITTLE

e. Littering...... INCREASED INCREASED

A LOT

DECREASED DECREASED DON'T

A LOT

KNOW

3. Compared to other parts of SHELBY COUNTY, how likely is it that people in this NEIGHBORHOOD:

(FOR EACH QUESTION, CIRCLE ONLY ONE ANSWER)

а.	Will have their their houses broken into?MUCH LESS LIKELY	SOMEWHAT LESS LIKELY	ABOUT THE SAME	SOMEWHAT MORE LIKELY	MUCH MORE LIKELY	DON'T KNOW
b.	Will have their property vandalized?MUCH LESS LIKELY	SOMEWHAT LESS LIKELY	ABOUT THE SAME	SOMEWHAT MORE LIKELY	MUCH MORE LIKELY	DO NT KNOW
с.	Will have something stolen from their yard?MUCH LESS	SOMEWHAT	A BO UT	SOMEWHAT	MUCH MORE	DON'T
	LI KELY	LESS LIKELY		MORE LIKELY	LIKELY	KNOW
d.	Will be attacked or assaulted?MUCH LESS LIKELY	SOMEWHAT LESS LIKELY	ABOUT THE SAME	SOMEWHAT MORE LIKELY	MUCH MORE LIKELY	DON'T KNOW
е.	Will have trash/ litter thrown on their					
	property?MUCH LESS LIKELY	SOMEWHAT LESS LIKELY	ABOUT THE SAME	SOMEWHAT MORE LIKELY	MUCH MORE LIKELY	DON'T KNOW

4. How often do you talk about crime:

(FOR EACH QUESTION, CIRCLE ONLY ONE ANSWER)

a.	With other members of your household?	EVERYDAY	ONCE A WEEK	RARELY	NEVER
b.	With other relatives?	EVERYDAY	ONCE A WEEK	RARELY	NEVER
с.	With your neighbors?	EVERYDAY	ONCE A WEEK	RARELY	NEVER
d.	With other friends or acquaintances?	EVERYDAY	ONCE A WEEK	RARELY	NEVER

5. How safe from crime do you feel these people are when WALKING alone at night in YOUR NEIGHBORHOOD?

(CIRCLE ONLY ONE ANSWER FOR EACH STATEMENT)

a. A young man	VERY SAFE	SOMEWHAT SAFE	UNDEC I DE D	SOMEWHAT UNSAFE	VERY UNSAFE
b. An elderly man	VERY SAFE	SOMEWHAT SAFE	UNDECIDED	SOMEWHAT UNSAFE	VERY UNSAFE
c. A young woman	VERY SAFE	SOMEWHAT SAFE	UNDECIDED	SOMEWHAT UNSAFE	VERY UNSAFE
d. An elderly woman	VERY SAFE	SOMEWHAT SAFE	UNDECIDED	SOMEWHAT UNSAFE	VERY UNSAFE

6. How safe from crime do you feel these people are when ALONE AT HOME during the night in YOUR NEIGHBORHOOD?

(CIRCLE ONLY ONE ANSWER FOR EACH STATEMENT)

a. A young man	VE RY SAFE	SOMEWHAT SAFE	UNDECIDED	SOMEWHAT UNSAFE	VERY UNSAFE
b. An elderly man	VERY SAFE	SOMEWHAT SAFE	UNDEC I DE D	SOMEWHAT UNSAFE	VERY UNSAFE
c. A young woman	VE RY SAFE	SOMEWHAT SAFE	UNDECIDED	SOMEWHAT UNSAFE	VERY UNSAFE
d. An elderly woman	VERY SAFE	SOMEWHAT SAFE	UNDECIDED	SOMEWHAT UNSAFE	VERY UNSAFE

7. People find out about crimes that occur to other people in many different ways. How often do you find out about crime from:

(CIRCLE ONLY ONE ANSWER FOR EACH WAY)

a.	Television?	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	RARELY	NEVER
b.	Radio?	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	RARELY	NEVER
с.	Newspaper?	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	RARELY	NEVER
d.	Friends/Acquaintances?	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	RARELY	NEVER
e.	Members of Your Household?	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	RARELY	NEVER
f.	Your Relatives?	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	RARELY	NEVER

8. Circle the answer which best describes how you feel about each of the following statements.

(CIRCLE ONLY ONE ANSWER FOR EACH STATEMENT)

а.	The best thing that can happen around here is that it stays exactly at it is now	STRONGLY DI SAGREE	DISAGREE	UNDECIDED	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
b.	There is a strong need for improvement of services and facilities around here	STRONGLY DI SAGREE	DI SAGREE	UNDECIDED	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
с.	This area has many changes that need to be made before a person can live a satisfying life here	STRONGLY DI SAGREE	DI SAGREE	UNDEC I DE D	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
d.	This area is very close to being the kind of place I would hate to leave	STRONGLY	DI SAGREE	UNDEC I DE D	AGREE	STRONGLY
e.	When I am away from home overnight, I worry about the safety of my property	DI SAGREE STRONGLY	DI SAGREE	UNDEC I DE D	AGRE E	AGREE STRONGLY
f.	I worry a great deal about my personal safety from crime and criminals	DI SAGREE STRONGLY DI SAGREE	DI SAGREE	UNDECIDED	AGRE E	AGREE STRONGLY AGREE
g.	There is no reason to be afraid of becoming a victim of crime in this community	STRONGLY DI SAGREE	DI SAGREE	UNDECIDED	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
h.	I worry a great deal about the safety of my loved ones from crime and criminals	STRONGLY DI SAGREE	DI SAGREE	UNDECIDED	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE

(PLEASE CONTINUE ON NEXT PAGE)

i.	Most people in this neighborhood can be trusted	STRONGLY DI SAGREE	DISAGREE	UNDECIDED	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
j.	Most people in this neighborhood are truthful and					
	dependable	STRONGLY DI SAGREE	DISAGREE	UNDEC I DE D	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
k.	I would not trust my neighbors to watch my house and property	STRONGLY DI SAGREE	DI SAGREE	UNDECIDED	AGREE	ST RONGLY AGRE E
1.	My neighbors can be relied upon to call the police if someone suspicious is on my					
	property	STRONGLY DI SAGREE	DI SAGREE	UNDECIDED	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
m.	Even in my own home, I'm not safe from people who want to take what					
	I have	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	UNDEC I DE D	AGRE E	STRONGLY AGREE
ТНЕ	NEXT SET OF QUESTIONS REFER	RS TO A NUM	BER OF HOM	ME SECURITY N	MEASURES.	
				ESTION, CIRC	CLE ONE A	ANSWER)
9.	Do you have an automatic ti lights on and off when you				YES	S NO
10.	Do you have dead bolt locks doors into your home?				YE S	S NO
11.	Do you have insurance which	covers lo	osses from	theft?	YES	S NO
12.	Have you marked any of your identification number?				YES	S NO
13.	Have you placed property is or decals on the windows to				YES	S NO
14.	Do you have an alarm system	n for your	home?	• • • • • • • • • • •	YES	S NO
15.	Do you have a watchdog for	home secur	ity?	• • • • • • • • • • • • •	YES	S NO

FOR THE FOLLOWING SET OF ACTIVITIES, PLEASE INDICATE HOW OFTEN YOU DO EACH.

(FOR EACH QUESTION, CIRCLE YOUR ANSWER)

	(FOR EACH QUESTION, CIRCLE YOUR	ANSWER)		
16.	How often do you lock all your doors:			
	at night when someone is at home? ALWAYS	MOST OF THE TIME	LESS THAN HALF THE TIME	NEVER
	during the day when someone is at home? ALWAYS	MOST OF THE TIME	LESS THAN HALF THE TIME	NEVER
с.	when the house is vacant for a few days? ALWAYS	MOST OF THE TIME	LESS THAN HALF THE TIME	NEVER
17.	For reasons of safety, when you go out, do you:			
а.	Make arrangements to go with other people? ALWAYS	MOST OF THE TIME	LESS THAN HALF THE TIME	NEVER
b.	Carry mace or a whistle? ALWAYS	MOST OF THE TIME	LESS THAN HALF THE TIME	NEVER
18.	When you are out of town, how often do you:			
а.	Arrange for a neighbor to watch your home and property? ALWAYS	MOST OF THE TIME	LESS THAN HALF THE TIME	NE VE R
ь.	Arrange to have mail and newspaper deliveries taken care of? ALWAYS	MOST OF	LESS THAN HALF THE	NEVER

TIME

PLEASE ANSWER EACH QUESTION TO THE BEST OF YOUR KNOWLEDGE.

in Shelby County

3. Outside of Shelby County

		(CIRCL	E YOUR	ANSWER)
19. I	s your house visible to some of your earest neighbors?	Y	ES	NO
20. 0	ther than members of your household, do you have elatives who live in this county?	Y	ES	NO
	ave you ever heard about the "Sidney-Shelby Eyes and Ears" (S.E.E.) program?	Y	ES	NO
	ave you ever seen CB radio patrol signs posted long roads in this county?	Y	ES	NO
	ave you ever seen Neighborhood Watch signs posted long streets in the city of Sidney?	Y	ES	NO
	oo you think that posting CB patrol and neighborhood ratch signs makes the community a safer place to live	e? Y	ES	NO
w	s your house located in a township or neighborhood which is part of the "Sidney-Shelby Eyes and Ears" (S.E.E.) program?	Ү	ES	NO
	EXT SET OF QUESTIONS ASKS ABOUT THE EXPERIENCES OF CRIME DURING THE PAST 12 MONTHS. (CIRCLE YOUR ANSWI		D YOUR	FAMILY
26. D	During the past 12 months, have you or other members	of your ho	usehol	d:
	lad property destroyed			
o	or damaged by vandals?NO YES -> IF YE RECEN	S, WHERE DI T INCIDENT		
	l. Ho	me or premi	ses	
		me other pl Shelby Cou		
	3. Ou	tside of Sh	elby C	ount y
b o	lad someone break into, or try to break into your home, business, or other buildings on your			
P	oroperty?NO YES → IF YE RECEN	S, WHERE DI T INCIDENT		
	l. Ho	me or premi	ses	
	2. So	me other pl	ace	

- c. Other than anything already mentioned, has anything been stolen or taken (such as tools, tapedecks, packages, animals, bicycles, etc.) either from the premises or while at other places?........ NO YES -> IF YES, WHERE DID THE MOST RECENT INCIDENT TAKE PLACE?
 - 1. Home or premises
 - Some other place in Shelby County
 - 3. Outside of Shelby County
- d. Other than anything already mentioned, has anyone been the victim of a violent crime, such as an armed robbery, assault, or by a threat?..... NO YES
 - YES → IF YES, WHERE DID THE MOST RECENT INCIDENT TAKE PLACE?
 - 1. Home or premises
 - Some other place in Shelby County
 - 3. Outside of Shelby County

THE NEXT SET OF QUESTIONS ASKS ABOUT THE EXPERIENCES WITH CRIME DURING THE PAST 12 MONTHS OF YOUR NEIGHBORS, FRIENDS, OR OTHER PEOPLE WHOM YOU KNOW PERSONALLY.

- 27. During the past 12 months, are you aware of neighbors, friends, or other people whom you know personally who:
- a. Had their property destroyed or damaged by vandals?..... NO
- YES → IF YES, WHERE DID THE MOST RECENT INCIDENT TAKE PLACE?
 - 1. Home or premises
 - 2. Some other place in Shelby County
 - 3. Outside of Shelby County
- YES IF YES, WHERE DID THE MOST RECENT INCIDENT TAKE PLACE?
 - 1. Home or premises
 - 2. Some other place in Shelby County
 - 3. Outside of Shelby County

(PLEASE CONTINUE ON NEXT PAGE)

c. Other than anything already mentioned, has anything

been stolen or taken from them (such as tools,
tapedecks, packages, animals, bicycles, etc)
either on the premises or while at other places? NO YES -> IF YES, WHERE DID THE MOST RECENT INCIDENT TAKE PLACE?
l. Home or premises
2. Some other place in Shelby County
3. Outside of Shelby County d. Other than anything already mentioned, do you know of anyone who has been the victim of a violent crime, such as an armed robbery, assault,
or by a threat?
1. Home or premises
2. Some other place in Shelby County
3. Outside of Shelby County
WE WOULD LIKE TO ASK A FEW QUESTIONS ABOUT YOU AND YOUR FAMILY. CIRCLE OR WRITE IN THE YOUR ANSWER.
28. What is your sex? (CIRCLE YOUR ANSWER) MALE FEMALE
29. How old are you? (Write in number of years)
30. How many years have you lived in this county?
(Write in the number of years)
31. What is your marital status? (CIRCLE YOUR ANSWER)
NEVER MARRIED SEPARATED OR WIDOWED DIVORCED
32. What is the highest grade of schooling you have completed? (CIRCLE YOUR ANSWER)
SOME GRADE SOME HIGH GRADUATED SOME COLLEGE GRADUATED SCHOOL SCHOOL FROM HIGH OR VOCATIONAL FROM (GRADES (GRADES SCHOOL SCHOOL COLLEGE 1 - 8) 9 - 11)
33. Do you or any other household members farm? (CIRCLE YOUR ANSWER)
NO YES (PART-TIME FARMING YES (FULL-TIME FARMING

work more than 100 days

off the farm)

work less than 100 days

off the farm)

34.	Including yourself, how many currently live in your house		?		
			(WRITE IN THE	NUMBER C	F PERSONS)
35.	Write in the number of peoplare in each of the following		•	(includi	ng yourself) who
			(WRITE IN THE	NUMBER (F PERSONS)
	UNDER 8 YEARS OF AGE				
	8 - 18 YEARS OF AGE				
	19 - 39 YEARS OF AGE				
	40 - 55 YEARS OF AGE				
	55 - 70 YEARS OF AGE				
	OVER 70 YEARS OF AGE				
36.	How far is it to your neare	est n	eighbor? (CIRCL	E YOUR	ANSWER)
		BOUT		RE THAN /2 MI.	
37	. In what community do you 1:	ive?	(CIRCLE YOUR AN	SWER)	
	a. IN A RURAL AREA, OUTSIDE OF ANY TOWN	h.	KIRKWOOD	р.	PEMBERTON
	b. ANNA	i.	JACKSON CENTER	• P	PLATTSVILLE
	c. BOTKINS	j.	LOCKINGTON	r.	PORT JEFFERSON
	d. FORT LORAMIE	k.	MAPLEWOOD	s.	RUSSIA
	e. HARDIN	1.	McCARTYVILLE	t.	SIDNEY
	f. HOUSTON	m.	MONTRA	u.	ST. PATRICK
	g. KETTLERSVILLE	n.	NEWPORT	v.	SWA NDE RS
	8	٥.	ORAN	w.	TAWAWA
38.	Have you ever been a volunt (S.E.E.) program? (CIRCLE			helby E	yes and Ears"
Γ	——NO	S			
COM	NO, YOU HAVE PLETED THE SURVEY. NK YOU.				HAVE YOU BEEN A ROGRAM? (CIRCLE YOU

LESS THAN

1 YEAR

1

YEAR YEARS YEARS YEARS

2 3 4 MORE THAN

5 YEARS

DO VOL	UNTEER		HOW MANY TE HE "S.E.E." SWER)		
DEVOTE	, ON TH	E AVERAGE,	5 OR MO HOW MANY HO LUNTEER FOR ANSWER)	ours do	
1	2	3 4	5 OR M	ORE	
			ERE EACH OF		LOWING
(CIRCL	E ONLY	ONE ANSWER	FOR EACH R	EASON)	
l. My friends urged me to join	VERY	IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	NOT IM	ORTANT
2. To make people in this neighborhood feel safer from crime	VE RY	IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	NOT IM	PORTANT
3. Reduce crime in this neighborhood	VERY	IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	NOT IM	PORTANT
4. I was a victim	VERY	IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	NOT IM	PORTANT
5. To make a positive contribution to Shelby County		IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	NOT IM	PORTANI
6. I'm tired of hearing about crime in Shelby County	VE RY	IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	NOT IM	PORTANI
7. Some other reasons. WRITE IN.					
a	VERY	IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	NOT IM	PORTANT
b	VERY	IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	NO'T IM	PORTAN
c	VERY	IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	NO'T IM	PORTANI
ONE FINAL QUESTION: In your own ware the benefits of crime prevent: County.					

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS SURVEY. WE REMIND YOU $\underline{\text{NOT}}$ TO PUT YOUR NAME OR ADDRESS ON THIS SURVEY FORM. PLEASE RETURN THE SURVEY TO ONE OF OUR INTERVIEWERS .