

COMMUNITY TYPE IN CONTEXT: EXPECTATIONS OF GUARDIANSHIP AND
VICTIMIZATION EXPERIENCES ON A COLLEGE CAMPUS

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COMMUNITY TYPE IN CONTEXT: EXPECTATIONS OF GUARDIANSHIP AND
VICTIMIZATION EXPERIENCES ON A COLLEGE CAMPUS

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ABSTRACT

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The principles of guardianship can be traced through the communities and crime literature. While guardianship originates from the opportunities' perspective and specifically from Routine Activities, it can be viewed as informal social controls at the community level. This study examines the impact of community type on expectations for guardianship. It also investigates the potential impact of these guardianship expectations on victimization on a college campus.

This study uses original survey data. The sampling method consisted of two stages. In the first stage, courses were randomly selected for inclusion in the sample. In the second stage, the survey was made available to students in the learning management system course page with the consent of the instructor. The students completed a separate consent form. Data was collected in two waves in March/April and June/July of 2020. The final sample was 766 undergraduate students from a midsized southern university. The student response rate was 53% for both waves of data collection. This is a strong response rate for an online survey with data collection occurring during the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Community type does influence expected guardianship with respondents from extremely rural communities having significantly lower expectations of guardianship than respondents from large urban cities. Expected guardianship does not significantly impact the odds of on-campus victimization. Exposure does not mediate this relationship although respondents with higher expected guardianship have significantly reduced

exposure. Finally, neither fear of crime on campus nor just world belief significantly moderated the relationship between expected guardianship and victimization.

KEY WORDS: Guardianship expectations, Community context, Victimization on campus

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CHAPTER I

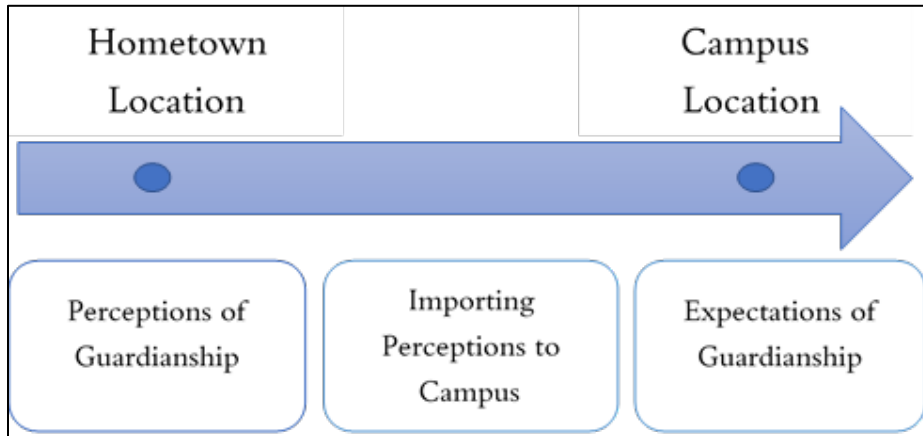
Introduction

Guardianship is a concept that emerges from the Routine Activities and has substantial impact in the opportunity literature (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Cohen et al., 1980). It bridges macro and micro understandings of crime and victimization. At the community level, it is closely tied to community structure, organization, and density of social networks (Reynald et al., 2018). Active guardianship is a result of collective efficacy in a community and is enhanced by social connectivity (Hollis-Peel et al., 2011; Reynald, 2018). In areas that are well guarded at the community level, individuals may have relative feelings of safety in a location as well as reduced risk of victimization as a function of reduced opportunity to commit crime (Kanan & Pruitt, 2002; Wilcox et al., 2007; Wilcox-Rountree & Land, 1996). Individuals who are at risk for victimization may engage in additional self-protective or target hardening strategies to mitigate their vulnerability despite community level protections (Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003).

Guardianship operates at both the micro (event) and macro (community) levels. Through the evolution of community level theories in criminology it is possible to trace the evolution of the concept of guardianship, its function across individuals, events, and collective contexts, and its theoretical applications within the community and opportunity frameworks. This dissertation moves beyond the application of guardianship to examine individual perceptions of community level guardianship and how these perceptions are formed. Further, we examine the applicability of these perceptions of guardianship to new contexts and locations as guardianship expectations. Specifically, we measure

respondents' interpretations of social connectivity and guardianship in their hometown locations and how these perceptions impact exposure and victimization on campus.

Based on the literature, perceptions of collective efficacy and guardianship are based on community location (Sampson & Raudenbush, 1997). Community level social structure including density of social networks, shared goals, and willingness to assist and engage with neighbors form these perceptions (Reynald, 2018; Sampson, 2006; Sampson & Raudenbush, 1997). Little research has been performed on the applicability of these perceptions to new community settings and locations. This dissertation examines the development of guardianship expectations and their impact on behavior. Indirectly, we explore whether community guardianship perceptions formed in hometown communities are imported to college campus communities during the transition to college. We measure guardianship expectations as responses to a series of self-response items regarding social connectivity in hometown neighborhoods. This process assumes that perceptions of guardianship are formed at a young age and in hometown communities. As individuals move outside of their hometown communities, they take these perceptions of hometown guardianship with them. These perceptions of guardianship in the hometown community become expectations of guardianship in the new location. These items include sharing values, helping neighbors, and getting along with neighbors when examining their impact on campus. Figure 1 demonstrates the process.

Figure 1*Expected Guardianship Operationalization*

Alternatively, perceptions of guardianship could be more context reactive or place based than socialized. The expectation of socialized perceptions of guardianship would be that community level guardianship perceptions are formed in hometown community locations and these expectations are enduring and transfer to new community settings. In a context reactive perspective, it would be expected that perceptions of guardianship would vary by location based on unique social indicators of communities. Since a full test of both processes is not possible, the implications for future research will be thoroughly discussed in the discussion chapter.

Levels of guardianship impact individual residents' feelings of safety and fear of crime in their communities. In areas with high levels of perceived guardianship, residents are less fearful of crime and more confident in the guardianship (including willingness to intervene) of other community residents. As such, in locations with high perceived guardianship, residents may take fewer fear-based precautions because they view themselves as relatively safe from victimization. Research suggests that fear of crime (emotional) and perceptions of risk of victimization are separate constructs (Ferraro,

1995; Ferraro & LaGrange, 1987; Kanan & Pruitt, 2002; Wilcox-Rountree & Land, 1996). Fear of crime may be increased by community integration as these areas have established social networks for disseminating information (Rountree-Wilcox & Land, 1996). Neighborhood incivilities and disorder are used to form perceptions of risk of victimization rather than enhancing fear of crime (Wilcox-Rountree & Land, 1996). Wilcox-Rountree and Land (1996) suggest that risk perception may influence fear of crime. These perceptions of safety will also be influenced by individuals' history of victimization (in this location and others), relative low self-control, and other demographic characteristics. Those with low self-control may not perform an adequate or accurate risk assessment of the location. Alternatively, even if the community is perceived as risky and low guardianship, an individual with relatively low self-control may be less inclined than others to take precautions and change or modify behavior patterns. These individuals may be more at risk for victimization.

Research Questions

RQ1A: How do guardianship expectations differ among community types? Based on literature exploring the density of social networks in rural and urban communities (see DeKeseredy, 2014; Donnermeyer, 2015; Weishseit & Donnermeyer, 2000), we expect that guardianship expectations will be higher among students from more rural communities.

RQ1B: How do differing guardianship expectations by community type impact differential vulnerability to victimization on campus? We expect that varying guardianship expectations based on community type will lead to differences in lifestyles

and exposure. Students with higher guardianship expectations may be less exposed to offenders and therefore less likely to be victimized on campus.

RQ2: Does exposure mediate the relationship between expected guardianship and victimization?

RQ3: Do Just World Belief and fear of crime on campus moderate the relationship between expected guardianship and victimization?

Path Forward

Moving forward the dissertation will trace the theoretical evolution of guardianship through the communities and crime literature. Chapter 2 begins with an examination of the forms of social disorganization. It continues through a discussion of routine activities theory and theories that have integrated the social disorganization and opportunity approaches. It will examine social structures that influence guardianship and theory tests by community type. The final section of Chapter 2 describes the state of the literature on perceptions of guardianship in the community as well as self-initiated target hardening strategies and the gaps that this dissertation fills.

Chapter 3 contains the methodology of the current study. Descriptions of the data collection process including survey creation, sampling, recruitment, and data collection are found in this section. Survey response rates and delivery methods are discussed. The key independent and dependent variables and their measurement are detailed including the survey questions used. Finally, Chapter 3 ends with the analytic strategy for the dissertation.

Chapter 4 is the results section. It includes the results of the statistical models used to answer the research questions. Chapter 4 contains both bivariate and multivariate

tables and analysis. Finally, Chapter 5 discusses the results of the analysis and contextualizes them in relation to theory and practical implications. Each research question is individually addressed in this context. Chapter 5 closes with additional directions for future research and data collection in the area of perceptions of guardianship. Finally, limitations of the current research are discussed.

CHAPTER II

Theoretical Framework

Community type shapes social organization. Sociological traditions explore the difference in social organization of urban and rural spaces (*gemeinschaft* and *gesellschafts*) (see Durkheim 1893 and Tönnies, 1887). Communities are viewed as organic and functional in rural areas with community supports and strong social connections. As industrialization resulted in the concentration of individuals in densely populated cities, sociologists and others feared that communities were becoming unraveled and losing social organization (Kornhauser, 1978; Krohn et al., 1984; Wilcox et al., 2018; Wirth, 1938). Essentially, social organization as it functioned in rural spaces was disintegrating. Wirth (1938) and Wilcox and colleagues (2018) argue that while urban locations lose the social organization of rural communities, they form a new type of social organization. This social organization relies on extensive but superficial relationships with a variety of specialized individuals (Wirth, 1938). While rural locations socially organize around communal relationships and good of the entire network, urban locations organize around the economy and individual exploitation of specialization of others' skills for personal economic advancement. The neighborhood became the unit of analysis for social connectivity and social controls.

Criminological theory is based in this urban neighborhood context (Wilcox et al., 2018). Traditional neighborhood theories recognize communities as self-contained in which individuals reside, work, attend school, and enjoy leisure activities (Felson, 1987). Individuals' activities are typically limited to the confines of the neighborhood and strong social ties are present. This neighborhood context was disrupted as individuals gained

access to cars and other methods of vehicular transportation. This expanded the individual's activity space from the neighborhood to the rest of the city and beyond (Felson, 1987). In this expansion, individuals gained access to new ideas, locations, and acquaintances but lost the close social connectivity of the traditional neighborhood. Felson (1987) argues that urban centers function more as a collection of facilities rather than a collection of neighborhoods or communities. Theory may need to be adjusted and the importance of social controls and social ties reexamined in the current era. Additionally, the conceptualization and operationalization of community may need to be adapted to wider social networks. However, it is possible that more isolated rural towns may function in similar ways as neighborhoods before transportation was widely available (Felson, 1987). Extremely rural spaces can be very isolated and spread out leading to more home centered activities and fewer residents (Felson, 1987; Spano & Nagy, 2009).

This chapter recognizes the contextual importance of community type throughout criminological theory. While typically not explicitly discussed, community type implicitly shapes theoretical expectations for relationships between social structures and criminological behavior. Kornhauser (1978) argues that culture creates moral order and constrains behavior. Culture is entrenched in and reflects the social structure of a community. One such structure, guardianship, is a concept long entrenched in the criminological literature and is closely related to social control. It varies based on community type, structure, and social organization. This chapter traces the history and evolution of the concept of guardianship through the communities and crime literature. It starts with classic social disorganization theory, moves through the different models of

social disorganization, describes the evolution of routine activities at a macro and micro level, and examines guardianship and community organization by community type.

Social Disorganization

Roots and General Theory

Classic social disorganization theory posits that neighborhood structures, namely poverty, racial and ethnic heterogeneity, and residential mobility, influence neighborhood level delinquency (Barnett & Mencken, 2002; Kornhauser, 1978; Shaw & McKay, 1942). Each of these components of social disorganization works to attenuate community level controls and weaken the ability of the community to prevent delinquency from occurring. Rather than directly increasing delinquency rates, social disorganization reduces communities' ability to self-regulate behavior and delinquency of youth (Kornhauser, 1978). This can be viewed as a function of community level guardianship. Socially disorganized communities lack the capable guardians that would reduce the incidences of crime events. This is in part due to lack of strong social ties within the community.

In the early industrial times in Chicago, sociologists Clifford Shaw and Henry McKay (1942) discovered that most juvenile delinquency occurred in the inner city just outside the central business district. Through mapping delinquent youths' locations, it became clear that delinquency clustered in certain neighborhoods and not in others. The zone of transition characterized by poverty, a fluctuating population of immigrants, and densely populated spaces was plagued with juvenile delinquency (Kornhauser, 1978). Earlier theories related this to the criminality of specific groups or individuals. Shaw and McKay, however, built on earlier work on concentric zones in the city by Park and Burgess (1925) and Sutherland's (1947) Theory of Differential Association and

determined that as the residents of the zone of transition were able to move farther from the city center and closer to more stable suburban spaces, juvenile delinquency did not follow them. Consequently, there was something intrinsic in the structure of the neighborhoods themselves rather than their individual residents that was criminogenic (Kornhauser, 1978). Shaw and McKay determined that the high rates of poverty, racial and ethnic heterogeneity, and residential mobility in the zone of transition led to its higher rates of juvenile delinquency opening the door for subsequent structure and control based criminological theories.

Social Disorganization: Systemic Model

The systemic model of social disorganization organizes classic social disorganization concepts (poverty, racial and ethnic heterogeneity, and residential mobility) into a framework of neighborhood level social controls (Barnett & Mencken, 2002; Bursik, 1988; Kornhauser, 1978; Sampson & Groves, 1989). These social controls are both formal and informal and function to control behavior of individual residents to prevent crime from occurring. The interactions between the networks of formal and informal social control operate as part of a larger system of social organization and community based social control. In short, social disorganization inhibits a community's ability to regulate crime. In the absence of these controls, crime flourishes.

Formal Social Controls. Formal social controls are institutional. Examples include police, school systems, churches, civic organizations, etc. Formal social controls socialize individuals into normative value systems regarding behavior and cultural norms and have origins in control theories (see Hirschi, 1969). Informal social controls include networks of individuals regulating the behaviors of others. For example, if adolescents

are skipping school and loitering on a street corner, the formal social control model would include reporting them to school authorities or the police/ school resource officer. An informal social control model would be the concerned resident directly addressing the adolescents and their behavior or notifying their parents and guardians of their behavior. For informal social control to function properly, neighborhoods need dense social networks among community residents and a mutual unspoken agreement to intervene in others' behavior for the good of the community/ to enforce social and cultural norms.

Formal and informal social controls are the mediating mechanisms between social disorganization and delinquency (Kaylen & Pridemore, 2013; Lowenkamp et al., 2003). Socially disorganized communities can be identified by high levels of poverty, racial and ethnic heterogeneity, and residential mobility. Both formal and informal social controls attenuate. Formal or institutional social controls are weakened through a lack of community resources and funding (Bursik, 1988; Kaylen & Pridemore, 2013; Sampson & Groves, 1989). If the area is poor, it does not have the resources needed to keep formal social institutions functioning at a high level.

Informal Social Controls. In the absence of formal social controls, informal social controls are hugely significant in regulating behavior. However, each of the indicators of social disorganization also weakens informal social controls and makes it more difficult for dense social networks to form (Sampson & Groves, 1989; Lowenkamp et al., 2003). Specifically, high levels of residential mobility mean that neighborhood residents are in flux. It is difficult to form meaningful and lasting relationships with community members if residents are constantly changing (Barnett & Mencken, 2002; Kornhauser, 1978). Residents that are new to the area may have different views about

intervening and regulating the behavior of other neighborhood residents (Barnett & Mencken, 2002; Kaylen & Pridemore, 2013). Additionally, neighborhoods with high turnover tend to house residents who are less invested in their communities as they view them as temporary. Instead, residents withdraw to the isolation of their homes and work to remove themselves from the neighborhood rather than improving the neighborhood (Kornhauser, 1978; Wilson & Kelling, 1982).

High levels of racial and ethnic heterogeneity may also form a barrier to neighborhood level dense social networks. Specifically, there may be cultural or language barriers that discourage residents from communicating with each other (Kornhauser, 1978; Sampson & Groves, 1989). Shared culture imparts shared cultural norms for behavior and shared values. In a very diverse neighborhood, these shared norms and values cannot be assumed (Kaylen & Pridemore, 2013; Osgood & Chambers, 2000). Residents may be less likely to regulate behavior of other residents and adolescents when shared norms and values are in question.

Formal social controls can also be viewed as public social controls or the ability of the community to secure outside resources through ties with local governments, police, or outside communities (Velez, 2001). These additional resources should reduce crime and victimization within the community as it can augment the formal and informal social controls present in the community (Velez, 2001). Velez (2001) conceptualizes community social control as the composite of public social control (formal social control) and local social ties (informal social control) in a multilevel test of social disorganization on personal and household level victimization. Public social control significantly reduces personal victimization when controlling for neighborhood conditions, local social ties,

routine activities, and demographics (Velez, 2001). In general, social ties were a stronger protective factor for personal than household victimization (Velez, 2001). Additionally, the effect of social ties on household victimization was mediated completely by public social control (Velez, 2001). The effect of public social control is moderated by socioeconomic status (Velez, 2001). It reduces victimization more as poverty increases. Routine activities variables were also strongly significant indicating the importance of risk and opportunity even within a social structure framework.

Bursik (1999) directly tested the impact of local and beyond neighborhood friendship networks on neighborhood level sanctioning behaviors using a sample of Oklahoma City residents. Neighborhood private networks measured friends within the resident's neighborhood while parochial networks measured neighborhood participation (Bursik, 1999). Bursik (1999) also measured general friendship networks which included some overlap with private networks and general family networks. The outcome variable of interest was perceived loss of respect. It addressed the question of whether the respondent would lose the respect of their relational networks if they were arrested for assault (measured dichotomously) (Bursik, 1999). The findings generally supported the systemic model with the relationship between the ecological social disorganization variables (homogeneity, stability, and income) and loss of respect being completely mediated by private and parochial relational networks (Bursik, 1999). The regulating compacity of the relational networks demonstrate the power and control of the socially organized neighborhood as well as the mechanism of its control. In the socially organized neighborhood, potential behavior (conceptualized here as arrest for assault) is curtailed through the perceived risk of losing the respect of friends and other neighborhood

connections. These relationship expectations enforce norms about arrest for assault being “bad,” “undesirable,” and “not respectable” and inhibit assaultive behaviors in this sample.

Snell’s (2001) partial test of the systemic social disorganization model used Baltimore, MD neighborhood level data from 1981 and 1982. The findings were partially supportive for the crime rate models. Specifically, there were substantial and significant direct effects of residential mobility and socioeconomic status on crime rates (Snell, 2001). Race (percent black) had a substantial and significant indirect impact on crime rates (Snell, 2001).

Function of Community Level Guardianship. While the guardianship language is not used in the existing social disorganization literature, informal social controls can be thought of as community or neighborhood level guardianship in depressing crime rates (Spano & Nagy, 2005). Certainly, social ties and social networks increase the likelihood of residents acting as active guardians within their communities (Hollis et al., 2011; Reynald, 2018; Reynald et al., 2018) Warner (2007) examined how community characteristics impact resident response to a disagreement with a neighbor (employing formal or informal social controls). In addition to traditional social disorganization variables (disadvantage and residential mobility), social ties, social cohesion and trust, faith in police, and age of respondent are included in the HLM model (Warner, 2007). Neighborhood levels of mobility significantly increased the likelihood of using indirect social control (i.e. invoking formal social control and calling the police) (Warner, 2007). High levels of social ties increase the likelihood of intervening directly (i.e. using informal social control such as directly confronting the neighbor (Warner, 2007).

Neighborhood disadvantage has a nonlinear relationship with social controls. Residents in neighborhoods of both high and low disadvantage are less likely than others to engage in informal social control and are more likely to invoke formal social controls.

Social Connectivity and Density of Social Networks. Scientifically, density of social networks or friendships are hard to conceptualize and operationalize. Existing and official data sources do not include any measures of friendship or social networks (the British Crime Survey is a notable exception) (Bursik, 1988). This makes tests of the full social disorganization framework difficult. A United States based test would require extensive data collection with in-depth surveys and interviews needed. This is enough to dissuade many researchers from testing the full model with mediators.

Sampson and colleagues have extensively used the British Crime Survey (BCS) data to test the full social disorganization framework. In a seminal test of social disorganization, Sampson and Groves (1989) used the 1982 BCS data to test the impact social disorganization variables on sources of informal social controls. Lowenkamp and colleagues (2003) replicated this study with the 1994 BCS data. In another model, they regress both groups of variables on mugging/ street robbery, stranger violence, and total victimization (Sampson & Groves, 1989). They found that residential stability increased the likelihood of local friendship networks (average number of friends within a 15-minute walk) (Lowenkamp et al., 2003; Sampson & Groves, 1989). This makes intuitive sense. When neighbors live in the same area for extended periods of time, they are more likely to get to know each other and form friendships through small daily interactions. Additionally, residents in central city locations reported having fewer friends that lived

nearby when compared to residents outside of the central city (Lowenkamp et al., 2003; Sampson & Groves, 1989).

Unsupervised peer groups were significantly predicted by poverty, ethnic heterogeneity, family disruption, and urbanization (Lowenkamp et al., 2003; Sampson & Groves, 1989). The coefficient for residential stability approached statistical significance in the 1982 data (Sampson & Groves, 1989). These findings also make sense. In areas of poverty, there will be fewer programs (and less resources to attend programs) to keep children and adolescents occupied and supervised outside of school hours. Adults may be more likely to be working outside of the home to achieve the resources for basic survival and less available to offer parental supervision. Family disruption captures the nature of single and dual parent households. In neighborhoods characterized by family disruption, single parents are less able to provide supervision for their children when compared to dual parent homes. This is compounded by poverty with these families being less able to put their children in programs or childcare outside of school hours.

In the full model measuring the outcomes of indicators and mechanisms of social disorganization on crime, Sampson and Groves (1989) found that family disruption, urbanization, local friendship networks, unsupervised peer groups, and organizational participation significantly explained 42% of the variance in total victimization. Overall, the findings of both studies support the systemic model of social disorganization and demonstrate construct validity for the dimensions of social disorganization (poverty, racial and ethnic heterogeneity, and residential stability) (Lowenkamp et al., 2003; Sampson & Groves, 1989).

An additional measure explored in the social networks' literature is frequency of interaction between neighbors. Bellair (1997) hypothesized that frequency of interaction between neighbors would impact the rates of burglary, motor vehicle theft, and robbery. Social interaction was also measured as an outcome variable capturing the percentage for residents that got together at least once a year in a 60-neighborhood sample (Bellair, 1997). Warner & Wilcox-Rountree (1997) expand on this measurement of social networks using newer data of 100 census tracts in Seattle, Washington. Local social ties are measured as a composite of borrowing tools or food from neighbors, sharing meals with neighbors, and helping neighbors with problems (Warner & Rountree-Wilcox, 1997). Socioeconomic status and heterogeneity were strong and significant predictors of levels of social interaction in the expected direction according to social disorganization theory (Bellair, 1997; Warner & Rountree-Wilcox, 1997).

In each of the crime rate models, social interaction mediated the relationship between socioeconomic status, heterogeneity, and residential stability and robbery, burglary, and motor vehicle theft (Bellair, 1997). Fewer social ties mediate some of the effects of residential stability on assault rates in census tracts with higher socioeconomic status (Warner & Wilcox-Rountree, 1997). Interestingly, higher levels of social ties seemed to increase burglary rates (Warner & Wilcox-Rountree, 1997). This may be capturing the fact that the social ties measure does not differentiate between prosocial and antisocial social ties. Once again, the systemic social disorganization framework is supported with social interaction being the mechanism of the relationship between the dimensions of social disorganization and neighborhood crime rates. This is the seminal study in examining the mediating effects of social interaction. Warner and Rountree-

Wilcox's (1997) largest contribution is that neighborhood context matters to the mediation of social ties in the social disorganization and crime relationship.

Heterogeneity and neighborhood socioeconomic status can reduce social ties and render them ineffective in reducing assault or burglary (Warner & Wilcox-Rountree, 1997).

Social Disorganization: Collective Efficacy

While social disorganization is a robust predictor of neighborhood crime, not all socially disorganized communities have high crime rates. Collective efficacy helps to explain this gap. It is the mechanism that allows informal social networks to become effective social controls to reduce or prevent crime and criminal opportunities (Sampson et al., 1997). Social efficacy is the ability of the community to come together as a group to address a common problem including crime. It relies on social cohesion and trust among residents and informal social controls (Sampson et al., 1997). In the seminal study of collective efficacy, Sampson and colleagues (1997) found that collective efficacy reduced neighborhood violence and personal victimization net of other predictors. Collective efficacy also partially mediated the relationship between concentrated disadvantage and homicide (Sampson et al., 1997).

At the neighborhood level, residential stability significantly increased collective efficacy while concentrated disadvantage and immigrant concentration significantly reduced collective efficacy (Sampson et al., 1997). On the personal level, higher socioeconomic status, homeownership, and age were all positively correlated with increases in collective efficacy (Sampson et al., 1997). Overall, key components of the social disorganization framework (immigrant concentration, concentrated disadvantage,

and residential stability) explain 70% of the variation in collective efficacy across neighborhoods (Sampson et al., 1997).

Interestingly, collective efficacy has spatial implications. In a study of 343 neighborhood clusters in Chicago, Morenoff et al. (2001) found that neighbors that border areas with high collective efficacy have lower mean homicide rates than neighborhoods that do not border high collective efficacy spaces regardless of the collective efficacy level in the neighborhood of focus. Collective efficacy was a robust predictor of homicide rates even in models where social ties were not significant (Morenoff et al., 2001). This is indicative that social ties and institutional processes operate indirectly through collective efficacy (Sampson et al., 2001). Specifically, while social ties create the capacity for collective efficacy, they do not determine it (Morenoff et al., 2001; Sampson, 2006). Collective efficacy reduces crime, not just the presence of social ties. This is especially noteworthy as social ties can be both prosocial and anti-social (Sampson, 2006). Anti-social social ties may be criminogenic (Sampson, 2006).

Social Disorganization and Community Type

While social disorganization has been tested extensively in urban spaces, other community contexts especially rural spaces have been largely ignored (Osgood & Chambers, 2000; Weisheit & Wells; 1996; Wells & Weisheit, 2012). This is due in part to data availability and the added difficulty of differentiating “neighborhoods” in rural contexts (Lee & Thomas, 2010). Structures of formal and informal social controls may also be shaped and operate differently in different community contexts. The largest differences can be expected to be between communities in central city locations and small rural communities. The structure and social organization of guardianship and

central social disorganization components will function differently based on community context.

In a singular study on the applicability of social disorganization theory in suburban areas, Roh and Choo (2008) use calls for service data from 54 suburban block groups in Texas. They found that poverty, racial and ethnic heterogeneity, and residential mobility all significantly impacted calls for service (Roh & Choo, 2008). While the direction of the poverty and heterogeneity variables was expected, increases in residential mobility decreased calls for service. This may reflect an unwillingness for bystanders or victims to call the police in a location in which they do not have many social ties. Density of local social networks is closely related to residential mobility and willingness to intervene to prevent or report crime (Hollis et al., 2013; Warner, 2007; Reynald, 2018; Reynald et al., 2018).

Specifically in a rural context, Osgood and Chambers (2000) separate informal social controls into three categories: private, parochial, and public. Private social controls are intimate interpersonal relationships that use criticism, ostracism, and ridicule to enforce social norms and regulate behavior (Donnermeyer, 2015; Osgood & Chambers, 2000). Parochial social controls include the broader local community and include informal surveillance supervision, and shared child socialization (Donnermeyer, 2015; Osgood & Chambers, 2000). Finally, public social controls are the ability of the community to forge relationships between the community and others outside of it to acquire resources (Donnermeyer, 2015; Osgood & Chambers, 2000).

Theory Testing in Rural Spaces. Osgood and Chambers (2000) is the seminal work on testing social disorganization in rural spaces. In a sample of 264 rural

(nonmetropolitan) counties, they found that residential instability was associated with increases in arrest for rape, aggravated assault, simple assault, weapons use, and an index of violent crimes (Osgood & Chambers, 2000). Ethnic heterogeneity was related to arrests for all violent offenses except for homicide and simple assaults while poverty, unemployment, and proximity to the central city were not significant predictors of arrests for violence (Osgood & Chambers, 2000).

Additional tests (e.g. Bouffard & Muftic, 2006; Kaylen & Pridemore, 2013; Moore & Sween, 2015) since Osgood & Chambers (2000) support the extension of social disorganization to rural contexts. Kaylen and Pridemore (2011) did not find support for social disorganization in a rural context. Each notes the importance of testing additional structural variables in rural spaces to account for some of the differences between urban and rural contexts (e.g. rural communities are typically more homogenous and have greater residential stability additionally, poverty increases residential stability in rural spaces) (Bouffard & Muftic, 2006; Donnermeyer, 2015; Moore & Sween, 2015). In a sample of 221 nonmetropolitan counties, Bouffard and Muftic (2006) found that residential instability and family disruption significantly impacted both types of assault measured and robbery.

Kaylen and Pridemore (2011) replicated Osgood and Chambers' (2000) study using a sample of 106 rural counties and hospital data recording assaults. This is an innovative approach for addressing underreporting of violence to police in rural communities. Other scholars (Kaylen & Pridemore, 2013; Weisheit & Wells, 1996) suggest that the dark figure of crime in official crime data may be larger for rural counties due to differences in reporting behavior and accuracy of recording and reporting crime

date to federal agencies for data collection. While hospital data will not capture all assaults, it will capture serious assaults that required medical attention even if they were not reported to local police. Kaylen and Pridemore (2011) found that for 15-24 year-olds, poverty decreases serious assault victimization. Only family disruption was significantly associated with increases in serious assault victimization (Kaylen & Pridemore, 2011). While these results differ from Osgood and Chambers (2001), it is a likely a feature of different and more limited measurements of violence. It may also be attributed to differences in a Missouri sample rather than one drawn from multiple states.

Adaptations for Community Contexts. While theoretical relationships and predictors are well established in urban areas, some adaptation is needed for other community contexts where social structures differ. Scholars in the existing rural social disorganization literature often call for inclusion of additional structural variables in model tests (Kaylen & Pridemore, 2011; Osgood & Chambers, 2000). This gap has been addressed by two different trajectories of rural social disorganization literature. First, Lee (2008) and Lee and Thomas (2010) introduce the idea of civic communities with an emphasis on the social structure and social controls of a locally oriented business culture. Chilenski and colleagues (2015), Deller and Deller (2012), and Kaylen and Pridemore (2013) take a different approach and examine the significance of social ties and collective efficacy in rural contexts.

Civic Communities. The civic communities' framework emphasizes a strong local business orientation and community involvement (Donnermeyer, 2015; Lee & Thomas, 2010). It depicts a vibrant community with locally oriented organizations and institutions that provide mechanism for informal social control. Institutions such as churches and

civic organizations provide meeting places for residents to foster community ties, enforce social norms, and create strong social networks (Lee & Thomas, 2010). They also provide a stabilizing force in the community to prevent outmigration and help suppress crime (Lee & Thomas, 2010). Additionally, the civic communities' framework specifies the unit of analysis as the "community" (Lee & Thomas, 2010). This is very nebulous and flexible to easily adapt across many contexts and types of communities. This makes civic communities easier to adapt and test in rural spaces than social disorganization and its neighborhood unit of analysis.

In the original test of the civic communities' framework, Lee (2008) finds the civic community variables (local capitalism/ independent middle class, residential stability/ local investment, and civic engagement) to significantly decrease the violent crime count in a sample of 1,038 rural counties. These findings are robust across models that predict murder (except for residential stability/ local investment), robbery, and aggravated assault (Lee, 2008). All findings are significant net of controlling for resource disadvantage (Lee, 2008). Lee and Thomas' (2010) study further supports the civic communities' framework finding that civically robust communities experience more stable low violent crime rates. This effect is somewhat attenuated by sustained periods of population change (Lee & Thomas, 2010).

Social Networks in Rural Spaces. Social networks in rural communities will function a bit differently than in urban contexts due to differences in community structure (Barnett & Mencken, 2002; Donnermeyer, 2015; Weisheit & Wells, 1996). In a sample of 226 residents in 27 small town and rural school districts, Chilenski and colleagues (2015) found that economic risk and residential mobility were the strongest structural

predictors of crime. Collective efficacy and social trust did not mediate this relationship (Chilenski et al., 2015). Additionally, the structural variables were not significantly related to social trust or perceived safety (Chilenski et al., 2015). Perceived safety was, however, the strongest predictor of social trust (Chilenski et al., 2015). Rural communities are perceived by many as idyllic locations with tight knit communities and low crime (Donnermeyer, 2015). This finding may unpack this rural archetype in a feedback loop. When rural locations are perceived by residents to be safe, residents are more likely to trust each other and form social networks. Other research demonstrates that dense social networks may reduce crime in rural areas through informal social controls further enforcing the residents' perceptions of safety. Interestingly, Chilenski et al., (2015) found that perception of safety partially mediated the relationship between collective efficacy and crime and also independently increases collective efficacy and social trust.

While not using collective efficacy language, Deller and Deller (2012) bridge the gap between collective efficacy/ social networks and civically engaged communities with the concept of social capital. They reaffirm that social networks are a necessary but not sufficient condition to reducing crime (Deller & Deller, 2012; Sampson, 2006). In addition, residents must be actively involved in their communities in prosocial ways. Deller and Deller (2012) measure the impact of the social capital index (combining civic, recreational/ sports, religious, political, labor, business, and professional organizations, percent of voters, response to the U.S. Census, and number of tax-exempt organizations) on rural burglary rates. They found that communities with higher levels of social capital had lower rates of burglary (Deller & Deller, 2012). Additionally, high rates of

disadvantage did not significantly predict rates of burglary (Deller & Deller, 2012).

Instead, increasing rates of disadvantage were significantly related to increasing burglary rates (Deller & Deller, 2012). Stability in disadvantage is not as problematic as increasing disadvantage for burglary rates.

Kaylen and Pridemore (2013) further disentangle the causal mechanisms of local friendship networks, problematic teen groups, and organizational participation using them as both measured outcomes and predictors of crime in separate regression models. This study uses traditional social disorganization data, the British Crime Survey, as it contains vast amounts of information on local friendship networks, adolescent group behavior, and community functioning (Kaylen & Pridemore, 2013). The sample is restricted to 318 rural postcode sectors.

Local friendship networks were most common in areas with high socioeconomic status, high residential stability, and low ethnic heterogeneity (Kaylen & Pridemore, 2013). In the crime models, local friendship networks negatively impacted property crime and total crime significantly (Kaylen & Pridemore, 2013). Problematic teenage groups were more common in areas with low socioeconomic status and significantly impacted property crime, violent crime, and total crime rates (Kaylen & Pridemore, 2013). Finally, organizational participation was most likely in areas with low ethnic heterogeneity, and high residential stability (Kaylen and Pridemore, 2013). Increasing organizational participation did not have a significant impact on the crime outcomes measured. Overall, the models support social disorganization and the importance of local friendship networks and controlling problematic teenage groups for reducing crime in rural areas.

Rural communities are functionally different in structure, density, and mechanics of social networks (DeKeseredy, 2014; Donnermeyer, 2015; Osgood & Chambers, 2000; Weisheit & Wells, 1996). In areas with smaller populations, residents lack social privacy and are involved and knowledgeable about the lives of other community members (DeKeseredy, 2014; Donnermeyer, 2015; Weisheit & Wells, 1996). These deep social ties and integrated social networks provide community members ways to address crime and community problems internally. Many scholars (Donnermeyer, 2015; Kaylen & Pridemore 2013; Weisheit & Wells, 1996) note that rural residents are distrustful of outsiders. This distrust may extend to government groups or police agencies (Kaylen & Pridemore, 2013; Weisheit & Wells, 1996) and lead to underreporting of crime in official data. The distrust of government agencies and officials lead to less use of formal social controls in rural areas and an increase in residents addressing issues internally (Weisheit & Donnermeyer, 2000). In the case of intimate partner violence, rural communities often lack social supports and institutional resources for assisting victims (DeKeseredy, 2014; Weisheit & Donnermeyer, 2000). This lack of resources and the often present “ol’ boys’ network” (Websedale, 1998 as cited in DeKeseredy, 2014, p. 181) may make victims reluctant to report abuse and may be protective for male abusers. In this sense, the dense social networks commonly found in rural contexts may be criminogenic as well as protective depending on the circumstances.

Routine Activities

Macro Framework

Routine activity theory marks the return to a macro level of theory and a focus on opportunity rather than motivation. The theory was originally created to explain the

increase in burglary during good economic times (Cohen & Felson, 1979). Strain theories such as Merton's general strain that adapted Durkheim's concepts of macro level strain to an American context and argued that increased strain and increased gap between goals and means increased the potential for crime. This was interpreted in expectations that as the economy improved with social programming crime would decrease due to less macro level strain and the reduction in the gap between the goals and means (see Merton, 1938). The increase in burglary during the 1960s was beyond the explanation of these previous macro level theories as burglary rates were increasing during good economic times. Cohen and Felson (1979) created the household activity ratio to capture the proportion of households empty during the day (dual earner households). This change in guardianship explained the change in burglary rate over the time period studied (Cohen & Felson, 1979).

Routine activity theory states that in order for a crime event to occur, three key components must exist at the same time and place, namely, a motivated offender, a suitable target, and the lack of a capable guardian (Cohen & Felson, 1979). On the macro level, the converge of these three factors in aggregate can also impact crime rates.

Guardianship from Macro to Micro. Guardianship is the effectiveness of individuals or objects in deterring a crime event through their presence or intervention in direct or indirect ways (Cohen et al., 1981; Osgood et al., 1996). Guardianship can function on both an individual and aggregate level. On a micro level, an individual person such as a bystander could prevent a crime event by being an unwanted witness (Cohen et al., 1981). On the macro level, an increase in individuals that are staying at home could reduce burglary rates (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Cohen et al., 1981).

Community level guardianship can also function as collective efficacy in a more aggregate context (Spano & Nagy, 2005).

While guardianship is aided by social ties, social ties in and of themselves are more limited than guardianship. Specifically, guardianship does not require the intent to protect a target and dissuade a potential offender (Hollis et al., 2013; Reynald, 2018; Reynald et al., 2018). Additionally, guardianship requires that an individual is present at the same time and space as an offender and potential target to block the criminal opportunity. Social control could involve the symbolic presence of another individual (not present) as blocking criminal opportunity (Hollis et al., 2013).

Real vulnerability to criminal victimization is a stronger predictor of self-guardianship and target hardening strategies than fear of crime (Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003). In a college sample, Tewksbury and Mustaine (2003) found that college students involved in risky lifestyle behaviors such as drug use and traveling on foot to attend evening leisure activities were more likely to possess and carry knives, guns, mace, and devices for self-protection. Fear of crime was not a significant predictor of self-protective behaviors (Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003).

Routine Activities in Community Context

While opportunity theory is commonly integrated in modern theory tests, it only infrequently makes an appearance in theory tests in varying community contexts. Based on varying social structures, it would follow that opportunity may present itself differently based on community context. For example, in rural communities, dense social networks create networks for potential guardianship (Spano & Nagy, 2005). Neighbors are also watchful and distrustful of outsiders making them more likely to intervene

(Spano & Nagy, 2005; Warner, 2007). Cohen and colleagues (1980) note that others act as effective guardians for those in their primary social groups. Those that share personal social relationships are more likely to be in norm enforcement roles and act to preserve these social ties (Cohen et al., 1980; Warner, 2007; Wilcox et al., 2003). Coupled with the distrust of police and low levels of social privacy, this makes rural residents more likely to function as active guardians for their neighbors and their neighbors' property.

Although social privacy is low in rural spaces as demonstrated in the extensive social networks, physical privacy is high (Weisheit & Wells, 1996). High physical privacy and isolation may act as an inhibitor to effective guardianship. Crime prevention by environmental design (CPTED) explains that certain physical location features such as lighting and privacy can influence an offender's perception of the suitability of the target (Reynald, 2018; Reynald et al., 2018). For example, buildings with high hedges surrounding the property and a door that is not easily viewed by the street are harder easier targets. It is more difficult for neighbors to surveil the property and provide effective guardianship. Similarly, Spano and Nagy (2005) tested the protective or vulnerability effect of isolation on the victimization of rural adolescents. They found that social isolation is a risk factor that increases the likelihood of the violent and robbery victimization of rural adolescents (Spano & Nagy, 2005). This effect on violent victimization is eliminated when teasing of the adolescent is included in the model (Spano & Nagy, 2005). Respondent criminal behavior is also strongly predictive of the likelihood of violent victimization (Spano & Nagy, 2005). It seems that social isolation effectively reduces social guardianship thereby making the potential victim a more suitable target.

Crime Trend to Crime Event: Eck's Crime Triangle

More recent literature has moved RAT from the macro to the micro level. Rather than providing insight on crime trends, modern RAT expands on opportunity and the crime event. Beyond the convergence of suitable targets, motivated offenders, and lack of capable guardians, crime events also require the absence of second level controllers (place managers, guardians, and handlers). Place managers defend spaces, guardians protect suitable targets and handlers control potential offenders (Hollis et al., 2013; Reynald, 2018; Reynald et al., 2018). In space, the distribution of criminal opportunity is not evenly and randomly distributed (e.g. Sherman et al., 1989). Specifically, about half of calls for service in a Minneapolis sample came from only 3% of locations (Sherman et al., 1989).

On a micro level, specific types of buildings (including bars, hotels, and parking lots) and locational characteristics impact crime (Rice & Smith, 2002; Roncek & Bell, 1981). For example, Rice and Smith (2002) found that increased presence of hotels dramatically increased auto theft. Roncek and Bell (1981) and Roncek and Maier (1991) found that the number of bars on each city block was positively and significantly related to the number of index crimes and violent crimes that occurred on the block. Much of the current routine activities' literature is moving to ever smaller units of analysis including street segments. This reflects the uneven distribution of crime with the high crime micro places being the places of interest.

Integrating Theory: Guardianship as Social Control

While routine activities theory spans the micro and the macro level of crime, integrative theoretical approaches have combined social disorganization and routine

activities theories for a more complete understanding of crime and increased explained variation (see Miethe & McDowall, 1993; Miethe & Meier, 1994; Rice & Smith, 2002; Sampson & Wooldredge, 1987; Smith & Jarjoura, 1989; Wilcox-Rountree, Land, & Miethe, 1994). Relationships between both guardianship and target attractiveness and burglary are contextualized by neighborhood wealth and social integration. Miethe and McDowall (1993) found that these factors reduced crime most in affluent neighborhoods and had a minimal impact in socially disorganized areas. As expected, areas with high economic decay, high levels of public activity, and low levels of informal social control had higher risks for violent and property crime victimization (Miethe & McDowall, 1993). Wilcox-Rountree and colleagues also found similar results using the same Seattle, WA sample as Miethe and McDowall (1993) and hierarchical logistic modeling. Additionally, individual level guardianship reduces victimization more in areas with higher levels of neighborhood level guardianship including informal social controls (Wilcox et al., 2007).

Similarly, Sampson and Wooldredge (1987) found that living in a neighborhood with a high proportion of household owning VCRs (Videocassette Recorder) significantly increased risk of burglary victimization although personal ownership of a VCR was insignificant. Additionally, the burglary risk for living alone is partially mediated by living in an area with a high proportion of individuals who live alone, a finding different from Smith and Jarjoura (1989) who found that the percent of single person households did not predict burglary victimization (Sampson & Wooldredge, 1987). The trends were similar for theft victimization with both street activity and nights spent out per week being significant (Sampson & Wooldredge, 1987).

In a test integrating routine activities and social disorganization variables in predictive models of automotive theft, Rice and Smith (2002) found that the most powerful predictor of auto theft among the routine activities variables was the presence of hotels. Each additional hotel increased the risk of auto theft by 32% (Rice & Smith, 2002). As in other studies, a number of interactions between the routine activities and social disorganization variables were also significant indicating the important contextualizing nature of the community (Rice & Smith, 2002). Overall, community context matters beyond traditional routine activities variables.

Expectations of Guardianship

Aggregated guardianship of a community can be conceptualized in multiple ways including availability of residents to be at home during traditional work hours, willingness of residents to be engaged in community safety and provide surveillance, and willingness of residents to actively intervene to prevent crimes from occurring (Hollis-Peel et al., 2011; Reynald, 2018; Wickes et al., 2017). Some argue that the presence of other individuals alone is enough to entail guardianship (Hollis et al., 2013; Hollis-Peel et al., 2011; Reynald, 2018; Reynald et al., 2018). This stems from the perspective that a motivated offender may be dissuaded from committing a crime if another individual is present, regardless of the individual's proclivity to intervene formally or informally. As such, guardianship does not require the intent to prevent crime to be effective. However, guardians may be more likely to intervene and employ active guardianship depending on social context and social ties (Hollis et al., 2013; Hollis-Peel et al., 2011; Reynald, 2018; Reynald et al., 2018; Wilcox et al., 2003).

Those that consider other facets of aggregated active guardianship (Wickes et al., 2017; Wilcox et al., 2007) such as willingness of community to intervene, watch property, or aggregated availability of neighbors/ empty houses, note the interaction of individual level and neighborhood level guardianship measures. Specifically, individual level guardianship is more effective in reducing burglary victimization in neighborhoods that have increased levels of guardianship (Wilcox et al., 2007). Interestingly, Wickes and colleagues (2017) did not find expected levels of guardianship or actual guardianship actions to be directly related to property crime rates although more traditional measures of individual level guardianship were significant. These models did include social disorganization models including language diversity, residential instability, and poverty. It is possible that guardianship expectations (the perceived willingness of others to intervene in local crime problems) and guardianship actions (actual actions taken in response to neighborhood problems) tapped into collective efficacy and the social control of the neighborhood rather than being a clear measure of guardianship (Wickes et al., 2017). Both guardianship expectations and actions interacted with the measure of language diversity to reduce property crime rates (Wickes et al., 2017). Reynald and colleagues (2018) note in their examination of evolving perspectives on guardianship that expectations for guardianship at the community level are part of collective efficacy expectations. Fisher, Sloan, Cullen, and Lu (1998) consider additional manifestations of guardianship on a college campus. Specifically, they operationalize guardianship as social or institutional. Social guardianship includes items living alone on campus, asking others to guard unattended personal belongings, and attending a nonmandatory crime prevention program (Fisher et al., 1998). Institutional guardianship reflects measures

taken by the university to ensure student safety including the number of full-time security personnel per 1,000 students and crime prevention educational opportunities (Fisher et al., 1998). The social guardianship measures significantly reduced theft victimization (with the exception of living alone) while the institutional guardianship measures were nonsignificant (Fisher et al., 1998).

A true multi-contextual model introduced by Wilcox and colleagues (2003) suggests consideration of individual level opportunity as nested within contextualized within a macro level community opportunity. While individual level guardianship is largely the same as earlier conceptualizations, aggregate level guardianship is conceptualized as being related to community dynamics and social ties (Wilcox et al., 2003). Wilcox and colleagues (2003 & 2007) demonstrate that aggregate level opportunity moderates the impact of individual level opportunity on criminal acts. Specifically, individual level guardianship suppresses crime more in areas with high neighborhood level guardianship (Wilcox et al., 2007).

Socialization of Expectations by Community Type

The importance of community type in socializing individuals cannot be overemphasized. Urbanization and the movement of people to cities heralded the concerns of early sociologists most notably Durkheim and Tönnies about the breakdown of community ties in urban spaces (Kornhauser, 1978; Krohn et al., 1984). The fears of social disorder and community breakdown in the city led to the predominant study of urban crime (Krohn et al., 1984). Alternatively, research contrasted crime and social structures in rural and urban places while ignoring the range of community types between them. Community context forms one's perceptions and expectations of community

structure, social organization, and rules and mores for guardianship and community participation in other locations. Cultural expectations of behavior and social norms can constrain criminal behavior even if the individual is not physically present (Wilcox et al., 2003). Actual vulnerability to victimization also guides self-protective measures (Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003). In terms of victimization, risk assessment is driven in part by an individual's attitudes, norms, and values as well as their perceptions of others' beliefs (Rimal & Real, 2003).

Current Study

Guardianship is broader than social controls and can exist without social ties although social ties increase the likelihood of active guardianship (Hollis et al., 2013; Reynald, 2018; Reynald et al., 2018). We measure collective efficacy and fear of crime in the home residential location to determine the impact these indicators have on fear of crime on campus and victimization. Additional lifestyle, demographic, and fear of crime measures are included to determine target suitability and proximity to offenders. The existing literature examines social disorganization and routine activities as largely separate constructs rather than a continuing articulation of guardianship. Both theoretical traditions tend to focus on urban contexts or a rural-urban dichotomy rather than explore specific structures, social organization, and expectations across a variety of community type. This project addresses this gap in the literature through examining differential expectations of guardianship by community type in a sample of undergraduate students in a large Southern university.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

Survey Development

The purpose of the survey was to examine undergraduate student views on differential guardianship and victimization experiences. It was designed as an omnibus survey to measure broad concepts including perceptions of community guardianship, community type, exposure, low self-control, just world belief, victimization, and demographics in an undergraduate student sample and included a blend of original questions and those established and validated in other research. If respondents had been victimized, they were asked additional questions regarding reporting and behavioral changes. The survey was originally designed for paper and pencil administration but was adapted to online delivery using Qualtrics due to the COVID-19 pandemic. The full survey can be found in Appendix A.

Data

After the survey was created, it was piloted in two different undergraduate criminal justice research methods classes. The survey was piloted in person with paper and pencil surveys. While this is different from the final form of data collection/ survey distribution, the change to online survey distribution was required due to the transition to remote delivery of courses in March 2020 as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. Piloting the survey allowed feedback from students about wording of questions and any potential missing response categories. It also helped establish the average timeframe for survey completion (20-25 minutes). Based on student feedback during the piloting process, some question response categories were updated (e.g. pathways to college).

These data were collected from undergraduate students at a mid-sized university in the southwest. The initial sampling frame was created from the registrar's full list of courses offered in Spring 2020. In Spring 2020 a total of 2,988 courses were offered. Lab sections and online course sections were removed from the sampling frame. Once these courses were dropped, a total of 1,844 courses were included in the final sampling frame for spring 2020. The course list was randomized and 50 courses selected. If a selected course had fewer than 10 students, it was replaced. Due to an initial low response rate to solicitation emails, additional samples were taken after the sampling frame was randomized and instructors recruited via email. In Spring of 2020, a total of 111 course instructors of record were contacted with the survey link being embedded in 40 courses (available to 1,155 students). Wave I data collection in Spring 2020 (April/ May) resulted in 597 valid responses. The response rate for Spring 2020 was 52%.

The instructors of record for the selected courses were contacted via email for recruitment into the sample. They were informed that their course had been randomly selected for inclusion in this dissertation research if they would consent to giving the opportunity to their students. If the instructors agreed to allow their students to participate, the survey was embedded in their course page in the online learning management system. Students were instructed to follow the link and complete the survey in Qualtrics. Some instructors opted to include survey completion for extra credit or participation points in their class. To protect the voluntary nature and anonymity of responses, students were instructed to upload a picture of the survey completion page to receive credit for survey completion. Students would be directed to this page if they did

not consent to completing the survey ensuring that all completed responses were fully voluntary in nature.

Once students following the Qualtrics survey link, they were directed to the consent questions. Students were informed that participation in the survey is voluntary with the option to skip any question or stop participation at any point during the survey. There were no foreseeable risks to participants, but students were advised they could skip any question and that questions would include personal experiences with crime and victimization. Additionally, students were informed that all survey responses are confidential, and data would only be reported in aggregate form. If the students agreed to participate in the survey given this information, they selected the “Yes, I agree” option to the voluntary participation question. If students voluntarily agreed to participate in the survey, they were directed to the first set of questions. If students did not agree to participate, they were directed to the thank you screen.

In order to increase the sample size, Wave II of data collection was collected in the second summer session of 2020 (June/ July). The initial Summer II 2020 sampling frame included 302 courses. After labs were removed from the list, the final Summer II sampling frame included 248 courses. Again, the course offerings for Summer II 2020 were randomized and initial recruitment emails sent to 31 instructors of record. Respondents who had already completed the survey in wave I of data collection were instructed not to complete the survey a second time. Following the same process as wave I data collection, wave II data collection resulted in the survey link being available to an additional 292 students across 12 courses embedded in the learning management system (survey available in a total of 1,447 students across 52 courses) and an additional 169

valid responses (total N= 766). The Summer II 2020 response rate was 58%. The overall response rate including both Spring and Summer II 2020 was 53%. While the response rate is relatively low for survey research it is acceptable for a web based survey (Bachman & Schutt, 2020).

Dependent Variables

Guardianship

Guardianship is a key variable of interest and is measured in multiple contexts. We conceptualize perceived community level guardianship as the respondent's perception of collective efficacy in their hometown neighborhood. Perceived community level guardianship is a composite of six items from Wiesburd and colleagues (2020) closely based on the original measures of social cohesion and trust from Sampson and colleagues (1997). These items include: 1) "People in the neighborhood are willing to help one another," 2) "My neighbors do NOT usually talk to each other," 3) "In general, people in my neighborhood can be trusted," 4) "People in my neighborhood usually do NOT get along with one another," 5) "People in my neighborhood share the same values," and 6) "Neighbors do NOT watch out for each other in my neighborhood". Items 2, 4, and 6 were reverse coded so all items were coded with a higher response value indicating higher perceived guardianship. Perceived guardianship has a mean value of 2.08 indicating that respondents are more likely to live in areas with moderate perceived guardianship. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient is 0.7966.

Much of the guardianship literature examines vulnerability to victimization through target hardening and the presence and intervention of others (e.g. Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2007; Reynauld et al., 2018; Wilcox et al., 2007). We follow the path of

Reynauld (2018) in examining guardianship as social control and as contextualized by community characteristics. Additionally, we are particularly interested in how concepts of guardianship are formed whether or not students “import” these guardianship expectations from their hometown location to a new community on campus. We assume that if students import these expectations than the differences in guardianship expectations across community type will have an impact on students’ behavior on campus and vulnerability to on campus victimization.

Victimization

Victimization is a series of dichotomous variables capturing whether or not respondents have been victims of personal assault or property crimes in the past four months (the previous semester). The series of items comes from the questions used in the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS). Most respondents (80%) were not victimized on campus. Of the students that were victimized on campus, 65% were victims of assault and 50% victims of theft. We also ask whether respondents were victims of crime before they enrolled at the current university. Additionally, 85% of respondents were not victimized before arriving on campus. Appendix B lists the offenses considered in each category of victimization. Table 1 includes the sample descriptive statistics.

Table 1*Sample Descriptive Statistics*

	Obs.	Mean (%)	Std. Dev.	Range	
Expected Guardianship	701	2.08	0.51	1	4
Victimization	702	0.20	0.40	0	1
Gender (female)	750	0.64	0.48	0	1
Student Orgs.	748	0.53	0.50	0	1
Work Hours	747			1	5
0-10 hours		42.70%			
11-20 hours		17.80%			
21-30 hours		15.93%			
30-40 hours		13.52%			
> 40 hours		10.04%			
Low Self-Control	714	2.25	0.42	1.04	3.84
Fear on Campus	691	1.52	0.55	1	3
Fear at Home	692	1.32	0.47	1	3
Prior Victimization	691	0.15	0.25	0	1
Credit Hours	752			0	3
Only on campus		49.30%			
Mostly on campus		32.18%			
Half on campus		9.44%			
Mostly online		8.78%			
Just World Belief	735	2.37	0.3	1.33	4
Total Semesters	694	4.09	2.33	1	12

Key Independent Variables

Community Type

Community type asks respondents to classify their hometown neighborhood on a scale including six options: 1) “Extremely large urban city,” 2) “Small city, urban,” 3) “Large town,” 4) “Medium sized town,” 5) “Very small town, rural,” and 6) “Mostly farmland, extremely rural”. In the original six-category measure, the largest proportion of students lived in medium sized towns (23%) Table 2 shows the distribution of students from each community type. These responses were also recoded in a three-category community type variable including urban (extremely large urban city and small city), suburban (large and medium sized towns), and rural (very small town, rural and mostly farmland, extremely rural) categories. The distribution of community type in the three-category measure was roughly even across rural (26%), suburban (39%), and urban (35%) categories.

This measure is based on the six-category measure used by DuBois and colleagues (2019). The DuBois et al. (2019) measure is also six categories and combines the land use (rural urban dichotomy) and MSA (metropolitan central city, metropolitan not central city, and non-metropolitan) measures in the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS). Like the DuBois et al. (2019) measure, our measure of community type captures the differences within the three traditionally used categories (e.g. differences between small town rural spaces and extremely rural spaces with few residents). We expect that community type will impact a respondent’s guardianship expectations and their vulnerability to victimization on campus through exposure.

Table 2*Sample Distribution Community Type- 6 Category*

	Percent
Extremely large urban city	17.92%
Small city, urban	16.79%
Large town	12.94%
Medium town	26.03%
Very small town, rural	19.91%
Mostly farmland, extremely rural	6.40%
Total	100.00%

Low Self-Control

Low self-control is a composite of the traditionally used Grasmik et al. (1993) scale. The average low self-control score was 2.25 with values ranging from 1.04 to 3.84. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient is 0.8908. The items included in the low self-control measure are listed in Appendix C. Individuals with low self-control are more likely to partake in activities that increase their vulnerability to victimization (Franklin et al., 2012; Schreck, 1999; Schreck et al., 2006). It is expected that those with lower self-control will experience more victimization despite perceptions of guardianship. It is also expected that those with low self-control may perceive guardianship to be higher. This is in part due to difficulty in accurate perception of risk for those with low self-control (Franklin et al., 2012; Schreck, 1999).

Exposure Variables

Exposure is a key concept in RAT. It captures the relative availability of potential victims to potential offenders through participation in certain activities particular locations that may be more vulnerable. It records the relative access offenders have to

potential victims. Variables that address exposure include participation in leisure activities outside of the household particularly during evening hours, employment, etc. (see Hindelang et al., 1978).

Here exposure is captured in a series of variables including the number of semesters the respondent has been enrolled at the university, hours worked at a job(s), location of credit hours, and student organization membership. This conceptualization of exposure is similar to the idea structured adolescent lifestyles from Hensen et al. (2010). They found that participation in structured activities reduced exposure of adolescents and reduced likelihood of violent victimization (Hensen et al., 2010). In this sample, half of students take classes only on campus. The average number of semesters on campus is 4.4. Just under half (43%) of students work 10 hours or less on average each week. Approximately half (53%) of students are active members of student organizations.

Each of these measures captures time that students spend on campus and type of activities including academic and nonacademic activities. Students that are least exposed to victimization on campus will include those taking predominantly online classes, employed, and not engaged in student organizations. We expect that exposure will mediate the relationship between expected guardianship and victimization on campus.

Fear of Crime

Fear of crime is measured both in the hometown location and on campus. It combines six items adapted from LaGrange and colleagues (1992) measuring worry of victimization types included in the survey. These items included: 1) “Somebody threatening to take your personal belongings from you,” 2) “Somebody taking personal belongings from you or your home,” 3) “Somebody attacking you in your neighborhood,”

4) “Somebody breaking into your car and stealing personal belongings while parked,” 5) “Somebody sexually assaulting you,” and 6) “Somebody will follow you or show up at your home unsolicited”. Respondents rated their fear on a scale of 1 (not worried) to 3 (extremely worried). On average, respondents were more fearful on campus (mean score of 1.5) than at home (mean score of 1.3). Fear of crime on campus has a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of 0.8927. Fear of crime at home has a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of 0.9086. Fear of crime at home and fear on campus are correlated with a Pearson correlation value of 0.6. Consequently, they are not both included in the same model.

Fear is a powerful motivator that can shift perceptions of risk. High levels of fear may influence individuals to respond or behave in ways different than those who are less afraid. For example, high levels of fear may cause individuals to perceive guardianship levels as lower because they are not as connected to the community (Kanan & Pruitt, 2002; Wilcox-Rountree & Land, 1996). On a community level, high levels of fear will cause residents to be less connected and form fewer social networks (Kanan & Pruitt, 2002; Wilcox-Rountree & and, 1996; Wilson & Kelling, 1982). As they withdraw into their homes and away from their neighbors, residents unknowingly foster an environment with less guardianship and more open to crime (Wilson & Kelling, 1982). At home, we expect fear of crime to reduce expectations of guardianship. On campus, we expect fear of crime to moderate the relationship between expected guardianship and victimization.

Just World Belief

Just World Belief (Lipkus, 1991) is a composite of 14 questions asking respondents’ feelings of justice and ability to control their fate and fortunes. Most literature examines just world belief as an outcome of victimization (e.g. Fasel & Spini,

2012) although time order is not always clearly established or the third person perceptions of victims (e.g. Kleinke & Meyer, 1990). Donat and colleagues (2018), however, found that students with higher personal just world belief scores reported fewer bullying victimizations. The average just world belief score in this sample was 2.4 with a range of 1.3 (low just world belief) to 4 (high just world belief). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the just world belief scale is 0.77. The items in the just world belief index are listed in Table 3. Items 2, 3, 8, and 13 were reverse coded so each item response was coded as higher value indicated higher just world belief. The just world belief scale captures in part attitudes of victim blaming. It is expected to increase guardianship expectations and moderate the relationship between expected guardianship and victimization on campus.

Table 3

Just World Belief

Misfortune is least likely to strike worthy, decent people.
Bad events are distributed to people at random. (R)
The course of our lives is largely determined by chance. (R)
Generally, people get what they deserve in the world.
People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they have made.
I usually behave in ways that are likely to maximize good for me.
People will experience good fortune if they themselves are good.
Life is too full of uncertainties that are determined by chance. (R)
I almost always make an effort to prevent bad things from happening to me.
By and large, good people get what they deserve in the world.
Through our actions, we can prevent bad things from happening to us.
I take the actions necessary to protect myself against misfortune.
In general, most of my life is a gamble. (R)
I usually behave so as to bring about the greatest good for me.
When bad things happen, it is typically because people have not taken the necessary actions to protect themselves.

Demographic Controls

Respondents also identify gender (female=1), race, and ethnicity (Hispanic=1).

Race is also identified in a series of dichotomous variables shown in table 4.

Table 4

Race Sample Descriptive Statistics

	Obs.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Range	
Black/ African American	753	0.17	0.37	0	1
Hispanic/ Latinx	753	0.25	0.43	0	1
White	753	0.54	0.50	0	1

Most of the sample is female (64%), white (53%), and non-Hispanic (72%). Most students live off campus (80%) either with family or in other residential locations. Age is not included as a control as it is closely related to total semesters as a student. This is similar to the gender, racial, and ethnic composition of the campus as whole.

Plan of Analysis

Research Question 1A

Research question 1A addresses the impact of community type on expectations of guardianship. Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression will be used to address whether community type influences expected guardianship since expected guardianship is a continuous measure. Chi-square tests and t-tests are used to further unpack the relationship at a bivariate level.

Research Question 1B

Research question 1B addresses how differential guardianship expectations impact victimization on campus. Logistic regression will assess this relationship since victimization on campus is a dichotomous measure.

Research Question 2

Research question 2 examines the mediation of exposure on the expected guardianship and on-campus victimization relationship. First, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) will be used to establish good model fit of the proposed latent factors (exposure and expected guardianship). CFA is used as theory and the literature establishes the observable items as measuring the latent constructs (Bryne, 2012). Next, a Structural Equation Model (SEM) is used to assess the relationship between the latent constructs and victimization on campus.

Research Question 3

Research question 3 examines the moderating influences of just world belief and fear of crime on campus on the expected guardianship and victimization on campus relationship. Additional logistic regression models are used with interaction effects since victimization is dichotomous.

CHAPTER IV

Results

Research Question 1A

Research question 1A asks how community type impacts expected guardianship. Table 5 shows the ordinary least squares regression model. Appendix D displays bivariate correlations between community type, expected guardianship, and victimization. Model 1 shows the baseline model before community type is considered. Fear of crime at home, prior victimization, just world belief, and race all significantly impact expected guardianship. Fear is the strongest predictor of expected guardianship with those with higher fear having higher expectations of guardianship. Prior victims and those with higher just world belief also have higher expectations of guardianship. Black and African American respondents have higher expectations of guardianship when compared to their peers. While insignificant and having an extremely small coefficient, low self-control operates in the expected direction with those with low self-control having higher expectations of guardianship. Female respondents have lower expectations of guardianship when compared to their male peers. The adjusted R^2 in model 1 is 0.11. Table 5 displays these results.

In model 2 (also shown in table 5), community type is entered into the model. Respondents from each community types show a reduced expectation of guardianship when compared to respondents extremely large urban cities. The relationship is significant for the most rural category. Race and prior victimization lose significance in model 2 indicating that community type may mediate the relationship between these variables and expected guardianship. Fear of crime at home and just world belief

significantly increase expectations of guardianship as in model 1. Female respondents have significantly lower expectations of guardianship in their hometown communities than males. Low self-control is insignificant as in model 1. The adjusted R^2 does not increase in model 2.

Table 5

OLS Regression Expected Guardianship by Community Type

	Model 1		Model 2	
	Coef.	Std. Error	Coef.	Std. Error
Low self-control	0.04	0.05	0.03	0.05
Fear at home	0.32***	0.04	0.32***	0.04
Prior victimization (yes=1)	0.11*	0.05	0.10	0.05
Gender (female=1)	-0.08	0.04	-0.09*	0.04
Just world belief	0.19**	0.06	0.19**	0.06
Race (black=1)	0.12*	0.05	0.10	0.05
Community Type				
Small city, urban	-	-	-0.07	0.06
Large town	-	-	-0.11	0.07
Medium sized town	-	-	-0.07	0.06
Very small town, rural	-	-	-0.12	0.06
Mostly farmland, extremely rural	-	-	-0.20*	0.09
Constant	1.15	0.19	1.26	0.20
Adjusted R^2	0.11		0.11	

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$ *** $p < 0.001$

In order to understand the importance of race in predicting expected guardianship, it is useful to examine some simple chi square tables and t-tests. Table 6 shows the distribution of race by community type. The racial distribution of respondents is significantly different than expected across community types. Black and African

American respondents in this sample are concentrated in extremely large urban city locations while non-black individuals are residents in urban cities less often than expected. The race distribution in extremely large urban cities accounts for nearly half (45%) of the chi square contribution.

Table 6

Distribution of Race across Community Type: Observed, Expected and Chi Square Contribution

	Extremely large urban city	Small city, urban	Large town	Medium sized town	Very small town, rural	Mostly farmland, extremely rural	Total
Non-Black	90 105.2 2.2	89 98.5 0.9	78 76.0 0.1	164 152.8 0.8	125 116.9 0.6	41 37.6 0.3	587 587.0 4.9
Black	36 20.8 11.1	29 19.5 4.7	13 15.0 0.3	19 30.2 4.2	15 23.1 2.8	4 7.4 1.6	116 116.0 24.6
Total	126 126.0 13.3	118 118.0 5.6	91 91.0 0.3	183 183.0 5.0	140 140.0 3.4	45 45.0 1.9	703 703.0 29.5

Pearson $\chi^2 = 29.5$ Pr = 0.000

Table 7 explores the difference in means of expected guardianship by racial category. Here, black and African American respondents demonstrate a significantly higher mean score of expected guardianship than white respondents.

Table 7*Difference in Means: Expected Guardianship by Race*

	Obs.	Mean	Std. Error	Std. Dev.
Non-Black	585	2.06	0.02	0.53
Black	116	2.19	0.04	0.43
Combined	701	2.08	0.02	0.51
Difference		-0.13	0.05	

diff < 0 Pr = 0.006

Research Question 1B

Research question 1B addresses how differential guardianship expectations and community type impact differential vulnerability to victimization on campus. While expected guardianship is not a significant predictor of the odds of victimization on campus, it does operate in the expected direction with respondents with higher expectations of guardianship having lower odds of on campus victimization (theft and assault). Community type does not significantly impact odds of victimization on campus. As expected, prior victimization is the most substantial significant predictor of the odds of on campus victimization. Prior victims have significantly higher odds of victimization. Race and gender do not significantly impact the odds of victimization on campus. Low self-control significantly increases the odds of victimization as expected. Table 8 shows the full logistic regression model results.

Table 8*Logistic Regression Victimization (Assault and Theft) and Expected Guardianship*

	Coef.	Std. Error
Expected Guardianship	0.08	0.20
Community Type		
Small city, urban	-0.28	0.35
Large town	-0.23	0.37
Medium sized town	-0.40	0.31
Very small town, rural	0.02	0.32
Mostly farmland, extremely rural	-0.32	0.47
Low self-control	0.64*	0.27
Gender (female=1)	0.08	0.21
Race (nonwhite=1)	-0.42	0.22
Prior victimization (yes=1)	1.56***	0.24
Constant	-2.96	0.81
Pseudo R ²		0.08

* p<0.05 ** p<0.01 *** p<0.001

Research Question 2

Research question 2 addresses whether exposure mediates the relationship between expected guardianship and victimization on campus. As demonstrated in Table 8, the relationship between expected guardianship and victimization on campus is insignificant.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The exposure variables (total semesters on campus, average work hours per week, credit hours location, and student organizational membership) were combined into a single latent factor, exposure, using confirmatory factor analysis in Mplus. This method was chosen to address the different range of survey responses in the items. For example,

total semesters is a continuous variable whereas student organizational membership is dichotomous. The items work hours and credit hour location are ordinal measures. Mplus corrects for the measurement differences in the model (Byrne, 2012). Initially, the variables housing location and living alone were included in the exposure model. They were removed since the coefficients were negative and this was not resolved by reverse coding the variables. The results of the model are displayed in table 9. Overall, model fit was good with values for the root mean square error of approximation, RMSEA= 0.04 (90% confidence interval 0.00 to 0.11), Comparative Fit Index, CFI= 0.99, Tucker Lewis Index, TLI= 0.96, and standardized root mean square residual, SRMR= 0.01. The total semesters item was retained in the exposure model since the standardized estimate is significant in the full structural equation model. There is a covariance between total semesters and work hours. Table 9 displays the results of the confirmatory factor analysis for the latent factors exposure and expected guardianship.

Table 9*Confirmatory Factor Analysis*

Latent Factor	Observed Variable	Standardized Estimate	Std. Error	Est./Std. Error
Low Exposure	Credit hours location	0.68	0.08	9.02***
	Work hours	0.51	0.06	8.36***
	Total semesters	0.10	0.05	1.86
	Student organizations (no=1)	0.35	0.05	7.03***
Model Fit	RMSEA = 0.04 90% CI: 0.00 0.11 CFI = 0.99 TLI = 0.96 SRMR = 0.01			
Expected Guardianship	People in the neighborhood are willing to help each other	0.76	0.03	29.54***
	In general, people in my neighborhood can be trusted	0.73	0.03	27.19***
	People in my neighborhood share the same values	0.66	0.03	22.55***
	My neighbors usually talk to each other	0.48	0.04	13.48***
	People in my neighborhood usually get along with one another	0.43	0.04	11.89***
	Neighbors watch out for each other in my neighborhood	0.49	0.04	13.99***
Model Fit	RMSEA = 0.07 90% CI: 0.04 0.10 CFI = 0.98 TLI = 0.96 SRMR = 0.02			

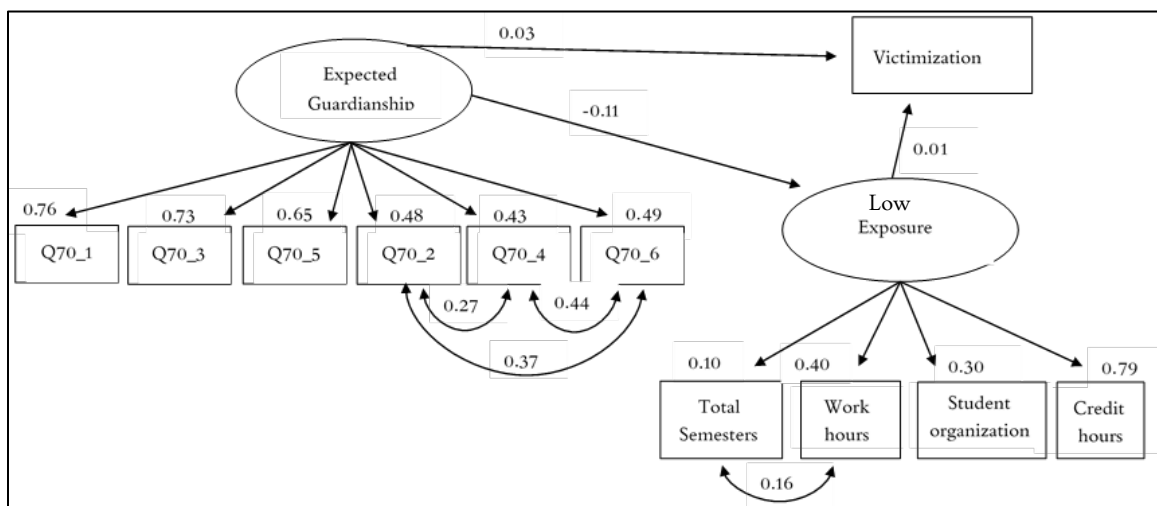
The items in the expected guardianship scale were also combined in a confirmatory factor analysis. The results of this analysis are also in table 9. Overall, model fit was good with values of RMSEA= 0.07 (90% confidence interval 0.04 to 0.01), TLI= 0.96, CFI= 0.98, and SRMR= 0.02. All six original items were retained in the model and the standardized estimates are significant at the $p < 0.001$ level. There are covariances between items 6 and 4, 6 and 2, and 2 and 4 in the expected guardianship latent factor.

Full Structural Equation Model

The full structural equation model (SEM) includes the mediating influence of exposure on the relationship between expected guardianship (exogenous) and victimization (endogenous). Figure 2 displays the full SEM model and model fit information. The full model has a good model fit with values of RMSEA= 0.03 (90% confidence interval 0.02 to 0.04), TLI= 0.98, CFI= 0.98, and SRMR= 0.03. The covariances for both latent factors are included. Here, the relationship between expected guardianship and exposure is significant at the $p < 0.001$ level. The relationships between both expected guardianship and victimization and exposure and victimization are not significant. Consequently, exposure does not mediate the relationship between expected guardianship and victimization.

Figure 2

Full Structural Equation Model: The Mediating Effect of Exposure in the Expected Guardianship and Victimization Relationship



Note: RMSEA= 0.03 (90% CI: 0.02-0.04), TLI= 0.98, CFI= 0.98, SRMR= 0.03

Research Question 3

Research questions 3 addresses whether just world belief and fear of crime on campus moderate the relationship between expected guardianship and victimization on campus. Table 10 displays the results of the model including the moderation effects of just world belief. Just world belief does not significantly moderate the effects between expected guardianship and victimization on campus. It should be noted that neither expected guardianship nor just world belief significantly impact the odds of victimization directly. As expected, prior victimization is a substantial and significant predictor of the odds of victimization on campus. The model fit is poor with the constant also not achieving significance in this moderation model.

Table 10

Logistic Regression Victimization and the Interaction between Expected Guardianship and Just World Belief

	Coef.	Std. Error
Community Type		
Small city, urban	-0.41	0.35
Large town	-0.24	0.37
Medium sized town	-0.44	0.31
Small town, rural	0.01	0.32
Mostly farmland, extremely rural	-0.35	0.48
Low self-control	0.64*	0.27
Gender (female=1)	0.07	0.22
Race (nonwhite=1)	-0.42	0.22
Prior victimization (yes=1)	1.55***	0.24
Expected guardianship	-1.48	1.46
Just world belief	-1.36	1.27
Expected guardianship x Just world belief	0.66	0.61
Constant	0.29	3.11
Pseudo R ²		0.08

*p<0.05 ** p<0.01 *** p<0.001

Next, table 11 shows the results of the model including the moderation effects of fear of crime on campus. Fear of crime on campus does not significantly moderate the relationship between expected guardianship and odds of victimization on campus.

Neither expected guardianship nor fear of crime on campus impact the odds of victimization on campus directly either. In this model, prior victimization is the strongest significant predictor of the odds of victimization on campus as expected. Nonwhite individuals in the sample have significantly lower odds of victimization than their white

peers. Individuals with low self-control have significantly higher odds of victimization as expected.

Table 11

Logistic Regression Victimization and the Interaction between Expected Guardianship and Fear of Crime on Campus

	Coef.	Std. Error
Community Type		
Small city, urban	-0.42	0.36
Large town	-0.18	0.38
Medium sized town	-0.34	0.32
Small town, rural	0.02	0.33
Mostly farmland, extremely rural	-0.27	0.48
Low self-control	0.60*	0.27
Gender (female=1)	-0.01	0.23
Race (nonwhite=1)	-0.48*	0.22
Prior victimization (yes=1)	1.52***	0.25
Expected guardianship	0.36	0.56
Fear on campus	0.87	0.68
Expected guardianship x Fear on campus	-0.17	0.30
Constant	-4.18	1.40
Pseudo R ²		0.09

* p<0.05 ** p<0.01 *** p<0.001

CHAPTER V

Discussion

The guardianship literature within the broader communities and context examines the impact of community type on guardianship as well as the consequences of guardianship (e. g. target hardening, crime events, victimization) (e. g. Cohen et al., 1981; Miethe & McDowall, 1993; Roncek & Bell, 1981; Sampson & Wooldredge, 1987; Wilcox et al., 2007). It explores whether or not perceptions of guardianship matter and some individual factors that lead to differential perception. We examine how outward facing expectations of guardianship may moderate exposure and consequently victimization risk. It does not specifically test importation of guardianship versus context reactive or place-based guardianship perceptions. This project begins to explore this area and fill the gap. Although this dissertation is not able to fully test the pathways discussed below, it does offer unique insight into these areas and creates new questions for future research to address. This chapter discusses the implications of the findings, limitations of the current study, and paths for future research.

Essentially, when considering perceptions of guardianship, there are two potential pathways. The first draws on the corrections literature on importation of values (see Dhami et al., 2007; Thomas, 1977). It assumes that individuals import expectations of guardianship based on their hometown communities to new locations and communities. These data were collected with this assumption. Alternatively, the second pathway considers the risk assessment literature. It assumes that individuals use location-based characteristics to assess guardianship in new locations and communities. Again, this dissertation has very limited ability to test these pathways fully, but they offer a

conceptual contribution to how expectations of guardianship may operate and invite future research.

Path 1: Importing Expectations of Guardianship

This path assumes that perceptions of guardianship are formed in hometown locations and are based on hometown structures and community functions as understood by the individual. Additionally, the importing expectations of guardianship path expects individuals to bring these hometown perceptions of guardianship to new locations and contexts as expectations of guardianship. This captures the tendency for individuals to create heuristics to address new situations or contexts that are similar to previous experiences (Maitland & Sammartino, 2015) and draws on the importation of values for adaptation in correctional contexts (Dhami et al., 2007; Thomas, 1977). These expectations help the individual to function in the new environment or context until more information and risk assessment is available. When new information is taken into consideration, the individual updates their expectations to reflect current information and perceptions in the new location or context. While the heuristic is being used, it is possible that the individual is engaging in behaviors that may be appropriate to the heuristic but not the real location. These differences between the expectations of safety and guardianship based on the heuristic and the actual guardianship of the location may have ramifications for vulnerability and risk for victimization.

For example, if individuals import expectations of guardianship from their hometown locations, individuals that transfer from high guardianship communities to low guardianship communities may experience an increased vulnerability to victimization. They may refrain from taking additional precautions and modifying behavior to fit new

and more risky surroundings as they expect that others in the community will engage in meaningful guardianship to deter crime. Absent of this capable guardianship, these individuals may become more vulnerable and suitable as targets. We would expect victimization in a campus location to be related to expectations of guardianship formed in hometown locations net of low self-control and other controls. Other, internal factors would also be expected to influence stable guardianship expectations. For example, individuals who have experienced victimization and have high fear of crime may be likely to perceive all new environments as unsafe. Individuals with low self-control may have difficulty identifying the inherent risk and markers of low guardianship locations (leading to unrealistic expectations of high guardianship in areas characterized by low or moderate guardianship). Essentially, the importing expectations of guardianship is a stability in guardianship perceptions. Namely, perceptions of guardianship are formed based on community structural factors (e. g. Hollis-Peel et al., 2011; Reynald, 2018; Reynald et al., 2018) and internal characteristics (e. g. Rim & Real, 2003; Schreck, 1999; Wilcox et al., 2003). These perceptions of guardianship form expectations of guardianship in new locations. Until shown otherwise, the individual assumes that guardianship in the new location will be similar to previous experiences of guardianship from their hometown location.

Path 2: Context Reactive Expectations of Guardianship

Conversely, the other possible path for guardianship is that expectations are context reactive or place-based and closely tied to locations. It is possible that individuals do not use heuristics and expectations of guardianship from previous locations to assess risk in new contexts and locations. The context reactive expectations of guardianship path

assumes that individuals assess risk and guardianship based on community level and location-based characteristics. Individuals recognize subtle changes in these characteristics among locations and contexts and use them to instantly create a perception of guardianship for the new location. While significant research has addressed characteristics at the micro place used to assess place-based risk (see “Fear Spots” Fisher & Nasar, 1995), community level characteristics for risk and guardianship assessment have not been studied. In a related study, Taylor and colleagues (1984) examined the impact of social ties, defensible space, and territoriality on fear of crime and crime rates at the street block level. They found that social ties and defensible space directly reduced fear and crime rates. Additionally, stronger social ties indirectly reduced fear and crime rates through enhancing territoriality (Taylor et al., 1984). Social ties are significant net of the impacts of environmental design. The context reactive perspective suggests that individuals will identify the levels of guardianship in a new location through evaluation of risk structure, environmental design, and social ties.

Consequently, as individuals navigate through communities, they recognize the differences in risk structure and guardianship. We would expect that individuals would modify behavior based on community risk context and perceptions of guardianship. It is possible that all new locations are considered risky and low guardianship until connections are made to other individuals. It is possible that individuals use demographic markers including prestige of housing, businesses, and cleanliness of locations as a visible proxy for socioeconomic status to form their perception of guardianship as suggested in the Broken Windows perspective (Wilson & Kelling, 1982). It is also

possible that locations that are more familiar to other trustworthy locations are perceived as high guardianship, etc.

Reviewing the Findings

Research Question 1A

The first research question reviewed the impact of community type on expectations of guardianship. Community type is included as a six-category measure from extremely large urban cities to mostly farmland, extremely rural locations. Expectations of guardianship are operationalized as the respondents' perceptions of social integration and connectivity in their hometown location applied to the campus location. The first pathway, importation, suggests that individuals form perceptions of guardianship in their hometown communities. These expectations are based on the size and structure of their communities. The most substantial predictor of expected guardianship in the OLS regression model was fear of crime at home. Interestingly, respondents with higher fear of crime at home had higher expectations of guardianship. This is likely explained by higher rates of social connectivity in communities with higher guardianship. Perhaps, in areas of high guardianship, neighbors are communicating regularly about crime fears and problems in their area (Wilcox-Routree & Land, 1996).

Prior victimization and race were also important indicators of expected guardianship. These effects were reduced and no longer significant at the $p < 0.05$ level when community type was added into the model. This indicates that community type may mediate the relationships between these variables and expected guardianship. In terms of race, it is important to examine the distribution of race across community type. The contingency table revealed that black and African American respondents were

concentrated in higher than expected frequencies in large urban cities. The distribution of race can help explain the findings for community type. Specifically, only the mostly farmland, extremely rural community category was had significantly lower expectations of guardianship when compared to large urban cities. Since black and African American respondents have a significantly higher mean score of expected guardianship when compared to non-black respondents and they are concentrated in large urban cities, this helps drive the findings between the two community types on the opposite ends of the spectrum.

Additionally, it should be noted that the collection of items that measure expected guardianship use language common in the collective efficacy literature including the term “neighborhood”. As noted in literature (see Lee & Thomas, 2012); Sampson et al., 1997, the concept of neighborhood originated in urban spaces and is best suited to measuring this community type. A neighborhood may be nebulous in a very rural space where neighbors may be spread out geographically. It may be difficult to know if your neighbors engage with each other and there are fewer opportunities for informal and accidental social interaction with them. Perhaps items regarding talking to neighbors do not apply in the same way in increasingly rural spaces. Different items with community equivalence should be designed and examined for validity. Unfortunately, that was beyond the scope of this project. In a sense, the “race effect” in model 1 may be reflecting the community type of the respondents particularly when considering the operationalization of expected guardianship.

Respondents with higher just world belief also have higher expectations of guardianship. This finding is stable with the inclusion of community type in the model.

Donat and colleagues (2018) note that just world belief can be a measure of trust in society and this finding reflects that. Respondents with low self-control have higher expectations for guardianship. This may reflect the difficulty among those with low self-control in accurately assessing risk (see Franklin et al., 2012; Schreck, 1999).

Research Question 1B

Research question 1B addresses the relationship between expected guardianship and victimization (assault and theft) on campus during the reference period of the past 4 months. This relationship is insignificant. Community type is also an insignificant predictor of victimization on campus. Essentially, these findings suggest that expectations of guardianship are not imported to new communities and locations. Prior victimization is the most substantial significant predictor of the odds of victimization on campus as expected.

Research Question 2

The second research question expands on the assumption that expectations in guardianship are imported. It assesses whether or not exposure mediated the relationship (insignificant) between expected guardianship and victimization on campus. In the SEM model, the expected guardianship significantly impacted exposure. Neither expected guardianship nor exposure significantly predicted victimization. This points to a few considerations regarding the latent factor exposure. The items total semesters on campus, credit hour location, work hours per week, and student organizational membership (no membership = 1) were included in the factor. Specifically, an increase in exposure meant an increase in total semesters, more online classes, an increase in average hours worked per week, and not participating in student organizations.

Respondents with higher expected guardianship had significantly lower levels of exposure (fewer semesters on campus, fewer work hours per week, more on campus credit hours, and participation in student organizations). It is possible that the latent construct of exposure is reflecting the economic reality of students (need to work more hours, take classes online, and not be part of student organizations) rather than exposure in a traditional lifestyle routine activity sense. This would help explain why living alone and housing location (on campus or off campus) did not fit in the CFA model for exposure. Socioeconomic status measures were not available in the data to test this consideration.

Research Question 3

Research question 3 examines the moderating influence of fear of crime on campus and just world belief on the insignificant expected guardianship and victimization relationship. Fear of crime on campus captures respondents' worry of victimization in theft, assault, sexual assault, car theft, and stalking categories on campus. Just world belief measures the respondent's belief in a fair world where actions can control fate. In the models, neither fear of crime on campus nor just world belief moderate the relationship. Additionally, neither fear of crime on campus nor expected guardianship have direct effects on odds of victimization. As expected, based on the meta-analysis by Pratt and colleagues (2014), those with low self-control regularly display an increased relative- odds of assault and theft victimization. Additionally, prior victimization is the strongest predictor of the odds of victimization. Nonwhite respondents have significantly lower odds of victimization. The pseudo R^2 is 0.09.

In the just world belief model, neither just world belief nor expected guardianship have direct effects on the odds of victimization. Additionally, the model fit is not good as the constant is not significant at the $p < 0.05$ level. Clearly, important predictors of the odds of victimization are missing from this model.

In both of these models, there are a lot of variables included in the model with a relatively small sample size (fear model: $N = 663$, just world belief model: $N = 673$). The decision was made to continue to use the six-category community type variable rather than collapsing it into a traditional three category (urban, suburban, rural) variable because the most variation among the categories exists between the most rural and most urban categories. In the expected guardianship model, only the most rural category is significant when using the most urban category as the reference group. Collapsing the rural categories together results in a loss of detectable variation across community type. Consequently, since the study is focused on the importance of community contexts, the six-category measure was retained in the models and sample size noted as a caution when interpreting these models.

Limitations

Although valuable, this study is not without limitations. Specifically, guardianship measures were not assessed both at home and on campus and respondents were not asked how they assess guardianship in a new community. The survey was developed, in part, to test the assumption that guardianship expectations were imported to new locations. The data also lacks measures of socioeconomic status, an important demographic control, residential stability, and traditional lifestyle routine activities measures such as nights spent in leisure activities, drinking behaviors, and other risky behaviors, etc.

The guardianship items came from collective efficacy scale from Wiesburd et al. (2020) that was closely based on the original measures of social cohesion and trust from Sampson et al. (1997). These items used the term “neighborhood” to indicate the respondent’s immediate community connections. As discussed above, this measure of guardianship may not be valid for community types without traditional street block style neighborhoods. Historically, this has been a common obstacle in research that incorporates community types beyond urban spaces (Lee & Thomas, 2010; Liepins, 2000). Future research should consider and test different measures of guardianship and assess validity across community type.

Additionally, this data is composed of undergraduate students from one university. This makes the sample relatively homogenous. There will be limited variation in a sample of just over 700 undergraduate students from the same region that are attending the same university. Some significant commonalities among the students brought them to the same campus location. A larger sample with more diversity across universities and geographically may offer additional insight and statistical power that would influence the significance of the findings. Due to the sample, caution should be taken in generalizing the findings.

Future Research

In terms of contextualizing guardianship by community type, it is important that future research considers the validity of the guardianship items across community types. This is particularly important in respondents from suburban and rural areas. Wording of items will be especially important and the use of “communities” rather than “neighborhoods” should be considered (Lee & Thomas, 2010).

How to properly conceptualize exposure of undergraduate students (while controlling for socioeconomic status) will be important. Future research should include lifestyle measures of exposure and participation in risky activities to build on the structured activities exposure measure used in this study. The items included in exposure in this study should be evaluated further for fit. Theoretically, exposure should predict victimization. A more comprehensive exposure factor may significantly impact victimization in future studies.

Future work should also unpack the relationship between expected guardianship and race. In this study, the relationship between race and expected guardianship appears to be mediated by community type. Additional research is needed to determine if this is related to the racial distribution across community type in this sample, racial homogeneity in hometown communities such as racial or ethnic enclaves, or other factors. It will be interesting to see if this finding is true across samples or is unique to this one.

Future research should consider the limitations and contributions of this study. Specifically, future research should involve a data collection effort that includes all relevant variables to fully test both potential pathways for guardianship. Additional sample demographics should be selected to maximize variation in the sample that better reflects the full population. This study began to explore perceptions of guardianship and how they impact victimization risk. Future research should answer the same questions in this study with a comprehensive dataset. Additionally, future research may consider analytic consistency and either use factor scores in regression or SEM for all models depending on assumption of error inherent in latent factors or scales.

Theoretical Implications

This study examines how guardianship is perceived by individuals, a new area in this field. We propose two conceptual pathways for expectations of guardianship. These proposed mechanisms help unpack the relationship between opportunity structure and individual perceptions and lived experiences. Future theoretical pieces can offer a full test of these mechanisms in a variety of samples to build consensus.

The largest contribution of this study is as a thought piece about the larger structures of community level guardianship, how they are perceived and translated by individuals, and the potential for impacts on victimization in other settings. The causal mechanisms proposed offer a way to understand how perceptions and expectations of guardianship may shape behavior and vulnerability to victimization. It combines both the communities and routine activities/ opportunity structure perspectives to offer a new perspective on guardianship. Additionally, this integration of theory breathes new life into the social disorganization and community traditions through a focus on informal social controls as active guardianship and provides a new way forward for this line of research.

This study also has theoretical implications for vulnerability and victimization. It builds on Schreck's (1999) work that examines the impact of low self-control on vulnerability to victimization. Here, we examine how additional factors including expected guardianship impact vulnerability to victimization. We found that expected guardianship significantly reduces exposure. Here, exposure is measured as the amount of time respondents are spending on campus (on campus credit hours, total semesters, work hours per week, and student organizational membership). Theoretically, increased

exposure should increase vulnerability to victimization on campus. In this study, perhaps due to sample size and a homogenous sample, this relationship was not significant. Other research (e. g. Gottfredson, 1981; Hindelang et al., 1978) has found exposure to increase vulnerability to victimization. Future research should continue to examine the impact of expected guardianship on vulnerability and victimization both directly and through exposure.

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APPENDIX A

Bostrom Dissertation Survey

Q122 RESEARCH PROCEDURES

This research is being conducted by Sam Houston State University (SHSU) to examine student views on differential guardianship. If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete a survey with questions. The survey should take 20-25 (twenty-twenty-five) minutes to complete. You have the right not to answer any question, and to stop participation at any time.

Q123 RISKS

There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts to your participation in this research. The survey does include questions about your experiences with victimization and crime that could make you feel uncomfortable. You should feel free to skip any questions you do not feel comfortable answering.

Q124 PARTICIPATION

Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time and for any reason. If you decide not to participate or if you withdraw from the study, there is no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. There are no costs to you or any other party. You must be 18 or older to participate in this study.

Q125 CONFIDENTIALITY

Your responses will be confidential. All survey data will be recorded through Qualtrics. The results of this study may be used in reports, presentations, or publications but your name will not be used. Only the research team will have access to your individual survey responses and results will only be shared in aggregate form.

Q126 CONTACT

This research is being conducted by Dr. Ryan Randa in the Department of Criminology and Criminal Justice at Sam Houston State University. Dr. Randa can be reached at ryan.randa@shsu.edu or (936) 294-4366. If you have any questions about your rights as a

subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact the SHSU Institutional Review Board at irb@shsu.edu or (936) 294-4875.

Q127 Do you voluntarily agree to participate in this research study?

- Yes, I agree. (23)
- No, I do not agree. (24)

Skip To: End of Survey If Do you voluntarily agree to participate in this research study? = No, I do not agree.

Q1 Which gender do you most identify with?

- Male (1)
- Female (2)
- Transgender (3)
- Other (4) _____

Q2 Which sexual orientation best describes you?

- Only heterosexual (1)
- LGBTQIA+ (2)
- Unsure/questioning (3)

Skip To: Q3 If Which sexual orientation best describes you? = LGBTQIA+

Skip To: Q4 If Which sexual orientation best describes you? = Only heterosexual

Q3 Please select the sexual orientation that best describes you.

- Lesbian/Gay (1)
- Bisexual (2)
- Transgender (3)
- Intersex (4)
- Queer (5)
- Asexual (6)
- Pansexual (7)
- Other (8) _____

Q4 Which best describes where you live (prior to COVID-19)?

- On-campus (in dorms) (1)
- Residential living off-campus (2)
- With Parents/Family off-campus (3)
- Sorority/Fraternity housing (4)
- Somewhere else (5) _____

Q5 Do you live alone (prior to COVID-19)?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Skip To: Q6 If Do you live alone (prior to COVID-19)? = No

Skip To: Q7 If Do you live alone (prior to COVID-19)? = Yes

Q6 If no, how many roommates/housemates (including your parents/family members) do you live with?

1 (1) ... More than 10 (11)

Q7 What is your race? If you are more than one, please select which race you most identify with.

- White/Caucasian (1)
- Black/African American (2)
- Hispanic/Latinx (3)
- Asian (4)
- Middle Eastern (5)
- American Indian/Alaskan Native (6)
- Hawaiian/Pacific Islander (7)
- Other (8)

Q8 Would you best describe your ethnicity as Hispanic/Latinx?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Q9 What is your current marital status (prior to COVID-19)?

- Single (never married) (1)
- Cohabiting (living with a significant other, but not married) (2)
- Married (or Common-Law) (3)
- Separated (4)
- Divorced (5)
- Widowed (6)
- Other (7)

Q10 How many hours a week, on average, do you/did you work at your job(s) (prior to COVID-19)?

- 0-10 hours (1)
- 11-20 hours (2)
- 21-30 hours (3)
- 31-40 hours (4)
- 40 or more hours (5)

Q11 What is/was your current job status (prior to COVID-19)?

- Employed - Work-study Program (1)
- Employed Full-time (2)
- Employed Part-time (3)
- Employed Full or Part-time at multiple jobs (4)
- Unemployed (5)
- Other (6) _____

Q12 Select all organizations that you are an active member of (i.e., attend meetings and events regularly).

- University sports (including intramurals) (1)
- Sorority/Fraternity (2)
- Honors College (3)
- Other Student Clubs/Organizations (including religious organizations or LAE) (4)
- None (5)

Q13 How many credit hours are you taking this semester (prior to COVID-19)?

- Part time (1 - 11 credit hours) (4)
- Full time (12 - 18 credit hours) (5)
- More than 18 credit hours (6)

Q14 How many credit hours were in-person/ on-campus before the COVID-19 move to online classes?

- Only on-campus (1)
- Mostly on-campus (2)
- Half online, half on-campus (3)
- Mostly online (4)

Q15 What is the highest level of education your parent(s)/legal guardian(s) have completed?

- Less than High School (1)
- High School Diploma/GED (2)
- Some College (3)
- Associate's Degree/ 2 year degree (4)
- Bachelor's Degree/ 4 year degree (5)
- Graduate/ Post-Graduate/ Professional Degree (6)

Q16 Please indicate how much you strongly agree (4) or strongly disagree (1) with each of the following statements.	Strongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly Disagree (4)
Misfortune is least likely to strike worthy, decent people. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Bad events are distributed to people at random. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The course of our lives is largely determined by chance. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Generally, people deserve what they get in the world. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People's misfortunes result from mistakes they have made. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I usually behave in ways that are likely to maximize good results for me. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People will experience good fortune if they themselves are good. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Life is too full of uncertainties that are determined by chance. (8)

I almost always make an effort to prevent bad things from happening to me. (9)

By and large, good people get what they deserve in the world. (10)

Through our actions, we can prevent bad things happening to us. (11)

I take the actions necessary to protect myself against misfortune. (12)

In general, my life is most a gamble. (13)

I usually behave so as to bring about the greatest good, for me. (14)

When bad things happen, it is typically because people have not taken the necessary actions to protect themselves. (15)

Q17 Please indicate how much you strongly agree (4) or strongly disagree (1) with each of the following statements.

I often act on the spur of the moment without stopping to think. (1)

I don't devote much thought and effort to preparing for the future. (2)

I often do whatever brings me pleasure here and now, even at the cost of some distant goal. (3)

I'm more concerned with what happens to me in the short run than in the long run. (4)

I frequently try to avoid projects that I know will be difficult. (5)

When things get complicated, I tend to quit or withdraw. (6)

The things in life that are easiest to do bring me the most pleasure. (7)

I dislike really hard tasks that stretch my abilities to the limit. (8)

I like to test myself every now and then by doing something a little risky. (9)

Sometimes I will take a risk just for the fun of it. (10)

I sometimes find it exciting to do things for which I might get in trouble. (11)

Excitement and adventure are more important to me than security. (12)

If I had a choice, I would almost always rather do something physical than something mental. (13)

I almost always feel better when I am on the move than when I am sitting and thinking. (14)

I like to get out and do things more than I like to read and contemplate ideas. (15)

I seem to have more energy and a greater need for activity than most other people my age. (16)

I try to look out for myself first, even if it means making things difficult for other people. (17)

I'm not very sympathetic to other people when they are having problems. (18)

If things I do upset people, it's their problem not mine. (19)

I will try to get the things I want even when I know it's causing problems for other people. (20)

I lose my temper pretty easily. (21)

Often, when I'm angry at people I feel more like hurting them than talking to them about why (22)

I am angry. (23)

When I'm really angry, other people better stay out of my way. (24)

When I have a serious disagreement with someone, it's usually hard for me to talk calmly about it without getting upset. (25)

Q18 Where did you receive most of your high school education?

- Texas (1)
- Out-of-state (not in Texas) (2)
- International (3)

Q19 What type of high school did you attend?

- Public (1)
- Private (2)
- Charter (3)
- Home-Schooled (4)
- Other (5) _____

Q20 Did you earn a High School Diploma or a GED?

- High School Diploma (1)
- GED (2)

Q21 Which semester did you graduate from High School/earn your GED?

- Summer (June and July) (1)
- Fall (between August and December) (2)
- Spring (between January and May) (3)

Q22 In what year did you graduate High School/earn your GED? (EX: 2013)

Q23 What was your high school GPA (weighted)?

- Below a 2.5 (1)
- 2.5-2.99 (2)
- 3.0-3.49 (3)
- 3.5-4.0 (4)
- Above a 4.0 (5)

Q24 During your time in high school, did you ever take a class that was specifically designed for college readiness or preparation (i.e., AVID Advancement Via Individual Determination or similar class; not Advanced Placement or Dual enrollment classes)?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- A class like this was not offered at my school (3)

Q25 Which of the following college entrance exams did you take?

- SAT (1)
- ACT (2)
- SAT and ACT (3)
- TOEFLS or IELTS (4)
- Exempt/Automatically admitted (5)
- Other (6) _____

Q26 What describes your pathway to Sam Houston State University, please select all that apply:

- I graduated high school and came to SHSU the next semester. (1)
- I attended a trade school, or a certificate program first (i.e., nail technician or real estate). (2)
- I attended a community college first (transferred to SHSU). (3)
- I transferred from another four-year university or college (transferred to SHSU). (4)
- I served in the military. (5)
- I was working. (6)
- I served in the Peace Corps, AmeriCorps, or some other service-based organization. (7)
- I was caring for a relative/child. (8)
- I took time off (gap year – to travel or something else). (9)
- I took time to care for my personal health. (10)
- Other (11) _____

Q27 Which semester did you begin coursework at Sam Houston State University?

- Fall (between August and December) (1)
- Spring (between January and May) (2)
- Summer (June and July) (3)

Q28 In what year did you begin coursework at Sam Houston State University?
(EX: 2013)

Q29 How does your transition to being a student at Sam Houston State University compare to your peers on a scale of 1 (much more difficult) to 5 (much more easy)?

▼ Much more difficult (1) ... Much more easy (5)

Q30 Please indicate how much you strongly agree (4) or strongly disagree (1) with each of the following statements.	Strongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly Disagree (4)
The competition with my peers for grades is quite intense (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The unrealistic expectations of my parents stress me out (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Examination times are very stressful to me (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think that my worry about examinations is weakness of character (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I believe that the amount of work assignment is too much (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The size of the curriculum (workload) is excessive (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Even if I pass my exams, I am worried about getting a job (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The examination questions are usually difficult (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

I am confident that I will be successful in my future career (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am confident that I will be a successful student (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I fear failing courses this year (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can make academic decisions easily (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My teachers are critical of my academic performance (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have enough time to relax after work (14)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The time allocated to classes and academic work is enough (15)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teachers have unrealistic expectations of me (16)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Examination time is short to complete the answers (17)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am unable to catch up if getting behind the work (18)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q31 Have you ever been a victim of a crime prior to being a student at SHSU?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Q32 Has anyone attacked or threatened you in any of these ways in the past four months?	Yes (1)	No (2)
With any weapon, for instance, a gun or knife? (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
With anything like a baseball bat, frying pan, scissors, or stick? (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
By something thrown, such as a rock or bottle? (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Include any grabbing, punching, or choking? (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Any rape, attempted rape or other type of sexual attack? (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Any face to face threats? (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Any attack or threat or use of force by anyone at all, even if you are not certain it was a crime? (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Skip To: Q33 If Has anyone attacked or threatened you in any of these ways in the past four months? = With any weapon, for instance, a gun or knife? [Yes]

Skip To: Q33 If Has anyone attacked or threatened you in any of these ways in the past four months? = With anything like a baseball bat, frying pan, scissors, or stick? [Yes]

Skip To: Q33 If Has anyone attacked or threatened you in any of these ways in the past four months? = By something thrown, such as a rock or bottle? [Yes]

Skip To: Q33 If Has anyone attacked or threatened you in any of these ways in the past four months? = Include any grabbing, punching, or choking? [Yes]

Skip To: Q33 If Has anyone attacked or threatened you in any of these ways in the past four months? = Any rape, attempted rape or other type of sexual attack? [Yes]

Skip To: Q33 If Has anyone attacked or threatened you in any of these ways in the past four months? = Any face to face threats? [Yes]

Skip To: Q33 If Has anyone attacked or threatened you in any of these ways in the past four months? = Any attack or threat or use of force by anyone at all, even if you are not certain it was a crime? [Yes]

Skip To: Q39 If Has anyone attacked or threatened you in any of these ways in the past four months? = No

Q33

If yes, how many times this has happened?

▼ 0 (1) ... More than 10 (12)

Skip To: Q39 If If yes, how many times this has happened? = 0

Q34 Did you report to your local police department/Sheriff's office or the University Police department (UPD)?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Q35 Following the first attack or threat you experienced, did your experience change the way you went about your daily life, even if it was temporary?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Skip To: Q36 If Following the first attack or threat you experienced, did your experience change the way you went... = Yes

Skip To: Q37 If Following the first attack or threat you experienced, did your experience change the way you went... = No

Q36 If yes, please explain what behaviors of actions you changed in your daily life.

Q37 Following the second attack or threat you experienced, did your experience change the way you went about your daily life, even if it was temporary?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Skip To: Q38 If Following the second attack or threat you experienced, did your experience change the way you wen... = Yes

Skip To: Q39 If Following the second attack or threat you experienced, did your experience change the way you wen... = No

Q38 If yes, please explain what behaviors of actions you changed in your daily life.

Q39 Has a friend, family member, or acquaintance, in the **past four months** told you about an attack or threat they have experienced?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Q40 Has a friend, family member, or acquaintance **ever** told you about an attack or threat they have experienced?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Q41 Have you had something belonging to you stolen in the past four months?	Yes (1)	No (2)
Things that you carry, like luggage, a wallet, purse, briefcase book (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Clothing, jewelry, or cellphone (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Bicycle or sports equipment (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Things in your home - like a TV, stereo, or tools (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Things outside your home such as a garden hose or lawn furniture (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Things belonging to children in the household (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Things from a vehicle, such as a package, groceries, camera, or CDs (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*Skip To: Q42 If Have you had something belonging to you stolen in the past four months?
= Things that you carry, like luggage, a wallet, purse, briefcase book [Yes]*

*Skip To: Q42 If Have you had something belonging to you stolen in the past four months?
= Clothing, jewelry, or cellphone [Yes]*

*Skip To: Q42 If Have you had something belonging to you stolen in the past four months?
= Bicycle or sports equipment [Yes]*

*Skip To: Q42 If Have you had something belonging to you stolen in the past four months?
= Things in your home - like a TV, stereo, or tools [Yes]*

*Skip To: Q42 If Have you had something belonging to you stolen in the past four months?
= Things outside your home such as a garden hose or lawn furniture [Yes]*

*Skip To: Q42 If Have you had something belonging to you stolen in the past four months?
= Things belonging to children in the household [Yes]*

*Skip To: Q42 If Have you had something belonging to you stolen in the past four months?
= Things from a vehicle, such as a package, groceries, camera, or CDs [Yes]*

*Skip To: Q48 If Have you had something belonging to you stolen in the past four months?
= No*

Q42 If yes, how many times this has happened?

▼ 0 (1) ... More than 10 (12)

Skip To: Q48 If If yes, how many times this has happened? = 0

Q43 Did you report to your local police department/Sheriff's office or the University Police department (UPD)?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Q44 Following the first time you had a belonging stolen from you, did your experience change the way you went about your daily life, even if it was temporary?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Skip To: Q45 If Following the first time you had a belonging stolen from you, did your experience change the way... = Yes

Skip To: Q46 If Following the first time you had a belonging stolen from you, did your experience change the way... = No

Q45 If yes, please explain what behaviors or actions you changed in your daily life.

Q46 Following the second time you had a belonging stolen from you, did your experience change the way you went about your daily life, even if it was temporary?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Skip To: Q47 If Following the second time you had a belonging stolen from you, did your experience change the way... = Yes

Skip To: Q48 If Following the second time you had a belonging stolen from you, did your experience change the way... = No

Q47 If yes, please explain what behaviors of actions you changed in your daily life.

Q48 Has a friend, family member, or acquaintance, in the **past four months** told you about their belongings being stolen from them?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Q49 Has a friend, family member, or acquaintance **ever** told you about their belongings being stolen from them?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Q50 Did anyone attempt to steal anything belonging to you in the past four months?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Skip To: Q51 If Did anyone attempt to steal anything belonging to you in the past four months? = Yes

Skip To: Q57 If Did anyone attempt to steal anything belonging to you in the past four months? = No

Q51 If yes, how many times this has happened?

▼ 0 (1) ... More than 10 (12)

Skip To: Q57 If If yes, how many times this has happened? = 0

Q52 Did you report to your local police department/Sheriff's office or the University Police department (UPD)?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Q53 Following the first attempt at stealing a belonging from you, did your experience change the way you went about your daily life, even if it was temporary?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Skip To: Q54 If Following the first attempt at stealing a belonging from you, did your experience change the way... = Yes

Skip To: Q55 If Following the first attempt at stealing a belonging from you, did your experience change the way... = No

Q54 If yes, please explain what behaviors of actions you changed in your daily life.

Q55 Following the second attempt at stealing a belonging from you, did your experience change the way you went about your daily life, even if it was temporary?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Skip To: Q56 If Following the second attempt at stealing a belonging from you, did your experience change the way... = Yes

Skip To: Q57 If Following the second attempt at stealing a belonging from you, did your experience change the way... = No

Q56 If yes, please explain what behaviors of actions you changed in your daily life.

Q57 Has a friend, family member, or acquaintance, in the **past four months** told you about someone attempting to steal their belongings from them?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Q58 Has a friend, family member, or acquaintance **ever** told you about someone attempting to steal their belongings from them?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Q59 Not including bill collectors, telephone solicitors, other sales people, or spam, has anyone, male or female, in the past four months – frightened, concerned, angered, or annoyed you by...	Yes (1)	No (2)
Making unwanted phone calls to you or leaving messages? (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sending unsolicited or unwanted letters, e-mails, or other forms of written correspondence or communication? (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Following you or spying on you? (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Waiting outside or inside places for you such as your home, school, workplace, or recreation place? (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Showing up at places where you were even though he or she had no business being there? (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Leaving unwanted items, presents, or flowers? (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Posting hurtful information or spreading rumors about you on the Internet, in a public place, or by word or mouth? (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Skip To: Q60 If Not including bill collectors, telephone solicitors, other sales people, or spam, has anyone, mal... = Making unwanted phone calls to you or leaving messages? [Yes]

Skip To: Q60 If Not including bill collectors, telephone solicitors, other sales people, or spam, has anyone, mal... = Sending unsolicited or unwanted letters, e-mails, or other forms of written correspondence or communication? [Yes]

Skip To: Q60 If Not including bill collectors, telephone solicitors, other sales people, or spam, has anyone, mal... = Following you or spying on you? [Yes]

Skip To: Q60 If Not including bill collectors, telephone solicitors, other sales people, or spam, has anyone, mal... = Waiting outside or inside places for you such as your home, school, workplace, or recreation place? [Yes]

Skip To: Q60 If Not including bill collectors, telephone solicitors, other sales people, or spam, has anyone, mal... = Showing up at places where you were even though he or she had no business being there? [Yes]

Skip To: Q60 If Not including bill collectors, telephone solicitors, other sales people, or spam, has anyone, mal... = Leaving unwanted items, presents, or flowers? [Yes]

Skip To: Q60 If Not including bill collectors, telephone solicitors, other sales people, or spam, has anyone, mal... = Posting hurtful information or spreading rumors about you on the Internet, in a public place, or by word or mouth? [Yes]

Skip To: Q66 If Not including bill collectors, telephone solicitors, other sales people, or spam, has anyone, mal... = No

Q60 If yes, how many times this has happened?

▼ 0 (1) ... More than 10 (12)

Skip To: Q66 If If yes, how many times this has happened? = 0

Q61 Did you report to your local police department/Sheriff's office or the University Police department (UPD)?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Q62 Following the first frightening behavior you experienced, did your experience change the way you went about your daily life, even if it was temporary?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Skip To: Q63 If Following the first frightening behavior you experienced, did your experience change the way you... = Yes

Skip To: Q64 If Following the first frightening behavior you experienced, did your experience change the way you... = No

Q63 If yes, please explain what behaviors of actions you changed in your daily life.

Q64 Following the second frightening behavior you experienced, did your experience change the way you went about your daily life, even if it was temporary?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Skip To: Q65 If Following the second frightening behavior you experienced, did your experience change the way you... = Yes

Skip To: Q66 If Following the second frightening behavior you experienced, did your experience change the way you... = No

Q65 If yes, please explain what behaviors of actions you changed in your daily life.

Q66 Has a friend, family member, or acquaintance, in the **past four months** told you about any frightened, concerned, angered, or annoyed behaviors they have experienced?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Q67 Has a friend, family member, or acquaintance **ever** told you about any frightened, concerned, angered, or annoyed behaviors they have experienced?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Q68 Please select the definition that most closely describes your home-town neighborhood?

Mostly farm land, extremely rural (1)

Very small town, rural (2)

Medium sized town (3)

- Large town (4)
- Small city, urban (5)
- Extremely large, urban city (6)

Q69 How long (on average, without traffic) does it take you from your hometown neighborhood to get to the nearest extremely large urban city?

- More than 2 hours (1)
- 1-2 hours (2)
- Under one hour (3)
- I live in the extremely large, urban city. (4)

Q70 For each of the following statements about your home-town neighborhood, please tell me if you strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree.

Strongly agree
(1)

Agree (2)

Disagree (3)

Strongly disagree (4)

People in neighborhood are willing to help one another. (1)

My neighbors do NOT usually talk to each other. (2)

In general, people in my neighborhood can be trusted. (3)

People in my neighborhood usually do NOT get along with one another. (4)

People in my neighborhood share the same values. (5)

Neighbors do NOT watch out for each other in my neighborhood. (6)

Q71 How worried are you that you will be a victim of the following crimes in your home-town neighborhood? Are you very worried, somewhat worried, or not worried?

Somebody threatening to take your personal belongings from you. (1)	▼ Extremely Worried (1) ... Not Applicable - I Don't Own a Car (4)
Somebody taking personal belongings from you or your home. (2)	▼ Extremely Worried (1) ... Not Applicable - I Don't Own a Car (4)
Someone attacking you in your neighborhood. (3)	▼ Extremely Worried (1) ... Not Applicable - I Don't Own a Car (4)
Somebody breaking into your car and stealing personal belongings while it is parked. (4)	▼ Extremely Worried (1) ... Not Applicable - I Don't Own a Car (4)
Somebody sexually assaulting you. (5)	▼ Extremely Worried (1) ... Not Applicable - I Don't Own a Car (4)
Somebody will follow you, or show up at your home unsolicited. (6)	▼ Extremely Worried (1) ... Not Applicable - I Don't Own a Car (4)

Q72 How worried are you that you will be a victim of the following crimes on SHSU's campus or where you live while attending SHSU? Are you very worried, somewhat worried, or not worried?

Somebody threatening to take your personal belongings from you. (1)	▼ Extremely Worried (1) ... Not Applicable - I Don't Own a Car (4)
Somebody taking personal belongings from you or where you live while attending SHSU. (2)	▼ Extremely Worried (1) ... Not Applicable - I Don't Own a Car (4)
Someone attacking you in the area surrounding where you live while attending SHSU. (3)	▼ Extremely Worried (1) ... Not Applicable - I Don't Own a Car (4)
Somebody breaking into your car and stealing personal belongings while it is parked. (4)	▼ Extremely Worried (1) ... Not Applicable - I Don't Own a Car (4)
Somebody sexually assaulting you. (5)	▼ Extremely Worried (1) ... Not Applicable - I Don't Own a Car (4)
Somebody following you, or showing up where you live while attending SHSU unsolicited. (6)	▼ Extremely Worried (1) ... Not Applicable - I Don't Own a Car (4)

Q73 Based on your experiences, or those of friends/acquaintances, is there a place you have heard of, or know about, that you would consider to be the riskiest place on campus? Please name the location or describe its location in detail.

Q74 Based on your experiences, or those of friends/acquaintances, please explain in detail why you view this location as the riskiest place on campus (This could include things you have been told about a place, something you/someone has experienced, or location specific characteristics).

APPENDIX B

List of Victimitizations

	<i>f</i>
Assault	
With any weapon, for instance a gun or knife?	16
With anything like a baseball bat, frying pan, scissors, or stick?	12
By something thrown, such as a rock or bottle?	18
Include any grabbing, punching, or choking?	40
Any rape, attempted rape, or other type of sexual attack?	33
Any face to face threats?	53
Any attack or threat or use of force by anyone at all, even if you are not certain it was a crime?	57
 Theft	
Things that you carry like luggage, a wallet, purse, briefcase book?	28
Clothing, jewelry, or cellphone?	34
Bicycle or sports equipment?	17
Things in your home- like a TV, stereo, or tools?	9
Things outside your home such as a garden hose or lawn furniture?	10
Things belonging to children in the household?	6
Things from a vehicle such as a package, groceries, camera, or CDs?	32
Attempted to steal belongings?	42

APPENDIX C

Low Self-Control

I often act spur of the moment without stopping to think.
 I don't devote much thought and effort to preparing for the future.
 I often do whatever brings me pleasure here and now, even at the cost of some distant goal.
 I'm more concerned with what happens to me in the short run than in the long run.
 I frequently try to avoid projects that I know will be difficult.
 When things get complicated, I tend to quit or withdraw.
 The things in life that are easiest to do bring me the most pleasure.
 I dislike really hard tasks that stretch my abilities to the limit.
 I like to test myself every now and then by doing something a little risky.
 Sometimes I will take a risk just for the fun of it.
 I sometimes find it exciting to do things for which I might get in trouble.
 Excitement and adventure are more important to me than security.
 If I had a choice, I would almost always rather do something physical than something mental.
 I almost always feel better when I am on the move than when I am sitting and thinking.
 I like to get out and do things more than I like to read and contemplate ideas.
 I seem to have more energy and a greater need for activity than most other people my age.
 I try to look out for myself first, even if it means making things difficult for other people.
 I'm not very sympathetic to other people when they are having problems.
 If things I do upset people, it's their problem not mine.
 I will try to get the things I want even when I know it's causing problems for other people.
 I lose my temper pretty easily.
 Often, when I'm angry at people I feel more like hurting them than talking to them about why.
 When I'm really angry, other people better stay out of my way.
 When I have a serious disagreement with someone, it's usually hard for me to talk calmly about it without getting upset.

APPENDIX D

Bivariate Correlations

	Exp. Guard.	Victim	Lg. City	Sm. City	Lg. Town	Med. Town	Town Rural	Very Rural
Exp. Guard.	1.00							
Victim	0.03	1.00						
Lg. City	0.08	0.03	1.00					
Sm. City	0.02	-0.03	-0.21	1.00				
L. Twn.	-0.02	0.01	-0.18	-0.17	1.00			
M. Twn.	0.01	-0.04	-0.28	-0.27	-0.23	1.00		
T. Rural	-0.03	0.04	-0.23	-0.22	-0.19	-0.30	1.00	
V. Rural	-0.10	-0.02	-0.12	-0.12	-0.10	-0.16	-0.13	1.00

VITA

Sarah R. Bostrom

EDUCATION

- Expected July 2021 Ph.D., Criminal Justice, Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, TX
Dissertation: Community Type in Context: Expectations of Guardianship and Victimization Experiences on a College Campus
Chair: Dr. Ryan Randa
- 2017 M.S., Criminal Justice, Bridgewater State University, Bridgewater, MA
Thesis: Detroit Crime Trends: Examining Large Business Labor Practices
Chair: Dr. Robert Grantham
- 2015 B.A., Sociology, English *summa cum laude*, Commonwealth Honors, Interdisciplinary Departmental Honors, Bridgewater State University, Bridgewater, MA
Thesis: Analysis of Political Language Manipulation: Changing Public Perceptions of the Poor through the War on Poverty and Popular Literary Fiction
Chairs: Dr. Norma Anderson, Dr. John Kucich

PUBLICATIONS¹

- 2018 **Bostrom, S. R.** & Tasca, M. (2018). Re-entry Experiences of Women. In Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Criminology and Criminal Justice. Oxford University Press. doi: 10.1093/acrefore/9780190264079.013.483
- 2015 **McGuire, S. R.** (2015). OneFund: The illusion of one disaster. *Undergraduate Review*, 11, 98-101.

MANUSCRIPTS UNDER REVIEW

Bostrom, S. R., Randa, R., & Brown, W. (2020). Acquisitive crime trends: Unpacking the unemployment-crime relationship in a rural context. *International Journal of Rural Criminology*

¹ Name change to Bostrom in 2017, maiden name McGuire

Randa, R., Pyrooz, D., & **Bostrom, S. R.** (2020). Gangs in Schools Trends. *Journal of School Violence*

MANUSCRIPTS IN PROGRESS

* indicates original data collection

Randa, R., **Bostrom, S. R.**, Brown, W. & Reys, B. Aggregating Exposure: A Routine Activities Exploration of Violence Against Women.

Bostrom, S. R., & Randa, R. A macro examination of rural crime trends: New directions in communities and crime

Bostrom, S. R. Reflecting on data collection during covid-19: Adaptations in survey delivery methods

Kramer, K., **Bostrom, S. R.**, & Randa, R. Self-control and assessments of risk: Exploring elements of the vulnerability thesis.*

Randa, R. & **Bostrom, S. R.** Winning and losing in the crime drop era: Unpacking rural contexts

RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

- 2020 *Differential guardianship expectations* (2020)
- Principal Investigators: Dr. Ryan Randa and Sarah Bostrom, Sam Houston State University
 - Created survey and collected original data
- 2018 *Measuring the effects of correctional officer stress on the well-being of the officer and the prison workplace and developing a practical index of officer stress for use by correctional agencies* (National Institute of Justice funded) (2018)
- Principal Investigators: Dr. Melinda Tasca and Dr. Daniel Butler, Sam Houston State University
 - Conducted follow-up correctional officer interviews 2018

RESEARCH INTERESTS

Communities and crime/ victimization
Rural criminology
Environmental criminology

Macro criminology

PAPERS PRESENTED²

Randa, R., **Bostrom, S. R.**, & Brown, W. (2020). "Acquisitive Crime in Rural Spaces: A Theory Test of Economic Structural Predictors". The Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, 57th Annual Meeting- accepted, cancelled due to COVID-19, San Antonio, TX

Bostrom, S. R., Randa, R., & Brown, W. (2019). "Measuring Rural Spaces: Examining Existing Rural NCVS Outcomes with New Measurements". The American Society of Criminology, 75th Annual Meeting, San Francisco, CA

Bostrom, S. R. & Randa, R. (2019). "Unpacking the Rural Crime Drop: Exploring the Effect on Rural America". The Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, 56th Annual Meeting, Baltimore, MD

Randa, R. & **Bostrom, S. R.** (2019). "Winning and Losing in the Crime Drop Era". Western Society of Criminology, 46th Annual Meeting, Honolulu, HI

Bostrom, S. R. & Randa, R. (2018). "A Macro Examination of Rural Crime Trends: New Directions in Communities and Crime". The American Society of Criminology, 74th Annual Meeting, Atlanta, GA

McGuire, S. R. & Grantham, R. (2017). "Detroit Crime Trends: Examining Large Business Labor Practices". The Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, 55th Annual Meeting, Kansas City, MO

McGuire, S. R. & Wright, R. G. (2016). "Mass Incarceration: The Unintended Consequences on Offenders' Families". Students Arts and Research Symposium, Bridgewater State University, Bridgewater, MA

McGuire, S. R., Anderson, N., & Kucich, J. (2015). "Analysis of Political Language Manipulation: Changing Public Perceptions of the Poor through the War on Poverty and Popular Literary Fiction". Students Arts and Research Symposium, Bridgewater State University, Bridgewater, MA

McGuire, S. R., Anderson, N., & Kucich, J. (2015). "Analysis of Political Language Manipulation: Changing Public Perceptions of the Poor through the War on Poverty and Popular Literary Fiction". Undergraduate Sociology Conference Bridgewater State University, Bridgewater, MA

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

2021 Introduction to Methods of Research (Writing Enhanced)- CRIJ 3378. Face-to-face. Department of Criminal Justice and

² Name change to Bostrom in 2017, maiden name McGuire

Criminology, Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, TX.
(Spring 2021)

- 2020 Introduction to Methods of Research (Writing Enhanced)- CRIJ 3378. Online. Department of Criminal Justice and Criminology, Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, TX. (Fall 2020)
- 2020 Introduction to Methods of Research (Writing Enhanced)- CRIJ 3378. Face-to-face adapted to remote delivery for COVID-19. Department of Criminal Justice and Criminology, Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, TX. (Spring 2020)
- 2019 Introduction to Methods of Research (Writing Enhanced)- CRIJ 3378. Face-to-face. Department of Criminal Justice and Criminology, Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, TX. (Fall 2019)

TEACHING INTERESTS

Research Methods
Introduction to Criminal Justice
Criminological Theory
Systems

PROFESSIONAL SERVICE

- 2020 Reviewer for *Journal of School Violence*
- 2018 Chaired panel at ASC

UNIVERSITY SERVICE

- 2020 Peer mentor to incoming PhD student (Davis Shelfer)
- 2019 Walk-A-Mile volunteer
- 2020 Walk-A-Mile volunteer
- 2018 Peer mentor to incoming MA student (Gabriela Baldizon)
- 2017 Presenter to SHSU Elite, Department of Criminal Justice and Criminology, Sam Houston State University

FELLOWSHIPS/ AWARDS

- 2020 Conference Funding/ Travel Grant

	Funded by the Crime Victims Institute (CVI) to attend the ACJS 57 th Annual Meeting in March 2020 cancelled due to COVID-19
2020	Graduate Student Conference Funding/ Travel Grant Funded by Sam Houston State University to attend the ACJS 57 th Annual Meeting in March 2020 cancelled due to COVID-19
2019	Graduate Student Conference Funding/ Travel Grant Funded by Sam Houston State University to attend the ASC 74 th Annual Meeting in November 2019
2019	Graduate Student Conference Funding/ Travel Grant Funded by Sam Houston State University to attend the ACJS 56 th Annual Meeting in March 2019
2018	Graduate Student Conference Funding/ Travel Grant Funded by Sam Houston State University to attend the ASC 74 th Annual Meeting in November 2018
2018	Summer Research Fellowship Funded by Sam Houston State University Summer 2018
2017	Graduate Student Conference Funding/ Travel Grant Funded by Bridgewater State University to attend the ACJS 55 th Annual Meeting in March 2017
2015	Dr. Morgan C. Brown Memorial Scholarship Graduating Sociologist looking to pursue graduate studies in related field
2011-2015	Paul Tsongas Scholarship Full academic scholarship based on merit

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

2019-present	Doctoral Teaching Fellow Sam Houston State University Huntsville, TX
2017- present	Graduate Research Assistant Sam Houston State University Huntsville, TX
2015-2017	Graduate Writing Fellow Bridgewater State University Bridgewater, MA

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

- 2021 Sage Publishing and ACJS Faculty Development Workshop
“Teaching about Social Justice in 2021 with Joanne Belknap”
Certificate of Completion
- 2021 Sage Publishing and ACJS Faculty Development Workshop
“Teaching about Race and Justice in 2021 with Lorenzo Boyd”
Certificate of Completion
- 2021 Sage Publishing and ACJS Faculty Development Workshop
“Transforming Student Perspectives through Experiential Learning
with Jason Ostrowe” Certificate of Completion
- 2020 Attended Digital Education Summit at Sam Houston State
University
- 2020 Attended GUIA workshop at Sam Houston State University
- 2019 Attended GUIA workshop at Sam Houston State University
- 2019 Attended Teaching and Learning Conference
at Sam Houston State University
- 2019 Blackboard Online Teaching Certification
- 2019 Completed CITI certification
- 2019 Attended TACS workshop at Sam Houston State University

PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATIONS

The American Society of Criminology

Division of Communities and Place member

Division of Rural Criminology member

The Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences

Section of Teaching, Learning, and Scholarship member

Rural Sociological Society

Research Interest Group of Community, Health, and Family member

Research Interest Group of Population member

Research Interest Group of Curriculum member