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### Perceptions of Safety Within the Bridgewater State University Community

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Running head: PERCEPTIONS OF SAFETY WITHIN THE BRIDGEWATER STATE  
UNIVERSITY COMMUNITY

Perceptions of Safety Within the Bridgewater State University Community  
Stephen M. Sinko  
CRJU 502 Directed Study  
Bridgewater State University

Improved Perceptions of Safety Within the Bridgewater State University Community

A Thesis Presented

by

STEPHEN M. SINKO

Submitted to the College of Graduate Studies

Bridgewater State University

Bridgewater, Massachusetts

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of

Master of Science

in Criminal Justice

MAY OF 2019

Improved Perceptions of Safety Within the Bridgewater State University Community

A Thesis Presented

by

STEPHEN M. SINKO

MAY OF 2019

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### **Abstract**

The purpose of this quantitative research study was to examine administration, faculty, staff, and student's perceptions of safety within a large university community in the American Northeast. Previous research has been done at other educational institutions primarily in the American South and West, but research such as this has been limited in the Northeastern area of the United States. An online survey was sent using a combination of convenient and snowball sampling. Participants in this survey include administration, faculty, staff, and students from the campus community. Results suggest that individuals who took this survey felt moderately safe while on campus. Possible applications that may increase a feeling of safety may include increased environmental elements (i.e. concrete barriers), additional mechanisms (i.e. badging systems), and campus-wide training (i.e. evacuation drills)

Key terms: ACTIVE-SHOOTER, ALICE TRAINING, ENVIRONMENTAL CRIMINOLOGY, RATIONAL CHOICE THEORY, VIOLENT OFFENDERS.

“My chances of avoiding evil are good – as good as yours. But these events do affect me. That’s OK: I don’t want to become insensitive to tragedy. But neither will I let fear rule my life. When I’m afraid I don’t think clearly – and a clear head may be my best defense against letting evil overwhelm me” (Ode, 1998).

### **Acknowledgments**

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This timely research would not have been possible without their encouragement and willingness to assist and sacrifice their time to help me achieve this lifelong goal. The dedication and passion of these three professors are shared throughout the Criminal Justice Department. This professional mindset is passed onto the students within the Criminal Justice Department, allowing them to be successful, not only as students, but when they join the workforce.

Next, I would like to thank my wife, Kimberly, my children, Catherine, Emerson, and Sydney for all their love and support. Without their love, support, and valiant efforts, I would not have completed this achievement or be the person I am today. Furthermore, it is my belief that the inseparable bond that my family and I share has profoundly helped me get to where I am today. Lastly, I would like to thank my friends and colleagues from the criminal justice department for their guidance throughout this memorable process.

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## Introduction

Social scientists first acknowledged a perceived fear or an actual fear of crime as an emerging social problem during the early 1960s. This fear garnered national attention following President Lyndon Johnson's speech to the United State Congress on March 9, 1966. Within this speech he argued that fear of crime affects the life of every American to one extent or another (Woolley & Peters, n.d.). President Johnson's speech emphasized fear of crime. Fear of crime on a campus of higher education would be the topic of conversation by other future United States Presidents.

Mark Warr (2000) suggests,

“Fear is a natural and commonplace emotion. Under many circumstances, it is a beneficial, even life-saving emotion. Under the wrong circumstances, it is an emotion that can unnecessarily constrain behavior, restrict freedom and personal opportunity, and threaten the foundation of communities” (p. 482).

Fear, like happiness is a natural emotion. Both emotions can be beneficial to promote good or an unhealthy lifestyle, even under the best of circumstance these emotions can be life-saving. But under the wrong circumstances, fear is an emotion that can unnecessarily constrain behavior, restrict freedom or personal opportunity, and even threaten the foundation of communities (Warr, 2000). As Cook (1986) stated it makes sense to expect a higher level of fear than actual victimization rates within society.

This fear may reduce an individual's objective and/ or subjective fear of future victimization. In other words, due to moral panic and other exposures to victimization, fear levels maybe dramatically higher than the actual risk of victimization causing unhealthy anxieties that can lead to unnecessarily restrictive behaviors and policies. On the opposite side

of the spectrum, individuals may have low levels of fear or fear may be absent potentially causing an individual to miss signs of danger or place themselves inadvertently in harm's way.

Shootings and other attacks on college campuses and universities across America and the world are rare when they are compared to other mass casualty events in other locations, but they do occur. The first recorded university campus shooting in the United States occurred in 1840, when a law student shot and killed his professor at the University of Virginia (Ropeik, 2018). Other, more recent shootings on college campuses took place on the grounds of Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University on April 16, 2007 which left the gunman and 33 others dead (17 wounded), Oregon's Umpqua Community College shooting on October 1, 2015 which left the gunman and 10 others dead (seven wounded), and others at the University of Texas on August 1, 1966 (17 dead and 31 injured), Rose-Mar College of Beauty in Mesa, Arizona (5 dead) in November 12, 1966, University of Iowa (4 dead) on November 1, 1991, Northern Illinois University (5 dead and 21 injured) on February 15, 2008, and the Oikos University (7 dead and 3 injured) in Oakland, California on April 2, 2012 resulted in a number of unnecessary and often preventable deaths. More incidents on college and university campuses are listed in Appendix F.

No given location is immune from active shooting or violent offense incidents. These incidents can occur in areas that are large or small, urban or suburban, and even in all states including the District of Columbia. These incidents primarily occur in areas of commerce (45.6%) and educational environments in both primary and secondary school environments (16.9%) and institutions of higher learning (7.5%) (both educational environments equal 24.4%). Areas of commerce and educational institutions combined for approximately 70% (Blair & Schweit, 2014) of these incidents between 2000 through 2013.

These incidents also occur in almost every other entity in the United States including healthcare facilities, houses of worship, military, and other government properties. The victims also vary substantially in their characteristics including young and old, male or female, family members or strangers, along with individuals of all cultures, races, or religions. Although these statistics may appear high to some individuals let it be known that it is still a very rare occurrence to be involved in such an incident. Out of all of these incidents though, incidents that occur in educational institutions account for some of the largest casualty counts (Blair & Schweit, 2014).

In the wake of these tragedies, fear and panic are generated among individuals within the college campus community through a variety of means. Though mass casualty events on college campuses and other locations typically receive less media attention than those events that occur in the grade school institutions. Events on university campuses, although rare, may still invoke a belief among college students that these events are likely to occur on their campuses (Schildkraut, Elsass, & Stafford, 2015).

It is understandable to feel an immediate emotional response after one of these events has occur, but a chance in becoming a victim is extremely rare. For instance, in 2013, 31 victims were killed in 5 mass shooting events (United States, Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigations, 2005) in the educational environment, whereas, in that same year 11,208 homicides occurred (Cao, Cullen, & Link, 1997) throughout the United States. An individual's perception of the frequency may be shaped by the media and politicians sensationalizing and dissecting each mass shooting incident on a grade school or at an institution of higher education. Whereas, one of the 11,208 homicides (Cao, Cullen, & Link, 1997) in 2013 may have been a footnote on a local news broadcast.

Stroebe, Leander, & Kruglanski (2017a) argue that the media is mainly interested in the newsworthiness of the story. In other words, the media and politicians tend to emphasize the number of individuals killed or wounded. This information has resulted in widespread moral panic not only across the United States, but on university campuses nationwide. Despite this moral panic, empirical data suggest that despite the recent active shooting events, schools remain extremely safe places for faculty and students. Moreover, school violence is lower today than it was several years ago (Burns and Crawford, 1999).

Moral panic exists when levels of concern exist among individuals or a group of individuals about an issue, in this case, active shooters or violent intruders, and its impact on the rest of society. There are numerous ways to measure public concern over specific issues. For example, the most easily accessible way to gather this information is through newspaper reports, opinion polls and social/ political movements. This is an example of how information is commonly passed between the media, politicians, and the public in the aftermath of mass shooting events. Concerns over issues, either fabricated or concrete palpable threats, are always real to those who make these claims and demand action (Burns and Crawford, 1999).

The sensationalization of these events has caused some to believe that the world is a more dangerous and unpredictable place, populated by individuals who want to hurt others for no apparent reason (Stroebe, Leander, & Kruglanski (2017b). The over saturation of the media has also caused the public to be desensitized to these events. Statements such as ‘Just another shooting in another given location’ is an example of this over saturation.

If the public is desensitized to these events, then why is there a fear of rampage shootings in the United States? With these events being so rare, this perceived fear has changed our lives a great deal. For instance, the presence of School Resource Officers patrolling the hallways of

many public schools, along with an increased focus on security and the training of staff members in many public and private institutions in how to respond to such an event has almost become routine.

Collective efficacy also becomes a point of contention when talking about an individual and their perception of safety. Teamwork and the joint efforts of members of the campus community can work together to promote a safe environment. Through collective efficacy, members of these campus communities can control the behavior of individuals and even the topics of conversations around safety, along with their perception of safety in the campus community (Uchida, C. D., Swatt, M. L., Solomon, S. E., Varano, S., Connor, C., Mash, J., . . . Adams, R., 2013). Researchers have found that the proper use of collective efficacy can greatly reduce crime. If the campus community can work together with this common goal in mind than the likelihood of crime on campus should, based on previous accounts, decrease significantly.

There has been a lot of research conducted on finding ways to reduce such violence today. The best defense against acts of violence is largely invisible. These invisible defenses include active acts within the justice department, along with federal, state, and local law enforcement agencies through investigation, intelligence, and emergency response all help reinforce this invisible defense.

Thomas Kuhn was an American historian of science; his most famous piece was *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* (2015). This piece was one of the most influential works of history and philosophy written in the 20th century. Kuhn was a revolutionary philosopher to many. While most individuals prior to him rationalized the traditional conception of scientific progress as a gradual and cumulative acquisition of knowledge-based experimental frameworks. Kuhn went against the grain, arguing that a paradigm shift is determined by the kinds of

experiments scientists perform, the types of questions they ask, and the problems they consider important. A shift in the paradigm alters the fundamental concepts underlying research and inspires new standards of evidence along with new research techniques. Kuhn's work was so inspiring that his concept of paradigm shifts was extended to such topics as business management, economics, political science, and even sociology (Kuhn, 2015).

With Kuhn's work in mind, the original paradigm shift occurred in the college and university environment after the University of Texas shooting on August 1, 1966 involving Charles Whitman, a former United States Marine, who was later nicknamed the 'Texas Tower Sniper'. Although this was not the first shooting on a university campus in recorded history, it was the first mass casualty shooting to have such a high death toll. Years later, the Virginia Polytechnic Institute in Blacksburg, Virginia, on April 16, 2007, this tragedy was another example of a paradigm shift in the higher educational environment with respect to safety and security. These events caused public safety (i.e. emergency medical services, fire, and law enforcement) and school administrators to begin and consider a prevention and response plan for active shooting or hostile person events on university campuses nationwide. Although these incidents were not the only examples in history of a paradigm shift on a university campus, these events are noteworthy.

On April 16, 2007, a school shooting occurred on the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, in Blacksburg, Virginia, at Norris Hall and the West Ambler Johnston Hall. Seung-Hui Cho, a South Korean American, and an undergraduate student at the university shot 49 people on campus, killing 32 and wounding 17. While others were injured fleeing from the shooter. Cho, shot himself in the head with a pistol, killing himself prior to his arrest, and died instantly.

The Virginia Polytechnic campus is very similar to a large campus environment in the northeastern part of America. Both campuses are large and contain an assortment of buildings that are both secure and unsecure. The shooting at Virginia Polytechnic is a case of primary focus in evaluating the perception of safety and security on a university campus in the northeast.

The Virginia Polytechnic shooting was also unique since Cho utilized distractions in order to divert law enforcement's attention. This distraction came in the form of staggered murders in multiple locations on campus. Cho first killed two other students in the West Ambler Johnston Hall. He then left this hall, returned to his dormitory, just west of where he committed his first two murders, changed his clothes, removed emails and the hard drive from his computer, and then mailed a package, containing paperwork and video recordings, at the campus post office, to NBC News. After mailing the package, and nearly two hours after his first criminal act, he entered Norris Hall.

He entered Norris Hall and chained the three main entrance doors shut with a note stating that if the doors were opened a bomb would explode. Cho went up to the second floor and began shooting students and faculty. The second floor contained six rooms, five of the six rooms contained students and faculty. The last two rooms responded in a dynamic manner where 26 out of the 30 students and faculty survived this active shooting event. Whereas, the three other classrooms responded in a traditional lockdown or shelter in place. Out of the 46 students and faculty in those three classrooms, only five individuals made it out alive.

There are disagreements about which strategies schools should adopt. For example, Duwe, Kovandzic, and Moody (2002) argued that they believe it should be easier to legally own firearms, while other schools look to educate their administration, faculty, staff, and students on how to properly respond to active shooting incidents through training. This training would

include either traditional shelter in place or other dynamic programs such as ALICE Training. ALICE is an acronym for Alert, Lockdown, Inform, Counter, and Evacuate. Although these steps are in order in the acronym, victims and responders don't have to act in this order.

The ALICE training instructor-led class provides preparation and a plan for individuals and organizations (e.g. businesses, educational facilities (Higher education and k-12), healthcare facilities, law enforcement, religious institutions, along with local, state and federal facilities) on how to proactively respond to threats of an aggressive intruder(s) or active shooters. ALICE Training also assist, guides, and helps protect and keep individuals safe. This training gives individuals multiple options in an active response, versus the traditional "lockdown only" approach. A Massachusetts Task Force Report on School Safety and Security made a recommendation in 2014 that the then Governor Deval Patrick signed as an executive order 548. This executive order claims "that lockdown is no longer a stand-alone strategy to secure in place". This order also recommends a dynamic approach and identifies ALICE Training as a response to a violent threat or intrusion (Massachusetts Task Force, 2014).

Other educational institutions have even gone to the extreme of modeling their schools after a prison model, with the additions of walk through metal detectors, badging systems, and even police or security personnel posted on campus. The main thought behind this idea is that shooters may reconsider their actions if they know that police and security, along with many other citizens may, in fact, be carrying a firearm. Also, the shooter or violent intruder may be reluctant to act if the occupants in a building are properly trained and more apt to respond in a dynamic manner. The nation witnessed firsthand the effects of a static response after the events that occurred in, but are not limited to;

- Columbine High School, Jefferson County, Colorado, on April 20, 1999



- Sandy Hook Elementary School, Newtown, Connecticut, on December 14, 2012
- Stoneman Douglas High School, Parkland, Florida, on February 14, 2018
- Virginia Polytechnic Institute ‘Virginia Polytechnic’, in Blacksburg, Virginia, on April 16, 2007

A variety of lessons can be learned by the administrative staff, faculty, law enforcement, and students of a large northeastern university campus by studying the Virginia Polytechnic shooting. The use of distractions by Cho and others such as activating a fire alarm while entering a building in order to create a chaotic environment. Also, the limited use of target hardening (i.e. secure access to buildings) on campus can all be used as lessons learned. Moreover, the campus communities lack of response and training in Virginia Polytechnic and other locations emphasizes Kuhn’s paradigm shift. This paradigm shift is reflected by lessons learned. For example, a campus community who knows how to react and respond to such an event by acting in a dynamic manner may save lives in the future.

Another example of this paradigm shift can be observed through a universities use of crisis management plans. These plans include information regarding shelter-in-place and evacuation guidelines not only for active shooting events, but fire evacuations, and extreme weather situations. Members of most university communities, not only in the northeast, but in the United States conduct emergency exercise each year in conjunction with other emergency agencies. These emergency exercises include live field demonstrations (Bridgewater State University, 2017) that assist in better preparing the campus community in case of mass casualty incident.

Age and gender also must be considered when analyzing an individual's perception of fear from an active-shooter or a violent offender while on a college or university campus. In

Menard & Covey's (2015) study, they identified that individuals alter their patterns of routine at successive stages of their lives course. Their study further identified that victimization might change over a life-course. They also found a positive correlation between victimization from adolescence to middle age and how their chances of victimization rapidly decline and eventually reaches a point at which victimization is no longer statistically significant once an individual reaches an elder age.

Stafford & Galle (1984) research study confirms what Menard & Covey's (2015) survey results revealed. Stafford & Galle (1984) collected data on a conventional personal victimization rates computed per 1000 individuals in a group. They broke down their data by age and race. These results, like the results of Menard & Covey's (2015), reveal that although rate of victimization decrease with age the perception of fear increases.

The history of law enforcement officers on university campuses is not a new concept. These officers were first adopted by Yale University in New Haven Connecticut in the late 1800s. Administrators at Yale University and the New Haven Police Department came to an agreement where two New Haven police officers would be assigned to the university campus to deter crime and improve campus community relations between the campus community and law enforcement (International Association of Campus Law Enforcement Administrators, n.d.).

In the late 1960's most college and university security departments became law enforcement agencies. This transition occurred as a result of increasing crime rates on college campuses across the United States, including the Kent State University's incident on May 4, 1970 involving the Ohio National Guard and protestors, and the Vietnam War. In 1977 only state-owned and controlled colleges and universities were able to maintain campus police departments, private colleges and universities at this time were still recognized as campus

security departments (International Association of Campus Law Enforcement Administrators, n.d.).

### **Literature Review**

In this section, it is important to focus on the theoretical framework of why specific attention is necessary by university administrations, faculty, individual students, staff, student organizations, and university law enforcement agencies to better protect every member of the university's community throughout the American northeast and the nation as a whole. With other colleges and universities being targeted throughout America, and the world, it is important that each university be proactive and work towards a safer, but not overly intrusive educational environment. It is also important to focus on why the opinions of each facet of the university community is heard. Each facet of these communities has different needs and requirements that must be considered.

In previous works, most fear-of-crime research has focused on an adult population. With the increased attention surrounding active-shooting and violent intruder events a heightened social awareness surrounding these events on university campuses has greatly increased. A great deal of empirical research has been conducted regarding the impacts of secondary school shootings on student fear of victimization, but empirical studies regarding fear of crime among college students are rare. The works of Fisher and Nasar (1992, 1995), Kaminski, Koons-Witt, Thompson, & Weiss, (2010) and Nasar & Fisher (1992, 1993), for instance, are some of the first empirical studies of fear of crime on university campuses. Specifically, Fisher and Nasar's study of fear in and around the Ohio State University's Wexner Center for the Visual Arts found that certain aspects of this area contained both manmade and/or natural environment were associated

with student fear. This fear was partly due to their natural concealment and lack of escape options (Fisher & Nasar, 1995) observed in this environment.

Other single-campus research surveys of fear have supported Fisher and Nasar's previous work. Fisher, Sloan, & Wilkins (1995) and McConnell's (1997) research, found patterns of fear can be identified through sex. These factors along with their cognitive risk perception played a great deal in their perception of fear. These studies, for instance, also revealed that nighttime fear exceeded daytime fear among students. These studies contained several limitations. For example, these specific studies failed to identify a link between perceived risk and fear and their actual risk of being victimized.

This section will also reveal, more in depth, one key incident, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, that caused law enforcement and citizens to reconsider their methods of response, but America, and the world. This is just one case in a long chain of events that pushed this uncomfortable, but necessary, conversation to the forefront of Americans minds. Several areas such as Concealed Carry and Crime Rates/ Concealed Carry on College Campuses, Should the Faculty, Staff, and/ or Students on Campus be Armed, Identify Warning Signs of Potential Violence, Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED), Physical Security, Safety Drills, Cyber Safety, and Social Media will also be elaborated on and presented throughout this section.

### **Concealed Carry and Crime Rates on College Campuses**

There has been some research about having concealed carry firearms laws on college and university campuses nationwide. Currently, most university handbooks prohibit both concealed or the open carrying of firearms while on campus (Everytown for Gun Safety Support Fund, 2017). Violation of laws or ordinances dealing with weapon offenses on most university

campuses result in the subject being placed under arrest by university law enforcement or other law enforcement authorities.

Jang, Dierenfeldt, and Lee (2014) researched what students' opinions were about allowing individuals carrying concealed firearms on the Missouri Western State University. Jang et al. (2014) found that more students either disagreed or strongly disagreed (49.9 percent) with the allowing to carry concealed firearms on campus than strongly agreed or agreed (32.4) percent. This study also revealed that approximately 17.7 percent of students were uncertain or undecided about their opinion.

In another study, Patten, Thomas, and Wada (2013) conducted a similar study, asking how college students and faculty felt about allowing private citizens to carry concealed firearms on the campuses of two higher educational institutions. The research was taken from two campus surveys collected from the California State University, Chico State campus, in Chico, California and the Chadron State College campus in Chadron, Nebraska. Between the two campuses 2,100 students, faculty, and staff had their opinions recorded.

Patten et al. (2013) found that 70% of the respondents were not in favor of allowing private citizens to carry concealed firearms on campus. Respondents also found that students, faculty, and staff believed the idea of more firearms made them feel less safe while on campus. The respondents also felt that allowing concealed firearms would also decrease their sense of security while on campus. The overall finding of this research study found that students, faculty, and staff did not want more firearms on either of the two campuses.

Bennett, Kraft, and Grubb (2012) looked to find the attitudes of a university's faculty on the carrying of firearms on college or university campuses. Their study consisted of 287 faculty

members that were surveyed. Most of the faculty were opposed to the idea of allowing the carrying of firearms on campuses.

Bennett et al. (2012) further noted that the results of their survey depended heavily on the participants political affiliation and whether they personally owned a firearm. Those who were familiar with firearms were more likely to be in favor of allowing individuals to carry firearms on campus. Also, Republicans were more likely to be in favor of carrying firearms on college or university campuses as well (Bennett et al., 2012).

Like this survey, Smith (2012) surveyed undergraduate students from 15 Midwestern universities. Smith found that 78% of undergraduate students were not supportive of individuals conceal carrying firearms on their university campuses. Like the study by Bennett et al (2012), most of the students who were opposed were females that did not own guns and they did not live in a home where guns were present (Smith, 2012).

A person's background also appears to alter the way a person feels about individuals carrying concealed firearms. Bennett et al. (2012) found that many of those who opposed concealed carrying of firearms did not own a firearm and were dedicated to a specific political party. Smith (2012) also found that females and undergraduate students who did not own firearms and did not have firearms at home strongly opposed concealed carry on campuses.

Bouffard, Nobles, & Wells (2012) looked to see how a student's course of study related to their personal desire to conceal carry firearms while on their specific campus. Bouffard et al. (2012) had a total of 3,100 surveyed participants comparing criminal justice majors to other majors. The research group focused on five target areas of interest: attitudes, career expectations, issue of firearms on campuses, personality, and values.

Bouffard et al. (2012) concluded that criminal justice majors were more interested in carrying concealed firearms on campus as opposed to other majors. These results may be due to criminal justice majors feeling more comfortable and confident than their counterparts. Also, criminal justice majors may believe that firearms can act as a deterrent of crime on a college campus as well.

This research reveals a variety of opinions for and against firearms on most northeastern campuses in the United States. But why do individuals want to carry a firearm in the first place? Gau (2008) attempts to answer this question in her research. She attempts to answer this question in her presentation regarding concealed firearms licenses. In this research, Gau wanted to see how individuals felt about individuals carrying weapons in a concealed fashion. The research came from a neighborhood and city level survey, and the United States Department of Licensing.

The results of Gau's (2008) research found that individuals who lawfully carry concealed firearms feel that they have some form of social control. Individuals in heavily populated areas may carry concealed firearms because they are in fear of their own safety. These same individuals also felt like it is a civic duty of theirs to make sure that their fellow neighborhood residents feel safe as well.

Gau's (2008) research study also touched on the law enforcement perspective as to their opinions regarding having civilians conceal carrying firearms lawfully. The perspective from law enforcement officials who were interviewed revealed that there should be training for these residents by highly trained and qualified law enforcement personnel. Law enforcement personnel who were surveyed for this study also noted that individuals should be educated and aware of a variety of statistics regarding the safe use of firearms.

These statistics also revealed that the carrying of a firearm does not show a reduction in crime. Kleck et al., (2011) also noted on page 313, that studies have shown varying results of firearm ownership and their effects on fear, along with their perceived risks of criminal victimization. But, based off Gau's research, Kleck et al., (2012) found that concealed firearm licenses along with the carrying of a concealed firearm do allow individuals to feel safer.

A study conducted by Williams & McGrath (1976) revealed that a negative association was found when an individual who experienced increased fear were less likely to own a firearm. One possible reason for this negative association maybe that the ownership of a firearm may decrease an individual's perception of victimization. A study by Lizotte & Bordua (1980) revealed that individuals who had experienced victimization or who lived in 'high crime neighborhoods would invest in defensive measures, such as security systems, special locks, and additional lighting, rather than purchase a firearm. Fortunato (2015) conducted a similar study.

Fortunato's (2015) research focused on if legally carrying a concealed firearm would deter crime by making the public aware of the number of firearms legally owned. Like Gau (2008), Fortunato (2015) found that there was no relationship between people's perceptions of the number of firearms being legally carried in the community and the reduction of crime. Research by Barati (2016) went in a different direction and shows alternative findings.

Barati (2016) found that states that had 'shall issue' concealed firearms licensing laws, crime was reduced. As Lott, Whitley, & Riley (2015) study revealed, violent crime rates decrease statistically in 'shall issue' concealed carry states. This finding only applies to states that originally had 'no issue' conceal firearm licensing laws. Based on this study, states that had 'no issue' laws crime was not statistically impacted. 'May issue' and 'Unrestricted' jurisdictions were not considered in Barati's (2016) study.



Dahl, Bonham, and Reddington (2016) surveyed faculty about individuals conceal carrying firearms on campus. The individuals who were surveyed were employed at community colleges from 18 different states. There were 1,889 teachers surveyed, and a majority of those who were surveyed noted that they felt safe on campus. Unlike the findings from Chrusciel et al. (2015) and Bartula and Bowen (2016), this survey concluded that a majority did not support anyone carrying concealed firearms on campus (Bonham & Reddington 2016).

Silver's (2012) study revealed that African Americans and females showed less support for the right to carry firearms while on college campuses. While Silver's (2007) study found that females are less likely to own guns, as compared to males. While, African Americans were less likely to own firearms than both whites and Hispanics. Stroud's (2012) study found that firearm owners, majority being white men, claim that they conceal carry firearms because they're motivated to protect their families, or to compensate for lost strength as they age.

### **Should the Faculty, Staff, and/ or Students on Campus be Armed?**

Arguments can be made that feelings towards allowing staff, students, and teachers to be able to conceal carry a firearm on a campus would be determined by political beliefs (i.e. conservative or liberal), religious beliefs, and/ or the location of their residence (i.e. Northern or Southern United States). These topics, for the most part, may determine whether individuals would be in favor of individuals being armed while on campus. Gender may even factor into determining whether or not individuals would be in favor of allowing individuals to carry a concealed firearm on campus; with males being more favorable. Another basis of determination could be determined by those individuals who possess a license to conceal carry a firearm.

Previous research has noted that the carrying of a firearm makes individuals to feel empowered and safer. This feeling of empowerment could carry over onto the campus for staff,

students, and teachers to feel safer. Based on one's beliefs, some would agree that armed individuals on a school's campus, willing to carry and use a firearm to stop an active threat would be desirable, while others might argue that this should be left to trained professionals (i.e. law enforcement).

One of the key questions that Stroebe, Leander, & Kruglanski, (2017a) attempted to answer in their research. Their question asked whether perceived firearm sales spikes were motivated by political pressure for calls of stricter firearm control after mass shooting incidents or was it motivated by an increased threat perception? Their study found that there was no correlation between mass shooting events and increased gun sales.

America's leading organization in school-based policing, National Association of School Resource Officers (N.A.S.R.O.), released a statement on February 18, 2018, stating that they oppose the arming of teachers. In NASRO's statement, they stated that;

“NASRO strongly recommends that no firearms be on a school campus except those carried by carefully selected, specially trained school resource officers (SROs), who are career law enforcement officers with sworn authority, deployed by employing police departments or agencies in community-oriented policing assignments to work in collaboration with schools (National Association of School Resource Officers, 2018).”

Why is it important that the individuals who are armed on the university campus are law enforcement officers? There are several reasons for this recommendation including:

- Law enforcement officers who respond to an incident on campus could mistake an assailant, a teacher, or any other armed person who is not in a uniform.
- Anyone outside of the university campus who is conceal carrying a firearm hasn't received the extensive training provided to law enforcement officers. This lack of

training will likely leave the armed civilian mentally unprepared to take a life, especially the life of a student assailant.

- Not only is the possibility of intentionally taking a life enough, but the discharging of a firearm on campus is an extremely risky action. The possible consequences that can include the wounding and/or death of innocent victims. Law enforcement officers, during their extensive training, practice in evaluating quickly the risks of firing their firearm. If the risks are too high, then they are advised to hold their fire.
- Law Enforcement Officers are proficient with their department-issued firearms. Officers are required to complete a state-mandated firearms course. Lack of proficiency and training cause firearm skills to degrade quickly under simulated high-stress conditions. Lack of training will also result in difficulty in using a firearm safely and effectively.
- Maintaining marksmanship with firearms helps law enforcement officer's confidence in overcoming the physiological response to stress. This confidence can assist the responding officer with the fine motor skills required to accurately fire a weapon.
- University police officers are not required to conceal carry their firearms. They are capable of open carrying their firearms. The open-carrying of a firearm on campus allows the officer to keep the firearm ready for use but it is also secure.
- University police officers are also specially trained in preventing unwanted attempts at accessing their firearm.

NASRO also recommends that rather than arming individuals, other than university police officers, enough federal or state funding should be put in place for additional police officers, specifically School Resource Officers on campus. Additional officers or SROs provide a layer of security that cannot be achieved by individuals who are not sworn police officers

(National Association of School Resource Officers, 2018). McBride's (2009) research study found that some campuses may or may not benefit from armed campus law enforcement officers.

This same study found that the best choice for improving campus safety maybe dependent on a cost and threat assessments. The International Association of Campus Law Enforcement Administrators (n.d.) stated that there are no "best practices" in supporting decisions about how to make a campus community safer. Although, they did state that having armed police may be a necessary policy within one institution, while being a waste of money at another institution.

Chrusciel, Wolfe, Hansen, Rojek, and Kaminski (2015) present their findings from two surveys. The first survey was sent to law enforcement executives, and the second survey was sent to public school principals in South Carolina. Both surveys asked about their individual feelings regarding whether to arm school employees, both surveys concluded that having armed employees would not be an effective school safety strategy.

Bartula and Bowen (2015) created a similar study to the one that was conducted by Chrusciel et al. (2015). This research study surveyed administrative law enforcement officials from several Texas colleges and universities. This study looked to see how individuals felt about carrying a concealed-carry firearm. Like the findings from Chrusciel et al. (2015), Bartula and Bowen (2015) concluded that police officials were opposed to the idea of civilians carrying a concealed firearm.

Currently all 50 states within the continental United States allow their citizens to carry concealed firearms if they meet certain state requirements. At this point, there are 16 states that ban carrying a concealed firearm on a college campus (California, Florida, Illinois, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York,

North Carolina, North Dakota, South Carolina and Wyoming). In 23 states (Alabama, Alaska, Arizona, Connecticut, Delaware, Hawaii, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Minnesota, Montana, New Hampshire, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Vermont, Virginia, Washington and West Virginia) the decision to ban or allow concealed carrying of firearms on campuses is made by each college or university individually.

Currently, Tennessee is the only state in the nation that allows faculty members with licenses to carry to bring their firearms on campus. This Tennessee law does not extend to students or the general public. The following 10 states Arkansas, Colorado, Georgia, Idaho, Kansas, Mississippi, Oregon, Texas, Utah and Wisconsin allow all members of the campus community to carry concealed firearms on public university campuses (National Conference of State Legislatures, 2018).

This study also found that individuals conceal carry firearms to defend themselves against people and places that they perceive to be as dangerous (Stroud, 2012). Would the results of Stroud's (2012) work imply that based on an individual's perception of safety while on a college campus increase the likelihood of them carrying a concealed firearm while on campus? Based on the results of Stroud's (2012) work the simple answer would be in the affirmative.

On August 17, 2016, the State of Texas began allowing individuals with concealed handgun licenses to carry their firearms onto the campuses of public universities. Each public university were given the right to make their own restrictions on where concealed firearm holders would be permitted. For example, the University of Texas at Austin, allowed the ability for faculty members to declare their offices as gun-free zones (Hutchens & Melear, 2017).

On August 1, 2017, the State of Texas allowed the carrying of concealed firearms on the campus of public community colleges. In response to this action by the state, individuals

responded with mixed emotions. For example, a professor arrived in his classroom at San Antonio College dressed in a bulletproof vest and helmet. This was an effort by an individual to protest the new law. This same professor even commented by stating "It definitely makes me feel uneasy that there are more firearms on campus than there really should be" (Thorpe, 2017, p. 1).

### **Identify Warning Signs of Potential Violence**

In most occasions there are characteristics and warning signs of potential violence prior to both active shooting and violent offender incidents. Some individuals in society are singled out for their actions, behavior, and their looks. Individuals are even ignored or objectified due to their issues with mental health or even substance abuse.

Individuals within a campus community who promote an active, engaging, and inclusive campus community are less likely to be involved in such incidents. A part of this engaging community allows individuals to feel welcomed and can reach out for assistance such as counselors, law enforcement, medical, mental health, and therapist services. Social groups also promote an engaging environment that promotes similar interest and limits isolation. Various studies have found that an individual who is more engaged in their campus community promotes a positive school climate. These programs also allow those involved to take pride and are less likely to engage in destructive and or violent behavior making the campus community safer and more inclusive (Willoughby, 2012).

An engaging campus community allows for others to observe a variety of warning signs such as the antisocial or erratic behavior, knowledge of an individual's previous violent behavior, knowledge of an individual's hobbies (preoccupation with firearms and other weapons), interest (preoccupation in prior active-shooting events), or views (extremist or radical viewpoints from

the extreme left or right wing groups). Lastly, observations of an individual who is new to the campus community who has no close friends, has been the victim of abuse or neglect, trauma, or a significant loss can also be vulnerable.

### **Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED)**

Elements of CPTED, environmental hardening, or even the term security theater on the university campus may come in a variety of areas. For example, some of these options include elements of environmental criminology, such as;

- Metal Detectors
- Reinforced steel doors and safety glass on the exterior of the building and in classrooms
- Students are required to utilize a badging system to enter and exit each building or classroom
- Badge checking systems when entering all parking lots
- Random Vehicle searches
- Warning Signs posted in parking lots and in buildings of prohibited items

These security measures may be implemented without the employment of more security officers in order to make individuals feel more secure. For example, having an individual check a student's university issued identification or driver's licenses prior to entering certain buildings on campus may make a significant improvement in deterring crime. An attempt to determine how checking someone identification provides actual security. But the fact that someone is checking identifications allows the perception of increased security, when there may not be in fact any additional security at all. When individuals are scared, they need something done that will make them feel safe, even if it doesn't truly make them safer (Schneier, 2009). Security

measures that work are largely invisible, such as campus law enforcement enhancing and promoting community policing efforts.

These community police efforts can help bridge the gap between the university communities in the American Northeast and their police department(s). University police departments through increased funding may enhance their intelligence gathering abilities. Another example of this maybe to make counseling services more readily available to members of the university community. Essentially, individuals may not even need security theater to affect the feelings of safety and security, but the best way to help individuals feel safe and secure is by altering their mindset and acting secure in the environment around the campus community. a whole. Rather than acting in fear individuals should react with indomitability.

Most universities have a combination of both personal and physical security. These two concepts are often confused by some who are not trained in these two disciplines. Physical security is the act of protecting assets, while personal security or the university's police department focus on the protection of personnel. There is some common ground between the two concepts, and they must live harmoniously.

CPTED can be used in a variety of different ways and may not always be obvious security features to the untrained eye. The layout and maintenance of an area may reduce or even prevent incidents or potential threats from occurring. Even adding additional lighting in a parking lot can make a considerable difference in the mindset of an individual walking alone at night. When evaluating features or reviewing potential improvement to CPTED it is important to observe a location at all times of the day and night for optimal success.



Natural surveillance, natural access control, territorial reinforcement, and general maintenance are the four basic principles in CPTED. These concepts are broken down as follows:

**Natural surveillance:** An individual is less likely to commit a crime if the perpetrator believes that they can be seen committing the crime. Utilizing natural surveillance can be accomplished by creating a great deal of visibility through both landscape and lighting features.

**Natural Access Control:** through careful design, both pedestrian and vehicular traffic can travel to their desired location through a predetermined route. This can be done through fencing, landscaping, signage, and even walkways. Pedestrian traffic could be limited to accessing a building from one predetermined location as opposed to multiple locations or leaving a building unsecure.

**Territorial Reinforcements:** gives a feeling of increased security posture and defined areas that are public and or private. Examples of this are concrete planters, gates or fences, landscaping, signage, along with a variety of other means to show proprietorship.

**Maintenance:** this concept is probably the most overlooked, but one of the most important aspects of CPTED. When the basic concept of 'Broken Windows Theory' is applied an understanding would be made that if one window is broken and not remedied, then this lack of action by staff will lead to other windows being broken. In essence, neglected or poorly maintained properties will become attractive targets for criminal activity.

### **Physical Security**

Physical security is at times obvious, while CPTED is almost hidden in plain sight. Physical security can be made up in a variety of ways. Sometimes these physical security features are obvious while other are hidden from plain sight. For instance, the use of badge access or locked doors to restricted access to certain areas, closed circuit television cameras, detectors for heat, mobile barricades, motion or sound (e.g. scream alarms or shot spotters) detectors, parking stickers, police call boxes, remote door locks, security fences, and even well-lit parking lots and walkways are all examples of obvious physical security measures.

Whereas, alarms monitoring in certain areas on campus, campus police lock and unlock certain areas or buildings at certain times of the day, emergency response placards over most telephones and in classrooms on campus (see appendix E for images of the emergency response placards) are also other features. Also used on some college campuses are shot spotters. This technology, along with others previously mentioned are all examples of physical security that is hidden in plain sight. Although some of these physical security features promote safety, some experts believed that some of this technology could be harmful.

A recent study of rural and urban schools found that over 80 percent of those who participated in this survey believed that some physical security measures, such as metal detectors or x-ray machines, allowed students to have negative attitudes toward school while also making the students believe that their school was unwelcoming to them (Schwartz, Ramchand, Barnes-Proby, Grant, Jackson, Leuschner, Matsuda, and Saunders, 2016). The cost of some of these technologies, along with the potential violations of students' privacy would also have to be weighed as well. Nearly half of the participants also stressed the need to supplement technology

with non-technological approaches such as raising awareness through drills or education (Schwartz et al., 2016).

The response by educational institution administrators and others within the campus community after active-shooting or other violent offenders' incidents is to implement access control and close surveillance. These safety measures are typically implemented to calm the fears of an anxious community. In the long-term, it is equally important to avoid transforming the campus buildings and public spaces into fortresses (Fox & Delateur, 2013) or a prison like atmosphere.

These security measures are generally effective in protecting campus communities. Most of these security measures often only serve as minor inconvenience for those who are determined to cause harm to others (Fox & Burstein, 2010; Rocque, 2012; Trump, 2000). For an example of how potential suspects avoid physical security in their planning, two middle school students in Arkansas, altered their plans of entering a building to avoid physical security measures. The suspects pulled the fire alarm, wait outside the building, and then waited for their victims to emerge from the building (Fox & Delateur, 2013).

### **Safety Drills**

Some states, counties, and even universities have mandated that active-shooter be conducted. These levels of authority have mandated this training but have offered limited guidance and resources as to how these drills should be conducted, paid for, or even implemented (National Association of School Psychologists, & National Association of School Resource Officers, 2014). While some institutions have been mandated to conduct this training, others have fared on the side of caution and have conducted these safety drills on their own.

One of the primary goals of these safety drills is that they are conducted carefully and account for the administration, faculty, staff, and students emotional and developmental levels, along with the educational institution's school climate and culture at the time of the scheduled event. Specific attention, by the coordinators during the planning of these events should account for crime spikes, geography and weather (National Association of School Psychologists, & National Association of School Resource Officers, 2014). The primary goal of these safety drills is to empower the participants just-in-case the worst-case scenario occurs, along with assist administrators and public safety officials to target strengths and weaknesses within their response plan. Some of these strengths and weaknesses may include communication, coordination, decision-making, and knowledge of both the active response, along with the surroundings of the facility.

Particular attention should be made during the planning phases of these drills to understand that mental health and the special needs of the participants is a priority. Instructors, along with the participants alike should be aware of each other's needs in order to prevent unnecessary stress and anxiety. Mental health professionals are recommended to be on hand during and after these safety drills to assist just in case a mental health emergency arises. Training drills should be as realistic as the participants allow it to be. The increased intensity of the training, the more likely for the potential of causing emotional and/ or physical harm to the participants.

Practicing safety response drills have been found to increase the probability of adaptive behavior, increasing the likelihood of survivability, during an actual crisis incident (Jones & Randall, 1994; Miltenberger et al., 2005). With this knowledge in mind, if drills are conducted on a scheduled basis then a 'real-life' chaotic situation may be limited, and lives lost could be

minimized or even avoided. Empirical research studies have revealed that similar lockdown drills have increased knowledge and skills of how to properly respond to such incidents without increasing anxiety or perceived risk (Zhe & Nickerson, 2007).

Frosch (2014) stated, that the way armed assailant drill is conducted (e.g., unannounced) have led to lawsuits. These lawsuits were filed due to the lack of proper care or failure to act when psychological or physical harm was caused during these events. With careful planning, along with the proper notifications being made prior to a drill being conducted, the success of these drills should result in a similar outcome as research has depicted with lockdown drills.

### **Cyber Safety and Social Media**

With individuals having unprecedented access to technology throughout university campuses, options to help improve the perception of safety on campuses could be the use of social media. Proper utilization of social media by members of the university community could help improve the perception of safety and security while on campus. Also, smartphone applications such as 'Bugle', 'Copsync', 'Kitestring', 'Rave 911 Panic Button', or even 'Siren GPS', if implemented correctly, could help improve the perception of safety and security while on campus.

Many higher education institutions have turned to technology, including cellular phone enabled applications, entry-controlled equipment, metal detectors, and video surveillance systems, to prevent, intervene in, respond to, and protect schools from violent acts and risks to faculty, staff, and students' safety. Are all these allocated resources and efforts effective? This question can't be fully answered as rigorous research about the effectiveness of these technologies is virtually nonexistent (Schwartz et al., 2016).

**Cyber Safety.**

With unprecedented access and remarkable advancements in mobile technology, the security industry has championed their intellect to protect not only universities in the northeast, but educational institutions nationwide. Smartphone applications, such as ‘Bugle’, ‘Copsync’, ‘Kitestring’, ‘Rave 911 Panic Button’, or even ‘Siren GPS’ have helped reinforce this positive effort. Many campuses across the United States have either implemented or expanded their emergency mass communication systems and technology using multiple notification routes, such as text, e-mail, and phone alerts (Hamblen, 2008). A survey of five hundred campuses using emergency alert technology found that approximately 40 percent of students had registered for these services when they were made available (Mark, 2008). With a 40% participation rate by members of the campus community it makes the effectiveness of this technology very limited at best.

All these applications, if utilized properly, can be informative and can save lives. Technology can also have its limitations. An incident at the University of Iowa had the campus community running for cover following a campus wide text alert. This campus wide text alert was sent informing the campus community about an active shooter nearby. It was later revealed that this shooting was many miles away on the opposite side of town, posing very little threat to members of the campus community (Fox & Savage, 2009).

**Social media.**

During times of crisis, individuals attempt to locate and determine whether friends and loved ones are okay. Often the friends and loved ones that individuals are looking for may be involved in a crisis event. Individuals will look to the mass media for information, or even social media (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and others). Social media can be often used by law

enforcement agencies for real-time and actionable intelligence. Social media platforms can also be used to spread hate, untruthfulness, and unverified information hindering a public safety response to a real-time event. Some universities have gone to the extent of conducting automated scans for online content that link their institution or global positioning systems (GPS) to evidence of threats to their campus communities (Schwartz et al., 2016).

Individuals who were surveyed by Jones, Thompson, Schetter, & Silver (2017) reported more acute stress, after viewing information on social media platforms, during vulnerable periods due to rumors and conflicting information from unofficial channels. In times past, individuals would collect their information in times of crisis through official channels (radio, news broadcast, or even the newspaper), whereas, now people are increasingly utilizing social media to acquire their information. Sourcing official sources may be thought of as a given. Whereas, vetting a single source on social media can be next to impossible.

Individuals who were anonymously surveyed, 7-days after an active-shooting event on a college campus, revealed that they felt less acute stress when exposed to traditional media, as opposed to other sources. Individuals who were receiving irregular information for traditional sources were more likely to fill in the gaps in information with rumors or look to social media. Unfortunately, those who are actively involved in a crisis who are looking for this information are often left feeling hopeless and without situational control (Jones, Thompson, Schetter, & Silver, 2017).

Jones, Thompson, Schetter, & Silver (2017) recommended that to control the information coming from a scene. Public safety officials should disseminate frequent updates via traditional and non-traditional sources. This study also revealed that the frequency of the updates also

shows those individuals who may be involved regarding the severity of the situation with fact-based information rather than hearsay.

Firearms and other security measures in the educational environment will always be a strongly debated topic in society. Educational administrators, parents, politicians, and society have very strong opinions when it comes to implementing security measures and protecting their young adults at university campuses, and in other educational environments. There is a delicate balance between creating an educational environment that is vulnerable and unprepared and an environment that replicates a medium security prison.

Some research that was examined throughout this literature review did, in fact, show that concealed carrying of firearms deterred crime. Crime rates dropped approximately 25% and are believed to be directly related to the increase in the concealed carrying of firearms licensing (Lott et al., 2015). Past research has shown that most participants, in various studies, are against the concealed carrying of firearms on a college campus by students and faculty. But, with the information learned from the various examined studies presented in this study, the feelings of individuals towards various security measures being implemented on university campuses could be different than what has already been found.

### **Theoretical Framework**

Thomas Kuhn's revolutionary work challenged the prevailing view of what had been observed and studied in science up until that point in time. Within his work, Kuhn found that anomalies lead into a new paradigm shift. This paradigm shift forces campus community members, first responders, and researchers to ask new questions regarding old data of the previous paradigm (Kuhn, 1962). These questions, once analyzed, revealed a change in a response from community members, first responders, and researchers. An example of a



paradigm shift occurred on April 16, 2007 at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University in Blacksburg, Virginia. This paradigm shift can be more accurately explained through the rational choice theory.

### **Rational choice theory**

With some of the previously mentioned research studies in mind, along with the proper implantation of an organized security plan, Cesare Beccaria's rational choice theory of crime, such as active-shooting and violent attack incidents will be greatly deterred. Beccaria described the rational choice theory as individuals generally act in their own self-interest.

This self-interest could be limited to fame or recognition that the individual may feel that they lack within their own communities, nation, or the world. These individuals also make decisions to commit crime only after weighing the potential risks (including getting caught and punished) against the rewards (Crossman, n.d.). Criminological factors, such as, demographic (gender or peer status), psychological (mental illness or personality), and sociological/upbringing (home life or parental crime) variables are sometimes used to explain how active shooting events are influenced. Experience and learning are also other mitigating factors. These factors include conflict (bullied, divorce, or job loss), conscience or moral conscience, familiarity with firearms, perception of others, self-perception, (Osborne & Capellan, 2017).

Osborne and Capellan (2017) research found that through the rational choice perspective active shooting events can be disaggregated into three categories; autogenic, ideological, and victim-specific active shooter events. An example of an autogenic active shooter event offenders tended to be single Caucasian males in their mid-twenties with a mental illness. The victims in these events are typically approximately five strangers per incident. The media tended to focus

on these types of instances, although they are not the most common type of active shooter event. These events typically ended in the perpetrator committing suicide.

In the second category, Osborne and Capellan (2017) used rational choice theory to describe the ideological active shooting event. These shooters are typically single or married Caucasian males in their late thirties to early forties not having mental illness. The victims in these events tended to be strangers, with a median of 4.5 victims per incident. Although, suicide was less prevalent among perpetrators in this group, non-lethal and lethal force was more common in this group than the others.

In the third and final group, Osborne and Capellan (2017), used elements of the rational choice theory to describe victim-specific active shooting offenders. Individuals in this category were single or married and either African-American or Caucasian males in their late thirties or early forties. These events generally occurred within the same day or week as the offense that the perpetrator feels that they were alienated or victimized. These events, unlike the others were more of an impulse of emotion rather than active and timely premeditation. With the quick response of the shooter a median of 3.5 victims per incident were recorded. Victims in these incidents were typically professional acquaintances such as coworkers or supervisors.

Osborne and Capellan's (2017) study revealed that there was a considerable overlap between the three crime scripts and their relevance to the rational choice theory. But the results of this study are not statistically significant because of the small sample size of events that were studied. Although Osborne and Capellan's (2017) study focused solely on active-shooters, violent offenders must be considered as well. Based on the results of Osborne and Capellan's

(2017) study it would be feasible to identify an active-shooter or a violent offender on a university campus in the Northeastern area of the United States to be in the autogenic category.

### **Current Study**

#### **Implications of Research**

This current study has been created and molded to benefit the administrative professionals, faculty, law enforcement, staff, and students of a large university community in the American Northeast. Especially those professionals within the administration staff who create, implement, and model the universities standard operating procedures. This research may also be useful to assist and inform future opportunities for many large university administrative committees and department heads who work together in pro-actively protecting their individual campus communities.

This research study aims to explore the feelings of safety and security while on campus from active-shooters and violent victimization more generally. Another focus of this study is on the effects of visible and enhanced security measures on campus. There has been previous research indicating that even the best security measures can still fail. And not every scenario and protocol that can possibly be imagined may be thought through or well demonstrated. Although violent crime has been on the decline since the 1990s, perception of some individuals may believe that violent crime is on the rise. This fear has created additional funding, and security measures to be implemented to prevent these incidents.

Is there a perception of safety and security within a large state university in the northeastern part of the United States? How safe from an active shooter scenario does the faculty, school administration, staff, and the students feel, and does it differ by major, philosophy, or a political view perspective? This research study will assisting in answering some

of these broad questions along with others such as; “How safe does the average member of the Bridgewater State University feel?” and “Does a visible police presence have any impact on the perception of safety?”

This research aims to determine the feelings of the faculty and staff members, along with the student body regarding their feelings of safety on a large university campus in northeastern America. Although school-associated homicides are extremely rare and account for less than 1% of all school and college-aged young adults and youths’ deaths. With, this is still a relevant and timely topic of discussion among academia, law enforcement, and the student’s professionals alike (Robers, Kemp, Rathbun, & Morgan, 2014).

Research studies such as this current study are non-existent, at universities in the Northeastern geographical area of the United States. This current research study will provide a better understanding of individual’s views on their feelings of security while on a university campus in the American Northeast. Other similar studies have been accomplished in other areas of the United States but research specifically focusing on active-shooting events and violent offenders has not been done.

This study will fill in the gaps of knowledge as it pertains to the Northeastern geographical area of the United States and their specific fears as it pertains to these two specific categories. The current study uses the data collected from a survey of faculty, staff and students at a large Northeastern university to explore the feelings of safety, while also examining the predictors of these feelings such as political views, previous victimization and many others. Previous studies have generally used data from other regions of the United States, and their applicability in the Northeast is unclear.

## **Hypothesis**

This research is based on three hypotheses. With, this research is based on both a conceptual and an operational definition. It is hypothesized that:

**H1:** It is predicted that those who have attained or are in the process of obtaining an undergraduate degree will feel safer from an active-shooter or a violent attack while on the university campus than those who have attained or are in the process of obtaining a graduate degree or higher,

**H2:** It is hypothesized that university community members who identified with the Democratic political party as opposed to other political party affiliations (Green Party, Independent, Libertarian, Other, or Republican). will be more fearful of active-shooters or violent attacks,

**H3:** It is predicted that those participants who identified as previously being a victim of a violent attack will be more likely to be fearful of an active-shooter or a violent attack than an individual's who has never been the victim of a violent attack.

## **Methodology**

The current section provides an overview of the data collection and analysis strategies used in the current study. This section is broken down into seven equally important sections. In the first section the ethical approval process will be explained in greater detail. The second section will include the data participation for the participants that were included in this survey.

The third section will primarily focus on the sampling procedure as to what measure was used in collecting this data and the measuring process in how the data was collected. The fourth section will focus on the measurement. The fifth and sixth sections identifies the dependent and independent variables. The final section will review the statistical analysis of the inferential techniques used in the study.

**Data**

The current study utilizes data collected from 57 individuals who participated in the online survey titled ‘Perceptions of Safety Within the Bridgewater State University’ in the Spring of 2019. The data was collected electronically via the market research firm Qualtrics survey software. The survey was administered to current students, faculty, and staff at the university. The survey instrument was distributed on March 19, 2019. This survey was distributed, unintentionally, on the heels of two mass shooting incidents that occurred at two mosques (Al Noor Mosque and the Linwood Islamic Centre) in the City of Christchurch, New Zealand on Friday, March 15, 2019 where 50 individuals were killed, and another 50 individuals were injured. The survey data was collected for 7 days, from March 19th through March 25th.

Although there are minimal risks (i.e. feelings of emotional discomfort due to subject matter) to the participant who participated in this survey. The benefits of this study and survey, greatly outweighed the minimal risks that may have occurred. With the potential of discomfort and these risks in mind, the survey contained a detailed caveat. This caveat advised the participant of the subject matter, along with the possibility that the subject matter may make them feel uncomfortable, and lastly that they may have been able to rescind their consent at any time during the survey.

**Measurement**

Data for this current study was collected through a Qualtrics electronic survey that was distributed to all members of the Bridgewater State Campus Community. A community announcement was posted on the Bridgewater State University intranet page on March 19, 2019 with an informed consent document and a link to the survey. Advertising for this survey was also distributed by faculty to promote engagement in this current study. The survey was

available for a seven-day period, from March 19th through March 25th. After the research participants reviewed the informed consent document, they were asked to click the “submit” button. At the conclusion of the survey the results would be documented and included in the data analysis report once the participant clicked the “submit” button.

Within the survey participants were asked what their status was within the Bridgewater State University Community. For example, what their position was within the community, consisting of 7 choices; *Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Senior, Graduate, Faculty (Part-Time, Tenured, or Tenure Track), Administration, or Staff* (n= 56). Next, what is the individuals housing arrangement, which consisted of two choices; *On-campus housing (Dorm) or Off-campus housing* (n= 53). In question 9, participants were asked what their college affiliation was, individuals were offered three choices; *College of the Arts, College of Science, or Other* (n= 52). Then, the individuals were asked the degree that they had obtained, up until the time that the survey was taken. This question contained five answers; *Have yet to attain a degree, Associates’ Degree, Bachelor’s Degree, Master’s Degree, or a Terminal Degree (Doctorate or Juris Doctor)* (n= 55).

Participants were then asked more sensitive questions throughout the remainder of the survey. In question 11, participants were asked, “*Have you ever been the victim of a violent crime or attack?*” This was a binary yes or no question, with n= 56. Questions 12 - 21 were Likert scale questions with five options; *strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree*. Question 12 asked “*I generally feel safe from active-shooters while on the Bridgewater State University campus.*” with n= 56. In the next question, the term “active-shooter” was replaced with ‘violent crime’, “*I generally feel safe from violent crime while on the Bridgewater State University campus.*”, with n= 56.

In question 14, this Likert scale question was asked as “*I do not feel that an “active-shooter” event is likely to occur within the Bridgewater State University community.*”, with n= 56. In the next question, the term direction of the question referred to the participants feeling while off of the Bridgewater State University Campus. This question was depicted as, “*I do not feel that an “active-shooter” event is likely to occur while off-campus.*”, n= 55.

Questions 16 and 17’s Likert style questions look for the participants feelings regarding law enforcement role on their perception of safety. Question 16 asked, “*The presence of an armed police officer(s) alters my perception of safety and security while on campus.*”, with n= 56. In the next question, “*My perception of safety would be altered by increased visibility of the Bridgewater State University Police Department while on-campus.*” with n= 56.

Question 18 and 19 turns the direction of the survey to the participants feelings of how their perception of safety will be affected by the implementation or use of technology. Question 18 states, “*My feeling of safety would be enhanced by the implementation of an electronic badging system, which require the use of identification cards that also function as electronic keys to gain entry to the various buildings on the Bridgewater State University campus.*” with n= 56. In question 19, the focus remained on technology with the, “*My perception of safety while on campus would be enhanced by a Smartphone activated direct line to the Bridgewater State University police.*” n= 56.

In the remaining two questions the focus of the survey transitioned into the participants knowledge and familiarity with the campus’ emergency plans and their observations in active-shooter and violent intruder drills. Question 20 was shared with participants as, “*I believe that strong familiarity with established guidelines regarding emergency plans and policies on campus would positively my ability to react to and survive an active shooter on the Bridgewater*



*State University campus.*” with n= 56. The final question, question 21, was, “*My perception of safety would be altered if the Bridgewater State University police department conducted frequent and visible active-shooter or violent intruder drills, similar to fire drills.*” with n= 56.

The measurements used in this research survey is a combination of nominal (first level of measurement), ordinal (second level of measurement), interval scale (third level of measurement), and ratio scale (fourth level of measurement). The following section breaks down each question: Question 1, gender, was measured in three categories (male, female, and other). Question 2, age, was a fill-in the blank question, measured in years.

Question 3, race was measured in seven (American Indian, Asian/ Pacific Island, Biracial, Black, Hispanic, Other, White) categories. Question 4, household income, was broken down into six categories (less than \$29,999, \$30,000 to \$59,999, \$60,000 to \$89,999, \$90,000 to \$119,999, \$120,000 to \$149,999, \$150,000 or more). Question 5, state of residence, was a fill-in the blank question. Question 6, political party affiliation, was broken down into six separate categories (Democrat, Green Party, Independent, Libertarian, Republican, Other).

Question 7, university status, was separated into seven individual categories (Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Senior, Graduate, Faculty (Tenured or Tenure Track), Administration, Staff). Question 8, housing arrangement, with two options, with on-campus housing (Dorm) or off-campus housing. Question 9, college affiliation, like question 8, had two options, with College of the Arts and College of Science.

Question 10, degree obtained, was separated into five categories (Have yet to attain a degree, Associates’ Degree, Bachelor’s Degree, Master’s Degree, Terminal Degree (Doctorate or Juris Doctor). Question 11, a victim of a violent offence, required a binary answer (yes or no).

Questions 12 through 19 are all separated into five Likert scale positions (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree).

The data for this study was analyzed by using IBM's SPSS 21 statistical software. The statistical analyses for this data was broken down in a variety of ways, including correlations, frequencies, significance (2-tailed), and t-tests. Based on the research question, as well as the three specific hypotheses generated for this research, one independent and three dependent variables, were identified and will be discussed further in the section below.

### **Dependent Variables**

The current study examined the predictors of the following dependent variable, fear of victimization.

The participants of this survey were asked in Question 12, '*I generally feel safe from active-shooters while on the Bridgewater State University campus.*' The respondents chose from Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree. Based on the individuals answer to question 12, they would determine their own personal fear of victimization which was used as a dependent or grouping variable.

The participants of this survey were asked in Question 13, '*I generally feel safe from violent crime while on the Bridgewater State campus.*' The respondents chose from Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree. Based on the individuals answer to question 13, they would determine their own personal fear of victimization which was used as a dependent or grouping variable.

The participants of this survey were asked in Question 14, '*I do not feel that an "active-shooter" event is likely to occur within the Bridgewater State University community.*' The respondents chose from Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree.

Based on the individuals answer to question 14, they would determine their own personnel fear of victimization which was used as a dependent or grouping variable.

The participants of this survey were asked in Question 15, '*I do not feel that an "active-shooter" event is likely to occur while off-campus.*' The respondents chose from Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree. Based on the individuals answer to question 15, they would determine their own personnel fear of victimization which was used as a dependent or grouping variable.

### **Independent Variables**

The current study examined the predictors of the following three independent variables, college degree obtained, political party affiliation, and previous victimization, against questions 12 -15.

#### **degree obtained.**

The data for education was collected in question 7 of the survey. The data was re-coded into two categories graduate degree or higher was marked as 0 and undergraduate degree or lower was marked as 1. Separating this data in this way provided accurate and more detailed results in determining statistical significance.

#### **political party affiliation.**

The data for political party affiliation was collected in question 6 of the survey. The data was re-coded into two categories democrat was marked as 0 and all others were marked as 1. Separating this data in this way provided accurate and more detailed results in determining statistical significance.

**previous victimization.**

The data for prior victimization was collected in question 11 of the survey. The data was re-coded into two categories, previous victims were marked as 0 and no previous victimizations were marked as 1. Separating this data in this way provided accurate and more detailed results in determining statistical significance.

**Analysis**

The depiction of results to describe each hypothesis were conducted through bar charts. Each bar chart revealed the mean and the t-test (2-tailed) results. Analysis of the t-test results determined whether or not the combination of the dependent and independent variables was statistically significant. In the following section, the results of each of the 21 survey questions were depicted through pie charts.

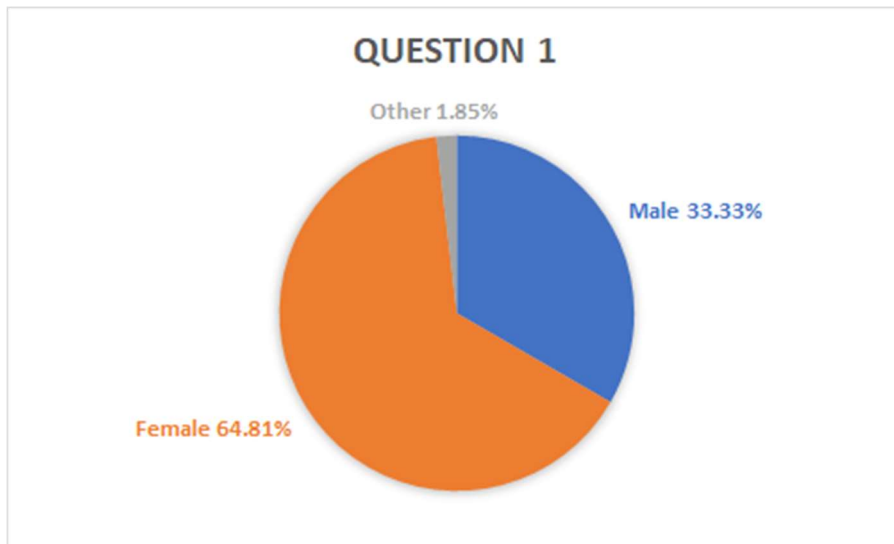
**Results**

The purposed age range of the target population for this study was between the ages of eighteen (18) and sixty-seven (67) years of age. The purpose of this wide age range was due to the average age of a freshman joining the student body (18), through the maximum age (67) before administration, faculty, or staff are forced to retire (without a written waiver) at northeastern universities in the United States. The age range of the participants who participated in the study was 19 - 60 years of age, with a median age of 43.309 (n= 55). Participants identified that the states that they resided in included Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island (n=54), but the most common state chosen was Massachusetts. The median education was a Master's Degree (n= 56) and the median income for the participants was \$90,000 - \$119,000 (n= 52).

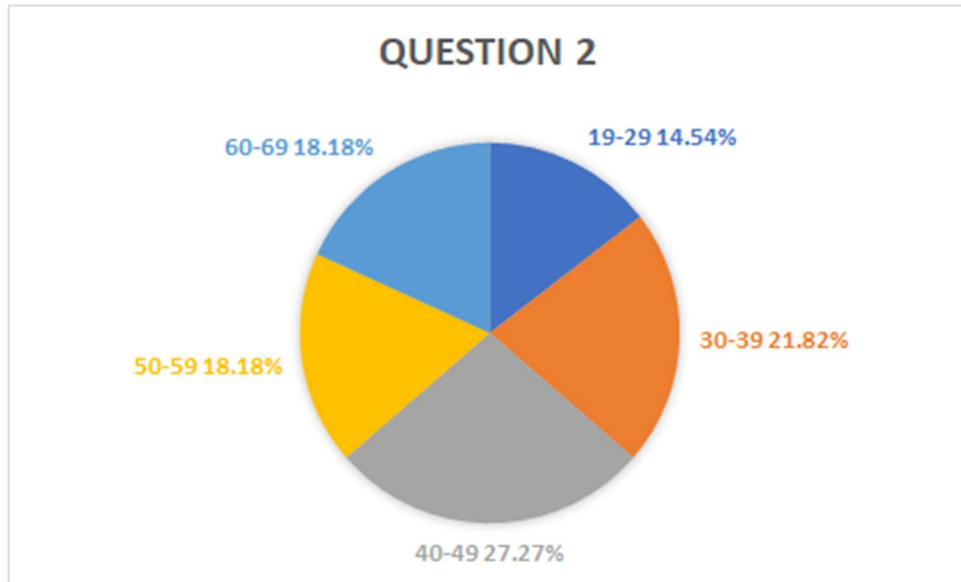
### Survey Results

The following pie charts represent the overall data collection results of the survey.

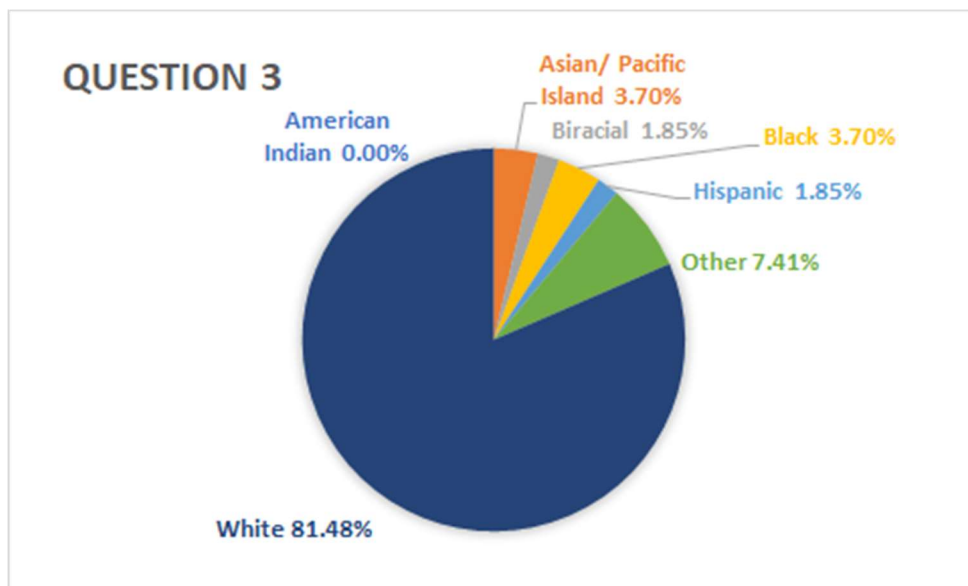
**Q1** - Please indicate your gender. This question included three options, Male, Female, and Other. The results of each were Male (33.33%), Females (64.81%), and Other (1.85%).



**Q2** - Please indicate your age. This question included a fill-in the blank. The results were broken down for clarification purposes from 19-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, and 60-69. The results of each were 19-29 (14.54%), 30-39 (21.82%), 40-49 (27.27%), 50-59 (18.18%), and 60-69 (18.18%).

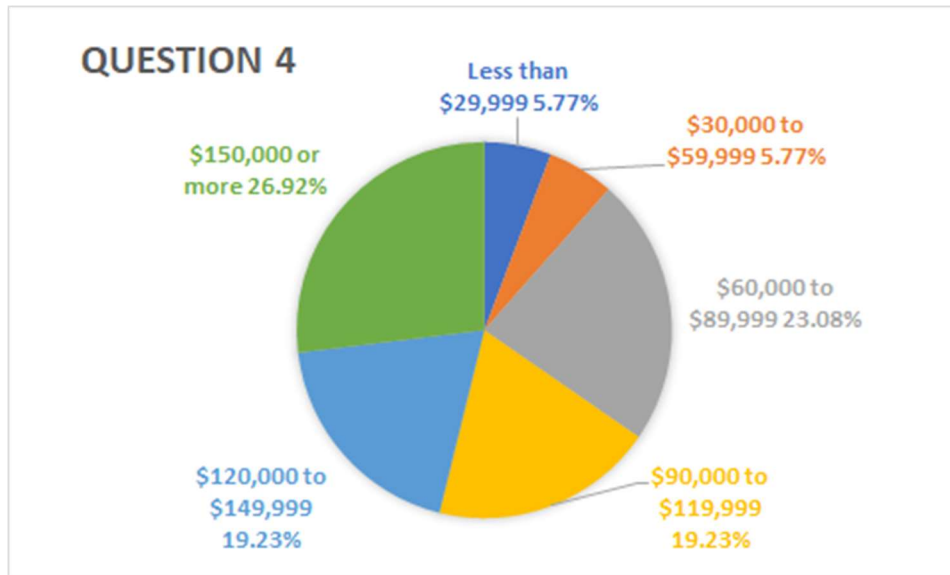


**Q3** - Please indicate your race. This question included seven options, American Indian, Asian/ Pacific Island, Biracial, Black, Hispanic, Other, and White. The results of each were American Indian (0.00%), Asian/ Pacific Island (3.70%), Biracial (1.85%), Black (3.70%), Hispanic (1.85%), Other (7.41%), and White (81.48%).

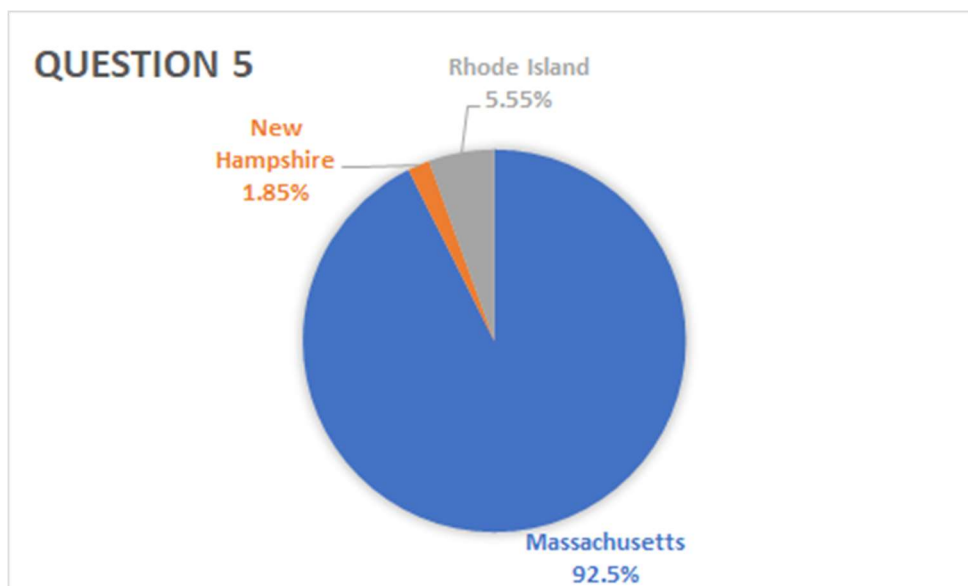


**Q4** - Please indicate the answer that includes your entire household income (pre-tax). This question included six options, Less than \$29,999, \$30,000 to \$59,999, \$60,000 to \$89,999,

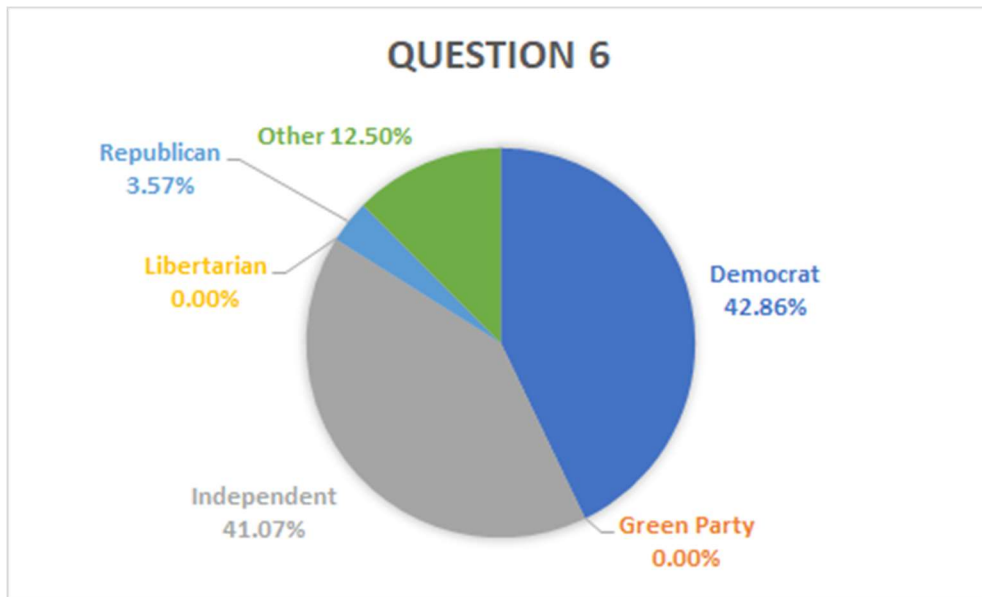
\$90,000 to \$119,999, \$120,000 to \$149,999, and \$150,000 or more. The results of each were Less than \$29,999 (5.77%), \$30,000 to \$59,999 (5.77%), \$60,000 to \$89,999 (23.08%), \$90,000 to \$119,999 (19.23%), \$120,000 to \$149,999 (19.23%), and \$150,000 or more (26.92%).



Q5 - Please indicate the state that you reside in. This question included a fill-in the blank. The fill-in the blank answers were broken down for clarification purposes from Massachusetts (MA, Mass), New Hampshire (NH), and Rhode Island (RI). The results of this question were Massachusetts (92.5%), New Hampshire (1.85%), and Rhode Island (5.55%).

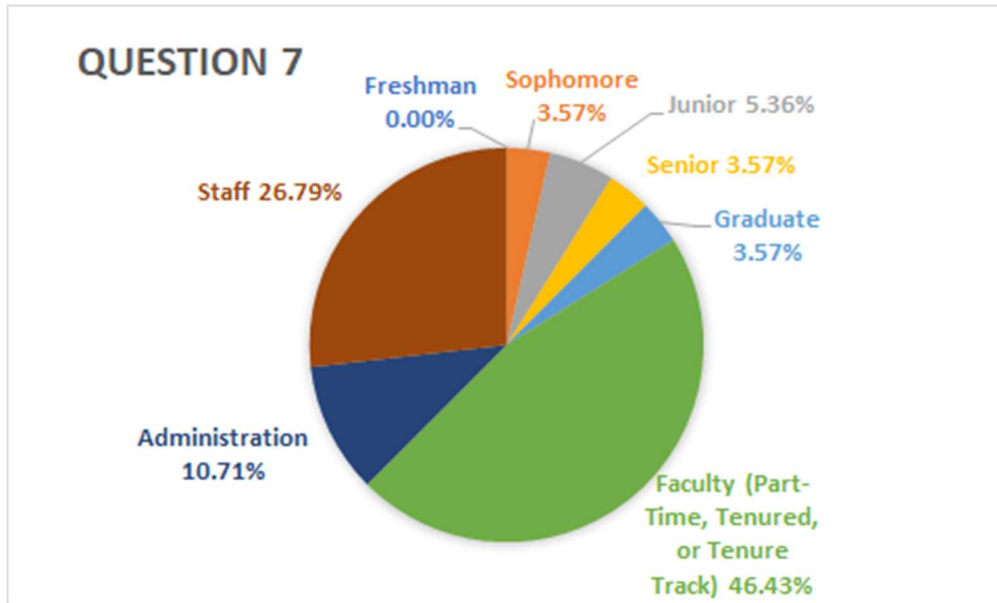


**Q6** - Please indicate your political party affiliation. This question included six options, Democrat, Green Party, Independent, Libertarian, Republican, Other. The results were Democrat (42.86%), Green Party (0.00%), Independent (41.07%), Libertarian (0.00%), Republican (3.57%), Other (12.50%).

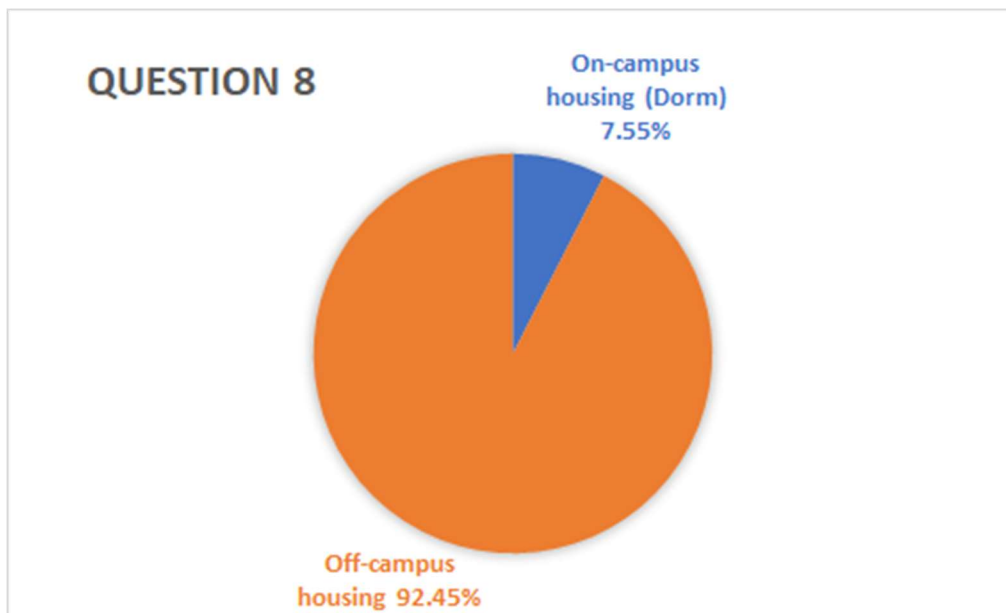


**Q7** - Please choose your status within the Bridgewater State University community. This question included eight options, Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Senior, Graduate, Faculty (Tenured or Tenure Track), Administration, Staff. The results were Freshman (0.00%), Sophomore (3.57%), Junior (5.36%), Senior (3.57%), Graduate (3.57%), Faculty (Tenured or Tenure Track) (46.43%), Administration (10.71%), Staff (26.79%).

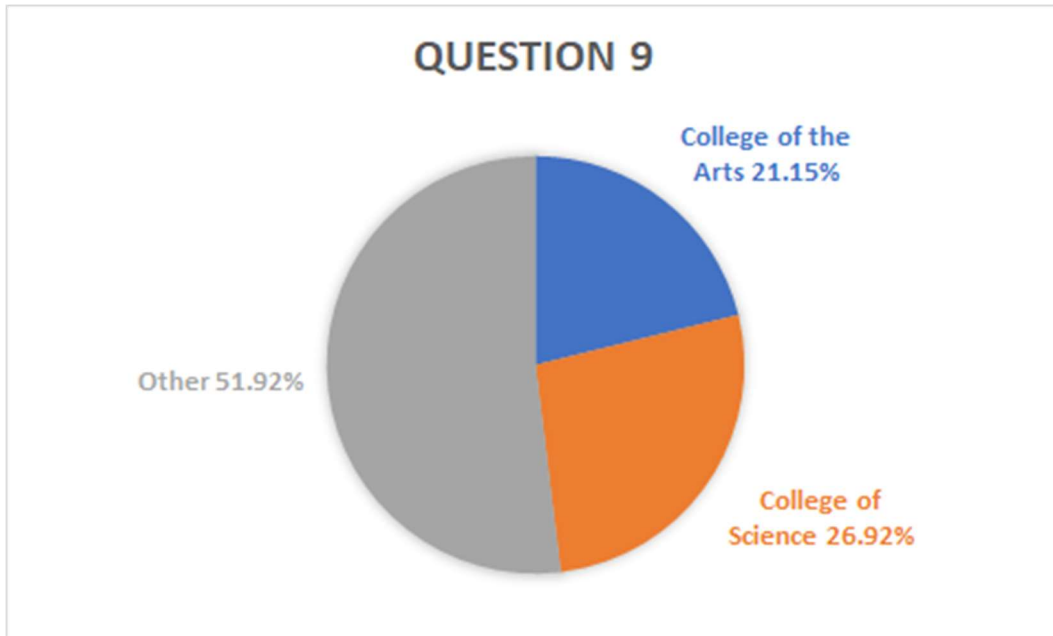




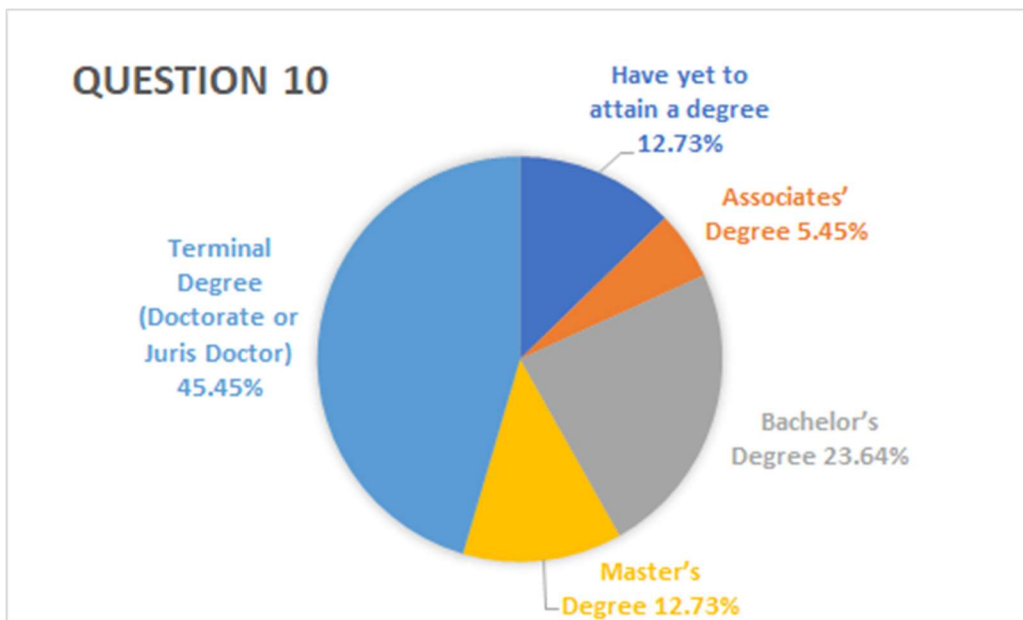
**Q8** - Please choose your housing arrangement. This question included two options, On-campus housing (Dorm) and Off-campus housing. The results were On-campus housing (Dorm) (7.55%) and Off-campus housing (92.45%).



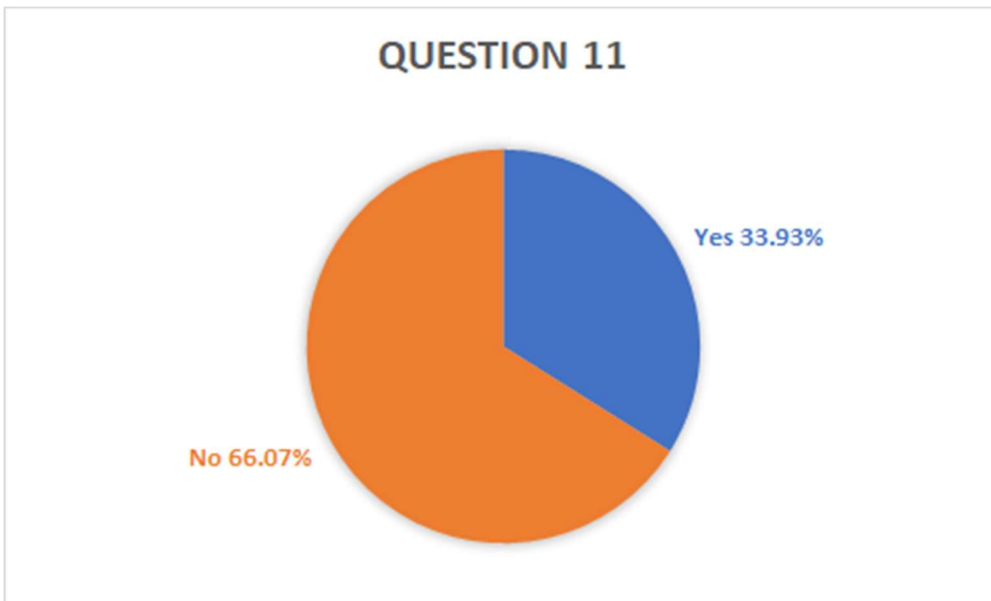
**Q9** - Please choose your college affiliation. This question included three options, College of the Arts, College of Science, Other. The results were College of the Arts (21.15%), College of Science (26.92%), Other (51.92%).



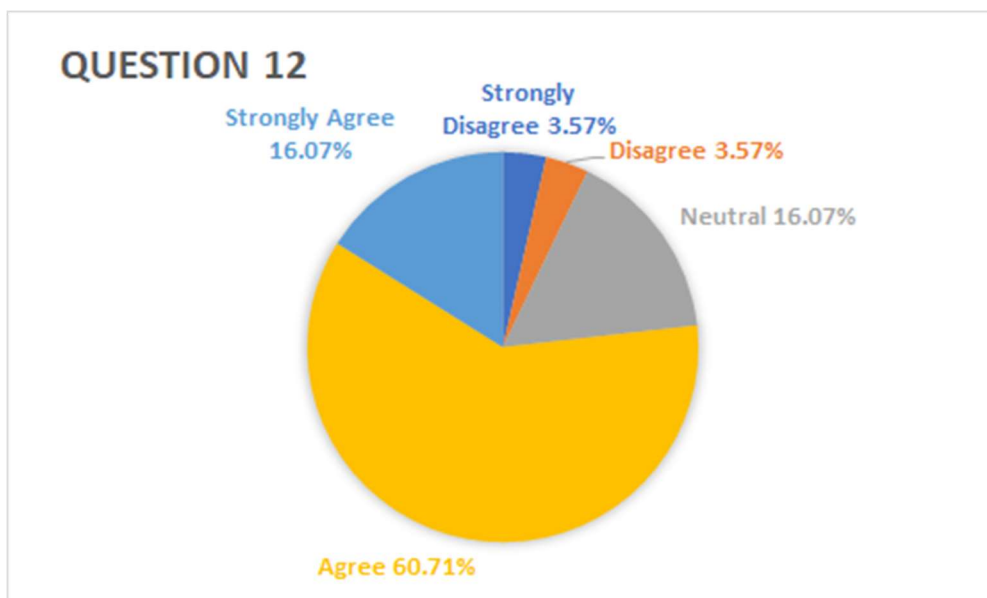
**Q10** - Please indicate the degree that you have obtained. This question included five options, Have yet to attain a degree, Associates' Degree, Bachelor's Degree, Master's Degree, Terminal Degree (Doctorate or Juris Doctor). The results were Have yet to attain a degree (12.73%), Associates' Degree (5.45%), Bachelor's Degree (23.64%), Master's Degree (12.73%), Terminal Degree (Doctorate or Juris Doctor) (45.45%).



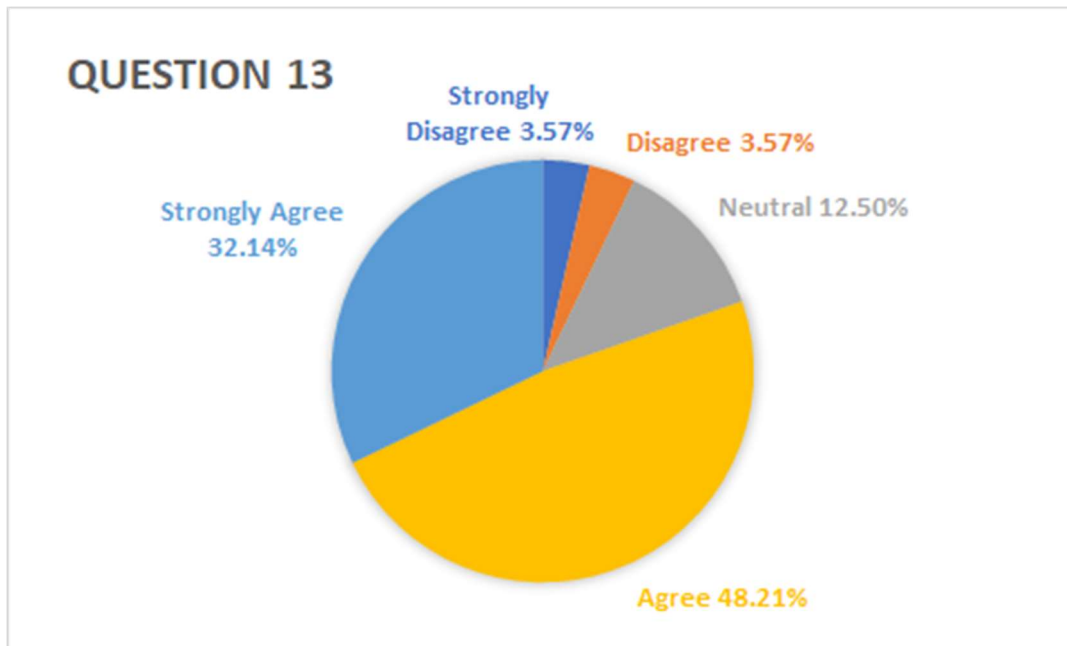
**Q11** - Have you ever been the victim of a violent crime or attack? This question included two options, yes or no. The results were yes (33.93%) and no (66.07%).



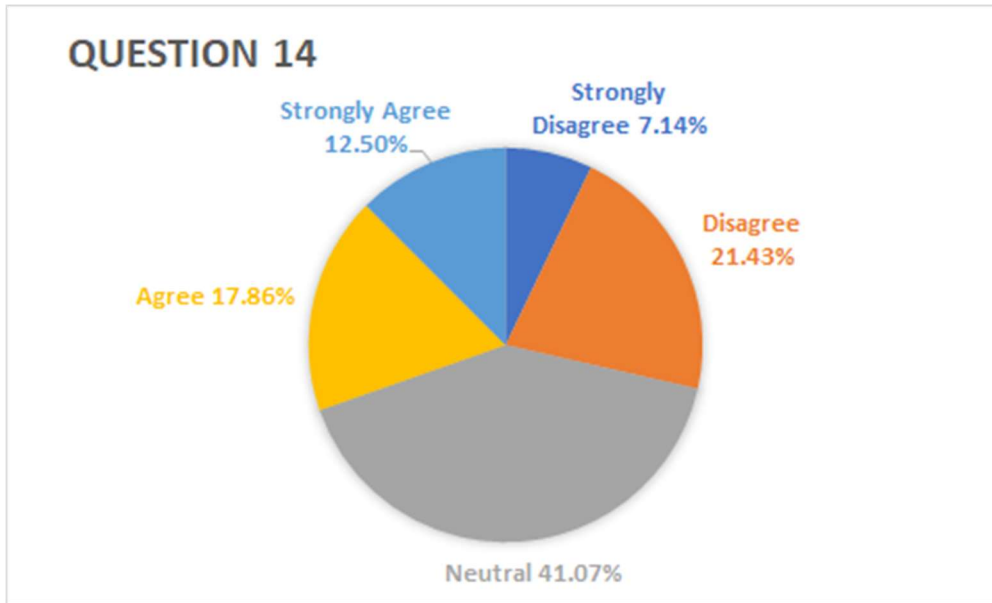
**Q12** - I generally feel safe from active-shooters while on the Bridgewater State University campus. This question included five options, Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree. The results were Strongly Disagree (3.57%), Disagree (3.57%), Neutral (16.07%), Agree (60.71%), and Strongly Agree (16.07%).



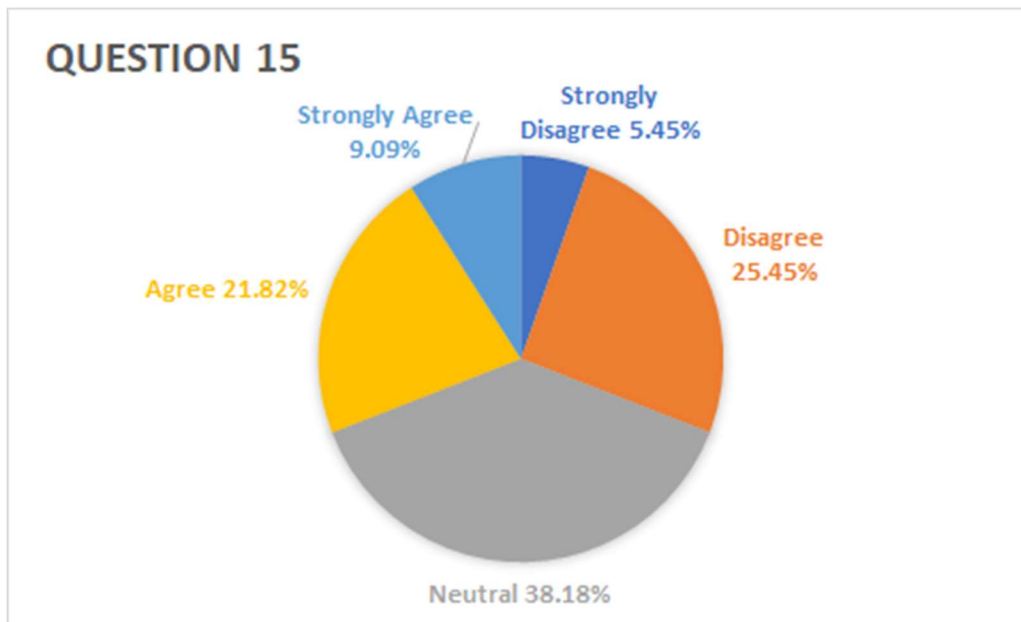
**Q13** - I generally feel safe from violent crime while on the Bridgewater State campus. This question included five options, Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree. The results were Strongly Disagree (3.57%), Disagree (3.57%), Neutral (12.50%), Agree (48.21%), and Strongly Agree (32.14%).



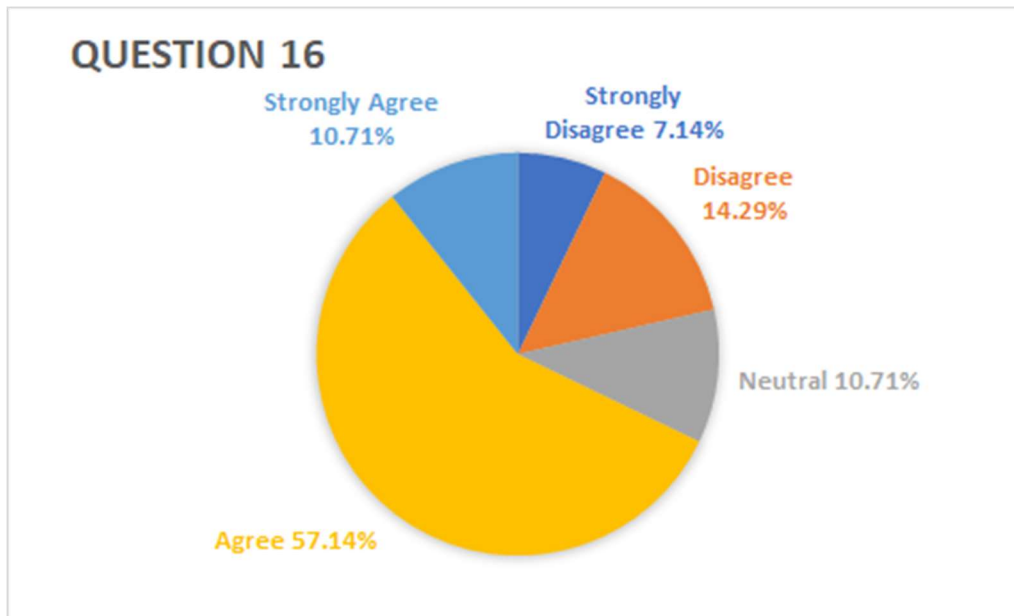
**Q14** - I do not feel that an “active-shooter” event is likely to occur within the Bridgewater State University community. This question included five options, Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree. The results were Strongly Disagree (7.14%), Disagree (21.43%), Neutral (41.07%), Agree (17.86%), and Strongly Agree (12.50%).



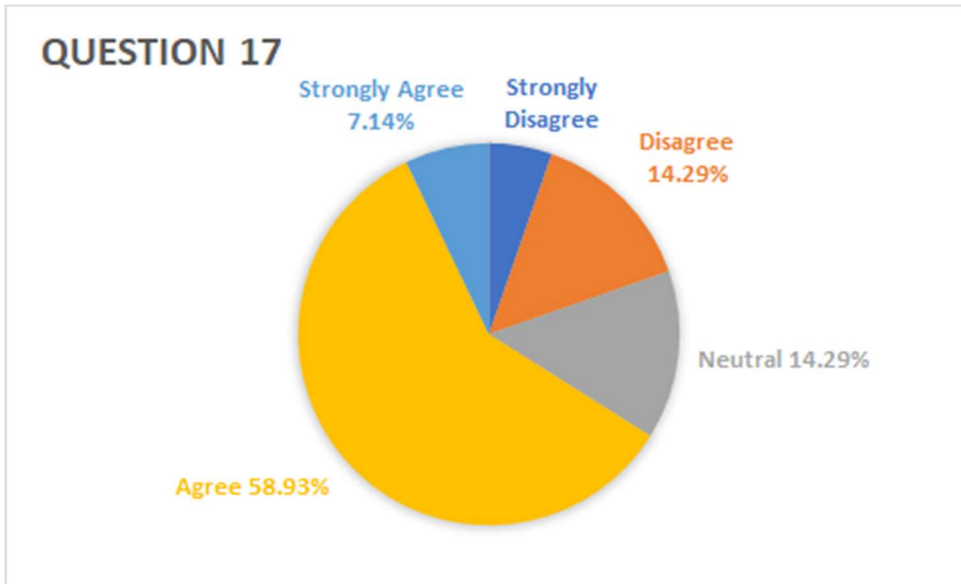
**Q15** - I do not feel that an “active-shooter” event is likely to occur while off-campus. This question included five options, Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree. The results were Strongly Disagree (5.45%), Disagree (25.45%), Neutral (38.18%), Agree (21.82%), and Strongly Agree (9.09%).



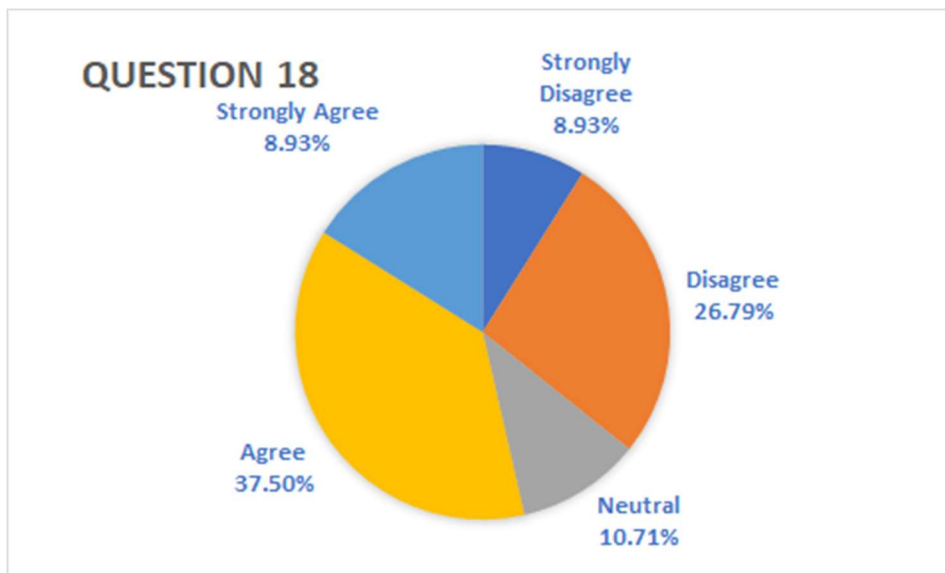
**Q16** - The presence of an armed police officer(s) alter my perception of safety and security while on campus. This question included five options, Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree. The results were Strongly Disagree (7.14%), Disagree (14.29%), Neutral (10.71%), Agree (57.14%), and Strongly Agree (10.71%).



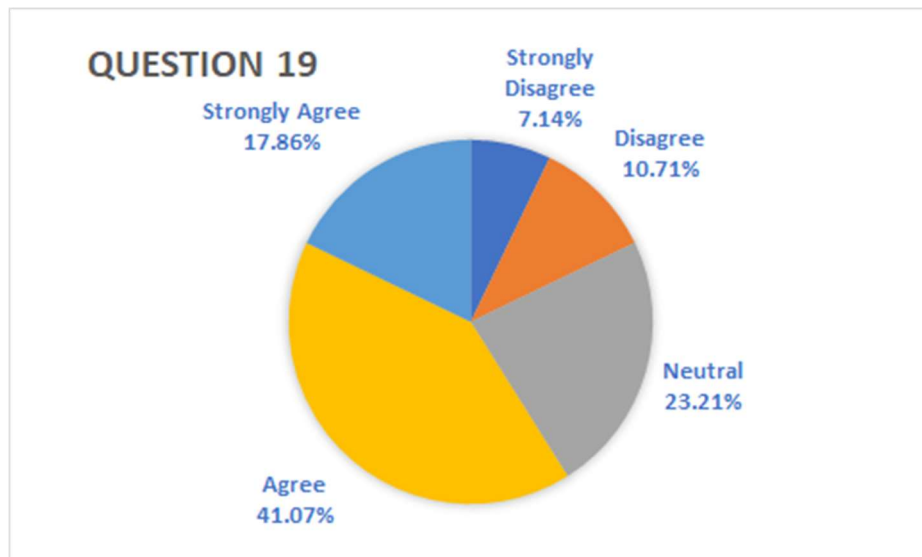
**Q17** - My perception of safety would be altered by increased visibility of the Bridgewater State University Police Department while on-campus. This question included five options, Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree. The results were Strongly Disagree (5.35%), Disagree (14.29%), Neutral (14.29%), Agree (58.93%), and Strongly Agree (7.14%).



**Q18** - My feeling of safety would be enhanced by the implementation of an electronic badging system, which requires the use of identification cards that also function as electronic keys to gain entry to the various buildings on the Bridgewater State University campus. This question included five options, Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree. The results were Strongly Disagree (8.93%), Disagree (26.79%), Neutral (10.71%), Agree (37.50%), and Strongly Agree (8.93%).



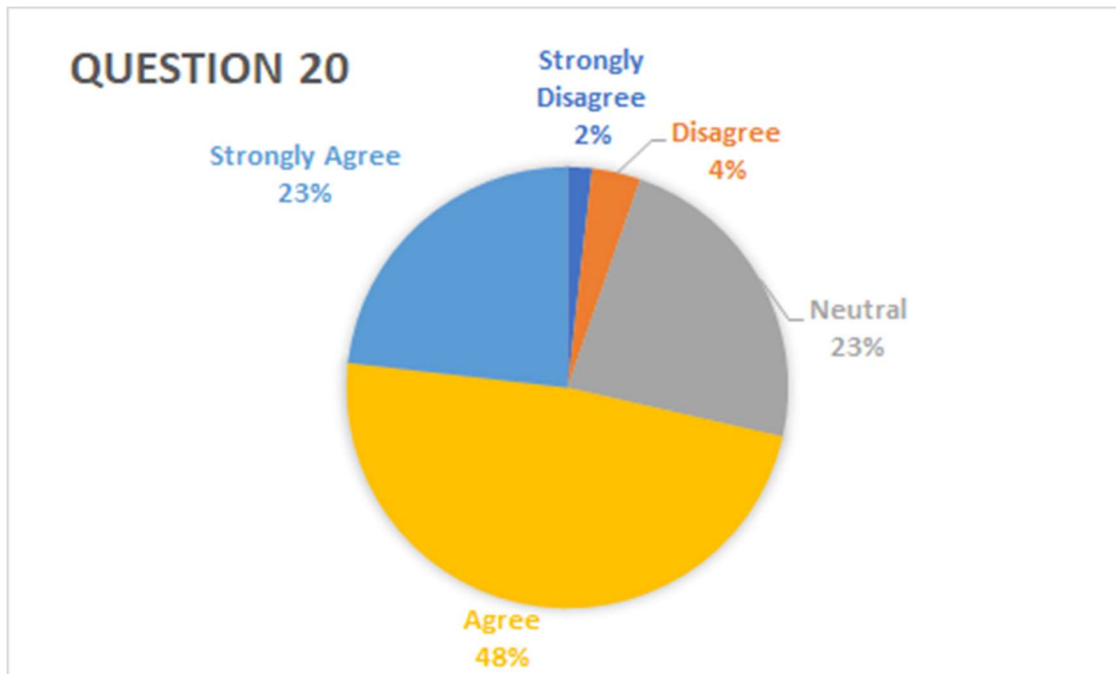
**Q19** - My perception of safety while on campus would be enhanced by a Smartphone activated direct line to the Bridgewater State University police. This question included five options, Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree. The results were Strongly Disagree (7.14%), Disagree (10.71%), Neutral (23.21%), Agree (41.07%), and Strongly Agree (17.86%).



**Q20** - I believe that strong familiarity with established guidelines regarding emergency plans and policies on campus would positively my ability to react to and survive an active shooter on the Bridgewater State University campus. This question included five options, Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree. The results were Strongly

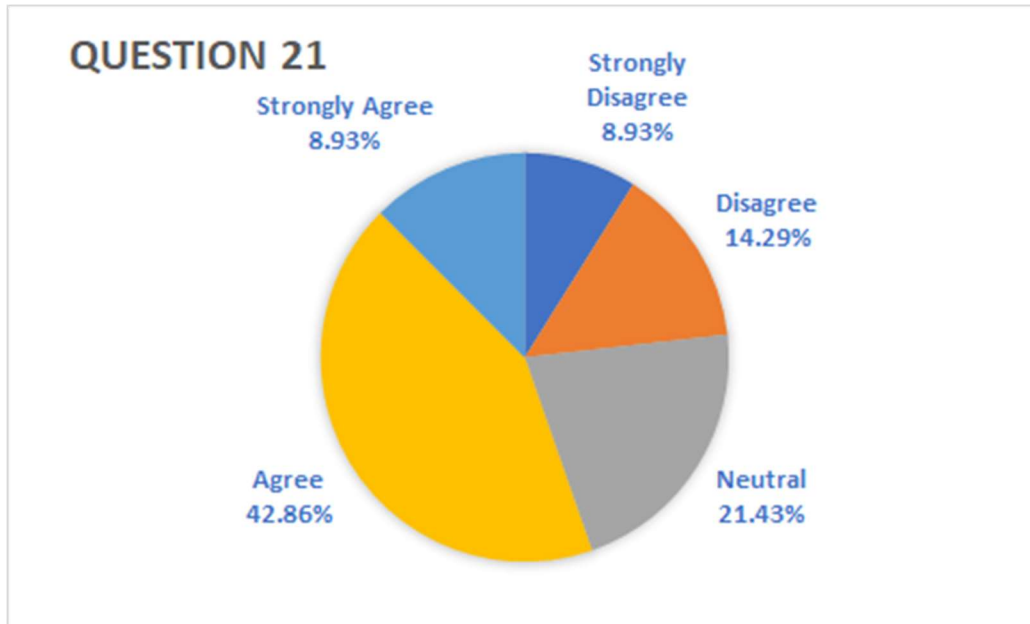


Disagree (2%), Disagree (4%), Neutral (23%), Agree (48%), and Strongly Agree (23%).



**Q21** - My perception of safety would be altered if the Bridgewater State University police department conducted frequent and visible active-shooter or violent intruder drills, similar to fire drills. This question included five options, Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, and Strongly Agree. The results were Strongly Disagree (8.93%), Disagree (14.29%), Neutral

(21.43%), Agree (42.86%), and Strongly Agree (8.93%).



### Hypothesis Testing

In the following section, the results of the t-test used to test the three hypotheses will be revealed.

First, a t-test was used to examine whether the subjects who are in the process of obtaining an undergraduate degree feel safer from an active shooter while on the university campus compared to those with graduate degrees. The results are displayed in figure 1.0. The results revealed that the undergraduates felt safer from an active shooting event while on campus (mean=3.87) compared to subjects with graduate degrees (mean=3.75), this difference was not statistically significant ( $p=.619$ ). These results are displayed in figure 1.2. This means that education and fear of active shooter are not statistically associated. The higher values in this figure correlate into feelings of safety from active shooters while on campus.

Figure 1.0

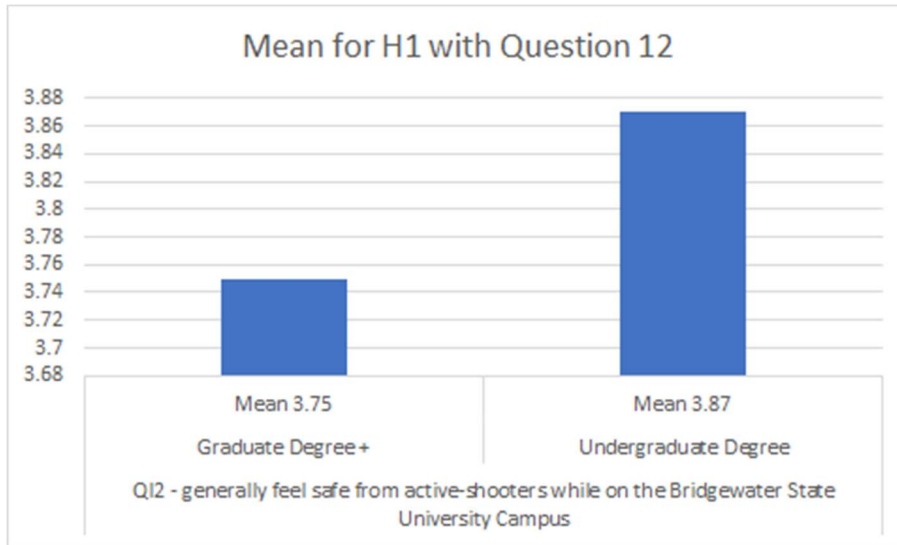
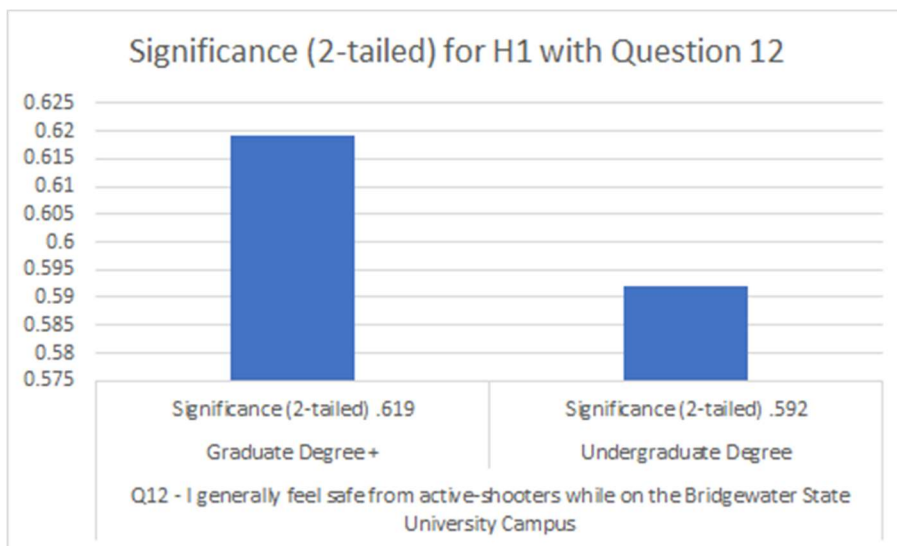


Figure 1.2



In the following test, a t-test was used to examine whether the subjects who are in the process of obtaining an undergraduate degree feel safer from a violent crime while on the university campus when compared to those with graduate degrees. The results are displayed in figure 1.3. The results revealed that those who had attained a graduate degree or higher felt safer from violent crime while on campus (mean=4.06) compared to subjects with undergraduate degrees (mean=3.96), this difference was not statistically significant ( $p=.694$ ). These results are

displayed in figure 1.4. This means that education and fear of violent crime are not statistically associated. The higher values in this figure correlate into feelings of safety from violent crime while on campus.

Figure 1.3

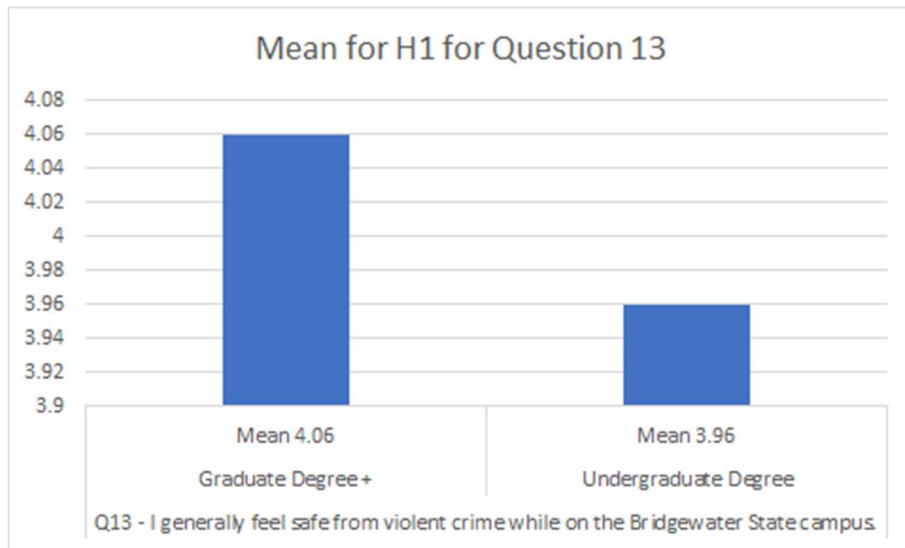
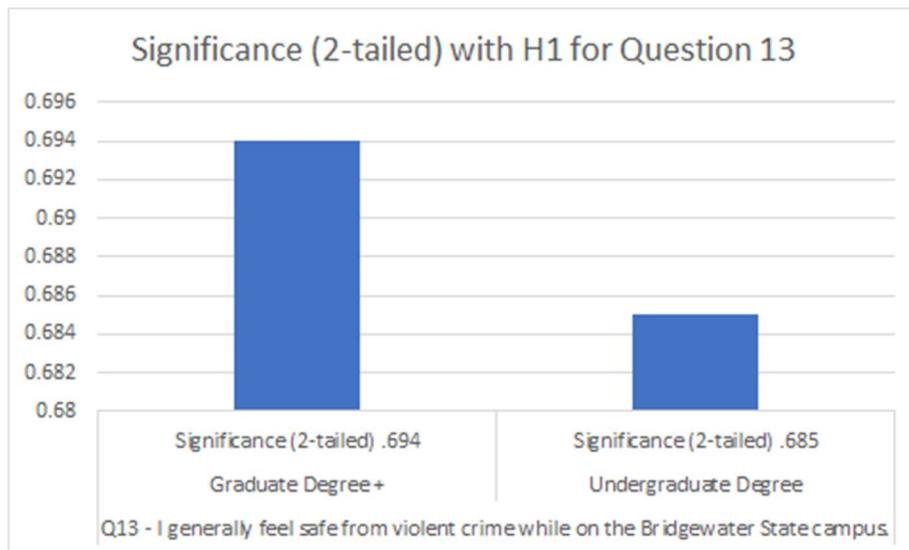


Figure 1.4



In the following test, a t-test was used to examine whether the subjects who are in the process of obtaining an undergraduate degree feel that an active shooting event is more likely to

occur on the university campus as compared to those with graduate degrees. The results are displayed in figure 1.5. The results revealed that those who had graduate degrees felt that an active shooting incident was more likely to occur (mean=3.16) compared to subjects with undergraduate degrees (mean=2.87), this difference was not statistically significant ( $p=.694$ ). These results are displayed in figure 1.6. This means that education and the likelihood of active shooting incident while on campus are not statistically associated. The higher values in this figure correlate into feelings of safety from an active shooting incident within the bounds of the university campus.

Figure 1.5

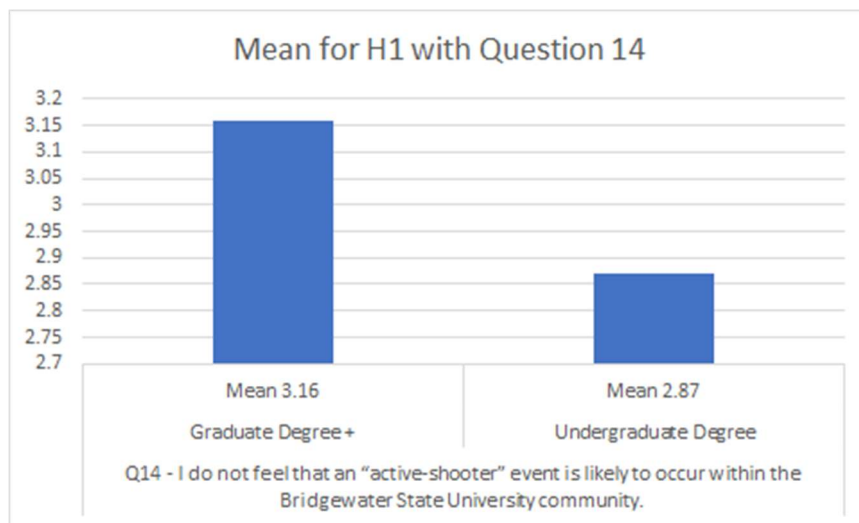
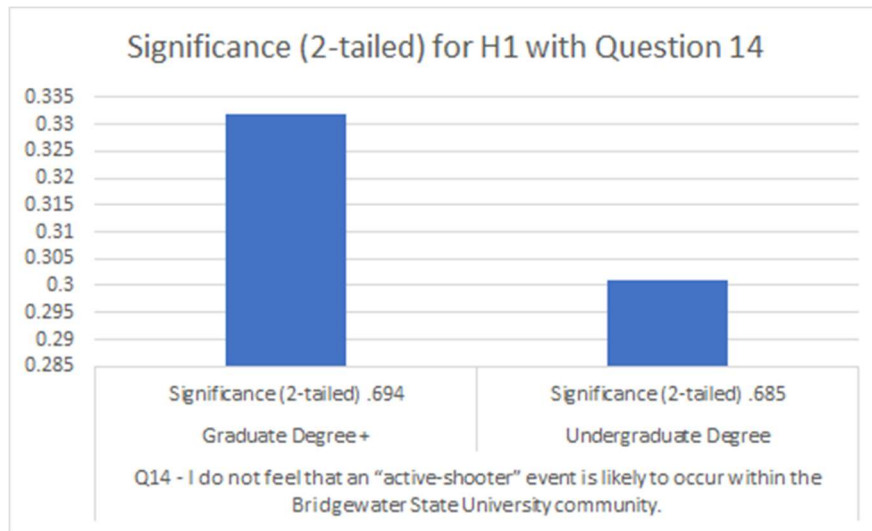


Figure 1.6



In the following test, a t-test was used to examine whether the subjects who are in the process of obtaining an undergraduate degree do not feel that an active shooting incident is likely to occur while off of the university campus as compared to those with graduate degrees. The results are displayed in figure 1.7. The results revealed that those who had graduate degrees felt that an active shooting incident was less likely to occur off campus (mean=3.22) compared to subjects with undergraduate degrees (mean=2.78), this difference was not statistically significant ( $p=.125$ ). These results are displayed in figure 1.8. This means that education and the likelihood of encountering an active shooting incident while off campus was not statistically associated. The higher values in this figure correlate into the participant does not feel that an active shooting event is likely to occur while off the university campus.

Figure 1.7

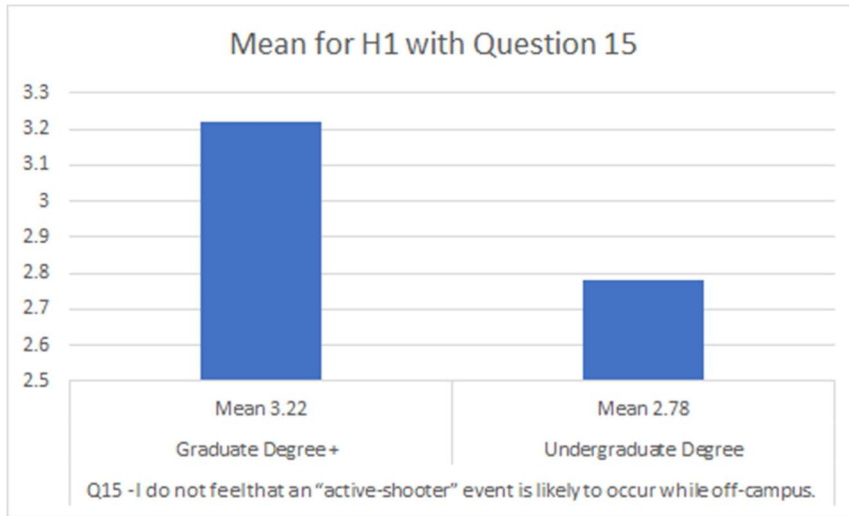
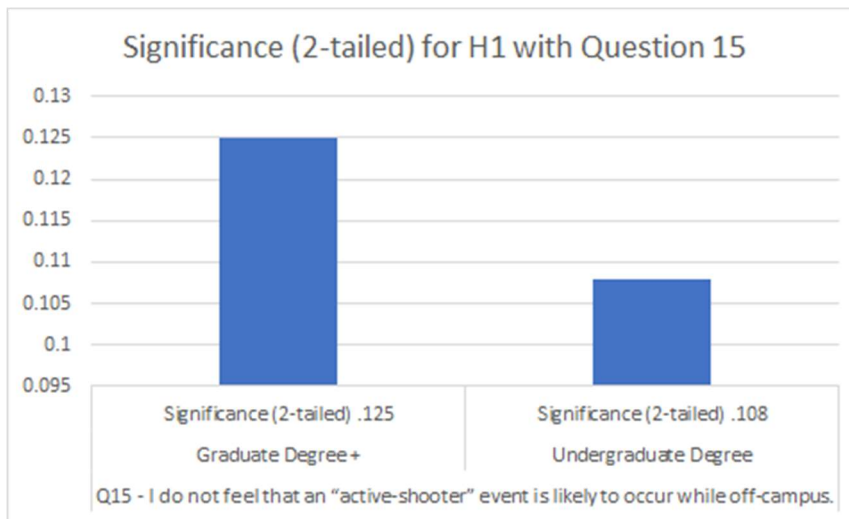


Figure 1.8



For the second hypothesis, the following t-test was used to examine whether the subjects who identify closest with the Democratic political party generally feel safer from a active shooters while on the university campus when compared to those who identify closest with other political parties. The results are displayed in figure 2.1. The results revealed that those who identified with the Democratic party felt slightly safer from active shooting incidents while on campus (mean=3.83) compared to subjects who identify with other political parties (mean=3.81),

this difference was not statistically significant ( $p=.931$ ). These results are displayed in figure 2.2. This means that support for a political party and fear of active shooting incidents are not statistically associated. The higher values in this figure correlate into feelings of safety from active shooting incidents while on campus.

Figure 2.1

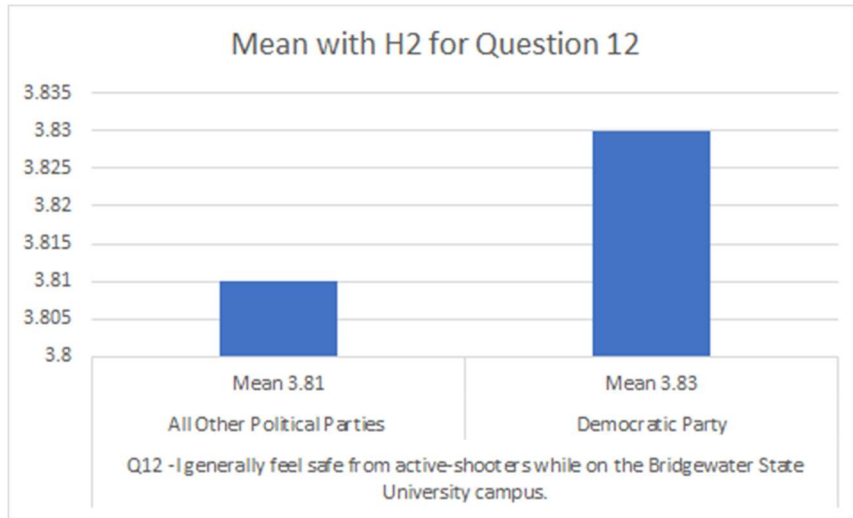
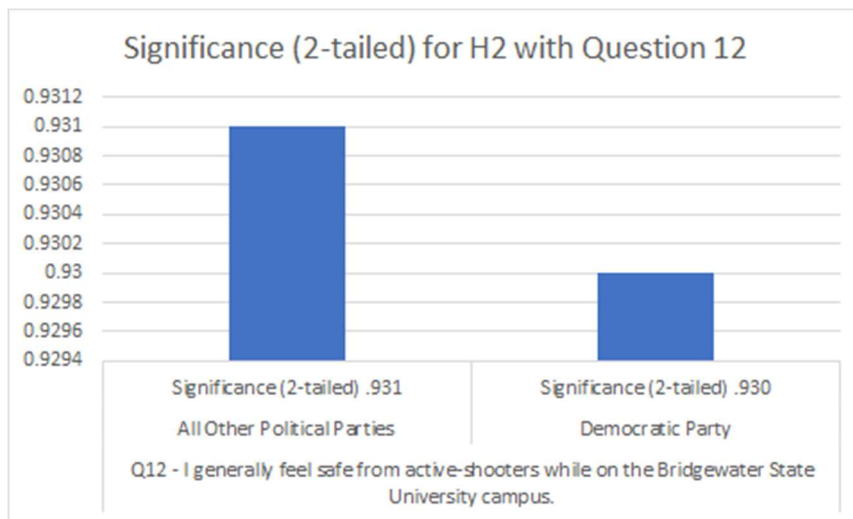


Figure 2.2



In the next test, a t-test was used to examine whether the subjects who identify closest with the Democratic political party generally feel safer from a violent crime while on the



university campus when compared to those who identify closest with other political parties. The results are displayed in figure 2.3. The results revealed that those who identified with the Democratic party felt slightly safer from active shooting incidents while on campus (mean=4.08) compared to subjects who identify with other political parties (mean=3.97), this difference was not statistically significant ( $p=.664$ ). These results are displayed in figure 2.4. This means that support for a political party and fear of violent crime incidents are not statistically associated. The higher values in this figure correlate into feelings of safety from violent crime incidents while on campus.

*Figure 2.3*

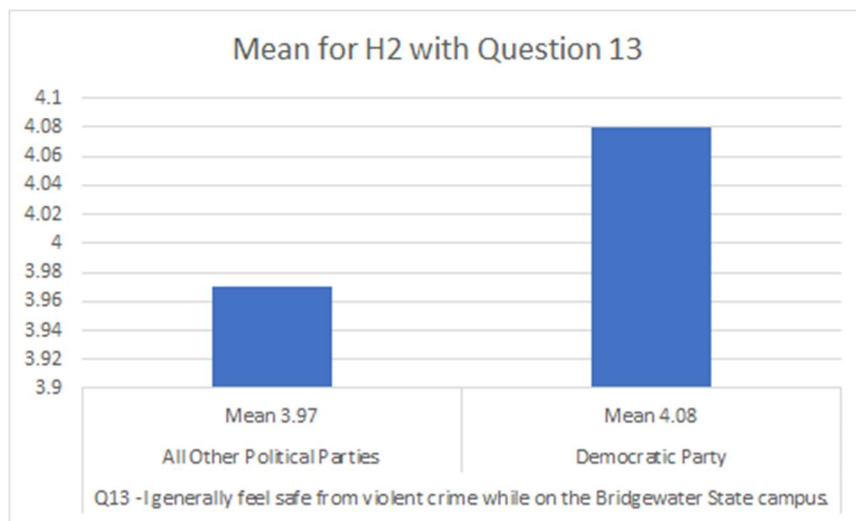
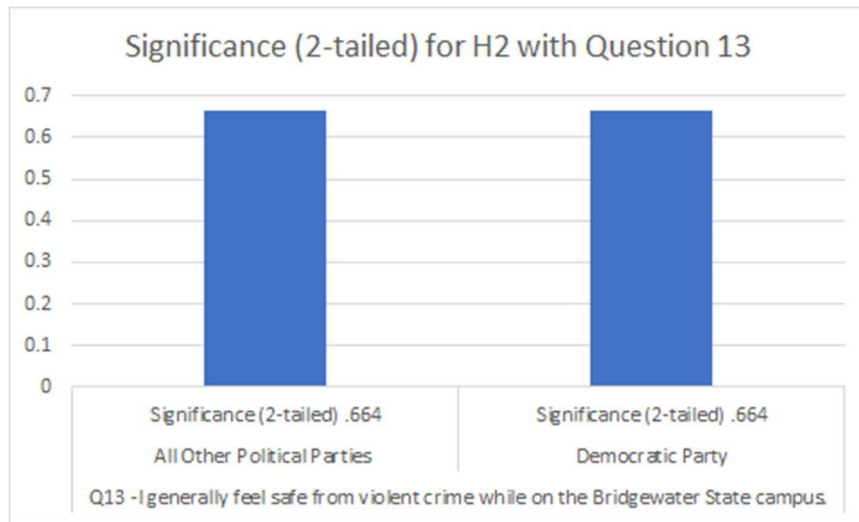


Figure 2.4



In the next test, a t-test was used to examine whether the subjects who identify closest with the Democratic political party generally feel that it is less likely that an active shooting incident is likely to occur within a university campus when compared to those who identify closest to other political parties. The results are displayed in figure 2.5. The results revealed that those who identified with other political parties felt that an active shooting incident was more likely to occur while on the university campus (mean=3.09) compared to subjects who identify with the Democratic party (mean=3.04), this difference was not statistically significant ( $p=.864$ ). These results are displayed in figure 2.6. This means that support for a political party and fear of an active shooting incident while on campus were not statistically associated. The higher values in this figure correlated into feelings of an active shooting incident occurring while on campus.

Figure 2.5

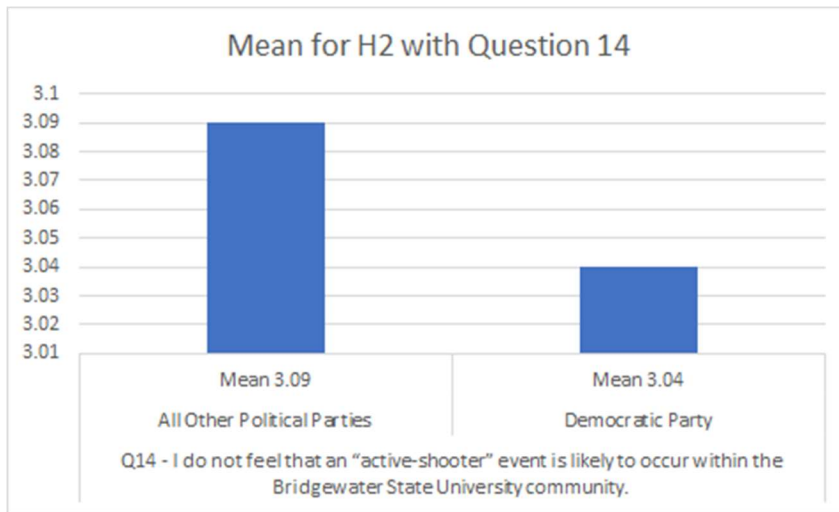
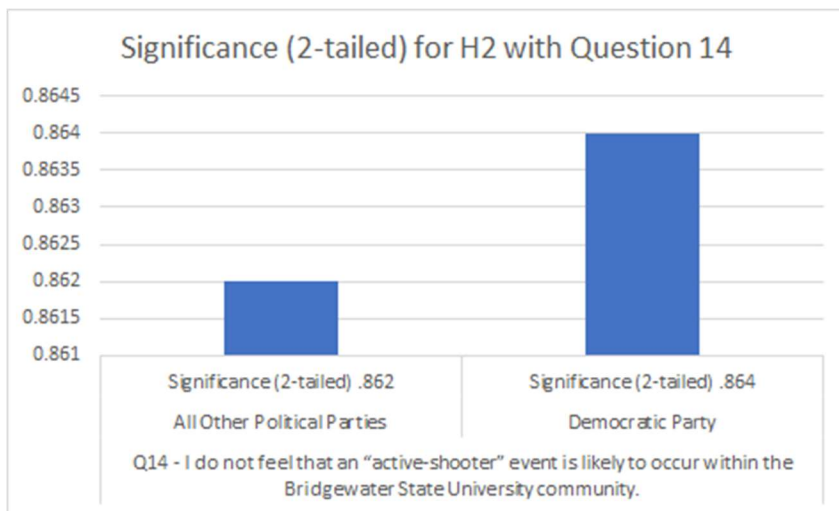


Figure 2.6



In the next test, a t-test was used to examine whether the subjects who identify closest with the Democratic political party generally feel that it is less likely that an active shooting incident is likely to occur while outside of the university campus when compared to those individuals who identify closest to other political parties. The results are displayed in figure 2.7. The results revealed that those who identified with other political parties felt that an active shooting incident was more likely to occur while off campus (mean=3.13) compared to subjects

who identify with the Democratic party (mean=2.92), this difference was not statistically significant ( $p=.458$ ). These results are displayed in figure 2.8. This means that support for a political party and fear of an active shooting event occurring while off campus is not statistically associated. The higher values in this figure correlate into feelings of an active shooting incident occurring while off the university campus.

Figure 2.7

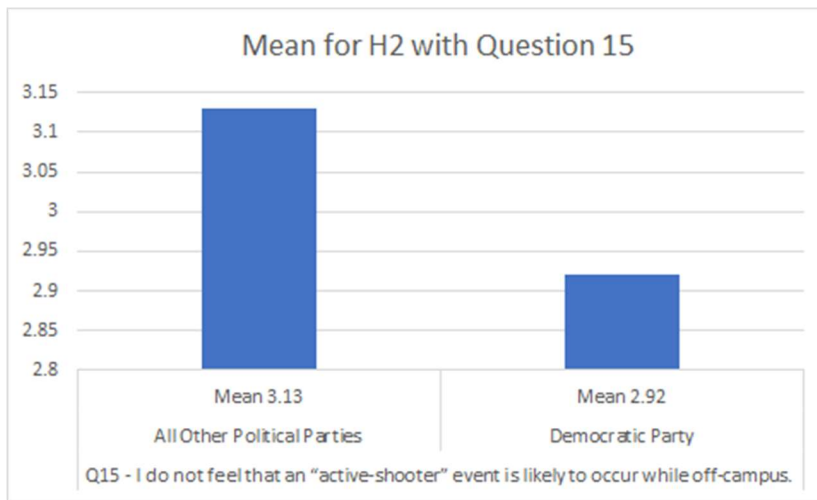
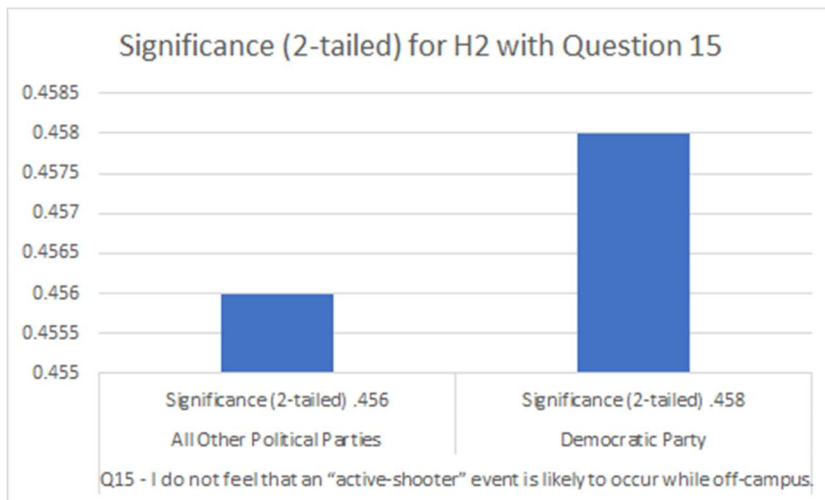


Figure 2.8



For the third and final hypothesis, the following t-test was used to examine whether the subjects who identifies as previously being the victim of a violent attack will feel less safe from

an active shooting incident while on a university campus when compared to those individuals who claimed that they were never the victim of a violent attack. The results are displayed in figure 3.1. The results revealed that those who stated that they had never been the victim of a violent attack on campus (mean=3.97) compared to individuals who identified as being the previous victim of a violent attack (mean=3.53), this difference was not statistically significant ( $p=.146$ ). These results are displayed in figure 3.2. This means that those individuals who had never been a victim of a violent attack was less fearful of an active shooting incident while on a university campus than individuals who had previously been victims of a violent attack. The higher values in this figure correlate into feelings of an active shooting incident occurring while on campus.

*Figure 3.1*

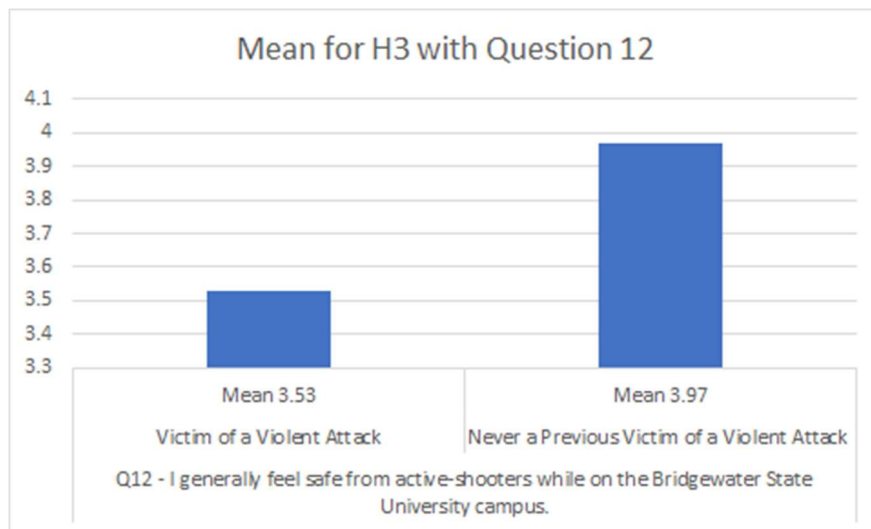
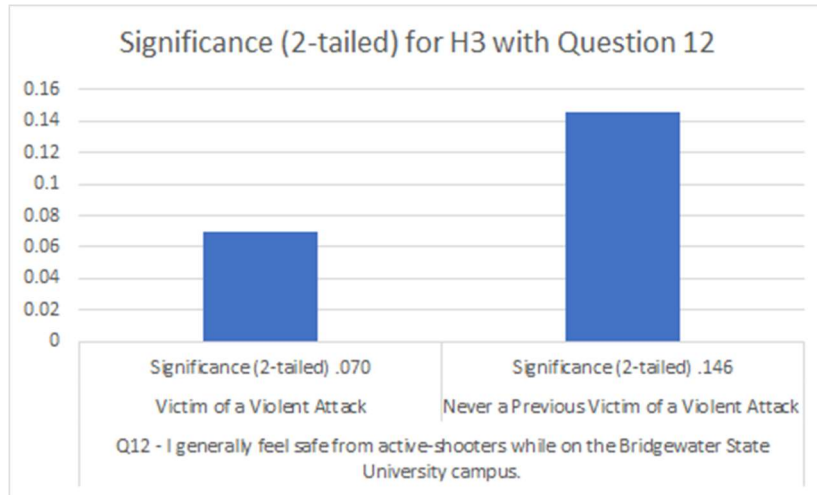


Figure 3.2



In the next test, a t-test was used to examine whether the subjects who identifies as previously being the victim of a violent attack will feel less safe from a violent attack while on a university campus when compared to those who individuals who claimed that they were never the victim of a violent attack. The results are displayed in figure 3.3. The results revealed that those who stated that they had never been the victim of a violent attack on campus (mean=4.24) compared to individuals who identified as being the previous victim of a violent attack (mean=3.58), this difference was statistically significant ( $p=.025$ ). These results are displayed in figure 3.4. This means that those individuals who had never been a victim of a violent attack was less fearful of a violent attack incident while on a university campus than individuals who had previously been victims of a violent attack. The higher values in this figure correlate into feelings of a violent attack incident occurring while on campus.

Figure 3.3

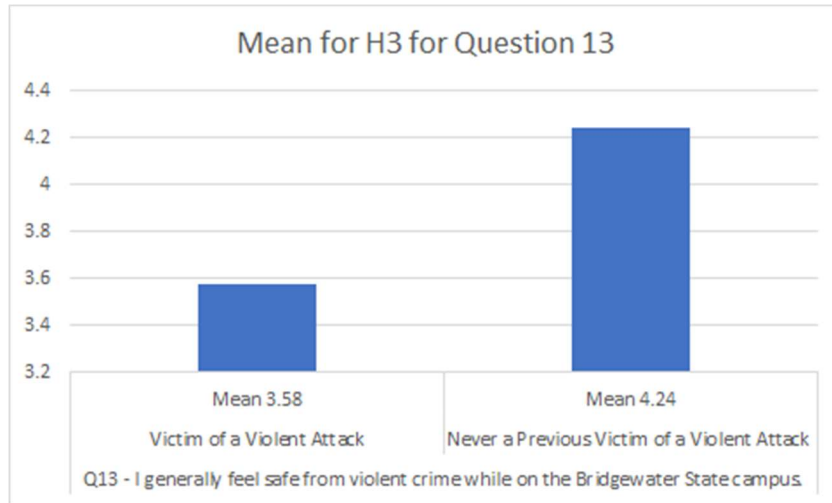
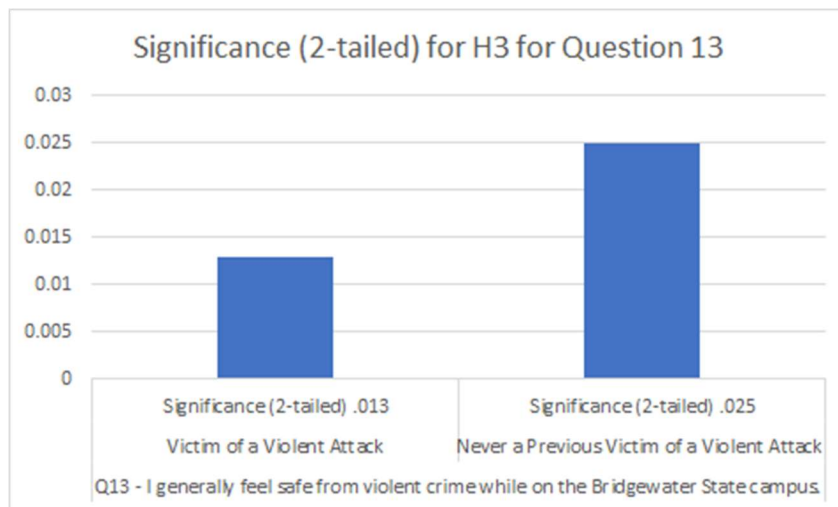


Figure 3.4



In the next test, a t-test was used to examine whether the subjects who identifies as previously being the victim of a violent attack will feel less safe from an active shooter while on a university campus when compared to those who individuals who claimed that they were never the victim of a violent attack. The results are displayed in figure 3.5. The results revealed that those who stated that they had previously been the victim of a violent attack on campus (mean=3.11) compared to individuals who identified as never being the victim of a violent attack (mean=3.05), this difference was not statistically significant ( $p=.878$ ). These results are

displayed in figure 3.6. This means that those individuals who had previously been a victim of a violent attack was less fearful of a violent attack incident while on a university campus than individuals who had never been victims of a violent attack. The higher values in this figure correlate into feelings of a violent attack incident occurring while on campus.

Figure 3.5

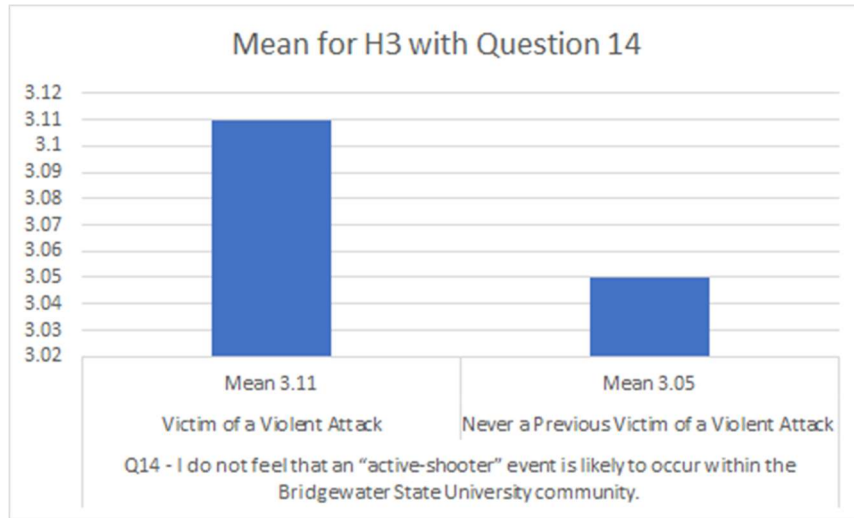
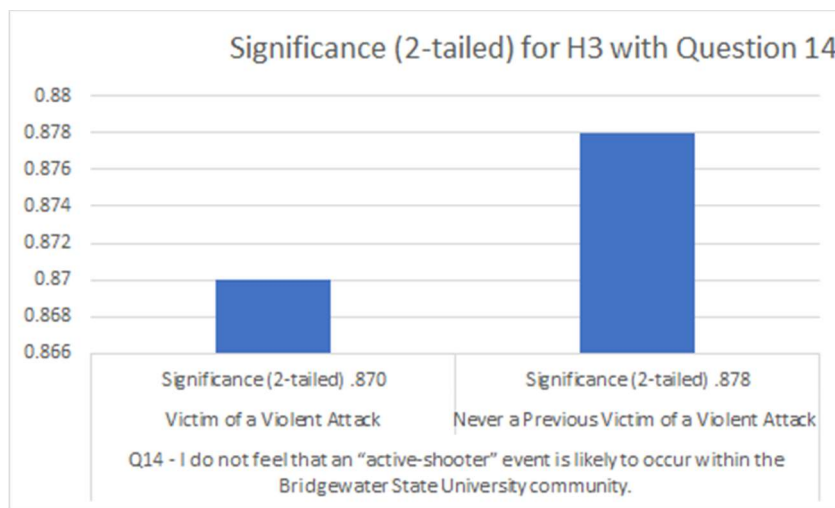


Figure 3.6



The final test, the following t-test were used to examine whether the subjects who identifies as previously being the victim of a violent attack will feel less safe from an active



shooter while off of a university campus when compared to those who individuals who claimed that they were never the victim of a violent attack. The results are displayed in figure 3.7. The results revealed that those who stated that they had never been the victim of a violent attack (mean=3.05) compared to individuals who identified as previously being the victim of a violent attack (mean=3.00), this difference was not statistically significant ( $p=.858$ ). These results are displayed in figure 3.8. This means that those individuals who had previously been a victim of a violent attack was less fearful of an active shooting incident while off of a university campus than individuals who had never been victims of a violent attack. The higher values in this figure correlate into feelings of an active shooting incident occurring while off a university campus.

*Figure 3.7*

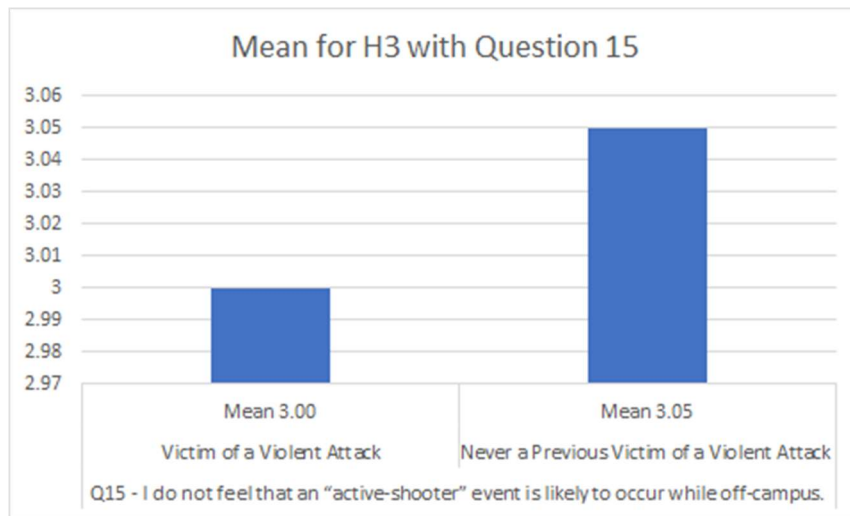
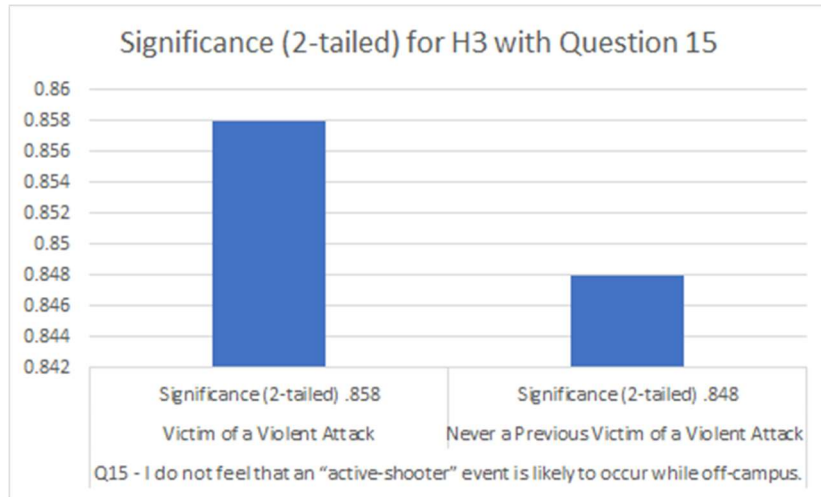


Figure 3.8



**Discussion**

This study begins to fill gap in previous research by examining a large university campus in the northeastern geographical area of the United States by studying the fear among samples of administration, faculty, staff, and students enrolled at Bridgewater State University. First, this study examined the extent to which fear varied between individuals who had identified themselves as previously being the victim of a violent crime. Second, multiple regression was used to examine the effects of active-shooting and violent attack incidents while controlling student characteristics such as age, race, residency status, sex and a variety of others. Lastly, this study tested whether any observed effects varied between the surveyed administration, faculty, staff, or student populations.

Recent studies (Kelleher, 2008; Pless, 2007) indicate that university students feel more fearful in the wake of active shooting events on university campuses throughout the United States. Moreover, previous studies (Kelleher, 2008; Pless, 2007) also suggest that fear of victimization increases when individuals are in close geographical proximity to an active shooting or a violent attack incident. Up until this research study there had been no systematic

studies on the effects of campus mass shooting events on an individual's perceived fear of crime in the northeastern area of the United States.

Some researchers, such as Best (1990), have conducted extensive research into the differences between concern and fear. Concern and fear are not mutually exclusive feelings. Concern may be brought about by media sources covering active shooting and violent attack incidents. Although these incidents may cause concern, fear maybe absent. Whereas, if an individual participant or a location that an individual may be familiar with may bring about fear in a person rather than concern. Both concern and fear may intertwine at times when an individual may be watching the event(s) or behavior(s) take place in real-time.

Based on this information limited empirical research has been conducted. A sensible individual would expect that a university shooting would increase fear among administration, faculty, staff, and students enrolled at colleges and universities across the county because the victims are someone like themselves. With, it was stated by Kaminski et. el. (2010) on page 91, that it was unclear how various characteristics of these events may have interacted to influence fear of crime. They also stated that, “no research has explicitly examined the relationship between the degree of spatial proximity to campus shooting incidents and student levels of fear” (Kaminski et. al., 2010).

Even in the aftermath of these incidents the public's perception of fear may increase depending on the location of the incident, who the perpetrator was, or who the victims were. These feelings may also evolve in the aftermath through the media. For example, after each active shooting or violent intruder incident media outlets over saturate the public with information through internet, newspaper, and television. Politicians call for new or amended

legislation regarding gun laws, mental health, and other ways in which the nation can protect their citizens.

Although similar research has been done among intellectuals, this research study has not been done in the northeastern geographical area of the United States. In the next section similar studies will be examined in limited detail. This prior research supports this current studies data and findings.

Some research has been conducted regarding university students and their feelings of fear (e.g., Kelleher, 2008; Pless, 2007), with the exception of (Kaminski, Koons-Witt, Thompson, & Weiss, 2010) there has been no systematic research on the effects of mass shootings events, with the fear of crime or perceived risk of victimization. Kaminski et. el. (2010) noted that limited research had been done on university students regarding school shootings. This study examined the impacts of the Virginia Tech and the Northern Illinois University mass shooting incidents and the university student's perception of fear. This study used a convenience samples of students enrolled at the University of South Carolina.

In a similar study, Schafer, Lee, Burruss, & Giblin (2018) used survey data from six Illinois universities regarding their perceived fear of crime and whether they support their specific universities safety practices. These surveys were distributed to students only, data was not collected for administration, faculty, or staff as they were not included in this study. This study found that an individual's perceived fear of crime was increased by prior victimization.

In other similar studies, Fergus, Rabenhorst, Orcutt, & Valentiner (2011) and Grills-Taquechel, Littleton, & Axsom (2011) focused on the feelings of their participants. Fergus et. al. (2011) study examined the reactions of 58 female participants while Grills-Taquechel (2011) study had 298 female participants. Both experimental-based trauma studies participants had

recently been exposed to a campus shooting. This study assessed the participants posttraumatic stress, depression, anxiety symptoms, and the physical exposure to the shooting. Although these studies focuses were not on the perception of fear itself, the results were telling as those individuals who were previously victimized, either through an active shooting event or a violent offense, were more likely to feel the effects of post-traumatic stress and be more aware and fearful of again being victimized.

A positive climate at a large university, and really any educational institutions, is the foundation upon which a university builds their instructional program and their emergency management systems. At the core of a safe and supportive university are relationships of respect and the connection between their professors and the student population. A positive university climate increases the chances of individual student success academically and decreases the chance of these individuals suffering or acting out in a threatening or in hazardous ways.

President Barack Obama, in 2013, signed into law the Investigative Assistance of Violent Act of 2012. This legislation granted the Attorney General of the United States the authority to assist in the investigation of “violent acts and shootings occurring in a place of public use, along with mass killings and attempted mass killings at the request of the appropriate law enforcement official of a state or political subdivision” (Blair, P., & Schweit, K., 2014). This legislation also allows for further assistance in case of an emergency at a university campus. Knowing that the combined investigative forces of federal, state, and local law enforcement’s investigative services may allow administrators, faculty, and students to feel safe and more at ease while on campus.

Kaminski et. el. (2010) found in their study that fear of crime following the Virginia Tech and Northern Illinois University shootings found that female students were significantly

more fearful than male students. In this current study the same results were identified. Kaminski et al., (2010) also found that those students who were fearful were afraid of being murdered or threatened with a knife or gun on campus. These fears were significantly increased by the Virginia Tech and Northern Illinois University shootings (Kaminski et al., 2007).

Kaminski et al., (2010) study was also able to determine that specific demographics of the students were found to predict their fear. Younger students, along with those who lived on campus were more fearful than their counterparts. Due to the current studies anonymous application this researcher was unable to breakdown these results. Kaminski et al., (2010) study also found that white students were less fearful than minority students of being a victim of crime on campus.

Kaminski et al., (2010) research study determined that fear of crime was the most salient predictor of respondents' and their subscription to moral panic about school shootings. To further emphasize the impact of moral panic, a study conducted by Fallahi, Austad, Fallon, & Leishman (2009) found that individuals who were exposed to 3 or more hours of news coverage exhibited significantly more psychiatric symptoms than students who watch the news for less than 3 hours. In their extensive study they also found that respondents who reported greater fear of personal victimization also expressed greater hostility at disproportionate rates (Kaminski et al., 2010). This research also found that those people who were in fear for their personal safety were more likely to believe that school shootings actually occur much more frequently than they actually do, and are more likely to want punitive actions to be taken against suspected school shooters or violent offenders (Kaminski et al., 2007).

Based on the results of this study;

**H1:** It is predicted that those who have attained or are in the process of obtaining an undergraduate degree will feel safer from an active-shooter or a violent attack while on the university campus than those who have attained or are in the process of obtaining a graduate degree or higher. This hypothesis, based on the statistical data provided by this study, was not statistically significant. But it was supported by empirical data provided by secondary sources.

**H2:** It is hypothesized that university community members who identified with the Democratic political party as opposed to other political party affiliations (Green Party, Independent, Libertarian, Other, or Republican). will be more fearful of active-shooters or violent attacks. This hypothesis, based on the statistical data provided by this study, was not statistically significant. But it was supported by empirical data provided by secondary sources.

**H3:** It is predicted that those participants who identified as previously being a victim of a violent attacked will be more likely to be fearful of an active-shooter or a violent attack than an individual's who has never been the victim of a violent attack. This hypothesis, based on the statistical data provided by this study, was statistically significant while also being supported by empirical data provided by secondary sources.

### **Limitations and Strengths**

There are several limitations to this study. The fact that there is a small sample size (n= 57) is one issue. The results from the sample size may not accurately represent the population as whole. The results mainly came from white, female, faculty members. Also, the media has highlighted violence, specifically gun violence, in the educational environment and elsewhere in the world which could alter people's views and increase moral panic.

Bridgewater State University, in this case, was used as the survey population and is representative of a large public university in the northeastern geographical area of the United States. With this survey being carried out at a single university the study has limited generalizability. The study is generalizable due to the fact that the survey was only distributed to members of the Bridgewater State University community. Although the survey was made available to all members of the Bridgewater State University community only 57 individuals took the survey. Due to the limited number of respondents, the results of this survey were not large enough to impart adequate statistical power.

This study is not intended to explore all facets of active shooting or violent attack incidents that have occurred on university campuses across the United States. But rather, this study is intended to provide a baseline to assist and guide a better understanding of those voluntary participants who participated in this study and their feelings of safety from active-shooters and violent offenders on a university campus in the American northeast.

Most of the data, in the current study, comes from similar studies from the South and Western areas of the United States. Very little research has been done on the impact of campus shooting incidents or violent attack incidents and fear among university administrators, faculty, staff, or students. Social scientist research has predominantly focused their attention to the secondary or post-secondary school environments rather than departments of higher education Kaminski et. al. (2010). Additional studies from around the United States, such as this current study, could be beneficial in that this study will include the northeast where there is very little research that has been done in the past regarding this topic. Although empirical studies have been conducted for fear of crime with mixed results. The theory behind mass shootings and an



individual's increased fear that they may become a victim of a similar incident have yet to be explored (Stroebe, Leander, & Kruglanski (2017a).

Internal validity of the results of this research study may also be compromised due to the fact that the survey happened to be released only days after a mass shooting incident at two separate locations in Christchurch, New Zealand. Emotions after this incident were high among individuals in the world who were grieving for the victims and their families. Whereas, external validity in this study was good because the participants of the study were a mix of both genders (18 males, 35 females, and one identified as other), along with a variety of ethnicities.

Lastly, it would be appropriate to examine whether there are links between victimization and multiple dimensions of subjective crime experiences (i.e., cognitive, emotional, and behavioral) versus those who have yet to be the victim of a crime. It is important to note that perception reigns high when an individual identifies themselves as a victim because two individuals may have similar experiences and may not look at their experience as a victimization, where the other individual may do so. With, further attention should be made to focus on different crimes with varying involvement (innocent bystander or victim) and exposures (observed through the media or through a personal relationship of an individual who was present at the incident) to these crimes.

### **Directions for Future Research**

This study has been created and molded to benefit the administrative professionals, faculty, law enforcement, staff, and students of a large university campus community. Especially those professionals within the administration staff who create, implement, and model their universities standard operating procedures. Studies such as this and others like it are

essential in order to properly evaluate a specific university needs for improvement or even highlight their current security posture.

An interesting avenue for future research would be to examine the opinions of university alumni in the northeast, rather than just the current members of a university community in the northeast. Due to time and resource restraints, this study was also limited to just the current Bridgewater State University Community. University alumni opinions as a whole may result in very different findings. It is also suggested that future research should represent the population more accurately. In this study, the respondents do not accurately represent the actual population of the Bridgewater State University Community as a whole because of the limited number of respondents.

Future research should also offer more in-depth survey questions. There is a plethora of questions that maybe asked regarding an individual's fear of safety on a university campus. Data regarding the influence that the media (i.e. 24- new coverage, online blogs or forums, and social media) and behavioral patterns plays in an individual's perception of fear versus those who don't have access the media or more positive behavioral patterns. The media does play a large part in influencing policy change and public opinions. Also, this survey did not examine directly the fear of an individual being a victim of crime such as murder or being the victim of a gun or knife attack. This information would've been impactful as well because the primary focus of this study was to see the perception of fear from active-shooters and violent attackers.

Despite the limitations in this study, this research study contributes to the limited body of literature presented in an individual's perception of safety from active-shooters and violent attacks in several ways. First, the information in the present study is beneficial, as it is

among the first applications conducted in the northeastern geographical area of the United States, particularly in the context of looking at this specific and often controversial topic.

Another consideration could be to calculate the degree to which mass shootings occur on university campuses and how these results correlate with more general fear or more specific fear indicators among the victims and witnesses. For example, although university campus shootings may increase fear among those within the campus community of walking alone on campus or fear of crime, they may also increase a stronger fear of being threatened with a gun or fear of being murdered on campus. Guns and murder are highlighted in this argument since they are commonly associated with these violent events.

Additionally, the findings of this study may support and have potential policy implications that must be considered, both for universities, not only in the northeast, but the United States as a whole. University officials may wish to use this research study when determining how to best educate their administrators, faculty, staff, and students on the threats and responses to active shootings and violent attack incidents on their university campus. University officials may also find these results beneficial in determining how best to present and respond to members of the university community, such as those individuals or groups requesting information from outside of the university campus community (i.e., family members, media, parents of students).

Releasing this information may mitigate potential fear in the aftermath in an active-shooting or a violent attack incident. It is unclear whether campus shootings will continue to increase, level off, or decline, but clearly research on the effects of campus shootings is warranted and need to continue to evolve.

### **Conclusion**

Former Massachusetts Governor Deval Patrick, stated on January 16, 2014, that;

“No child will be able to succeed academically if they don’t first feel safe in school. No teacher will be able to teach at their best if they aren’t confident there’s a plan in place to ensure their school is well prepared for an emergency” (Malone, Polanowicz, & Cabral, 2014, p. 4).

This quote reflects the mood of all members of the university campus communities in a variety of ways.

Cowardly acts across the United States and the world have forced educational institutions, such as university campus communities, to take a hard look at their physical security posture in an effort to assess their readiness to combat the issue of both actual and perceived feelings of safety and security while on their specific university campus. University police department’s, along with the university’s administrative team have done an admirable job, but there is always work to be done. In a perfect world, where experts and resources are infinite, everyone would have not only a perceived feeling of safety, but they would feel safe. Unfortunately, this is not a perfect world and experts and resources are finite.

School shootings and violent offenders elicit hostility from the public to the media, to those affected by this senseless violence. This hostility calls for punitive responses and can ultimately paint school shooters as folk devils (Schildkraut et al., 2015). In Schildkraut et al (2015) work, along with this research study, it was found that the response to school shootings and violent attackers were shown to be disproportionate to how frequently these events occur.

Many respondents from various studies believed that school shootings and attacks by violent offenders are much more common than they are. With this data in mind, it is believed that an individual’s perceived likelihood of being a victim is increased beyond what occurs. While some have this attitude, others, due to a variety of variables have the “it couldn’t happen

here” mentality. Although feelings are mixed, the fact is that multiple-victim homicides incidents are extremely rare and the overall rate of violence has declined in higher educational institutions (Kramen, Massey, & Timm, 2009, p. 1).

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Appendix A

**Informed Consent (Online Survey)**

This online survey is being distributed in support of a research project being conducted by Stephen Sinko in partial fulfillment of his Master's Degree in Criminal Justice at Bridgewater State University. This survey is estimated to take approximately 5-10 minutes to complete.

**Title of Research Project:** Improved Perceptions of Safety Within the Bridgewater State University

**Principal Investigator:** Stephen Sinko

**Purpose of Research Project:** The purpose of this research study was to examine faculty, staff, and student's feelings on their perception of safety within the Bridgewater State University Community. Participants will include faculty, staff, and students.

**Voluntary participation:** Your participation in this research project is completely voluntary. You have the right to withdraw from the research study at any time by discontinuing the process and closing the survey. If you elect to participate, simply click the "submit" button at the end of the survey. Your participation or election not to participate are not being tracked electronically in any way, and are anonymous. You may ask the principal investigator listed below any questions you may have about this research study. You may ask him questions in the future if you do not understand the nature of the project.

**Procedures:** In support of this research project, all members of the Bridgewater State University Community are being invited to participate in this anonymous online survey. It is anticipated that the survey will take 10-15 minutes to complete. Research participants who click the "submit" button at the end of the survey will have their responses included in the data analysis and report, however, no identifiers are being retained.

**Risks of harm/Discomforts/Inconvenience:** There are extremely minimal risks (i.e. feelings of emotional discomfort due to subject matter) to participants. The benefits of this study and survey, greatly outweigh the minimal risks that may occur.

**Benefits [including compensation if any]:** This study has been created and molded to benefit the administrative professionals, faculty, law enforcement, staff, and students of the Bridgewater State University community. Especially those professionals within the administration staff who create, implement, and model the universities standard operating procedures. This survey may possibly be useful to inform future opportunities for the Bridgewater State Universities Administrative committees and department heads to work together in pro-actively protecting the campus community.

**Confidentiality:** Participant privacy and confidentiality will be protected throughout this study. Electronic data (survey results), which will be collected anonymously, will be stored on a password protected google drive account. Information from the online survey will be coded to preserve participant anonymity and confidentiality and will be summarized, in an anonymous

format, in the body of the final report. At no time, will any specific comments be attributed to any individual? The anonymous data collected in support of this research project will be retained for a period of one year following the completion of the study (anticipated completion: May 2019). All members of the Bridgewater State University community will be able to access the final report following its completion.

**Persons to Contact:** If you want to talk to anyone about this research study because you think you have not been treated fairly or think you have been hurt by joining the study, or you have any other questions about the study, you should call the principal investigator, Stephen Sinko at



(508) 413-0027 or call the Bridgewater State University - Center for Advancement of Research and Scholarship at 508-531-1767

**Survey:** Once you have read and understood the above project description – if you choose to participate, please click the following link.

[https://bridgew.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV\\_bvBpGqsE5ygNtIN](https://bridgew.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_bvBpGqsE5ygNtIN)

Appendix B

**Informed Consent Survey Access**

**Procedures:** In support of this research project, all members of the Bridgewater State Campus Community are being invited to participate in this anonymous online survey about your impression of Bridgewater State University security. It is anticipated that the survey will take 10-15 minutes to complete. Research participants who click the “submit” button at the end of the survey will have their responses included in the data analysis and report, however, no identifiers are being retained.

**[https://bridgew.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV\\_bvBpGqsE5ygNtIN](https://bridgew.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_bvBpGqsE5ygNtIN)**

**Voluntary participation:** Your participation in this research project is completely voluntary. You have the right to withdraw from the research study at any time by discontinuing the process and closing the survey. If you elect to participate, simply click the “submit” button at the end of the survey. Your participation or election not to participate are not being tracked electronically in any way, and are anonymous. You may ask the principal investigator listed below any questions you may have about this research study. You may ask him questions in the future if you do not understand the nature of the project.

**Survey:** Once you have read and understood the above project description – if you choose to participate, please click the following link.

**[https://bridgew.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV\\_bvBpGqsE5ygNtIN](https://bridgew.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_bvBpGqsE5ygNtIN)**

Appendix C

Thesis Questionnaire

1. **Gender**
  - Male (1)
  - Female (2)
  - Other (3)
  
2. **Please indicate your age (Fill-in the blank)**
  
3. **Please indicate your race**
  - American Indian (1)
  - Asian/ Pacific Island (2)
  - Biracial (3)
  - Black (4)
  - Hispanic (5)
  - Other (6)
  - White (7)
  
4. **Please indicate the answer that includes your entire household income (pre-tax).**
  - Less than \$29,999 (1)
  - \$30,000 to \$59,999 (2)
  - \$60,000 to \$89,999 (3)
  - \$90,000 to \$119,999 (4)
  - \$120,000 to \$149,999 (5)
  - \$150,000 or more (6)
  
5. **Please indicate the state that you reside in. (Home) Fill-in the Blank**
  
6. **Please indicate your political party affiliation**
  - Democrat (1)
  - Green Party (2)
  - Independent (3)
  - Libertarian (4)
  - Republican (5)
  - Other (6)

**7. Please choose your status within the Bridgewater State University community**

- Freshman (1)
- Sophomore (2)
- Junior (3)
- Senior (4)
- Graduate (5)
- Faculty (Part-Time, Tenured, or Tenure Track) (6)
- Administration (7)
- Staff (8)

**8. Please choose your housing arrangement**

- On-campus housing (Dorm) (1)
- Off-campus housing (2)

**9. Please choose your college affiliation**

- College of the Arts (1)
- College of Science (2)
- Other

**10. Please indicate the degree that you have obtained**

- Have yet to attain a degree (1)
- Associates' Degree (2)
- Bachelor's Degree (3)
- Master's Degree (4)
- Terminal Degree (Doctorate or Juris Doctor) (5)

**11. Have you ever been the victim of a violent crime or attack?**

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

**12. I generally feel safe from active-shooters while on the Bridgewater State University campus.**

0-----0-----0-----0-----0  
Strongly Disagree    Disagree    Neutral    Agree    Strongly Agree

- 13. I generally feel safe from violent crime while on the Bridgewater State University campus.**

0-----0-----0-----0-----0  
Strongly Disagree    Disagree    Neutral    Agree    Strongly Agree

- 14. I do not feel that an “active-shooter” event is likely to occur within the Bridgewater State University community.**

0-----0-----0-----0-----0  
Strongly Disagree    Disagree    Neutral    Agree    Strongly Agree

- 15. I do not feel that an “active-shooter” event is likely to occur while off-campus.**

0-----0-----0-----0-----0  
Strongly Disagree    Disagree    Neutral    Agree    Strongly Agree

- 16. The presence of an armed police officer(s) alters my perception of safety and security while on campus.**

0-----0-----0-----0-----0  
Strongly Disagree    Disagree    Neutral    Agree    Strongly Agree

- 17. My perception of safety would be altered by increased visibility of the Bridgewater State University Police Department while on-campus.**

0-----0-----0-----0-----0  
Strongly Disagree    Disagree    Neutral    Agree    Strongly Agree

- 18. My feeling of safety would be enhanced by the implementation of an electronic badging system, which require the use of identification cards that also function as electronic keys to gain entry to the various buildings on the Bridgewater State University campus.**

0-----0-----0-----0-----0  
Strongly Disagree    Disagree    Neutral    Agree    Strongly Agree

19. **My perception of safety while on campus would be enhanced by a Smartphone activated direct line to the Bridgewater State University police.**

0-----0-----0-----0-----0  
Strongly Disagree    Disagree    Neutral    Agree    Strongly Agree

20. **I believe that strong familiarity with established guidelines regarding emergency plans and policies on campus would positively my ability to react to and survive an active shooter on the Bridgewater State University campus.**

0-----0-----0-----0-----0  
Strongly Disagree    Disagree    Neutral    Agree    Strongly Agree

21. **My perception of safety would be altered if the Bridgewater State University police department conducted frequent and visible active-shooter or violent intruder drills, similar to fire drills.**

0-----0-----0-----0-----0  
Strongly Disagree    Disagree    Neutral    Agree    Strongly Agree

## Appendix D

### Definitions

**Armed Assailant:** an armed person who attempts to use deadly force on others, typically in a confined and populated area.

**Active Shooter:** an assailant(s) who use firearms, as opposed to knives and other weapons. The shooting is in progress. Unlike other crimes, such as murder, the active aspect in the active shooter, inherently implies that both law enforcement and citizens have the potential to affect the outcome of the event based on their responses (Blair, P., & Schweit, K., 2014).

**Civilians:** a person who is not affiliated with the armed forces (military), firefighter, or a law enforcement organization.

**Conceal Carry:** the practice of carrying a handgun or other weapon in public, in a concealed or hidden manner, either on one's person or in close proximity.

**Mass Shooting:** A mass shooting is defined in two ways. The Congressional Research Service defines mass shootings as “four or more killed, excluding the shooter. While, in 2013, after the Sandy Hook Elementary School shooting, a Congressional law described a mass shooting as three or more killed (The Associated Press, 2017). Due to varying definitions of the term ‘mass shooting’ varying agencies or media sources statistical data regarding these incidents vary considerably.

**May Issue:** A may-issue jurisdiction is one that requires a license to carry a concealed handgun. The granting authority, typically police and sheriff’s departments, of such permits, is partially at the discretion of these local authorities. In ‘May Issue’ states the issuing authorities are not required to provide a substantive reason for the denial of a concealed carry permit. Some may-issue jurisdictions may provide administrative and legal avenues for an applicant to appeal a permit denial, while others do not.

**No issue:** A no-issue jurisdiction is one that – with very limited exceptions – does not allow any private citizen to carry a concealed handgun in public. The term refers to the fact that no concealed carry permits will be issued or recognized. The territory of American Samoa is the only United States jurisdiction that completely prohibits concealed carry, while all other United States and territories have either a ‘may issue’, ‘shall issue’, or an ‘unauthorized’ status.

**Non-Civilians:** a person who is affiliated with the armed forces (military), firefighter, or a law enforcement organization.

**Non-Conceal Carry:** the practice of carrying a handgun or other weapon in public, in an open or in plain view manner, either on one's person or in close proximity.

Shall Issue: a shall-issue jurisdiction is one that requires a license to carry a concealed handgun. The licensing authority of such licenses is subject only to meeting determinate criteria laid out in the law. The granting authority has no discretion in the awarding of the licenses, and there is no requirement of the applicant to demonstrate "good cause".

Unrestricted: an unrestricted concealed carry jurisdiction is one in which a license is not required to carry a concealed firearm. Some would even consider this a constitutional carrying of a firearm. States that fall under the unrestricted category, some of which are fully unrestricted, where no permit is required for lawful open or concealed carry, and partially unrestricted, where certain forms of concealed carry may be legal without a permit, while other forms of carrying may require a permit.



Appendix E

Emergency Procedures Placard

## BSU EMERGENCY PROCEDURES

**CALL 911 FROM THIS PHONE**  
 This phone is for campus alerts in emergency situations and it will ring until answered. A message with real-time instructions will advise you accordingly. **DO NOT LOWER THE RINGER VOLUME OR UNPLUG THE PHONE.** Call the Bridgewater State University Police Department at 508.531.1212 from a cell phone.

LOCATION

### ACTIVE SHOOTER

- **RUN** – evacuate the area, leave your belongings behind, keep your hands visible.
- **HIDE** – in an area out of the active shooter’s view, block entry to your hiding place and lock the doors, if possible.
- **FIGHT** – as a last resort, and only when your life is in imminent danger, attempt to disrupt or incapacitate the shooter.

### FIRE: REMEMBER R.A.C.E.

- **RESCUE** – remove anyone from danger, close door behind you to confine smoke and fire.
- **ALARM** – activate the nearest pull alarm station or notify the BSUPD.
- **CONTAIN** – take immediate action to control the fire with available firefighting equipment – only if properly trained.
- **EVACUATION** – immediately proceed to a safe exit unless told otherwise by emergency personnel.

### GAS LEAK/POWER OUTAGE

- Immediately evacuate the area.
- **DO NOT** turn on or ignite any electronic device or electrical equipment.
- Once safe, call the BSUPD at 911 from a campus phone or at 508.531.1212 from a cell phone.
- In a power outage, call Facilities, Management & Planning at 508.531.1296 and advise them of your location and the nature of your problem.

### MEDICAL EMERGENCY

- Call the BSUPD at 911 on a campus phone or 508.531.1212 by cell phone.
- Provide the location of incident, nature of illness or injury, the number of victims and your name.
- Send someone to the building entrance to guide first responders.
- **DO NOT** attempt to move the victim or render first aid unless trained.

### HAZARDOUS MATERIAL

- All chemical fires and spills, no matter how small, should be reported to the BSUPD.
- If chemicals contact your skin, immediately flush the affected area with water for 15 minutes.
- Remove contaminated clothing.
- **DO NOT** attempt to clean up the spill.
- Evacuate the area, if needed.

### SEVERE WEATHER

- Seek shelter immediately.
- Move to the lowest level of the building.
- Move to interior areas of the building.
- Stay away from windows, skylights and glass.
- Pay attention to BSUPD text alerts.

TITLE  
IX

### SEXUAL ASSAULT/CAMPUS VIOLENCE

- Call the BSUPD at 911 from a campus phone, dial 508.531.1212 from a cell phone or activate an emergency call box.
- If possible, leave the area/get out of harm’s way OR secure in place and lock the door.
- If unable to leave, stay at a safe distance, try to get the attention of a fellow student/co-worker.
- Seek medical attention as needed.

### SUSPICIOUS PACKAGES/BEHAVIOR

- Immediately notify university police from a campus phone, call 911.
- **DO NOT** use cellphones or other electronic devices within 100 feet of the package.
- **DO NOT** handle suspicious or abandoned packages.
- Proceed as instructed by public safety personnel.
- For nonemergency requests, call 508.531.1212.

### WHEN LAW ENFORCEMENT ARRIVES

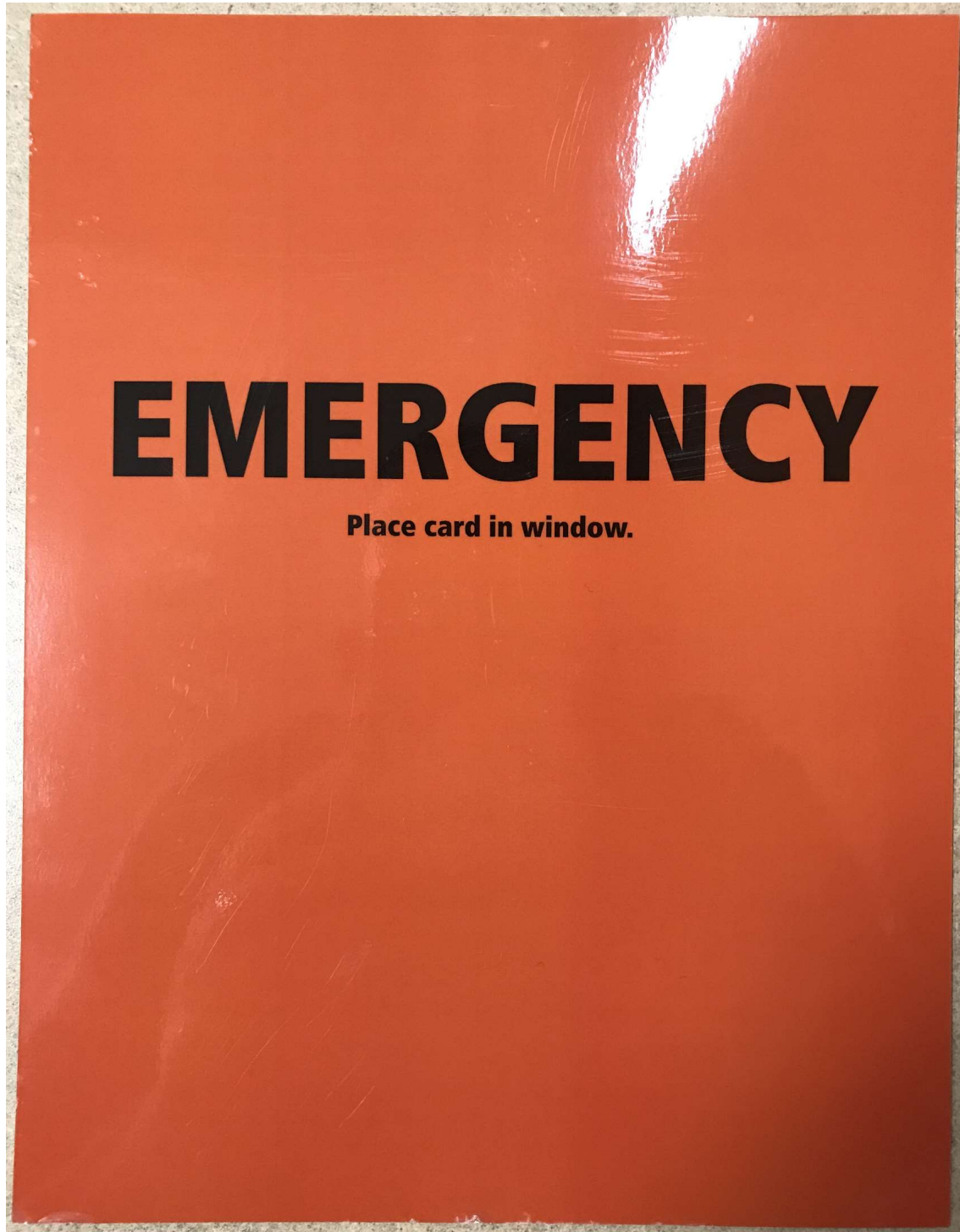
- Remain calm and follow officers’ instructions.
- Keep hands visible at all times.
- Avoid pointing, screaming or yelling.
- Avoid making quick movements towards officers such as attempting to hold onto them for safety.
- **DO NOT** stop to ask officers for directions when evacuating; proceed in the direction from which the officers are entering the premises.

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### TO REPORT PROBLEMS

- IT support – press the “Tech Help” button on the room phone.
- Facilities issues – dial 1296 – for concerns about lighting, heating, cooling or furniture.
- For nonemergency requests, call 508.531.1212.

**OVER**



Appendix F

Chronological History of Major Active Shooting and Violent Attacks on University Campuses

Listing of fatal campus shooting incidents through April 1, 2019 that were not listed above.

|                    |   |              |               |
|--------------------|---|--------------|---------------|
| July 12, 1976      | California State University, Fullerton              | seven killed | two wounded   |
| December 12, 1991  | Kent State University (Ohio)                        | One killed   |               |
| April 23, 1992     | Indiana University                                  | Two killed   |               |
| October 25, 1992   | Howard University (Washington, DC)                  | One killed   |               |
| December 14, 1992  | Simon's Rock College (Massachusetts)                | Two killed   | four wounded  |
| January 18, 1994   | Norfolk State University (Virginia)                 | One killed   | one wounded   |
| February 12, 1995  | Middlesex Community Technical College (Connecticut) | One killed   |               |
| February 16, 1995  | Cuyahoga Community College (Ohio)                   | One killed   |               |
| August 15, 1996    | San Diego State University                          | Three killed |               |
| September 15, 1996 | University of California – Los Angeles              | One killed   |               |
| September 17, 1996 | Pennsylvania State University                       | One killed   | 41 wounded    |
| October 16, 1996   | Purdue University (Indiana)                         | One killed   |               |
| January 12, 1998   | South Texas Community College                       | One killed   | three wounded |
| October 7, 1999    | Southern University (Louisiana)                     | One killed   |               |
| June 28, 2000      | University of Washington                            | One killed   |               |
| August 28, 2000    | University of Arkansas                              | One killed   |               |
| October 8, 2001    | Alcorn State University (Mississippi)               | One killed   |               |
| January 16, 2002   | Appalachian School of Law (Virginia)                | Three killed | three wounded |
| January 18, 2002   | Broward Community College (Florida)                 | One killed   |               |
| January 25, 2002   | Catawba College (North Carolina)                    | One killed   |               |
| March 9, 2002      | Southern University (Louisiana)                     | One killed   |               |
| October 28, 2002   | Failing University of Arizona Nursing College       | Three killed |               |
| May 9, 2003        | Case Western Reserve University (Ohio)              | One killed   | two wounded   |
| October 22, 2003   | Daytona Beach Community College (Florida)           | One killed   |               |
| September 24, 2004 | Butler University (Indianapolis)                    | One killed   |               |
| April 27, 2005     | Holmes Community College (Mississippi)              | One killed   |               |
| October 31, 2005   | Tennessee State Campus                              | One killed   |               |
| September 2, 2006  | Shepherd University (West Virginia)                 | Two killed   |               |
| June 25, 2007      | University of Utah                                  | One killed   |               |
| September 21, 2007 | Delaware State University                           | One killed   | one wounded   |
| September 30, 2007 | University of Memphis                               | One killed   |               |
| April 2, 2007      | University of Washington                            | One killed   |               |
| December 13, 2007  | Louisiana State University                          | Two killed   |               |
| February 8, 2008   | Louisiana Technical College                         | Two killed   |               |

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|                    |  |            |               |
|--------------------|--|------------|---------------|
| October 26, 2008   | University of Central Arkansas           | Two killed | one wounded   |
| February 7, 2009   | University of Houston (Texas)            | One killed |               |
| April 2, 2009      | Radford University (Virginia)            | One killed |               |
| April 10, 2009     | Henry Ford Community College (Michigan)  | One killed |               |
| May 6, 2009        | Wesleyan University (Connecticut)        | One killed |               |
| May 18, 2009       | Harvard University (Massachusetts)       | One killed |               |
| February 12, 2010  | University of Alabama                    | three dead | three wounded |
| March 9, 2010      | Ohio State University                    | one dead   | one wounded   |
| December 8, 2011   | Virginia Tech                            | one dead   |               |
| January 15, 2013   | Hazard Community and Technical College.  | three dead |               |
| January 16, 2013   | Chicago State University                 | one dead   |               |
| June 7, 2013       | Santa Monica College                     | five dead  | four wounded  |
| January 21, 2014   | Purdue University (Indiana)              | one dead   |               |
| January 24, 2014   | South Carolina State University          | one dead   |               |
| January 25, 2014   | Los Angeles Valley College               | one dead   |               |
| May 23, 2014       | University of California, Santa Barbara  | six dead   |               |
| June 5, 2014       | Seattle Pacific University               | one dead   | three wounded |
| April 13, 2015     | Wayne Community College (North Carolina) | one dead   |               |
| August 27, 2015    | Savannah State University (Georgia)      | one dead   |               |
| September 3, 2015  | Sacramento City College                  | one dead   | two wounded   |
| September 14, 2015 | Delta State University (Mississippi)     | one dead   |               |
| October 9, 2015    | Northern Arizona University              | one dead   | three wounded |
| October 9, 2015    | Texas Southern University                | one dead   | one wounded   |
| October 1, 2015    | Umpqua Community College                 | nine dead  | nine wounded  |
| October 22, 2015   | Tennessee State University               | one dead   | three wounded |
| November 1, 2015   | Winston-Salem State University           | one dead   | one wounded   |
| June 1, 2016       | University of California - Los Angeles   | two dead   |               |
| May 4, 2017        | North Lake College (Texas)               | one dead   |               |
| January 20, 2018   | Wake Forest University                   | one dead   |               |
| February 24, 2018  | Savannah State University                | one dead   |               |
| March 2, 2018      | Central Michigan University              | two dead   |               |
| March 14, 2018     | University of Alabama at Birmingham      | one dead   | one wounded   |
| January 24, 2019   | State College, Pennsylvania              | 3 dead     | one wounded   |

NOTE: Off-campus killings of students and on-campus killings by law enforcement officers were excluded; shooter suicides were excluded from death counts (Kaminski et. el., 2010).