

FREQUENCY AND CORRELATES OF CAMPUS CRIME: MISSOURI PUBLIC POST-SECONDARY INSTITUTIONS

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Data from 34 public postsecondary institutions in Missouri showed liquor- and drug-related offenses and burglary as the most frequent campus crimes. Four-year institutions, institutions with a greater number of students, full-time students, younger students, out-of-state students, and a larger percentage of program completion were positively correlated with campus crime.

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Background

Promoting campus safety has been a high priority in the United States, yet college students have continued to be threatened by various violent offenses (Darragh & Callahan, 2011; Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2007; Slivey, 2011). From 2006 to 2008, more than 131,000 campus crime incidents were reported (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). In addition, researchers found that students are more likely to experience violence after entering college (Krebs et al., 2007). Creating a safer campus is not an individual institution's issue, but a national agenda. The U.S. government has adopted a number of approaches in establishing various laws and policies. Under the Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act, known as the Clery Act, higher education institutions¹ must report campus crime statistics to the public (Skinner & McCallion, 2008). Specifically, this includes

procedures of criminal actions report, types and frequency of security policies, and crime prevention programs on an annual basis (Kaplin & Lee, 2006; U.S. Department of Education, 2010). Such reports help students and parents receive timely warnings and become aware of campus safety practices (U.S. Department of Education, 2010).

The present study sought to identify correlates of campus crime. In particular, the study focuses on Missouri public postsecondary institutions, because Missouri initiated policy reform in campus safety in 2007 and is actively advancing crime prevention policies with firm cooperation across multiple social agencies (Missouri Department of Higher Education, 2010a). Along with such efforts, research-based decision making is vital to improving current safety policies. Considering the lack of empirical campus crime studies in Missouri, this study attempted to explore institutional factors associated with campus

crime based on data collected by the National Center for Educational Statistics from 2006 to 2008. Institutional characteristics (e.g., location and size) and students' characteristics (e.g., age, race, attendance status, and residence status) were examined in the study. The findings may increase the awareness of campus crime and be informative for reforming current campus safety policies in Missouri. In addition, this study may fill a research gap, because a very small number of studies have examined institutional factors to predict campus crime² (Dameron, Detardo-Bora, & Bora, 2009; Fleenor, 2009; Volkwein, Szelest, & Lizotte, 1995). Recent academic journals have shown a limited number of empirical studies addressing campus crime. Most of the studies in the field assessed violence prevention policy or programs and very few studies measured actual crime incidents. Furthermore, those studies focused on specific forms of violence, such as hate crime (Stotzer & Hossellman, 2012) or sex-related incidents (Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2009; Sweeney, 2011), rather than addressing various forms of campus crime simultaneously. The current study attempted to find factors of campus crime using samples of public institutions only in Missouri, because public institutions have more frequent criminal incidents than private institutions (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 1997; Volkwein et al., 1995).

Definition of Campus Crime

Researchers define campus crime in multiple ways; some include serious criminal offenses such as murder and rape (NCES, 1997), whereas others include perception of safety or feelings of fear on campus (Robinson & Mullen, 2001; Wilcox, Jordan, & Pritchard, 2007). Institutional-level studies tend to use severe and distinctive forms of crime (e.g., murder/non-negligent manslaughter, sex offenses—forcible, and illegal weapons possession) when measuring campus crime. As each institution provides crime data, which is required by law, using such data is beneficial for re-

searchers when comparing crime incidents across institutions. On the other hand, individual-level studies assess perceptions of campus crime and more varied forms of crime. Wilcox et al. (2007) measured campus crime along with multiple dimensions of reactions, including cognitive, emotional, and behavioral. Specifically, whether people feel safe on campus, worry about their security on campus, or have had actual experience as victims (including being stalked or experiencing physical and/or sexual victimization in terms of abuse or attack) were examined. In Henson and Stone's study (1999), the researchers measured campus crime focusing on simple assault, theft/larceny, burglary, property damage, and threats, excluding more serious criminal incidents such as murder or rape. While most campus crime studies focused on student victimization, some expanded the scope of the research to faculty and staff. Robinson and Mullen (2001) expanded their study on campus crime to the entire campus population, and they measured campus crime by perceived fear of being on campus, being victimized, and awareness of crime incidents on campus. Along with the crime incidents that were examined in institutional studies, this study included being offered an illegal drug as a type of crime (Robinson & Mullen, 2001).

Taken together, distinguished definitions of campus crime (e.g., a range from serious criminal offenses to perception of campus crime) have been used by researchers, and the victims were not limited to students, but included faculty and staff. Although different measures of campus crime could have their own strengths, the current study focuses on actual occurrence (rather than perception) of crime incidents that are caused by students only. The purpose of the study is to identify correlates of campus crime and compare the factors across institutions. To do this, using standardized categories of crime across sampled institutions is beneficial. For this reason, the current study adopts measures of campus crime that were used in the NCES data base. Details regarding measures of campus crime are addressed in the method section.

Campus Safety in Missouri: Policies Context

In 2007, following the tragedy at Virginia Tech, Missouri Governor Matt Blunt established the Campus Security Task Force to promote campus safety. Through the efforts of the task force, it was recommended that postsecondary institutions develop emergency response plans, install security equipment, have police protection on campus, and incorporate specialized training programs such as Active Shooter Response (Homeland Security Higher Education Subcommittee, 2010). Through a series of efforts, the Higher Education Subcommittee of the Homeland Security Advisory Council (HES-HSAC) was established in 2007 to create safer campuses for higher education in Missouri (Missouri Department of Higher Education, 2010a). Representatives from various groups, such as postsecondary institutions, community agencies, law enforcement, emergency responders, and the Missouri departments of Higher Education Health and Senior Services, Public Safety, and Mental Health, are involved in HES-HSAC.

Recently, HES-HSAC set goals to achieve campus safety: promoting a culture of preparedness on Missouri postsecondary campuses, engaging institutions for greater support of the state and federal emergency management agencies, and partnering with the Missouri Department of Public Safety and the Missouri School Boards' Association (MSBA) in developing the Missouri Center for Education Safety (Missouri Department of Higher Education, 2010a). Through the efforts of HES-HSAC, public and private preK–12 and postsecondary institutions in Missouri will be supported with resources for safety and security, and cooperative efforts will continue between the MSBA and the Department of Public Safety Office of Homeland Security (Missouri Department of Higher Education, 2010a). Along with such efforts, the study may provide useful information in reforming current safety policies by showing potential factors that contribute to campus crime in the Missouri context.

Theoretical Approaches to and Empirical Evidence in Campus Crime Studies

Although campus crime has been viewed from multiple perspectives, researchers conducting campus crime studies often adopt organizational theory, routine activities theories, and criminal theory. Briefly, organizational theory asserts that organizational characteristics (e.g., institutional goal, size, and affluence) influence members' perception, behavior, and outcomes, whereas routine activities theories introduce three specific elements to produce campus crime: "motivated offenders, suitable targets, and the absence of capable guardians" (Cohen & Felson, 1979, p. 604). Specifically, Cohen and Felson (1979), using results of time-series analyses between 1947 and 1974, examined routine activities theory. The researchers asserted that criminal offenses can be prevented if there is a lack of any one of three elements. Most campuses have those elements present. For example, students have valuable items, such as laptops (suitable targets); campus buildings are commonly open to everyone; few universities have a sufficient number of security personnel (the absence of capable guardians); and offenders can easily access campus (Volkwein et al., 1995).

Along with conceptual observations about campus crime, researchers have empirically examined campus crime from different approaches. Researchers surveyed how students and staff perceived campus safety and victimization (Robinson & Mullen, 2001; Wilcox et al., 2007); whether having residential systems in college influence campus crime (Barnes, 2010; Fleenor, 2009); whether campus security information on the web is effective (Dameron et al., 2009); and whether community, campus, and student characteristics predict campus crime (Volkwein et al., 1995). Among those studies, the most relevant study to the present one is the Volkwein and colleagues study (1995). Based on multiple databases, including the Federal Bureau of Investigation Uniform Crime Reports, the Consor-

tium for Higher Education Campus Crime Research data, and the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Volkwein et al. (1995) found that student characteristics were strong contributors to violent crime and institutional characteristics were associated with property crime. In addition, they found that place, sector, and discipline areas were relevant factors; that being on campus (vs. in local communities) and at a community college (vs. at a four-year college) were negative predictors of campus crime; and that medical and health science centers were positive predictors compared with other discipline areas. Although poverty levels and local crime did not show any statistically significant relationships with campus crime, positive associations were found between overall campus crime and percentage of Black students and male students (Volkwein et al., 1995). In addition, the researchers also considered student-faculty ratio as a potential factor of campus crime (Volkwein et al., 1995), because student-faculty ratio was one of the common indicators assessing institutional quality. A smaller ratio helps promote individual attention and frequent interaction between faculty and students and increase learning of students (Slivey, 2011).

Based on the literature review, this study explored the frequency of campus crime incidents in Missouri public higher education institutions, differences of campus crime by institutional characteristics, and correlates of campus crime. As the literature indicated, student characteristics were significant contributors to violent crime (Barnes, 2010; Volkwein et al., 1995), thus various student characteristics (e.g., out-of-state student, full-time students, student age, and educational attainment measured as program completion) were included in the current study as aggregated data. Specific research questions in the study are as follows:

1. What types of criminal offenses are the most common in public postsecondary institutions in Missouri?
2. To what extent do campus criminal offenses differ by student characteristics

(e.g., attendance status, student age, and residence status)?

3. How are campus criminal offenses correlated with institutional characteristics?

Method

Data

The NCES provides rich information about postsecondary educational institutions through its College Navigator tool; this includes financial information (tuition, fees, student expenses, and financial aid), enrollment by attendance status, student race/ethnicity, student age, student residence status, admission policy, retention and graduation rates, programs and/or majors that institutions provide, and campus security. This is one of the most comprehensive databases about postsecondary educational institutions in the United States and the current study included data about 12 types of campus crime incidents in 2006, 2007, and 2008. For the samples of the study, a total of 34 postsecondary institutions (13 public four-year and 21 public two-year schools) in Missouri were selected. Among the 13 four-year institutions, four institutions are research-intensive institutions.

Measures

Campus crime. A total of 12 types of criminal offenses and arrests were used to measure campus crime: murder/non-negligent manslaughter, sex offenses—forcible, sex offenses—non-forcible, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, motor vehicle theft, arson, illegal weapons possession (arrest), drug law violations (arrest), and liquor law violations (arrest). The total number of those criminal offenses from 2006 through 2008 was included in the analyses. The number includes incidents that occurred in the residence hall and excludes incidents that occurred on (a) public property near the campus, (b) student organizations' noncampus buildings or property, and (c) institution-owned buildings or property that is

not near the campus. These 12 types of crime are the ones usually measured in campus crime studies (Henson & Stone, 1999; McMahon, 2008; Robinson & Mullen, 2001). For the analysis, the percentage of students involved in those criminal offenses was obtained by dividing the number of incidents by total number of students and multiplying by 100.

Sector. Public four-year and public two-year institutions were included in the study; the former was coded as 1 and the latter as 0. In the case of institutions with multiple campuses, each campus was counted as one institution, because those institutions have different characteristics by campus: location (from large city to rural), school size, and organization and administrative structure. Considering each campus as an independent institution is common in the major higher education databases (see NCES, 2011).

School size. Total number of enrolled students (both undergraduate and graduate students) as of fall 2009 was used.

School location. The locations of institutions were reported as city–large, city–midsize, and city–small; suburban–large; town–fringe; distant; rural–fringe; and remote in the database. Twelve institutions are in a city, 4 are suburban, 9 are in town, and 9 in a rural area. In the analyses, a dummy variable was created indicating city (city–large, city–midsize, city–small) as 1 and others as 0.

Student-faculty ratio. The institution reported the student-faculty ratio. As mentioned earlier, one of the faculty's roles includes promoting a healthy student community (Slivey, 2011; Volkwein et al., 1995) and a smaller student-faculty ratio may help create a safer campus.

Attendance status. Student attendance status was measured as percentage of individuals who were enrolled as full-time students.

Program completion. The institution reported percentage of students who graduated from their institutions, and the percentage was included in the analyses.

Gender proportion. Percentage of male students was used in the analysis because institutions serving a larger percentage of male students were more likely to have campus crime (Barnes, 2010; Volkwein et al., 1995).

Racial proportion. Percentages of White, Black, and Hispanic students were used in the analyses. Having a large percentage of ethnic minority students has been explored as a significant predictor of campus crime (Volkwein et al., 1995).

Percentage of students under 24. Percentage of students under 24 years of age was used to differentiate students' characteristics. Age 24 has been used as an indicator of institutional characteristics in NCES data base (NCES, 2011).

Residence status. Percentage of in-state students was used in the analyses.

Grant recipients. Percentage of students who received grant or scholarship aid from the federal government, state or local government, and the institution was included in the analyses.

Data analysis

To examine frequency of and different patterns of campus crime incidents by institutional characteristics, descriptive statistics and t-test were used. Because murder/non-negligent manslaughter and negligent manslaughter incidents did not occur in Missouri postsecondary institutions from 2006 to 2008, these two types of crime incidents were excluded from the analyses. Finally, a correlation was used to identify correlated factors with campus crime incidents.

Results

Frequency and Type of Campus Crime

Descriptive statistics present that a total of 3,147 criminal offenses occurred on Missouri campuses during 2006, 2007, and 2008. Out of those 3,147 incidents, 2,939 cases were at public four-year institutions ($M = 244.9$) and 208 cases were at public two-year institutions ($M = 17.3$). As Figure 1 shows, liquor law violation (35.02 percent) and burglary (30.79 percent) are the most common forms of cam-

pus crime, and these two types of crime comprised more than 65 percent of the total criminal incidents in Missouri postsecondary institutions. Following these incidents, drug-related law violations comprised 21.29 percent, and other types of crime, such as robbery, assault, motor vehicle theft, arson and illegal weapon possession, comprised only a small portion of the total crime incidents, ranging from 0.67 percent to 3.72 percent. In addition, sex-related offenses comprised about 3 percent of the total criminal offenses.

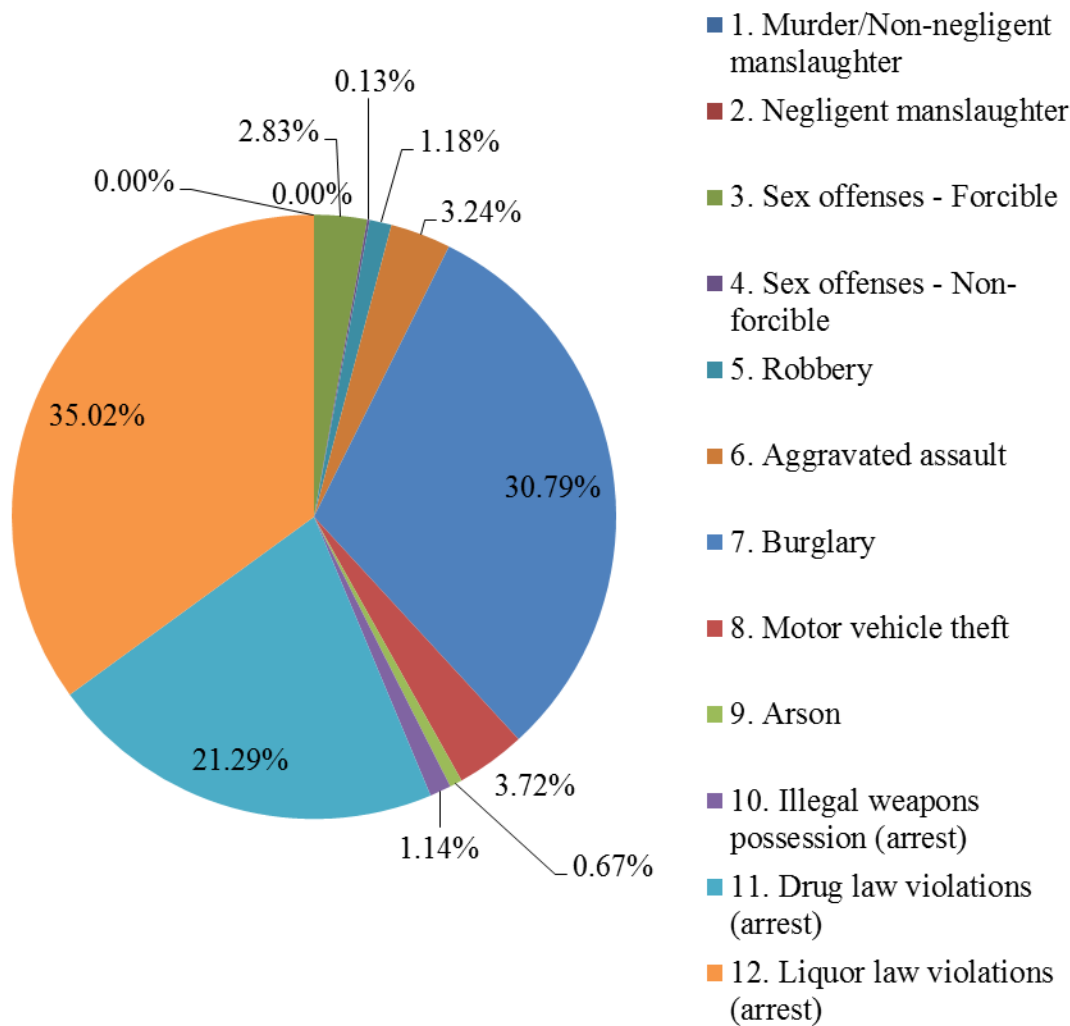


Figure 1. Types of criminal offenses in Missouri public postsecondary institutions (N = 34; Total number of criminal offenses = 3,147).

In summary, liquor law violations and burglary were the most frequent crimes, and drug-related crime was also common in Missouri public postsecondary institutions from 2006 through 2008.

Differences Among Campus Crime Incidents by Student Characteristics

To address research question 2 (To what extent do campus criminal offenses differ by stu-

dent characteristics?), multiple t-tests (e.g., by students' attendance status, students under 24, and residence status) are performed and the results are presented in Figure 2, Figure 3, and Figure 4 (next page).

Figure 2 shows differences among criminal offenses by students' attendance status. Based on 10 types of criminal offenses, institutions with an enrollment of more than 60 percent full-time students have more frequent criminal offenses than institutions with fewer full-time



Figure 2. Differences of criminal offenses by attendance status
 Note. (1) n = 22. (2) n = 12.

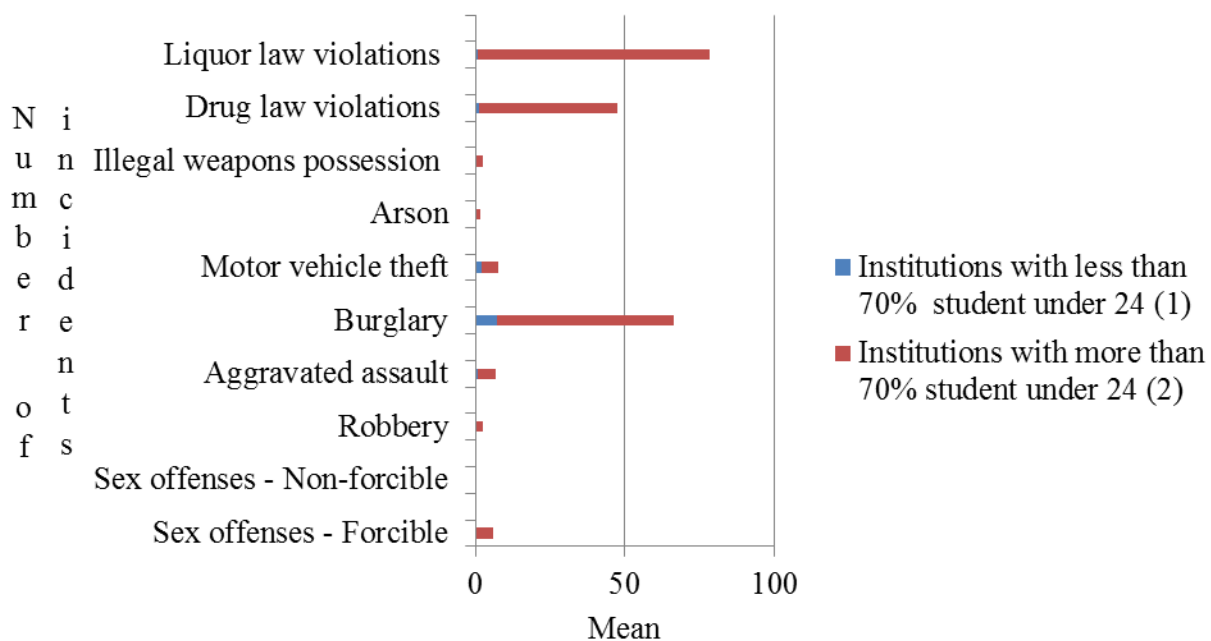


Figure 3. Differences of criminal offenses by proportion of students under 24
 Note. (1) n = 20. (2) n = 14.

students. In particular, liquor-related crimes, burglary, and drug-related offenses are more common in institutions that have an enrollment of more than 60 percent full-time students. Differences of each type of crime offenses between two groups are statistically significant ($p = 0.05$). Figure 3 presents differences among criminal offenses by institution according to proportion of students under 24 years old. Institutions that serve more than 70 percent students under age 24 have more frequent crime incidents on campus than institutions with fewer students under age 24. The same three types of crime above (e.g., liquor-related crimes, burglary, and drug-related offenses) also most commonly occurred. Statistically significant differences are observed between institutions with less and those with more than 70 percent students under age 24 ($p = 0.05$).

Figure 4 demonstrates differences of crime incidents by proportion of full-time students. Institutions that serve more than 90 percent in-state students have fewer crime incidents than institutions serving less than 90 percent in-state students. That is, when institutions serve more out-of-state students, they have more frequent crime incidents. Statistically significant differences of crime incidents by residence status are found ($p = 0.05$).

Overall, crime incidents are more likely to occur in institutions with more full-time students, students under age 24 and more out-of-state students in Missouri.

Factors Correlated With Campus Crime

The main goal of the study was to find correlates of campus crime. As burglary, drug law violations, and liquor law violations were most frequent in Missouri postsecondary institutions, the three types of campus crime were included in the correlation. Table 1 (next page) presents correlations between institutional characteristics and crime incidents. In the correlation matrix, total crime offenses, burglary, drug law violations, and liquor law violations were included as percentages. Significant correlates of campus crime in Missouri postsecondary institutions include: public four-year institutions ($r^2 = .709, p < .01, N = 34$); attendance status; full-time students ($r^2 = .677, p < .01, N = 34$); percentage of program completion ($r^2 = .538, p < .01, N = 34$); percentage of students under 24 ($r^2 = .581, p < .01, N = 34$); and residence status; in-state students ($r^2 = -.539, p < .01, N = 34$). Interestingly, grant recipients are significantly and positively correlated with crime ($r^2 = .356, p < .05, N = 34$).

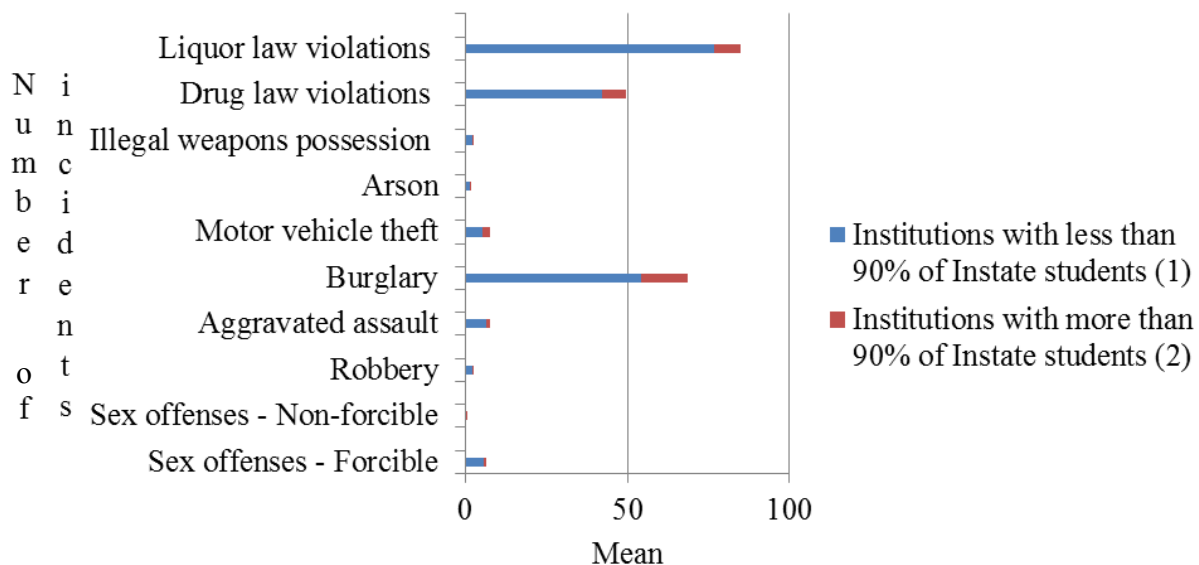


Figure 4. Differences of criminal offenses by residence status
 Note. (1) $n = 12$. (2) $n = 22$.

While several factors are significantly correlated with campus crime, percentage of male and percentage of ethnic minority students (Black and Hispanic) appear as statistically nonsignificant factors. The findings of the study are inconsistent with Volkwein and his colleagues' study that reported significant associations between Black students, male students, and campus crime (Volkwein et al., 1995). The possible reason for differences is that the current study uses data from only public institutions in Missouri over three years, whereas the previous study used data from more than 400 institutions from national databases covering the years 1974 to 1991. Further extensive research may need to examine how student racial groups and institution

sectors in the Missouri context are associated with campus crime.

In summary, correlates of campus crime in Missouri include four-year institutions, larger institutions, institutions with more full-time students, institutions with higher rates of program completion, and institutions with more students under age 24. Proportions of any racial group and male students are not significantly correlated with campus crime.

Conclusion

Higher education institutions should take responsibility for ensuring a safer college campus (Steiner, 1989). The present study addressed frequency of campus crime, differences of campus crime occurrences by institu-

Table 1

Correlations¹ Between Institutional Characteristics and Types of Criminal Offenses (N = 34)

| | Burglary (%) | Drug law violations (%) | Liquor law violations (%) | Total crime (%) |
|--------------------------------------|--------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------|
| <u>Institutional Characteristics</u> | | | | |
| Sector (4-year, n = 13) | .828** | .475** | .493** | .709** |
| Institution size | .547** | .790** | .625** | .202 |
| Location (city, n = 12) | .233 | .336 | .142 | .206 |
| Student-faculty ratio | -.154 | -.05 | -.079 | -.222 |
| <u>Student Characteristics</u> | | | | |
| Attendance status: Full-time (%) | .657** | .510** | .638** | .677** |
| Gender: Male (%) | .116 | .113 | .123 | .067 |
| Program completion (%) | .609** | .524** | .649** | .538** |
| Students under 24 (%) | .604** | .469** | .565** | .581** |
| Residence status: In-state (%) | -.538** | -.357* | -.355* | -.539** |
| Grant recipients (%) | .23 | .101 | 0.167 | .356* |
| <u>Racial Proportion</u> | | | | |
| White students (%) | .031 | .056 | .107 | -.062 |
| Black students (%) | -.077 | -.052 | -.123 | .066 |
| Hispanic students (%) | -.076 | -.123 | -.122 | -.183 |

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Note. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient

tional characteristics, and correlates of campus crime in a Missouri context. Analyzing data from 34 public postsecondary institutions in Missouri, the findings show that liquor law violation, drug law violation, and burglary are the most frequent types of campus crime. Missouri public postsecondary institutions have more frequent campus crime incidents when they have a larger enrollment, serve a larger percentage of full-time students, serve a larger percentage of students under age 24, have a larger percentage of program completion, and have a larger percentage of out-of-state students. Although student gender (male) and ethnic minority status (Black and Hispanic) were reported as significant indicators of campus crime in the literature (Barnes, 2010; Volkwein et al., 1995), those variables were not observed as significant correlates of campus crime in Missouri public postsecondary institutions. Based on the results, this study offers several policy implications for promoting campus safety practices and policies.

First, administrators in Missouri public postsecondary institutions should pay special attention to prevent drug- and liquor-related crimes and burglaries on campus. In particular, drug problems among college students have continuously increased (Nicklin, 2002), and researchers report that liquor problems are even higher among college students than among their peers who do not go to college (Busteed, 2009). Such widespread drug and liquor problems not only impinge upon physical safety, but also cause psychological problems and negatively influence campus culture (Birchard, 2009). Although Missouri has provided multiple statewide drug-related programs to college students (e.g., Partners in Prevention and the state of Missouri alcohol responsibility training), administrators in Missouri postsecondary institutions should be more active in implementing drug and liquor prevention programs and should assess whether those programs are effective. Recently, Chancellor Brady Deaton and faculty members in the University of Missouri are actively engaged in preventing alcohol abuse in campus. Faculty members are encouraged to

schedule early morning class on Friday and to deliver firm messages about the seriousness of alcohol abuse in class (Silvey, 2011). Such efforts help create learning communities in campus as well as in residential life by decreasing alcohol problems among college students (Shroeder, 2002).

Second, administrators in Missouri postsecondary institutions with a greater number of students under age 24 need to pay more attention to providing crime prevention/intervention programs. Mostly, that population is in four-year institutions; thus, administrators in those institutions should make more efforts to identify and prevent specific types of crime among students under age 24. Customized prevention efforts with identified targets will be more effective. In addition, not only providing prevention programs, but also helping freshman make a successful transition to college and promoting positive relationships with faculty and peers may contribute to preventing and/or reducing campus crime.

Third, Missouri public four-year postsecondary institutions have more frequent crime incidents than two-year institutions. This trend has been continuously observed across states; as of 1994, a national report showed that 78 percent of public four-year institutions had serious criminal offenses, whereas 29 percent of two-year institutions reported having such incidents (NCES, 1997). A possible reason for the finding is that four-year postsecondary institutions serve a greater number of students under 24 than do two-year institutions. Another reason is that most four-year institutions have residence halls, which is one of the places where frequent criminal incidents occur (Robinson & Mullen, 2001). Future research should be conducted to explore contributors of campus crime in the context of four-year institutions. The University of Missouri system has provided students with multiple prevention programs, in and out of the classroom, supported by state agencies (e.g., Missouri Division of Alcohol and Other Drug Abuse and Missouri Division of Highway Safety), and those programs should be contin-

ued with periodic assessments to ensure their effectiveness.

Fourth, administrators in institutions with a larger percentage of out-of-state students should pay more attention to them to help them adjust. As of fall 2009, individuals from other states accounted for 16 percent of the students in Missouri public higher education institutions (Missouri Department of Higher Education, 2010b)³, yet most higher education institutions in Missouri do not provide specific services or programs to help out-of-state students transition.⁴ There are multiple challenges for out-of-state students, especially when they have little assistance from their family and close friends. Administrators in institutions should advocate for services and assistance to out-of-state students at the institutional level as well as the departmental level. Departmental support (e.g., orientation to the department, social gatherings for in-state and out-of-state students at department and program levels, and mentoring services for out-of-state students) would help build a network among students from both groups, and such efforts could contribute to creating and maintaining a safe and sound campus culture.

Finally, to achieve campus safety, it is important to collect more accurate and reliable campus crime data. The Clery Act has been criticized because methods of data collection are not consistent across institutions, and those data are not reliable because institutions may not report incidents to protect public image (Gregory & Janosik, 2002, 2003; Harshman, Puro, & Wolff, 2001; Lipka, 2009). Those issues need to be considered with regard to current data collection methods and funding from federal government. Federal government should encourage higher education institutions to increase accuracy of campus crime data and to use those data in promoting safety programs (Gregory & Janosik, 2002). This should be ultimate goals because simply being aware of crime data contributes little to creating a safer campus.

Although this study is the first attempt to explore factors of campus crime in Missouri higher education institutions, one should be

aware of its limitations. The findings of this study can be generalized only to Missouri public postsecondary institutions. Due to the small sample size, only correlation analyses were applicable thus no causes and effects among relationships are determined. For future research, the analyses should include control variables, possible contributors to criminal offenses (e.g., poverty), and using longitudinal data will be more beneficial to further explore the causes and effects of campus crime.

Endnotes

1. Higher education institutions that participate in the federal programs including Title IV programs
2. ERIC documents showed Wilcox et al.'s work (2007) as the most recent study about campus crime. Although Volkwein et al.'s work (1995) was outdated, the study is still the most comprehensive and relevant to the current study. In addition, since 1997, no regularly published report about campus crime was found in the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) and the Office of Postsecondary Education (OPE).
3. On average, the percentage of out-of-state undergraduate students at four-year universities has remained 16% for the past five years, and overall, Missouri public higher education institutions (including two-year colleges) enroll 9% of their students from other states.
4. Missouri higher education institutions might not provide specific services for out-of-state students. In communications with admissions offices of Missouri public higher education institutions by e-mail, most institutions indicated no specific service for out-of-state students.

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Appendix

Criminal Offenses in Missouri Public Higher Educations¹

| | <i>N</i> | <i>Min.</i> | <i>Max.</i> | <i>Sum</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>S D</i> |
|-------------------------------------|----------|-------------|-------------|------------|----------|------------|
| Murder/Non-negligent manslaughter | 34 | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 |
| Negligent manslaughter | 34 | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 |
| Sex offenses - Forcible | 34 | .00 | 14 | 89 | 2.62 | 4.30 |
| Sex offenses - Non-forcible | 34 | .00 | 2 | 4 | .12 | .41 |
| Robbery | 34 | .00 | 7 | 37 | 1.09 | 1.76 |
| Aggravated assault | 34 | .00 | 21 | 102 | 3.00 | 5.14 |
| Burglary | 34 | .00 | 121 | 969 | 28.50 | 36.98 |
| Motor vehicle theft | 34 | .00 | 19 | 117 | 3.44 | 5.03 |
| Arson | 34 | .00 | 10 | 21 | .62 | 1.83 |
| Illegal weapons possession (arrest) | 34 | .00 | 12 | 36 | 1.06 | 2.26 |
| Drug law violations (arrest) | 34 | .00 | 271 | 670 | 19.71 | 51.61 |
| Liquor law violations (arrest) | 34 | .00 | 386 | 1,102 | 32.41 | 82.84 |
| Total number of crime | 34 | .00 | 784 | 3,147 | 92.56 | 163.51 |

¹ Sum of criminal offenses between 2006 and 2008.