



LIBRARY
Michigan State
University

This is to certify that the

dissertation entitled

THE RELATIONSHIP OF STUDENT PERCEPTIONS
AND BEHAVIORS REGARDING PERSONAL SAFETY:
A Comparative Study of Two Small, Private Colleges

presented by

Mary-Beth Ann Cooper

has been accepted towards fulfillment of the requirements for

Ph.D. degree in Educational Administration

Kathy mhore
Major professor

Date _____

MSU is an Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity Institution

0-12771

PLACE IN RETURN BOX to remove this checkout from your record.
TO AVOID FINES return on or before date due.

O AVOID FINES return on or before date due.							
DATE DUE	DATE DUE	DATE DUE					
UANE & 802001							
<u>V</u>							
	1						
		- dunity institution					

MSU is An Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity Institution

THE RELATIONSHIP OF STUDENT PERCEPTIONS AND BEHAVIORS REGARDING PERSONAL SAFETY: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF TWO SMALL, PRIVATE COLLEGES

By

Mary-Beth Ann Cooper

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Educational Administration

1997

ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP OF STUDENT PERCEPTIONS
AND BEHAVIORS REGARDING PERSONAL SAFETY:
A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF TWO SMALL, PRIVATE COLLEGES

By

Mary-Beth Ann Cooper

A prediction study design was used to describe the relationship between safety related beliefs, demographic and enabling variables and the intention to use safety precautionary strategies on two college campuses. addition, this study examined the relationship between safety behavioral intentions and the use of personal safety devices. Residential students at two small, private colleges were surveyed regarding their perception of personal safety and their motivation to comply with recommended safety behavior. Seven hypotheses were tested using z-tests for percentages and analysis of variance for means. Multiple regression analysis was used for each of the dependent variables to determine those factors which have the greatest impact on predicting safety behavior intention. The major finding of this study is that it is possible to predict intended safety behavior and safety device usage by using a combination of safety belief, enabling and demographic variables.

Dedicated in loving memory of John Raymond Buckley and Angela Kochan Buckley

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to acknowledge and thank my advisor, Dr. Kathryn Moore, for her patience and guidance as I completed this dissertation. Her belief in me was instrumental as I persevered with this project.

Many thanks to my role models in higher education who served as true educators and have inspired me through my early professional years. I offer my deep appreciation to Mr. David Butler, Dr. Robert Harris, Dr. William Pickett, Dr. Larry Roper and Mr. Brian McAree. Without their guidance and support, I would not have achieved my personal and professional goals.

I wish to thank my brothers, Mark, Matthew, Peter, Daniel and Paul, for their continued love and support.

And finally, I wish to acknowledge my husband, Dave Cooper, who demonstrated incredible patience through this process. Dave's sacrifice of time and disproportionate care of Cal during the last six months of the completion of this project, was commendable. You have my gratitude and love.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLESvii
LIST OF FIGURESvii
CHAPTER 1
Introduction and Statement of the Problem
CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE
Introduction
CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY
Target Population
Definition of Terms47

CHAPTER 4 FINDINGS Profile of Respondents.....49 Enabling Variables......53 Safety Belief Variables......54 Safety Behavior Intention......66 Safety Device Usage......71 College Crime Statistics......77 Summary of Statistical Hypotheses......79 CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSIONS Summary of Findings......81 Implications for Practice......87 Limitations.....90 Recommendations for Future Research......92 APPENDICES Appendix A: Nazareth Survey......94 Appendix B: Nazareth Letter.....101 Appendix C: Nazareth Return Postcard......102 Appendix D: Fisher Survey......103 Appendix E: Fisher Letter.....110 Appendix G: Reminder Postcard......112 Appendix H: Letter of Approval for Study......113 Appendix I: Campus Survey Request......114 Appendix J: Response from Survey Author......115

LIST OF TABLES

4.1	Frequency Distribution of Demographic Variables52
4.2	Enabling Variables, Z-Test for Percentages54
4.3	Safety Dimensions/Scales, Independent Z-Tests
	for Percentages55
4.4	Safety Precautions Recorded by Fisher Students62
4.5	Safety Precautions Recorded by Nazareth Students63
4.6	Ratings of Safety Precautions by Percent65
4.7	Safety Behavior Intention, Likelihood of Taking
4./	
	Specific Safety Precautions During the Month67
4.8	Safety Behavior Intention, Z-Test for Percentages
	Comparison Groups: Gender & College68
4.9	Stepwise Multiple Regression on Safety Behavior
	Intention with Demographics71
4.10	Safety Device Users Categorized by Demographic
	Variables, Z-Test for Percentages72
4.11	Summary of Beeper Usage73
4.12	Safety Belief Variables by Beeper Usage,
	Z-Test for Percentages
4.13	
4.13	Enabling Factors by Beeper Usage, Z-Test
	for Percentages
4.14	Safety Behavior Intention by Beeper Usage,
	Z-Test for Percentages76
4.15	
	with Demographics77
4.16	Campus Crime Statistics 1992-1996 By College78

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	3.1	Safety Belief	Model II.		44
Figure	3.2	Independent &	Dependent	Variables	45

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Students who experience crime or its impact on their campus may be less successful in their educational pursuits and in their satisfaction with their collegiate experience. Komisar states that "as institutions devoted to the life of the mind and the pursuit of truth, colleges and universities have an especially urgent claim on freedom from fear. Scholarly inquiry and transmission of knowledge can only go forward in the presence of order and in the absence of threat" (Komisar, 1986 in Kobasic, Smith & Zucker, 1988, p. 575).

Incidents of campus crime have increased through the 1970's and early 1980's, reaching a plateau that is likely to continue to hold steady through the 90's (Smith, 1989). In an attempt to require colleges to protect their students and employees from crime and violence, many victims and families of victims have turned to the court system for intervention. The trend of suing universities has grown significantly; in fact, the number of court cases brought against institutions of higher education has tripled in the last ten years (Castelli, 1990). In addition, federal and

state governing bodies have enacted legislation geared to informing and protecting campus community members. Lenski states, "Colleges and universities should have keen interest in any examination of safety behavior which may enable them to respond more completely to the legislation of the 1990 Campus Security Act and which has any applicability to the prevention of crimes that consume national attention by current and prospective students and families" (Lenski, 1992, p. 4).

The legal case behind the 1990 Campus Security Act was brought by Mr. and Mrs. Howard Clery against Lehigh
University. The Clery's daughter was raped and murdered in her dorm room at Lehigh in 1986. In the settlement, Lehigh agreed to spend more than \$1 million to install better lighting, alarm systems, to hire more security guards and to implement a shuttle system for students after dark
(Hanchette, 1988).

More than just the changes to the environment by Lehigh administrators, the Clerys sought assistance from the Pennsylvania Legislature to enact the College and University Information Act. This initial statute was modified and later developed into the Campus Security Act of 1990, which requires campuses to report campus crime and to publicize college safety policies.

As recent federal and state legislation have mandated that college and university administrators review their current operating procedures regarding campus safety,

heightened awareness of the topic has resulted. It seems straightforward to simply respond to legislative mandates, but that does not provide a comprehensive approach to educating students about the realistic possibilities of campus crime. A more inclusive approach to understanding campus crime and its impact would be for college administrators to know critical information such as: student feelings regarding safety, their perceptions of safety on campus, and student reported behaviors related to personal safety.

Camous Safety/Security Programs

Campus residence halls and their surrounding areas, while seen as significant learning environments on campus, can often represent settings for potential crime at a college or university (College and University Law Enforcement Officers, 1985). Common approaches to dealing with safety education on college campuses have included strategies for avoiding crime, self-defense workshops, lengthy reports of crime statistics and reporting mechanisms for victims of campus crime. Although all these approaches have value, do campus educators and students understand why crime occurs, or to whom? It is imperative to learn how students perceive their personal safety on campus and how their behavior may increase or decrease the likelihood of them becoming victims.

When designing safety and security programs for

campuses, institutions need to know how to best advise students about personal safety on campus. It is a challenge to simultaneously increase students' awareness of safety risks associated with campus life and also empower students to take more responsibility for themselves. Lenski (1992) suggests that college administrators need to know more about students' beliefs, perceptions, attitudes, and motivations with regard to safety in order to design a comprehensive and successful approach to help students see the connection between their actions, the college environment and potential consequences of risky behavior.

As colleges take the initiative to implement preventive measures, how does one know which measures will work? The research on effectiveness of safety interventions is extremely limited. It is challenging to assess effectiveness of security programs because of the variety of variables that are difficult to control on college campuses. Yet, if the security measures are going to be put in place, it is important to learn more about the effects of interventions on college students. The goal of this project is to examine the effect of one type of a security intervention and how it impacts students' safety related behavior on a small campus.

Recently the role of students' perceptions in understanding campus safety was addressed in a study funded through the Association of College and University Housing Officers-International (Lenski, 1992). The project focused

on the relationship between college students' beliefs about safety on campus, demographic and other modifying factors, and the intention to practice precautionary behavior. The researcher found that students who perceive safety precautions as inconveniences are less likely to take those precautions, while students who describe themselves as being more concerned about personal safety were more likely to plan on taking safety precautions, and students who were concerned about the ways crime victimization might affect their lives were more likely to demonstrate less risky behavior on campus (Lenski, 1992). The findings from this study are significant in evaluating current safety awareness programming and its impact on students' attitudes and beliefs about crime and victimization on campus.

College resident students, ages 18 to 24, are a group that is traditionally vulnerable to crime. Residence hall or community living is a new experience for most of these students and requires that they adjust to group living and develop a variety of skills in taking personal responsibility for protecting themselves, including their property (Wills, 1993). When crime (i.e. theft of personal belongings, violence, vandalism) does occur, many students are often unsure about what to do; they may even choose not to report criminal activity to the authorities. Often the crime itself is overwhelming and the process of reporting it prolongs their role as a victim. Beyond those students directly effected by crime, for the rest of the community a

feeling of invulnerability often prevails.

Invulnerability is defined in terms of an incapability of being harmed, injured, or wounded (Turner, 1993).

Dolcini (1993) notes that given the widespread acceptance of the idea that young adults hold exaggerated beliefs concerning their indestructibility, it is surprising that more research has not focused on risk-taking behaviors, including understanding the origins of perceived invulnerability (Dolcini et al., 1989).

Health Belief Model and Safety Belief Model

In the 1950's, a project was set up by the US Public Health Service to explain the widespread failure of people to participate in programs to prevent or detect disease. The outcome of this project was the development of the Health Belief Model, which has become one of the most widely used and accepted psychological approaches to explaining health related behavior (Rosenstock, 1990). Basically the model is a theoretical approach to understanding "the forces that drive and inhibit behavior as well as the individual's environment and personal characteristics" (Becker et al, 1977). Rosenstock (1990) states that in its most current form, the model suggests that individuals will take action to avoid or control health conditions after considering a number of factors which are present or available to them. Some of those factors suggested are: perceived susceptibility of contracting a health condition, perceived

seriousness of contracting an illness, perceived benefits of taking health action, elimination or minimization of perceived barriers to health action.

Researchers have attempted to apply the health belief theory to the topic of adolescent sexual behavior. In one study (Hinston et al., 1990) teenagers' beliefs about AIDs and condom use were directly related to self-reported behavior of use of condoms. More specifically, "the greater the perceived susceptibility to AIDS, perceived severity of AIDs, and perceived effectiveness of latex condom, the greater their reporting of 'always using' condoms" (Turner, 1993).

At the collegiate level, a study done in 1995 by

Lenski, Meyers and Hunter used the Health Belief Model as a

base to design The Safety Belief Model. The Safety Belief

Model combines variables identified in the Health Belief

Model, along with demographic variables and behavior

variables related to personal safety. The model is

comprised of eight safety belief scales, demographic

characteristics and certain life experiences, which combined

could predict the likelihood of following safety

precautions. Examples of precautionary behavior include

locking doors, using a college escort system, walking with a

prearranged individual, walking in well lit areas, and

reporting suspicious persons to security personnel (Lenski,

Meyers, Hunter, 1996).

The eight scales, each of which is targeted to a set of beliefs and behavioral intent, are:

- 1. **Motivation to Comply:** referred to positive health incentives such as attentiveness to physical health and wellness.
- 2. **Perceived Benefits:** assessed beliefs that compliance with recommended safety precautions would reduce the threat of victimization and the degree to which the individual and the institution are empowered to improve personal safety.
- 3. **Perceived Barriers:** included questions to assess students' negative perceptions of the recommended safety behaviors, including peers' opinions of safety precautions and convenience of use.
- 4. **Perceived Susceptibility:** composed of items related to feelings of vulnerability to property and personal crime on campus.
- 5. **Perceived Severity:** contained items for subjective assessment of the effect of crime victimization on college, work, and personal life.
- 6. **Perceived Threat:** composed of the latter two scales.
- 7. **Safety Beliefs:** created by pooling all the other belief scales, the purpose of which was to assess the combined predictive power of the model.
- 8. **Safety Behavior Intention:** outcome variable computed from summed ratings of a person's likelihood to take the listed precautions.

(Lenski et al, 1992)

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the present study was two-fold. In an attempt to understand the impact of a security intervention on students at a small campus, this researcher used the Campus Safety Survey to investigate its effect on the

students' behavior. The specific purposes of the study are listed below:

- 1). To test the usefulness of the Safety Belief Model by using the Campus Safety Survey in predicting students' behavioral intentions. Specifically, what variable or combination of belief, demographic, and/or enabling variables predict the safety behavior intentions of residential students at St. John Fisher College and Nazareth College?
- 2). To examine the relationship between use of personal safety devices and safety behavioral intentions of residential college students at two small, private colleges.

RESEARCH OUESTIONS

This study addressed the question of whether the Safety Belief Model is useful in predicting students' behavioral intentions and whether a relationship exists between safety behavioral intentions and personal safety devices. These basic issues were formed into a set of testable research questions:

- 1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between any of the safety belief variables and safety behavior intention?
- 2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between any of the demographic variables and safety behavior intention?
- 3. Is there a statistically significant relationship between any of the enabling variables and safety behavior intention?
- 4. Are there significant differences between safety device users and non-users in any of the safety belief variables?
- 5. Are there significant differences between safety device users and non-users in any of the demographic variables?

- 6. Are there significant differences between safety device users and non-users in any of the enabling variables?
- 7. Are there significant differences between safety device users and non-users in safety behavior intention?

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

<u>Safety Belief Variables:</u>

- 1. Motivation to Comply with recommended behavior
- 2. Perceived Susceptibility to campus crime (part of Perceived Threat variable)
- 3. Perceived Severity of crime victimization (part of Perceived Threat variable)
- 4. Perceived Benefits of taking precautions
- 5. Perceived Barriers to taking precautions

Modifying Variables:

- Demographic variables Gender, Race/Ethnicity, Age, Class standing, Length of time lived on campus, Self-reported grade point average
- Enabling variables (prior victimization or sensitization to topic)
- College Nazareth or St. John Fisher

DEPENDENT (OUTCOME) VARIABLES

- 1. Safety Behavior Intention, a score derived from intended use of a series of safety precautions
- 2. The likelihood of using a safety device beeper.

METHODOLOGY

The two institutions used in this study are similar in size (approximately 1600 students total, 800 residential

students on each site); both are small, liberal arts institutions founded in the Roman Catholic tradition, located in the suburban area of a mid-size Northeastern city. What is significantly different is that one of the campuses has recently installed a security system for members of its campus community.

At one campus, faculty, staff and students may obtain a "Security Escort" beeper from the Campus Safety Department. The small hand held transmitter when activated sends a message to a central switchboard area on campus, displaying the location and identity of the individual in need of assistance. Security personnel respond to the geographic spot where the beeper has been activated. The adoption of this device has had a significant impact on the campus, in that over 65% of the population are participating in this personal safety system.

The second campus does not have an advanced security system in place. Although approached by the same vendor of the described security system, the administration is skeptical of the effectiveness of such an intervention. The institutions in the study have similar educational programming targeted at increasing awareness of personal safety on campus, trained security officers who respond to criminal activity on campus, and campus personnel work to influence the quality of life within their campus communities. So, by focusing the study on the impact of this security beeper system, the value of the product in terms of

how it impacts its users and nonusers, was examined.

To obtain the necessary data for the study, the Campus Safety Survey (Lenski, 1992) was administered to all resident students at St. John Fisher College and Nazareth College during the Fall Semester, 1996. Lists of subjects were provided by the residential life offices at both campuses.

The self-administered questionnaire was mailed directly to each student along with a cover letter describing the study. A follow-up letter and second copy of the questionnaire was sent after two weeks to all non-respondents. Students were asked to return a separate postcard at the same time they returned their questionnaire. In the cover letter, the students were notified that returned postcards (along with questionnaire), were to be used in a drawing for a gift certificate for movie passes and a dinner at a local restaurant in close proximity to both campuses.

Data Analysis

The research questions were investigated using the slightly modified Campus Safety Survey developed by Lenski (1992). The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics, multiple regression analysis, and analysis of variance.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The challenge presented to college administrators is to reduce legal exposure and assist campus community members to feel safe, and at the same time to recognize individual responsibility while on campus. It was this researcher's intent to assess residence hall students' perceptions of personal safety on college campuses and to investigate the variables which impact likelihood of using precautionary behavior. A significant focus of the study was to determine the impact of personal safety devices used on one of the Campuses in the sample.

Limitations of the Study

- 1. Both institutions used in the study are small, private religiously affiliated colleges. The results of this study will be generalizable only to similar populations.
- 2. The length of the survey may result in a lower than desired return rate.
- 3. The use of behavioral intention as an outcome, rather than self-reported behavior makes the emphasis of this study prospective rather than retrospective. It is possible that the actual behavior of the respondents during the month following the administration of the instrument, may be different than their recorded intentions. Behavioral intention should not be confused with actual behavior (which this researcher is not including in this study).

Organization of the Study

The study is organized into five chapters with the addition of appendixes. Chapter 2 is a review of the

literature relevant to influences on social behavior, campus safety research and the social-psychological framework of risk behavior. Chapter 3 describes the methodology and includes descriptions of the sample, variables, instrumentation, data collection and analysis procedures. The fourth chapter contains an analysis of the data. Chapter 5 presents a discussion of the findings, implications for Student Affairs practitioners, and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

In this chapter, a review of the literature related to campus safety is presented: (1) crime on college campuses, (2) environmental influences on human behavior, (3) Health Belief Model and preventative health behavior, and (4) Developmental Theory of Adolescent Reckless Behavior (Jessor, 1992).

The first section provides an overview of campus crime and recent legislative measures. Recent statistics regarding crime victimization and factors associated with campus crime rates will be included. The second section focuses on the campus environment as an influence on behavior. Literature on campus design and residence hall environments is included in this section. Section three includes a review of the research on the Health Belief Model, of primary interest in this study because the instrument this researcher used is modeled after the Health Belief Model's assessment of attitudes, beliefs, perceptions and behavioral intent. The final category focuses on Jessor's social-psychological framework for the explanation of adolescent risk behavior. The exploration of risk

behavior and prevention/intervention will be of particular interest to this study of the relationship of student perceptions and behaviors regarding personal safety.

Campus Crime

The responsibility of an institution of higher education for the safety of its students has been explored by various courts in recent years. A college's responsibility is illuminated by the following excerpt from the decision of Eiseman v. State of New York, (1985, p. 963):

Students enroll in a college in the expectation that, not only will they be afforded the means to derive an education in an atmosphere conducive to the stimulation or thought and learning, but also that they will be permitted to do so in an environment reasonably free from risk of harm. A college is not expected to be a guarantor or insurer of the safety of its students, but obviously is expected to provide, in addition to an intellectual climate, a physical environment harmonious with the purposed of an institution of higher learning. To that end it employs a security force and establishes rules and regulations, breach of which can lead to suspension or expulsion.

Since 1989, a series of high profile crimes took place on college campuses across the nation, making it a priority for college administrators whether they liked it or not.

Maybe it was the Clery case, in which a 19 year old was raped, sodomized, and strangled in her dormitory room. Or the Hawelka case, where a student was raped and killed in full view of campus security officers who believed they were witnessing a young couple engaged in consensual sex. Or the

Pappas case, which found a financial-aid officer shot by a disgruntled man who had waited two hours to apply for financial assistance (Greene, 1988). These are only three of the many cases of violent crimes which received significant press locally and nationally.

As a result of the Clery murder, the victim's parents decided to do something about what had happened to their family. Howard and Constance Clery were a major force behind a Pennsylvania law which required all colleges in the state to disclose crime statistics. The Clerys' goal was to have colleges and universities be compelled to abide by strict truth in advertising concerning crime and security on college campuses. The legislation, Pennsylvania College and University Security Information Act was signed into law in 1988. Two years later, one of the most significant and controversial bills was introduced and passed by the House of Representatives and the US Senate. The original draft was the Campus Crime and Awareness and Campus Security Act of 1990. Revisions of this bill and clarifications of terms took place over the next four years.

The legislation is officially known as Title II of the Campus Crime Awareness and Campus Security Act of 1990. It requires colleges and universities to distribute to all current students and employees and applicants for enrollment or employment two types of information: (1) descriptions of policies related to campus security; and (2) statistics concerning specific types of crimes. Colleges were now

required to publish statistics in nine categories: incidents of murder, rape, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, and motor-vehicle thefts, and arrests for liquor-law violations, drug-law violations, and weapons-law violations.

Distribution must be made through appropriate publications and mailings on an annual basis (section 204 (a)).

Although the intent of the legislation was to gain a more accurate picture of crime on campus, a debate continues over how to interpret the data submitted. College officials and in particular those who work with campus law enforcement, warn against drawing firm conclusions from the statistics provided by the reporting institutions (Lederman, 1995). Many feel that ambiguity still exists around who has to report what, that the definitions of the crimes are too broad and that simply, many colleges and universities fail to comply with the requirements listed in the Act of 1990.

Of 796 campuses out of 5000 which responded to a survey done by The Chronicle of Higher Education in 1994, they reported the following: from 1993 to 1994 there was an increase of reports of robberies and aggravated assaults (+2.2%), a sharp increase in drug and weapons violations (up +34 and +11.2% respectively), a drop in number of burglaries and motor-vehicle thefts (down 5% and 3% respectively), and the total number of reported murders fell from 17 in 1992 to 15 in 1993. Rising numbers in the statistics could reflect increased enforcement, or an increase in criminal activity

on campuses, the reader is left not knowing the complete story (Ledeman, 1995).

Many administrators do agree on one major point. Most feel great concern about the continuing increase in the number of violent crimes. *USA Today* published in chronological order the violent crimes committed on campus during the fall term 1990 (Ordovensky, 1990). In a three month period, 33 assaults and/or murders (18 were murders) occurred on college campuses. The statistical analysis done by the *USA Today* staff indicated that every 3.4 minutes a larceny is committed on U.S. campuses, and every 1 hour 33 minutes an auto theft is committed. Additionally, every 3 hours and 20 minutes an aggravated assault is committed and a rape is committed every 21 hours on America's campuses (Ordovensky, 1990).

With the pressure on colleges to report crime reports, the consequences are complicated and varied. The issue of student privacy has surfaced at a number of institutions. Even though specific names are not a part of the reporting procedure, some parents and campus activists contend that the college community is entitled to know details about crimes, so they can be better educated and prepare themselves against similar crime. These concerns led to recent efforts in Pennsylvania to require Colleges to open security logs. However, unsealing security logs may implicate innocent parties or further victimize those

individuals who reported the crimes by divulging sensitive details to an entire community (Felsenthal, 1994).

Another area to discuss is the relationship between crime and alcohol use. Over 95% of the reported violent crimes on campus were either drug or alcohol related (noted in the introductory paragraphs of the Campus Security Act of 1990, provided by Uniform Crime Reports, 1989). In a publication entitled The Links Among Drugs, Alcohol, and Campus Crime, (Bausell, Maloy, & Sherrill, 1989), the authors reported that students who commit crimes tend to be heavy drug and alcohol users. In addition, victims of crimes also tend to be heavier users of drugs and alcohol than their counterpart students who report that they have not been a victim of crime. Several studies support this relationship between drug and/or alcohol use and campus crime. Researchers at Towson State University's Center for the Study Prevention of Campus Violence found that violent crimes were associated with frequent drug and alcohol use by both perpetrators and victims. In three years of National Campus Violence Surveys completed by the Center, they reported response means demonstrating 52% of violent incidents involved alcohol or drugs (Towson State University, 1986, 1987, 1988).

One of the revisions to the Act of 1990 was to require colleges and universities to report the number of arrests involving liquor law violations and drug abuse violations.

As campus crime receives national attention and reporting laws continue to focus on this critical issue, the relationship between alcohol and drug use and campus crime needs to continue to be explored.

Environmental Issues

The dormitory helped to create an atmosphere that invited frustration, argument, and crime. In the commons room of dormitory at South Carolina College in 1833, two students at the same moment grabbed for a plate of trout: only one of them survived the duel that ensued. Among the victims of the collegiate way (the notion that a curriculum, a library, a faculty and students are not enough to make a college) were the boy who died in a duel at Dickinson, the students who were shot at Miami in Ohio, the professor who was killed at the University of Virginia, the president of Oakland College in Mississippi who was stabbed to death by a student, the president and professor who were stoned at the University of Georgia, the student who was stabbed at Illinois College, the students who were stabbed and killed at the University of Missouri and the University of North Carolina. For their misfortune these victims of college life could thank the dormitory, the sometime house of incarceration and infamy that sustained the collegiate way (Rudolph, 1990, p. 97).

Schneider (1977) pointed out that, historically, student housing had been seen as a means of controlling student behavior. She suggested that parents were comfortable with a restricted environment which was intended to protect the students from misbehaving. The reality is that colleges and universities with residence halls have many more opportunities for potential crime than their commuter counterparts (Fox & Hellman, 1985). Although staff

typically have the responsibility to encourage resident students to behave in ways to assure the safety of themselves, their personal property and their community members, students do not always comply with suggested safety measures.

In 1993, the University of Maryland conducted a survey of safety and security programs in residence halls at fifty selected colleges and universities. Participating institutions were asked to identify the challenges they encounter with student behavior related to safety and security programs. The most often cited problems included: Propped entrance doors, tailgating or the practice of allowing non-residents to trail into a building without an official host, tampering with or vandalism to safety and security equipment and students' failure to lock their room door (Davidson, 1994). Doug Tuttle, Campus Safety Director at one of the responding institutions, agrees. He contends that most students, particularly freshmen, just aren't used to locking their bedroom door when they go to bed at night because they didn't do that at home....we have to teach them it's not just their bedroom door anymore; it's the only thing between them and the outside world (Tuttle, 1990, p. 37).

It is the hope of housing administrators that a residential setting can be created where community members share expectations, responsibility, respect and consideration. In Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs,

meeting an individual's requirement to feel safe and secure is second only to meeting the individual's physiological needs. Residential environments need to satisfy the resident's need to feel safe and secure, otherwise little else will be accomplished (Simpson, 1994).

When examining satisfaction of resident students needs, student perceptions and interpretations of the physical environment play a major role. While perceptions are subjective and particular to an individual, in the aggregate they theoretically become and define the culture in which the individual lives. This aggregate view represents the shared perception of a particular environment or setting (Pascarella and Terenzine, 1991).

Pace, as a prominent writer on the field of perceptual models, has given significant attention to the study of collegiate environments and student perceptions of these environments. Pace illustrated the importance of the social climate of a college by showing relationship between social climate and student satisfaction. In Pace's view, there are behavioral and psychological dimensions of an environment. The psychological aspect is apparent in the beliefs, feelings and attitudes of members, while behaviors are inferred by actions and relationships among community members (Pace, 1984).

Discrepancies between need for safety or feeling safe and high incidences of violence or crime, result in psychological conflict, strain and general dissatisfaction.

The result of this general dissatisfaction or negative feelings about the environment, can be demonstrated through attrition, vandalism, poor academic performance or isolation by community members (Pace, 1984).

Campus ecology and milieu management seek to change the environment and diminish the negative conditions which influence students' experience on campus (Evans, 1983).

While safety cannot be guaranteed, residential students should be assured that their safety is of the highest priority to college and university officials. Strange (1996) suggests to an extent that various campus physical features contribute to students' safety and security, their sense of belonging and familiarity with an institution, their ease of access and movement through its spaces, and their experience of membership in an educational community is the ultimate test of their design and purpose (p. 247).

Student Perceptions of Personal Safety

Assessing students' perceptions of their environments is one step in understanding the complexities of the issue of safety on college campuses. The college environment exerts more influence on students' degree of satisfaction with the college experience than any characteristic an entering student brings with them to college (Astin, 1977). Therefore, what happens on the college campus does matter. Specifically, when an event happens on campus which violates the students' sense of security it is important to the

community and its members.

In the article, "Preventing Violence on College Campuses," Roark (1987) identified some of the reasons for the vulnerability of college students as victims of violence. Typically, students are in a new setting, away from parental supervision and support, and among others who are also experimenting with new freedoms. Recognition of this factor as we deal with young adults, may lead to the implementation of strategies to reduce health risk and to participate in behaviors that enhance health.

A major element present on college campus is the "it won't happen to me syndrome". In studies of health risks, the findings demonstrate the strong tendency that people tend to consider themselves less likely than others to be victims of disease (Harris & Guten, 1979; Kirscht, Haefner, Kegeles, & Rosenstock, 1966; Weinstein, 1980).

An illustration of this was explored in a study conducted at the University of Iowa in 1974. When studying resident attitudes toward security in the residence halls, the phenomenon of students not seeing themselves as a potential victims of crime was dramatically demonstrated by the results of the research project. An initial survey of attitudes of resident students about security issues took place and just fifteen days later a coed was brutally murdered on campus. A follow-up survey (a replication of the original survey) was administered after the murder to determine the impact of the murder on student attitudes

toward residence hall security. The murderer was still at large and little information regarding the case was released to the community. The survey asked about the likelihood of violent crime in the halls and 90% of the respondents in both samples did not believe that a violent crime was likely to occur. Approximately 75% of the respondents said that they had not been concerned about a lack of security in their residence hall and there was no significant change in this response after the murder. The authors concluded that the murder of the coed did not significantly impact residents' attitudes toward security or alter their security related behavior (Miller, 1974).

Health Belief Model

The Health Belief Model was initially developed over thirty years ago by a group of social psychologists at the U.S. Public Health Service in an attempt to explain the widespread failure of people to participate in programs to prevent or to detect disease (Hochbaum, 1958; Rosenstock, 1960, 1966, 1974, 1990). Specifically, the Model grew out of Public Health Services staff members' frustration with the limited success of a number of programs sponsored by their organization in the 1950's. Since the model's development, it has been considered one of the most influential and widely used psychosocial approaches to explaining health-related behavior (Rosenstock, 1990).

Kasl and Cobb define health behavior as any activity

undertaken by a person who believes himself to be healthy for the purpose of preventing disease or detecting disease in an asymptomatic stage (1966). This is in contrast to illness behavior or sick-role behavior, where a person who feels ill seeks a definition of the illness and/or treatment for the purpose of getting well (Rosenstock, 1974).

The Health Belief Model investigates the belief that individuals will take action to ward off, to screen for, or to control ill-health conditions if they regard themselves as susceptible to the condition, if they believe it to have potentially serious consequences, if they believe that a course of action available to them would be beneficial in reducing their susceptibility to or the severity of the condition, and if they believe that the anticipated barriers to (or costs of) taking action are outweighed by its benefits (Rosenstock, 1990, p. 43).

It is these combined levels of perceived susceptibility, severity, benefits and barriers that influence health-related behaviors. Additional influences to health-related behaviors include demographic, sociopsychological, and structural variables which affect individual perception, and how one chooses to act. The Health Belief Model attempts to describe motivation to act as a function of expected goal attainment (Maiman & Becker, 1974).

The Health Belief Model in its current form consists of six combinations of independent variables. It portrays a

set of health beliefs and modifying factors as interacting together, predicting the likelihood of compliant behavior. The Model has its roots in a threat-avoidance logic, focusing on preventing or detecting serious disease. Rosenstock suggests that behavior to promote health is essentially the same as behavior to prevent disease and can be described by the variables listed in the model just as other preventive or screening behaviors can (Rosenstock, 1990).

The Health Belief Model has been utilized as a theoretical foundation in a significant amount of research. Hochbaum studied more than 1200 adults in three cities in 1952, attempting to identify factors underlying the decision to obtain a chest X-ray for the detection of tuberculosis. In his interviews, he focused on beliefs the participants had concerning their susceptibility to tuberculosis and beliefs in the benefits of early detection. Perceived susceptibility included (1) the respondent's beliefs about whether tuberculosis was a real possibility in their case and (2) the extent to which he/she accepted the fact that one may have tuberculosis in the absence of all symptoms. For those participants who exhibited both of these beliefs, 82 percent had at least one voluntary chest X-ray during a specified period of time preceding the interview. On the other hand, of the group exhibiting neither of these beliefs, only 21 percent had obtained a voluntary X-ray during the same period. Hochbaum found that four out of the

five people who exhibited both beliefs took the predicted action, while four of five who accepted neither of the beliefs chose not to take the action. In support of the Model, Hochbaum appears to demonstrate the a particular action is a function of two interacting variables, perceived susceptibility and perceived benefits (Rosenstock, 1990).

Another study applied the Health Belief Model in the context of obtaining influenza vaccinations by people thought to be at high risk for complications from the influenza infection (i.e. people over sixty-five, those individuals with chronic problems such as heart disease, diabetes of renal disease). The researchers, Larson, Olsen, Cole and Shortell, targeted a group of individuals in a family medical center following a flu epidemic. The participants completed a self-administered questionnaire to assess health beliefs and vaccination status. The response rate in this study was a significant 75 percent.

What Larson and others, found was that "perceived severity of influenza", "perceived susceptibility to influenza", "perceived efficacy of vaccine", "perceived expensiveness of vaccine", "self-reported inconvenience" and "satisfaction" were all significantly correlated with vaccine behavior. The investigators concluded "this study has demonstrated that health beliefs regarding susceptibility, severity, [vaccine] efficacy are important factors in utilization of influenza vaccine" (p. 1211).

Another experimental study, this one focusing on mothers' adherence to a diet for their obese children vielded further support for the model. This study included motivation, demographic and enabling variables. Multipleitem scales were used to assess each of the model's dimensions with the participants, prior to the mothers receiving a weight-reduction plan for their child. researchers conducted a multiple regression analysis in which weight change measures were regressed against belief measures (Becker et al., 1977). Nine items from the motivation, susceptibility, severity and benefits categories accounted for approximately 49% of the variance in the children's weight change. The researchers concluded that health beliefs may be most important at the beginning of a regimen, but over time and in the introduction of factors (i.e. weight change, boredom with the regimen of the diet) other variables may play a significant role (Becker et al., 1977).

Other research using the Health Belief Model has been done in studying preventative dental behavior, Tay-Sachs carrier status screening program, practice of breast self-examinations, attendance at screening programs for high-blood pressure to name a few. Summary reports from these studies provide support for the model. There are limitations to the model, such as the fact that some of the early research was done with small samples and were retrospective in nature. In addition, there has been

inconsistency in the questions used in all the studies, which points to difficulty in determining the overall value of the Model. However, the Health Belief Model still remains among the foremost models in health behavior prediction today (Glanz, Lewis, and Rimer, 1990). Lenski used the Health Belief Model as the prototype for the Safety Belief Model in her study in 1992. This researcher utilized the Safety Belief Model as a framework to examine precautionary behavior regarding personal safety behavior among residential college students.

Risk Behavior

Studies of specific health and safety hazards suggest that people tend to believe that they are invulnerable.

Most people believe that misfortunes will more than likely strike others, not themselves. Specifically, people tend to believe that their own risks are below average (Harris and Guten, 1979; Kirscht et al., 1966; Robertson, 1977). In a study of 100 college students comparing their own chances of experiencing 45 different health and life threatening problems with the chances of their peers, they showed a significant optimistic bias for 34 of these hazards, consistently considering their own chances to be below average (Weinstein, 1982). Weinstein suggests that the realization that one's own risk is above average as a powerful motivator for change in behavior. Health promotion and safety campaigns need procedures and illustrations that

will lead people to recognize their own risk status, and eliminate the unrealistic optimism demonstrated in this study (Weinstein, 1982).

Many adolescents perceive themselves as being invulnerable to the risks and consequences of their own behavior. In a study focused on sexual risk-taking, researchers found that while adolescents usually acknowledge others suffering from the consequences of risk-taking behaviors, they perceive themselves as being somehow immune (Moore and Rosenthal, 1991). Despite having adequate knowledge of reproduction and contraception, pregnant adolescents still had difficulty believing that pregnancy "could happen to them" (Donnelly, 1990).

Robinson, 1988, investigated perceived invulnerability among teenage fathers, observed after concluding his research:

Teenagers see themselves as immortal and invulnerable. They believe they are immune from such consequences as automobile accidents, death, or becoming involved in unwanted pregnancies. Over and over again I have heard 'I never really thought it would happen to her' when teenage fathers describe an unplanned pregnancy with their female partners. Such magical thinking helps teenagers—especially younger teenagers—to convince themselves that they are somehow special and exempt from the conditions under which others must abide. (p. 5)

In an investigation of older adolescents, Burger and Burns (1988) found that low rates of contraceptive use was also attributable to perceived invulnerability. In a study of undergraduate college women, it was found that sexually

active females tended to see themselves as less likely than other students, other women their age, and women of childbearing age to become pregnant.

Biglan et al., (1990) revealed in an investigation that adolescents who engage in one type of sexual risk taking were also apt to engage in other high-risk sexual behaviors. They found that teenagers who have sex with multiple partners whom they did not know very well are also not likely to use condoms. Moreover, these forms of sexual risk-taking were also related to other health-risk behaviors, such as drinking alcohol, use of drugs or smoking cigarettes (Orr et al., 1991).

Although significant research has been completed on adolescent behavior, very little research has been completed on perception of vulnerability and risk-taking behavior among traditional age college students. It is this researcher's intent to suggest risk behavior in college age students relates to their development as individuals in the late stages of adolescence. A number of college age students come to college under the legal age of eighteen. For all practical purposes, college administrators "treat" their population as adults complete with all the responsibilities that come along with that status. Aside from biological age, not to mention personal development issues, many of today's college students may not be equipped emotionally to deal with the changes in their environment.

One recent study of acquaintance rape prevention

programs at a rural community college found that perception of vulnerability can be affected by direct efforts. Gray (1990), Department Chair of Criminal Justice at Wor-Wic Tech Community College, suggests that educators must do more than disseminate information about crime on campus if their goal is to alter risk-taking behavior that may lead to students becoming victims of crime. Simply providing information about who is victimized and tips on avoiding being a victim will have little impact on students who do not feel vulnerable or who do not perceive the seriousness of the threat of victimization (Gray, 1990).

Gray suggests that students must first think that they personally are at risk, before they will take the threat of crime seriously and make a commitment to reduce risk-taking behaviors. He found that by personalizing acquaintance rape prevention programs to include local data and examples of actual crimes which have occurred, perceptions of vulnerability and intent to avoid risk-taking behaviors were increased for the participants in his study. Students then see that others just like them, on their campus, in their town have been victims of crime. Thus, specific activities initiated by colleges and universities can influence student knowledge and behaviors and have the effect of reducing victimization.

Many college students are entering the final stages of adolescence, which researchers have targeted as a life stage of high risk (Jessor, 1984). Jessor singles out adolescence

as "a time of relatively high risk in which risk-related learning takes place - learning new risk behaviors, of risk-prone personality dispositions, and of risk-enhancing opportunities in the environment" (Jessor, 1984, p.86).

Jessor suggests that adolescence is period of change. Transitions occur from physical changes to social and psychological changes in a wide variety of domains and take place rapidly relative to its rate in nearly all other life stages. White (1975) suggests that the main developmental trends associated with late adolescence and early adulthood as: the stabilizing of ego identity; the freeing of personal relationships; the deepening of interests; the humanizing of values; and the expansion of caring. What White does not comment on is the focus on the variety of behaviors relevant to health.

Jessor suggests several implications for health that are inherent in this life stage: (1) adolescence is a period in which a variety of behaviors relevant to health are initially learned and tried out, such as drug use or precocious sexual activity, (2) many of the psychosocial attributes that influence and regulate the occurrence of health-related behaviors - values, beliefs, attitudes, motivations, personal controls, self-concept, general lifestyle - are also acquired or consolidated during adolescence, (3) the changing environment of adolescence - peers come to play a greater role in this stage relative to the role of parent or other adults, there is greater access

to potentially health-compromising materials (drugs, alcohol, automobiles, motorcycles), (4) the pervasiveness and rapidity of personal and societal changes may require coping with feelings of inadequacy and expectations of failure and (5) the asynchrony of changes is likely to be stressful and problematic for health. Jessor suggests that based on these descriptors of this stage, that adolescence is a critical period for significant health-promoting intervention. In particular, that this is the time to discuss the management of personal responsibility for adolescents for their own health as well as the health and safety of others (Jessor, 1984).

The primary causes of death and disability at this life stage are behavioral in origin. Forms of violence - traffic accidents, suicides, and homicides - constitute the leading cause of death among this age group. Jessor describes risk not only in terms of behavior, but also of personality attributes and environmental supports. For health educators the key concern should be to make adolescents aware that there are risks associated with many of the behaviors in which they engage. The choice of using risk behavior versus risk-taking behavior is suggested by Jessor to discuss the interrelatedness of many of the health compromising behaviors already suggested earlier. He suggests a "web of causation" comprised of five domains: social environment, perceived environment, personality, biology/genetics and other behavior. Risk behavior crosses over the different

domains and elements of the web of causation ought to be of great importance to the design of intervention efforts.

Intervention programs should highlight the linkages between the adolescent problem behaviors, not attempt to focus on one issue at a time, since research shows that risk behaviors often occur simultaneously. Successful interventions should be oriented to healthy lifestyle choices by providing specific knowledge and developing attitudes and skills necessary to deal with the challenges of the environment and personal choices (Jessor, 1991).

Summary

In this chapter, an effort has been made to look at campus crime, the physical environment of the college campus and two theoretical approaches to examine human behavior. The Health Belief Model was reviewed as an important framework for the Safety Belief Model, used in this study. Campus crime and issues of personal safety have not been the focus of much research in higher education. The angle of examining college student behavior as it relates to the later stages of adolescence is a promising new way to view college student issues.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

This study examined the relationship between safety belief variables, modifying variables and intention to use precautionary safety strategies. In addition, this study examines the relationship between personal safety devices and safety perceptions and behaviors of residential college students at two small, private colleges.

This chapter will describe the sample, the instrument, methods of data collection, and how the data were analyzed. The instrumentation section will relate questionnaire items with the dependent and independent variables.

Target Population

The population included all the residential students at two nearby private colleges located in the suburban area of a mid-size Northeastern city. The two institutions,

Nazareth College and St. John Fisher College are small,

liberal arts colleges founded in the Roman Catholic tradition. Located a mile away from each other, the institutions have positive relationships with each other and the surrounding community of Rochester, New York.

Nazareth College

Founded in 1924, Nazareth College has an undergraduate population of 1375 students. During the Fall Semester, 1996, 62% of these students reside on campus, in five separate residence halls. Of the 854 resident population, 75% are female and 25% are male. An underground tunnel system connecting many of the halls to central campus buildings provides convenience and protection against the elements of the often harsh climate of upstate New York.

Since 1993, the Campus Safety Department of Nazareth College has provided a "Security Escort" beeper to all of their full time faculty, staff and students. The Security Escort beeper is a small hand held transmitter, which many of the users attach to a key ring for convenience. When activated by the user, the system instantly communicates the identity and location of the user to a central console located in the Campus Safety Office. This is accomplished through a network of radio receivers that are strategically located throughout the grounds and buildings of the Nazareth Campus. There is no charge to those who choose to obtain a beeper and participate in this personal safety system.

During the Fall Semester, 1996, 55% of the resident population were enrolled with the Campus Safety Office as users of this personal safety system.

St. John Fisher College

Founded in 1948, St. John Fisher College has an undergraduate population of 1485 students. During the Fall Semester, 1996, 45% of these students resided in six residence halls on campus. Of the 674 resident population, 54% are female and 46% are male. Similar to Nazareth College, both campus life staffs include trained security officers who respond to criminal activity on campus, and who are responsible for educational programming on safety issues for campus members. This campus, however, does not have an advanced security system in place.

The Sample

In this study, an attempt was made to survey all residential students at the two colleges. Students were contacted from lists provided by the Residential Life Offices at both campuses. Students in the survey were enrolled during the Fall Semester, 1996.

Instrumentation

Instrumentation for the study consisted of a questionnaire developed by Lenski(1992) titled The Campus Safety Survey. Her questionnaire was developed using questions from prior Health Belief Model research (from Maiman, Becker, Kirscht, Haefner & Drachman, 1977: Rosenstock, 1974b reported in Lenski, 1992). Likert scales were used in the instrument because they demonstrated

substantial convergent reliability when used in the Health Belief Model (Cummings, Jette & Rosenstock, 1978).

The Campus Safety Survey was slightly modified to include questions regarding personal safety device use for both campus resident populations. Additional questions regarding the personal safety device were asked only of Nazareth College students. This author also tailored the demographic information so it was applicable to this population and environment.

In April, 1996, a panel of seven resident students from each institution had an opportunity to examine the instrument for applicability, language and to determine the length of time needed to complete the instrument. Slight modifications were made to the language of two questions relating to beeper use as a result of this exchange.

Data Collection

Permission to conduct the study was requested and granted from the residential life directors at both institutions involved in the study. The author met with the resident advisors at both institutions two weeks prior to the questionnaires being distributed to explain the study and the importance of subject participation.

Since all resident students were involved in the study, the researcher estimated that four weeks into the semester was adequate time for new students to acclimate and set patterns of behavior within the context of the college

environment.

On September 30, 1996, all resident students at both colleges received a cover letter describing the study, a Campus Safety Survey, an addressed return envelope, and a postcard for the respondent to participate in the incentive program developed by the researcher (Appendices A,B,C,D,E,F and G).

The cover letter (Appendices A and D) was signed by the director of Residential Life at Nazareth College and the researcher employed by St. John Fisher College. It explained the voluntary and anonymous nature of the study, emphasized the importance of a high participation rate, and provided a phone number and name of someone respondents could contact with questions regarding the study. In addition, the incentive program offered by the researcher, "Dinner and A Show" was explained in full detail.

A follow-up postcard (Appendix G) was distributed to all resident students at both campuses on October 4, 1996. It reminded them to turn in their survey and to enter the "Dinner and A Show" drawing. They were also told that they could obtain another survey from their resident advisor if they had misplaced their original one.

To increase the return rate, the researcher offered the opportunity for respondents to participate in a drawing for a gift certificate to a local restaurant and two free movie passes. The "Dinner and a Show" program was only available for those who returned their postcards and completed surveys

by the October 7, 1996 deadline. Three winners were selected from each institution and their gift certificates and movie passes were delivered to them on October 14, 1996.

Of the 1528 mailed questionnaires, 1003 were returned.

Of those returned, 997 questionnaires were useable. The overall response rate for the study was 65%.

Research Design

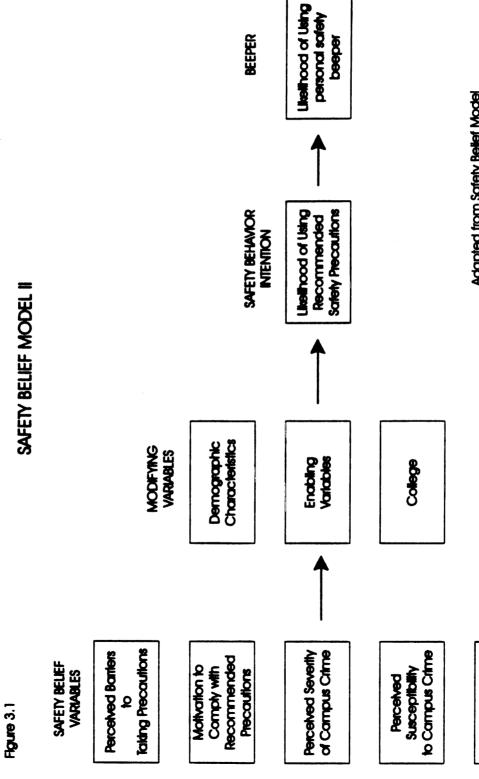
Variables drawn from the Health Belief Model and campus crime literature were formulated into the Safety Belief Model I by Tammy Lenski in 1992. In the present study, Lenski's model was modified into Safety Belief Model II (see Figure 3.1). As with Lenski's Model, the safety belief variables and the safety behavior intention variable were set up as scales, since the responses to the questions in the survey targeting beliefs and intentions were ultimately summed to a score. Figure 3.2 lists the survey items that comprised each of the independent and dependent variables used in the analysis.

As stated earlier in this chapter, the purpose of the study was to test the usefulness of the Safety Belief Model in predicting students' behavioral intentions. Another goal of the study was to examine the relationship between personal safety devices and safety related behaviors.

Anonymity

The respondents were assured of complete anonymity.

Each respondent was instructed to return their completed



Adapted from Safety Bellef Model (Lenski, 1992)

Perceived Benefits

of Talding Precautions

Figure 3.2

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Safety Belief Variables

Motivation to comply with recommended behavior

Concern for physical health
Concern for personal wellness
Concern for personal safety
Current safety activities
Awareness of campus safety services
Use of campus safety services

Perceived susceptibility to campus crime

Assessed likelihood of becoming a property crime victim

Assessed likelihood of becoming a violent crime victim

Assessed likelihood of becoming a violent crime victim compared to other students

Feelings of safety while on campus during the day

Feelings of safety while on campus at night

Feelings of safety in the residence hall

Opinion of own need to take safety precautions

Perceived severity of crime victimization

Degree of worry about victimization

Threat of victimization's interference with important activities

Perceived benefits of taking precautions

Perceived ability of institution to reduce victimization
Perceived ability of self to reduce victimization
Assessment of ability to defend self
Specific knowledge about safety precautions
Belief that precautions in general reduce victimization
Belief that specific precautions can reduce victimization
Feelings of importance about preventing victimization

Perceived barriers to taking precautions

Peers' opinions of safety precautions Convenience of safety precautions

Perceived hassle created by taking the following precautions (a) Walking with a friend after dark, (b) Calling a friend to walk with after dark, (c) Calling escort service after shuttle has stopped running for the night, (d) Avoiding poorly lit paths, (e) Locking dorm room at night, (f) Locking dorm room windows, (g) Closing propped exterior doors, (h) Arranging for first dates in familiar surrounding, (i) Avoiding leaving parties with new acquaintances, (j) Notifying security of suspicious persons

Modifying Variables

Demographic variables
 Gender
 Race/ethnicity
 Age
 Class standing
 Length of time on campus
 Self-reporting grade point average

Enabling variables

Prior property crime victim
Prior violent personal crime victim
Prior attendance at crimeawareness or self-defense
workshop

College

DEPENDENT VARIABLES

- A. Likelihood of using recommended Safety Precautions
 Behavior Intent Score
- B. Likelihood of using personal safety beeper

survey separately from their return postcard. Follow-up reminders were sent to all respondents, not knowing who had turned in their completed surveys or postcards for the drawing. No coding system for identification was used on any of the questionnaires or return postcards.

Statistical Analysis

Data from the survey were tabulated for the overall sample, as well as broken down by college (Nazareth, St. John Fisher), and a host of demographic and behavioral variables including gender, class (e.g. freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior), number of semesters residing on campus, use of Escort protection system, perceived vulnerability and safety awareness level. Differences between segments were evaluated for significance using z-tests for percentages, and analysis of variance for means. Differences between segments that had a probability of occurrence of less than .05 based on chance alone were considered statistically significant.

Multiple regression analysis was used to identify those factors which have the greatest impact on predicting safety behavior intention and the use of a safety intervention, such as the *Escort* system. A multiple regression analysis provides an equation describing a dependent variable (e.g. safety behavior intention, use of a beeper) as a function of student responses on various attributes (the independent

variables). The weights assigned to the various attributes in the equation (so-called beta weights) can be interpreted as measures of relative importance of those attributes in predicting responses on the dependent variables.

As Lenski did in her study, multiple regression was used to test the null hypothesis and also tested the Safety Belief Model by providing information on the strength of the scales, variables and the overall predictive power of the model. A regression analysis was run using the scales, demographic variables and enabling variables.

Hypotheses

- 1. There will be no significant differences between any of the safety belief variables and safety behavior intention.
- 2. There will be no significant differences between any of the demographic variables and safety behavior intention.
- 3. There will be no significant differences between any of the enabling variables and safety behavior intention.
- 4. Safety device users will report higher scores on all of the safety belief variables.
- 5. There will be no significant differences for safety device users when categorized by demographic variables.
- 6. Safety device users will report higher scores on the enabling variables.
- 7. Safety device users will report higher scores on safety behavior intention.

Definition of Terms

 <u>Residential Student</u>. A student who lives in a residence hall(dorm) at St. John Fisher College or Nazareth College

- <u>Belief</u>. A cognitive link between an object and what a person knows about the object (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975)
- <u>Behavior Intention</u>. An expressed indication of the probability a person will perform a specific behavior Lenski, 1992)
- <u>Safety Behavior</u>. Any activity undertaken for the purpose of preventing or reducing susceptibility to personal or property crime (Lenski, 1992)
- <u>Violent Personal Crime</u>. A violent crime committed against a person; includes murder, sex offenses, robbery, and aggravated assault.
- <u>Property Crime</u>. A crime of property; includes burglary larceny-theft, auto theft, arson, and destruction of property.
- <u>Security Escort Beeper</u>. A small, hand held transmitter when activated sends an electronic signal to Campus Security Personnel offered to resident students at Nazareth College.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

Introduction

Results of the data analysis are presented in this chapter. The survey respondents are described by the demographic and enabling variables reported. Questionnaire data, as it relates to the safety belief scales and the use of the beeper will be presented.

Profile of the Respondents

The sample represented two subgroups, resident students from Nazareth College and resident students from St. John Fisher College.

Demographic Information

St. John Fisher surveys comprised 473 of the 997 usable surveys. Forty percent of the Fisher respondents were male and sixty percent were female. Similar to the existing gender breakdown for the College cited in Chapter III, Fisher's resident population is 46% male and 54% female. Nazareth surveys comprised 524 of the 997 usable surveys. Twenty-nine percent of the Nazareth respondents were male and 71% were female. Again, this sample is similar to the

Nazareth resident population, which is 75% female and 25% male.

Class representation in the sample for both institutions was very similar. For Fisher, the respondents were 37% freshman, 26% sophomore, 20% junior and 15% senior (2% did not report their class standing). For Nazareth, the respondents were 37% freshman, 24% sophomore, 20% junior, and 19% senior.

Eighty-six percent of the Fisher respondents described themselves as White, 4% described themselves as Black or African American, 2.5% as Asian, Asian American, or Pacific Islander, 2% as Hispanic and less than 1% for each of the following categories: American Indian, Mexican American and Puerto Rican. The remaining 2% answered this question by describing themselves as "Other".

Ninety-one percent of the Nazareth respondents

described themselves as White and less than 1% each for the

following ethnicity groups: Asian, Asian American or

Pacific Islander, American Indian, Puerto Rican, Black or

African American, Mexican American or Chicano and Hispanic.

The remaining 4% of the Nazareth sample described themselves

as "Other".

The mean age of respondents for Fisher was 19.3 years with 81% reporting they were under 21 and 19% reporting they were 21 or over. The mean age of Nazareth respondents was also 19.3 years. The same age breakdown existed for the Nazareth respondents, 81% reported being under 21 and 19%

reported being 21 or over.

When asked to respond to how many semesters they lived on campus, 41% of Fisher students stated less than one semester, 8% said one to two semesters, 25% stated three to four semesters and 25% reported five or more semesters.

Nazareth respondents again are similar on this demographic variable. Forty-one percent reported less than one semester, 7% one to two semesters, 23% stated three to four semesters and 28% reported five or more semesters on campus. Both college samples spent similar amounts of time on campus in the residential environment.

The Fisher sample self-reported their grade point average in the following breakdown: 16% at 3.5 - 4.0, 74% between 2.5 - 3.5 and 9% less than 2.5. The Nazareth sample reported their grade point average in the following manner: 25% at 3.5 - 4.0, 68% between 2.5 - 3.5 and 4% less than 2.5. Seventeen Nazareth respondents chose not to respond to this question. The mean grade point average was 3.2 for the Nazareth sample and 3.06 for the Fisher sample.

Table 4.1 provides a frequency distribution of demographic variables for the Fisher and Nazareth respondents.

4.1 FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Demographic Variable	Fisher f	Fisher %	Nazareth f	Nazareth %
Gender				
Male	188	39.7	109	20.8
Female	280	59.2	411	78.4
Missing	5	1.0	4	.8
Total	473	100.0	524	100
Race/Ethnicity				
White	406	85.8	477	91.0
Black or African American	20	4.2	2	4
Asian, Asian American or	12	2.5	4	7
Pacific Islander	12	2.3	1	.,
Latin / South / Central	10	2.1	1	.2
American - Hispanic				
American Indian or Native	4	.8	3	.6
American				
Puerto Rican	3	.6	3	.6
Mexican American or Chicano	1	.2	1	.2
Other	7	1.5	20	3.8
Missing	10	2.1	13	2.5
Total	473	100.0	524	100.0
Age				
18 or less	165	34.9	187	35.7
19	128	27.1	128	24.4
20	84	17.7	108	20.6
21+	88	18.6	96	18.3
Missing	8	1.7	5	9
Total	473	100.0	524	100.0
Class Standing				
Freshman	173	36.6	191	36.4
Sophomore	124	26.2	126	24.0
Junior	93	19.7	106	20.2
Senior	71	15.0	98	18.7
Missing	10	2.1	3	.6
Total	473	100.0	524	100.0
Semesters on Campus				
<1	194	41.0	212	40.4
1-2	36	7.6	39	7.4
3-4	119	25.1	124	23.7
5+	119	25.1	146	27.9
Missing	5	1.0	3	.6
Total	473	100.0	524	100.0
Grade Point Average				
Under 2.5	41	8.7	20	3.8
2.5 - 3.0	158	33.4	142	27.1
3.0 - 3.5	190	40.2	215	41.0
3.5 - 4.0	75	15.8	130	24.8
Missing	9	1.9	17	3.2
Total	173	100.0	524	100.0

Enabling Variable Information

Another dimension of the Modifying Variables is what Lenski labeled Enabling Variables. Enabling variables include items concerning property crime victimization and violent personal crime experience. Table 4.2 illustrates responses from the sample for enabling variable items. As the table shows, Fisher students were somewhat more likely to report being a victim of a property crime (33% vs 25% of Nazareth students), although both segments were similar in terms of their experiences with violent crime (14% and 12% respectively). Nazareth students, however, were twice as likely to report attendance at safety awareness programs (49% vs 24% of Fisher students).

When the expert panel of seven students from each college initially reviewed this question for the researcher, most of the Fisher students had initial difficulty with this question. After further investigation into the classes and workshops offered by both communities, this researcher learned that Nazareth entitles their self-defense workshops as "self-defense classes" and offers these free each semester, whereas Fisher offers a Tai Kwon Do class through the physical education department only during the fall semester for a fee. In addition, because of the Security Escort System in place at Nazareth, new student orientation programs spend a significant time (approximately two hours during the first day students are on campus) discussing the

logistics of the beeper system. These two considerations may account for the large difference in the samples.

Table 4.2

ENABLING VARIABLES, Z-TEST FOR PERCENTAGES

Enabling Variable Item	Nazareth	Fisher
Have been a victim of property crime	25%*	33%*
Have been a victim of a violent personal crime	12%	14%
Has attended crime awareness or self-defense workshop	49%*	24%*

^{*}p < .05

Safety Belief Variables

The Safety Belief Variables were scored and divided into three ranges: high, mid-range and low. Table 4.3 illustrates the results of independent z-tests for percentages between the colleges. A discussion of statistically significant differences among the various demographic variables within the scales follows Table 4.3.

Table 4.3
SAFETY DIMENSIONS/SCALES, INDEPENDENT Z-TESTS FOR PERCENTAGES

Variable	Nazareth	Fisher
Motivation to Comply		
High Score	32%*	21%*
Mid-range Score	41%*	33%*
Low Score	27%*	46%*
Perceived Susceptibility		
High Score	28%	28%
Mid-range Score	42%	44%
Low Score	30%	28%
Perceived Severity		
High Score	33%	31%
Mid-range Score	22%	19%
Low Score	45%	50%
Perceived Benefits		
High Score	30%*	24%*
Mid-range Score	42%	38%
Low Score	28%*	38%*
Perceived Barriers		
High Score	28%*	38%*
Mid-range Score	35%	33%
Low Score	37%*	29%*

^{*}p < .05.

Motivation to Comply with Recommended Behavior

The Motivation to Comply Scale is a significant variable because it includes the importance of general health interest in contributing to practicing safe behavior.

Motivation to comply refers to positive health incentives such as attentiveness to physical health and wellness. In the overall scale, 32% of Nazareth students scored in the high range for motivation to comply compared to 21% reported by Fisher, a difference which was

statistically significant (see table 4.3). The Nazareth sample also showed a significant difference (p<.05) at the average and low levels, with Nazareth students continuing to report at a higher level for motivation and interest in practicing safe behaviors than Fisher students. Fisher respondents (46%) scored in the low range for practicing safe behavior compared to Nazareth response of 27% in the low range score.

The first question factored into the Motivation to Comply Scale asks "How much attention do you pay to your health?" A significant difference existed between males (88%) and females (96%) reporting "a lot/some attention to health". In the Fisher sample where the breakdown of gender is more equally distributed than Nazareth, the females still report more attention to health (94%), than their male counterparts (87%). It is also interesting to note that the higher the self-reported grade point average, the higher the amount of attention paid to health issues. Ninety-seven percent of students with over a 3.5, paid a great deal of attention to health, compared to 85% with a 2.5 grade point average or below.

In the overall sample, age seems to influence attention to health issues, attention paid to wellness programs, and concern for personal safety. In both sample populations, students who are 18 or younger (46%) pay "a lot of attention" to personal safety. In this age category (18 or less), Fisher students reported(81%) at the "a lot of

attention" level, compared to Nazareth (56%).

The other two elements of Motivation to Comply are awareness of campus safety services and use of these services. Awareness and usage of campus safety services seemed to be higher among Nazareth students. Specifically, 99% of the Nazareth population reported being aware that of campus safety services being available to them, compared to 94% of Fisher students. Those who take advantage of the services are more likely to be from Nazareth, and more likely to be female (43% as compared to 21% for male) and older students.

Perceived Susceptibility to Campus Crime

There was no significant difference between the Nazareth and Fisher samples on the perceived susceptibility scale (see Table 4.3). Within the combined sample however, females were more likely to score in the high range than males (33% vs 18%). Of those with a grade point average of 2.5 or less, 43% scored low on perceived susceptibility compared with only 28% of those with those with a grade point average of 3.5 or better. Grade point average continues to be a factor within the scores of the safety belief scales.

Perceived likelihood of being a victim of property crime is also an item included in the Perceived Susceptibility Scale. Freshman (65%) were most likely to select "highly unlikely to be a victim" compared to all

other upperclass students in the combined sample, with no other classes reporting over 59%.

In speaking to the issue of invulnerability, there was no significant difference between students at the two colleges with regard to the question of their perceived likelihood of becoming a victim of property crime. Eighty-two percent of the total sample report that their chances are less/much less than others, with no significant differences with respect to gender, age, race/ethnicity, semesters on campus, and grade point average.

When asked about perceived likelihood of becoming a victim of violent personal crime, the percentages are very similar with 83% of the total sample stating that they are unlikely/very unlikely to become a victim. In the combined sample, somewhat more females (17%) believe they that are very likely to become victims of a violent personal crime than their male peers (13%).

When reporting their own feelings of safety while on campus, nearly all Nazareth and Fisher students report they feel safe/very safe during daylight hours, 100% and 99% respectively. Not surprisingly fewer report feeling safe on campus after dark. Eighty-nine percent of Nazareth students report feeling safe/very safe in comparison to 83% Fisher students reporting the same way to this question.

Males (95%) feel much safer than women, with 82% saying they feel safe/very safe on campus after dark.

In terms of feeling safe in their dorms, both populations reported high levels of perceived safety. Ninety-six percent of Fisher students report feeling safe/very safe in the dorms compared to 99% of Nazareth students. When looking at grade point averages, 100% of students who have a 2.5 or less report feeling safe/very safe in the dorms. This reinforces the relationship between low grade point average and high feelings of perception of safety in the residence halls.

When asked whether or not they believe that there are specific precautions a person can take which will reduce his or her chances of being a victim of a violent personal crime, both Nazareth and Fisher students overwhelming agreed with this statement (96%). Juniors at Nazareth agreed with this statement more often than any other class.

Perceived Severity of Crime Victimization

This scale contains items for subjective assessment of the effect of crime victimization on college, work, and personal life. When asked how much do they worry about being a victim on campus, 45% of the Nazareth students reported "a great deal/some" in comparison to Fisher's 37% response. Female students at both institutions worry much more than their male peers, (52% vs. 16%). This is a significant difference at the p<.05 and one of the largest gender differences in the study. Students with higher grade point averages worry more about being a victim as

demonstrated by 88% with a 3.0 or higher responding "a great deal/some" versus 43% with a 2.5 or less responding "little or no worry". Forty-six percent of seniors and freshmen in both samples worry at about the same level, somewhat higher than their sophomore and junior classmates (36%).

When asked to what extent concern for safety on campus interferes with doing things they like to do, most of the total sample replied "little/none", with an 85% response to this question. A small significant difference exists between men (10%) and women (17%) responding "a great deal/some" extent to the which concern for safety interferes with doing what they would like.

Perceived Benefits of Taking Precautions

Perceived benefits are beliefs that compliance with recommended safety precautions will reduce the threat of crime victimization. An underlying theme to this scale is the feeling of personal control over individual safety and general ability to reduce victimization. Students were asked the power the college had to reduce their chance of becoming violent crime victims. There was no significant difference between Nazareth and Fisher in their responses.

Seventy-five percent of females in the combined sample responded that the college has "a great deal" or "some" power, compared to the males (40%) in the combined sample who believed that the college had "little" or "none" to do

with reducing the chance of victimization. Freshmen students (78%) were also more likely to believe the college has a great deal of power in this area (78% vs 68% of upperclassmen).

When asked about their personal power to reduce the chance of victimization, 85% responded that they had "a great deal" or "some" power, with females responding a bit higher (87%) in comparison to males (81%). On a similar theme, over 97% of the entire sample "agreed" or "agreed very much" that there are specific precautions a person can take which will reduce his or her chances of being a victim.

A compiled list of the suggested safety precautions from each college are listed in Tables 4.4 and 4.5.

Respondents had an opportunity within the survey to list safety precautions students could take on their campus.

Students at both institutions listed "Don't walk alone/Don't walk alone at night" with the highest frequency.

In the area of assessment of their ability to physically defend themselves from attempted crime, the gender variable shows a significant difference at the .05 level, with 86% of the males in the combined sample reporting that they were "likely" to be able to defend themselves in comparison to their female peers, only 57% of whom see themselves as "likely" to defend themselves.

Figure 4.4 SAFETY PRECAUTIONS RECORDED BY FISHER STUDENTS

Precaution	
Don't walk alone/don't walk alone at night.	205
Be alert/aware of surroundings	49
Take self-defense class	48
Carry pepper spray/mace	35
Lock your door	19
Avoid poorly lit streets/paths	17
Stay away from/don't leave parties with strangers	15
Use an escort service	14
Be aware of and use campus safety services	12
Use common sense	12
Carry personal beeper/alarms	11
Tell people where you're going	11
Say in control at parties/don't drink too much	9
Take precautions	7
Walk with confidence	6
Don't hesitate to fight back	6
Don't make anyone mad	4
Use Blue phones	4
Don't respond to fights	3
Don't carry lots of money	3
Have your keys ready before reaching door/car	2
Carry a whistle	2
Don't dress provocatively	2
Don't prop doors	1
Don't provoke trouble/dress provocatively	1
Wear light clothing	1

Figure 4.5
SAFETY PRECAUTIONS RECORDED BY NAZARETH STUDENTS

Precaution	
Don't walk alone/don't walk alone at night	286
Take self-defense class	120
Carry Security Escort	102
Be alert/aware of surroundings	86
Lock your door	59
Avoid poorly lit streets/paths	42
Stay in control at parties/don't drink too much	29
Stay away from/don't leave parties with strangers	25
Be aware of and use campus safety services	22
Use common sense	18
Carry pepper spray/mace	16
Use an escort service	11
Walk with confidence	11
Tell people where you're going	10
Don't hesitate to fight back	9
Have your keys ready before reaching door/car	6
Don't respond to fights	5
Don't make anyone mad	4
Carry a whistle	2
Don't dress provocatively	2
Don't carry lots of money	2
Don't provoke trouble/dress provocatively	1
Don't commit a crime	1

Perceived Barriers to Taking Precautions

Perceived barriers are subjective reasons why taking suggested safety precautions are not met with a positive response. The questions included in this scale assess students' negative perceptions of the recommended safety behaviors, including peers' opinions of safety precautions and convenience of use.

Nazareth students appear to be less bothered by taking safety precautions than the Fisher sample. When asked if they agreed with the statement "Sometimes I'm embarrassed to insist on certain safety precautions when I'm out with friends", more Nazareth students (78%) disagreed with the statement than Fisher (68%). When asked about the amount of time required to take safety precautions, 43% of the Fisher students report that they don't take precautions because the behaviors take too much time, in comparison to 35% of Nazareth students.

Finally in this category, students were then asked to rate the degree of hassle for a series of safety precautions. The list of safety precautions are rated by Nazareth and Fisher samples in Table 4.6. The safety precautions which are statistically significant at the .05 level are asterisked.

Figure 4.6

RATINGS OF SAFETY PRECAUTIONS - PERCENTS *p < .05.

Question: In general, how much of a hasale are the following safety precautions?

PRECAUTION		Nazareth %	Fisher %
Asking a friend to walk on campus with you	Very Easy	41	37
after dark.	Easy	42	40
	A Hassle	8*	12*
	Don't Do	9	11
Calling a friend to walk on campus with you	Very Easy	28	30
after dark.	Easy	42	36
	A Hassic	18	19
	Don't Do	12	15
Calling the campus police service for escort	Very Easy	20	18
across campus after the shuttle has stopped for	Easy	29	32
the night.	A Hassle	21	23
	Don't Do	31	28
Avoiding poorly lit paths on campus.	Very Easy	26	24
	Easy	50	49
	A Hassic	16	18
	Don't Do	8	10
Locking dorm room at night.	Very Easy	82	77
	Easy	14*	19*
	A Hassle	1	1
	Don't Do	3	3
Keeping dorm room windows locked.	Very Easy	39*	32*
	Easy	23	22
	A Hassle	9	12
	Don't Do	28*	35*
Closing exterior residence hall doors you find	Very Easy	39*	31*
propped open.	Easy	37	38
	A Hassie	7	8
	Don't Do	17*	24*
Arranging for first-time dates to occur in	Very Easy	31	30
familiar surroundings.	Easy	48	45
-	A Hassle	5*	9*
	Don't Do	16	16
Avoiding leaving a party alone with a new	Very Easy	33	29
acquaintance.	Easy	47	43
-	A Hassle	6*	11*
	Don't Do	14	17
Notifying security of suspicious persons on	Very Easy	24	20
campus or in the residence hall.	Easy	48*	40*
•	A Hassle	15*	22*
	Don't Do	29	18

Safety Behavior Intention

The Safety Belief Model postulates that several safety belief variables, combined with a student's demographic characteristics and certain life experiences, could predict the likelihood of following certain simple and common safety precautions. Such precautions include calling a friend to walk with after dark, using an escort service, avoiding poorly lit paths, locking doors and windows, securing open doors, notifying security personnel of suspicious persons, and arranging for first-time dates to occur in familiar surroundings (Lenski et al. 1996).

The Safety Behavior Intention scale was computed from the respondents' ratings of the likelihood they would take the same safety precautions listed in the Perceived Barriers scale. The responses were summed to a safety behavior intent score. Responses to the intention scale questions are provided in Table 4.7.

For each of the safety precautions (with the exception of "Calling campus security for an escort"), females in both samples reported a much greater likelihood of taking specific precautions. Females are more likely to call/ask a friend to walk with them, avoid poorly lit paths, lock their dorm door at night, avoid leaving a party with new acquaintance, arrange for date to occur in familiar surroundings and would notify security if they saw a suspicious person on campus.

Table 4.7
SAFETY BEHAVIOR INTENTION - LIKELIHOOD OF TAKING SPECIFIC SAFETY
PRECAUTIONS DURING THE MONTH, INDEPENDENT Z-TESTS FOR PERCENTAGES

Precaution	Naz	Nazareth		Fisher	
	m	f	m	. f	
1. Call/ask a friend to walk with your after dark					
Definitely will	3%*	15%*	3%*	24%*	
Probably will	11%*	41%*	19%*	40%*	
Probably won't	44%	38%	39%	31%	
Definitely won't	42%	6%*	39%*	5%*	
2. Call campus security for an escort after dark					
Definitely will	1%	1%	2%	5%	
Probably will	3%*	9%*	9%*	16%*	
Probably won't	35%*	64%*	36%*	56%*	
Definitely won't	61%*	26%*	53%*	23%*	
3. Avoid poorly lit paths after dark					
Definitely will	6%*	33%*	7%*	38%*	
Probably will	28%*	49%*	31%*	42%*	
Probably won't	41%*	15%*	39%*	17%*	
Definitely won't	25%*	3%*	23%*	3%*	
4. Lock dorm room at night					
Definitely will	50%*	88%*	70%*	87%*	
Probably will	25%*	8%*	19%*	10%*	
Probably won't	18%*	3%*	10%*	2%*	
Definitely won't	7%*	1%*	1%	1%	
5. Keep dorm windows locked at night					
Definitely will	13%*	24%*	19%*	27%*	
Probably will	27%	25%	21%	23%	
Probably won't	39%	38%	31%	30%	
Definitely won't	21%	13%*	29%*	20%*	
6. Close a propped door in your dorm					
Definitely will	14%*	26%*	17%	24%	
Probably will	25%*	42%*	35%	40%	
Probably won't	48%*	29%*	35%	31%	
Definitely won't	13%*	3%*	13%*	5%*	

Table 4.7
SAFETY BEHAVIOR INTENTION - LIKELIHOOD OF TAKING SPECIFIC SAFETY
PRECAUTIONS DURING THE MONTH, INDEPENDENT Z-TESTS FOR PERCENTAGES

7. Arrange for date to occur in familiar surroundings			i	
Definitely will	12%*	42%*	11%*	43%*
Probably will	33%*	48%*	39%	43%
Probably won't	38%*	7%*	35%*	9%*
Definitely won't	17%*	3%*	15%*	5%*
8. Avoid leaving party alone with a new acquaintance				
Definitely will	11%*	50%*	9%*	53%*
Probably will	26%*	42%*	38%	36%
Probably won't	43%*	7%*	36%*	8%*
Definitely won't	20%*	1%*	17%*	3%*
9. Notify security if you see a suspicious person on campus				
Definitely will	17%*	29%*	16%*	27%*
Probably will	39%	45%	45%	43%
Probably won't	34%*	34%	34%	27%
Definitely won't	10%*	5%	5%	3%

^{*} p < .05

Not surprisingly, when the Safety Behavior Scores were summed, the females scored significantly higher at both institutions. However, the difference between the genders at the two schools was similar; men in the high score range (7% Nazareth and 10% Fisher), females in the high score range (44% Nazareth and 46% Fisher). Table 4.8 shows the distribution of Safety Behavior Intention scores by gender for each of the two colleges.

Table 4.8
SAFETY BEHAVIOR INTENTION Z-TEST FOR PERCENTAGES COMPARISON
GROUPS: GENDER & COLLEGE

Safety Behavior Intention Score	Naz	areth	Fis	her
	100	f	m	f
High Score	7%*	44%*	10%*	46%*
Mid-range Score	20%*	37%*	25%	32%
Low Score	73%*	19%*	65%*	22%*

^{*} p < .05.

One of the study's specific purposes was to address the question of whether the Safety Belief Model is useful in predicting students' behavioral intentions. Research questions were developed to examine if a relationship exists between any of the safety belief variables, modifying variables (includes demographic variables, prior victimization and college) and the safety behavioral intentions, as summarized by the Safety Behavior Intention Scale. From the research questions, null hypotheses were developed and tested in the data analysis. The first three hypotheses dealt with the dependent outcome, Safety Behavior Intention:

- 1). There will be no significant relationship between any of the safety belief variables and safety behavior intention.
- 2). There will be no significant relationship between any of the demographic variables and safety behavior intention.
- 3). There will be no significant relationship between any of the enabling variables and safety behavior intention.

In order to test these three null hypotheses and the relationship between the safety belief scales, demographic variables, enabling variables and safety behavior intention, a multiple regression was performed. Safety behavior intention was the dependent variable. The statistical package used to analyze the data checked for multicollinearity prior to including the variable in the regression.

The analysis yielded nine variables which accounted for 64% of the variance in the dependent variable, Safety Behavior Intention. The most significant predictor of safety behavior intention was Perceived Barriers, which by itself accounted for approximately 40% of the total variance (Beta=.719). The next most important predictors included Readiness to Act(Beta=.294), Gender(Beta=.288), and Motivation to Comply(Beta=.145). Other factors which had a smaller influence on safety behavior intention included semesters on campus, college, enabling factors, age and perceived benefits variables, although, these variables accounted for a very small proportion of the variance. The stepwise regression is summarized in Table 4.9.

The regression indicated that safety behavior intention does vary significantly with safety beliefs (perceived barriers, readiness to act, motivation to comply and perceived benefits), demographic variables (gender, age, and semesters on campus), and enabling variables. Therefore, the first three null hypotheses are rejected.

Table 4.9
STEPWISE MULTIPLE REGRESSION ON SAFETY BEHAVIOR INTENTION WITH
DEMOGRAPHICS

Variable	Beta	R	\mathbb{R}_2	Increase in R
1. Perceived Barriers Scale	.719	.634	.402	-
2 Readiness to Act	.294	.777	.604	.202
3 Gender	.288	.734	.539	.065
4. Motivation to Comply	.145	.782	.612	.073
5. Semesters on Campus	.118	.794	.631	.019
6. College	.076	.787	.619	.012
7. Enabling Factors	.074	.791	.626	.007
8. Age	.072	.796	.634	.008
9. Perceived Benefits	.056	.798	.636	.002

Safety Device (Beeper) Usage

The revised Safety Belief Model (Safety Belief Model II) postulates that several belief variables, combined with demographic and certain life experiences, could predict the likelihood of using a personal safety beeper. Independent Z-Tests for percentages and a multiple regression analysis were used to analyze the data on beeper usage and relationship with demographic, enabling and safety belief variables.

Tables 4.10 and 4.11 provide information on who possesses a beeper on the Nazareth Campus and how often they use it. The most common characteristics of beeper owners are: they are mostly women, who are freshman, 18 years old or less, and self-report their grade point average over 2.5. Females (72%) report a significant and dramatic comparison to

males(19%) in possession of this safety intervention. As students' ages increase, as well as the length of time reported on campus, the rate of possession steadily decreases. And finally, as grade point average increases, so does the percentage of beeper owners (see Table 4.10).

Table 4.10
SAFETY DEVICE USERS CATEGORIZED BY DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES Z-TEST
FOR PERCENTAGES (BASE: NAZARETH COLLEGE STUDENTS)

Variable	Possess	Possess Beeper	
	YES	NO	
Gender			
male	19%	81%	
female	72%*	28%	
Class Standing			
Freshman	81%*	19%	
Sophomore	66%*	34%	
Junior	38%	62%	
Senior	43%	57%	
Age			
18 or less	82%*	18%	
19	65%*	35%*	
20	42%	58%	
21 +	40%	60%*	
Race			
White	62%	38%	
Non-White	62%	38%	
Semesters on Campus			
<1	80%*	20%	
1 - 2	50%	50%*	
5 +	38%	62%	
Grade Point Average			
Under 2.5	35%	65%	
2.5 - 3.0	59%*	41%	
3.0 - 3.5	64%*	36%	
3.5 - 4.0	63%*	37%	

Among Nazareth students, 59% report some use of the beeper, forty-one percent saying they use it "all the time", 12% most of the time and only 3% of those who possess a beeper, fail to use it at all (see Table 4.11).

Table 4.11
SUMMARY OF BEEPER USAGE (BASE: NAZARETH COLLEGE STUDENTS)

Use beeper all the time	41%
Use beeper most of the time	12%
Use beeper not very often	6%
Have beeper but never use it	3%
Do not possess beeper	38%

 $\eta = 523$

The remainder of the data analysis examines the relationship between safety device usage and safety beliefs, enabling variables, demographic variables and safety behavior intention. Specific hypotheses will be addressed with Z-Tests for percentages and a multiple regression analysis.

Hypothesis 4:

Safety device users will report higher scores on all safety belief variables.

Table 4.12 presents the findings of a Z-Test for percentages with significant differences asterisked at the p<.05 level. In all the safety belief variables, beeper users scored higher than non-users with the exception of the

Perceived Barriers Scale and the Readiness to Act Scale. Therefore, the hypothesis was rejected at the .05 level.

Table 4.12 SAFETY BELIEF VARIABLES BY BEEPER USAGE, Z-TEST FOR PERCENTAGES

Safety scales	Use Beeper	
	YES	NO
Motivation to Comply		
High	43%*	17%*
Mid-Range	43%	39%
Low	14%*	44%*
Perceived Susceptibility		
High	30%	25%
Mid-Range	47%*	34%
Low	23%*	41%*
Perceived Severity		
High	41%*	20%*
Mid-Range	25%	19%
Low	34%*	61%*
Perceived Benefits		
High	32%*	26%*
Mid-Range	41%	44%
Low	27%	30%
Perceived Barriers		
High	21%*	39%*
Mid-Range	35%	35%
Low	44%*	26%*
Readiness to Act		
High	28%	34%
Mid-Range	40%*	27%*
Low	32%	39%

^{*} p < .05

Hypothesis 5:

There will be no significant differences for safety device users when categorized by demographic variables.

Table 4.10 categorizes safety device users by demographic variables. Significant differences exist between beeper users and non-users on gender, class standing, age, race, semesters on campus and grade point average. Hypotheses 5 is rejected at the p.<05. level.

Hypothesis 6:

Safety device users will report higher scores on the enabling variables.

Table 4.13 presents the findings of a Z-Test for percentages with enabling factors by beeper usage. Beeper users only scored higher in the mid-range level, not the high level. It doesn't appear that prior life experience impacts the use of beepers in this study. Overall, beeper users do report somewhat higher scores, therefore Hypothesis 6 is accepted.

Table 4.13
ENABLING FACTORS BY BEEPER USAGE Z-TEST FOR PERCENTAGES

Enabling Factor Scale	Use Beeper	
	YES	NO
High Mid-Range Low	18% 53%* 29%	18% 40%* 42%

^{*} p < .05

Hypothesis 7:

Safety device users will report higher scores on safety behavior intention.

Table 4.14 presents the findings of a Z-Test for percentage between the two dependent variables, safety behavior intention and beeper usage. At the p.<.05 level, there was a significant difference between beeper users and non-users at all three levels. A relationship appears to exist between the safety belief intention and one's use of a safety device. The higher one scores on safety behavior intention, the greater their likelihood of using a beeper. Based on this finding, Hypothesis 7 is accepted.

Table 4.14
SAFETY BEHAVIOR INTENTION BY BEEPER USAGE Z-TEST FOR PERCENTAGES

Safety Behavior Intention	Use I	Seeper
	YES	NO
High	47%*	20%*
Mid-Range	36%	30%
Low	17%*	50%*

^{*} p < .05

In addition to the Z-Tests, a multiple regression analysis was performed to determine which demographic, enabling and safety belief variables are significant predictors of beeper usage. The analysis yielded three variables which accounted for 33% of the variance in the dependent variable, Beeper Usage. The most significant predictor of beeper usage was gender(Beta=.325), which by

itself accounted for approximately 20% of the total variance. The other two predictor variables, Motivation to Comply(Beta=.278) and Semesters on Campus(Beta=.274), accounted for the remainder of the variance. The stepwise regression is summarized in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15 STEPWISE MULTIPLE REGRESSION ON BEEPER USAGE WITH DEMOGRAPHICS

Variable	Beta R		R ₂	Increase in R ₂	
Gender Motivation to Comply Semesters on Campus	.325	.446	.199	-	
	.278	.577	.334	.135	
	.274	.517	.268	.066	

College Crime Statistics

In an article in a recent trade journal for college housing officers, a vendor of electronic alarm systems stated that alarm and beeper systems can enhance an institution's overall security program by offering constant protection. This particular system comes complete with a beeper for all users (similar to the one in use at Nazareth). The vendor claims that "electronic/beeper systems are particularly well-suited for schools since they will not fall asleep on the job, cannot be led into temptation, and can sound at the first sign of trouble" (Probst, 1996, p. 22).

Although not a specific aspect of this study on safety behavior intention and beeper usage, it seemed significant

to include campus crime statistics for Nazareth College and St. John Fisher College. Table 4.16 includes crime statistics for the period that the survey was distributed and collected (Fall, 1996). Crime on campus has held fairly steady over the past five years, although there has been an increase in grand and petty larceny and motor vehicle theft on both campuses.

Also included in Table 4.16 is the notation of the year that Nazareth acquired the Security Escort System and made beepers available to its community. 1993 and 1994 showed a decline in crime on the Nazareth campus, but in the past two years the statistics are comparable with St. John Fisher.

Table 4.16

CAMPUS CRIME STATISTICS 1992 - 1996 BY COLLEGE

Crime Categories	1	1992 1993		1994		1995		1996		
	NC	SJFC	NC	SJFC	NC	SJFC	NC	SJFC	NC	SJFC
Murder & Non- Negligent Homicide	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Forcible Rape	0	4	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
Non-forcible Sex Offenses	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Robbery	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Aggravated Assault	0	7	0	1	1	3	0	3	0	3
Burglary	6	7	1	2	1	18	4	10	3	11
Larceny (Grand & Petty)	80	101	66	72	34	85	91	73	114	92
Motor Vehicle Theft	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	5	4
Arson	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0

NC: Nazareth College, SJFC: St. John Fisher College Nazareth installed the Security Escort System in Fall, 1993

Summary:

Seven primary research questions were addressed in this study. The focus of the first three was on the relationship between safety belief variables, enabling variables, and demographic variables on safety behavior intention. The final four questions focused on the relationship between safety belief variables, enabling variables, demographic variables, safety behavior intention on beeper usage. The specific focus of the study was two-fold. One was to examine the predictive value of the Safety Belief Model and the second was to examine the relationship between use of personal safety devices and safety behavioral intentions.

Statistical analysis included Z-Tests for percentages and multiple regressions. The seven hypotheses were formulated at the .05 level of significance to test relationships between segments on a variety of variables. The results are summarized below:

Hypothesis 1: There will be no significant differences between any of the safety belief variables and safety behavior intention. The null hypothesis was rejected at the .05 level.

Hypothesis 2: There will be no significant differences between any of the demographic variables and safety behavior intention. The null hypothesis was rejected at the .05 level.

<u>Hypothesis 3</u>: There will be no significant differences between any of the enabling variables and safety behavior intention. The null hypothesis was rejected at the .05 level.

Hypothesis 4: Safety device users will report higher scores on all of the safety belief variables. The hypothesis was rejected at the .05 level.

<u>Hypothesis 5</u>: There will be no significant differences for safety device users when categorized by demographic variables. The null hypothesis was rejected at the .05 level.

<u>Hypothesis 6</u>: Safety device users will report higher scores on the enabling variables. Hypothesis 6 was accepted at the .05 level.

<u>Hypothesis 7</u>: Safety device users will report higher scores on safety behavior intention. Hypothesis 7 was accepted at the .05 level.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS Summary

The purpose of this study was two-fold. A prediction study design was used to describe the relationship between safety related beliefs, demographic and enabling variables and the intention to use precautionary strategies. A model designed by Lenski in 1992, Safety Belief Model I, was modified to include an additional dependent variable. This additional variable was the likelihood of using a personal safety device. The study examined the relationship between safety behavioral intentions and the use of personal safety devices.

All residential students at Nazareth College and St.

John Fisher College, two small, private colleges located in Rochester, New York were sent a copy of The Campus Safety Survey (a seven page survey instrument), along with a cover letter, a return postcard and an addressed return envelope. This material was sent to the residential students' campus mailboxes during the fourth week of the Fall Semester, 1996. After the initial mailing, all residential students were sent a reminder postcard and information of how to obtain a second questionnaire if their first one was misplaced or

lost. A total of 1528 surveys were distributed and 1003 were returned. Of those returned, 997 questionnaires were usable, representing a 65% return rate.

Research questions which focused on the relationships between safety belief variables, modifying variables, safety behavior intention and safety device users were formulated into seven testable hypotheses. These hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance. Descriptive statistics were used to report characteristics of the respondents. Differences between segments were evaluated for significance using z-tests for percentages, and analysis of variance for means. Multiple regression analysis was used for each of the dependent variables to identify those factors which have the greatest impact on predicting safety behavior intention and the use of a personal safety device.

Conclusions

The major conclusion of this study is that it is possible to predict intended safety device behavior and safety device usage by using a combination of safety belief, enabling and demographic variables. The Safety Belief Model II was supported by the study results. Specific variables and scales which contributed to the prediction of safety belief intention and beeper usage are discussed in this section.

Safety Behavior Intention

The first three hypotheses focused on the safety belief variables, demographic variables, enabling variables and safety intention behavior. The factors which accounted for the most variance in the dependent variable, safety behavior intention, were Perceived Barriers, Readiness to Act, Gender and Motivation to Comply.

Differences between the college samples were significant in a number of the safety belief scales. Within the Perceived Barriers Scale, Nazareth students appear to be less bothered by taking safety precautions. Fisher students scored at a higher rate than Nazareth, responding that most safety precautions were a hassle, took too much time, and that they would not likely call security or a friend for assistance.

In comparison to Fisher, Nazareth students listed a much greater number of safety precautions that a students can take to reduce their likelihood of being a victim.

Nazareth reported a higher attendance rate at safety programs and within Motivation to Comply, Nazareth scored significantly higher than Fisher in the top two ranges, demonstrating a higher level of motivation in practicing safe behavior. Overall, students' attention to health, wellness and personal safety, along with awareness of campus safety services, contributed to prediction of intended precautionary behavior.

Under the Perceived Severity Scale, Nazareth students

reported that they worry about crime victimization much more than Fisher students and that they are more likely to use campus safety services (i.e. such as using campus safety personnel, calling a friend to walk with them after dark, using blue phones or reporting suspicious persons to campus safety).

There were no significant differences between Nazareth and Fisher on perceived susceptibility scale. Both sample populations saw themselves as relatively safe and less likely than their peers to be a victim of crime. In the combined sample, freshman saw themselves as highly unlikely to be a victim more so than the reporting upperclass students. Although both campus samples feel very safe during the day, Fisher students reported feeling less safe at night.

In the overall comparison of the Fisher and Nazareth samples and safety behavior intention, significant differences existed between the genders within both colleges. Within the score ranges, females reported considerable higher safety behavior intention scores which is consistent with other research, including Lenski's study in 1992.

Safety Device Usage

A claim in a marketing brochure for a personal safety device states that the device system delivers round-the-clock protection indoors, outdoors, in elevators, even underground in tunnels and basements (Security Escort,

1994). Another marketing piece claims that their electronic device system enhances an institution's overall security by offering constant protection (Probst, 1996).

This study provides information on student usage of a beeper system and the relationship of this intervention with other safety belief values and demographic information of the sample.

During the Fall Semester, 1996, 886 personal safety devices were in use at Nazareth College. Of the subscribers, 473 were residential students, 290 were utilized by commuters and the remaining beepers were used by staff, faculty members and security personnel. The most startling distribution is the gender breakdown. Of the 886 total, 810 beepers are used by women compared to 56 used by the male population (Struble, 1997). In the reporting sample, beeper users were mainly women, freshmen, 18 years old or less, have lived on campus one semester or less, and report their grade point average at 2.5 or over. Those that possess a beeper, tend to use it. Most people who have a beeper report using it all the time.

The remaining four hypotheses relate to beeper usage and safety belief, demographic, and enabling variables.

Beeper users scored much higher on the following safety belief scales: motivation to comply, perceived susceptibility, perceived severity and perceived benefits. Enabling variables didn't have much influence on the difference between beeper users and non-users, similar to

their lack of impact on safety behavior intention.

One of the most significant findings in the study was the relationship between safety device usage and safety behavior intention. The higher a student scored in the safety behavior intention, the greater their likelihood of using a beeper. This finding demonstrated that the Safety Belief Model II was successful in predicting the likelihood of personal safety device usage, yet some of the key drivers for behavioral intention were different from those for beeper usage. Significant predictors of beeper usage included gender, motivation to comply and semesters on campus. Significant predictors of safety behavior intention included perceived barriers, readiness to act, gender and motivation to comply.

When Nazareth students were asked their perception of the effectiveness of the beeper system on preventing crime, 81% reported that it is effective compared to those (19%) who believe it is not. When asked about the impact the beeper has on feelings of personal safety, 72% of the Nazareth sample reports that it makes them feel safer.

What is troubling about the usage of the beepers is the amount of freshmen and those on campus for their first semester that choose to use the beeper. There is a noticeable decline in use as students age and the longer they live in a residential environment. As students become more familiar with the environment and more comfortable with their community, does their attention to personal safety

issues decline?

What is unknown about the adoption of the personal safety device is whether the initial decision to use a beeper is solely the students. Parental influence can be very strong for a large number of college freshmen. There may be great pressure or strong encouragement from freshmen parents for these students, particularly female, to sign up for the system.

Implications for Practice

When a college campus is perceived by students to be unsafe, those feelings represent a major obstacle in the achievement of the educational goals of the student and the institution. It is significant for educational leaders to understand that any incidents that interfere with the emotional, psychological or physical well-being of students represent an obstacle of the achievement of the educational mission of the institution.

Unfortunately, college responses to crime have historically been reactive, rather that proactive. You can survey students five years in a row and learn that they desire additional lighting, but what motivates action in terms of adding lighting, increasing security patrol, trimming landscape issues are typically either an increase of incidents of crime or a significantly violent incident on the campus. College administrators need to pay attention to the environmental issues on a regular basis, without waiting

for legislation to dictate it or for an incident to require a response.

The results of this study suggest that college administrators need to take a look at the bigger picture of student behavior and victimization on campus. The literature on human behavior, risk behavior and health issues speaks to the issue of personal safety and should be examined further.

The perceived barriers factor was a major consideration and predictor of safety behavior intention. Students who perceive precautions to be a hassle or an inconvenience are less likely to take the extra effort to ensure their safety or the safety of their community members. Those administrators responsible for setting up systems for building entrance/exit, for travel across campus (especially at night), and for ways to activate campus safety personnel need to solicit feedback from students on ways to make precautions easier to use and more student accessible. Students were able to list precautions rather easily as shown in Tables 4.4 and 4.5 in Chapter Four.

As suggested by Lenski in her findings (1992), students that describe themselves as more concerned or attentive to health, wellness or personal safety were more likely to plan on taking better precautions than students who were less concerned with health issues. Educators from other areas of responsibility can be utilized in a collaborative way to reach all students on the importance of taking care of one's

self while on campus and off.

The findings of this study provide information about populations who believe that they are safer than others or that threat of victimization is not a large concern for them. Specifically, males, students with lower grade point averages, students who have a long history in residence halls could be targeted for educational programming on personal safety issues. All students need to better understand the risks prevalent on college campuses and that there are measures they can take to reduce the risk of victimization.

While not present in this study, but worth mentioning as perception of victimization is discussed, is the role of the College and the perception of the collegiate environment depicted in college brochures and handbooks. If the environments are described as safe, welcoming and family-like, do applicants and later, entering students get an unrealistic assessment of the college campus? Student perceptions begin with print material and information from college representatives, often before they step foot on the campus. This is a good time to begin to discuss the individual's responsibility for safety and for self-care.

The findings demonstrated that safety workshops are important and Nazareth students in particular, felt that is was a precaution that students should engage in.

Educational workshops on personal safety, self-defense classes and any other opportunities to reinforce use of

existing campus safety interventions should be offered throughout the college students collegiate experience.

Covering this topic once a year at Orientation sessions clearly is not sufficient, as demonstrated by our upperclass data.

Safety interventions such as the personal safety device should be investigated in depth. Clearly, the beeper is seen as effective by a large part of the population at Nazareth. But does it really make students safer? As seen by the Campus Crime Statistics in Table 4.16, the crime rate did not decrease significantly. Many of the students who possess a beeper report high usage of it, but does it provide a false sense of security? While using the beeper, do students feel more comfortable engaging in risky behavior? Printed material on such interventions need to be responsible and accurate on what the intervention does provide so that users can be knowledgeable about the product and its limitations.

Limitations

The results of this study are directly applicable to small, private colleges. In addition, the populations at both schools in the study are ethnically homogeneous and the overwhelming majority of white respondents limit the ability to draw conclusions about safety precautions for campus populations that are more diverse.

Another limitation was that the study was completed in

the first five weeks of the semester. It was done at this time to have students have a level of comfort with their environment and establish patterns of daily behaviors. If the study been done at a different point of the year, it may have resulted in differences in reporting of safety behaviors. The general feelings of comfort with an environment may have decreased the use of precautionary behavior as demonstrated by less attention being displayed by upperclass students and by those that have a history of residing in the halls.

Jessor's work on risk behavior and problem behavior theory is limited in its breadth. His work has been done at the secondary level and has not been used with college-aged students. More research should be done with his theory with college populations.

A significant limitation of this study is the definition of safety. Research on campus crime has dealt with a very limited view of crime on campus, with a great deal of emphasis on property or violent crime. College administrators are cognizant of the growing cases of hate speech, harassment and even the issues of victimization occurring through cyberspace and through technological mediums.

During the Spring Semester, 1997 an incident of hate speech occurred on Nazareth's campus. Racial slurs were written on a resident student's dorm room door. The campus community responded with anger and frustration and this was

illustrated by student responses in a local newspaper. A student victim stated that although he had a beeper to alert security if he is attacked, he does not feel safe as a result of this incident. Students felt that the administration was not doing enough and that students' safety was not guaranteed (Wentzel, 1997). It is irresponsible and dated to define safety only in property or physical terms.

Another limitation of the study was that it used behavioral intention rather than actual self-reported behavior. It is prospective rather that retrospective, since the focus was on factors which influence behavioral intention. It is possible that the safety behavior intention reported by the respondents would not coincide with their final actions. There is no prediction of the frequency of actual safety related behavior from the samples.

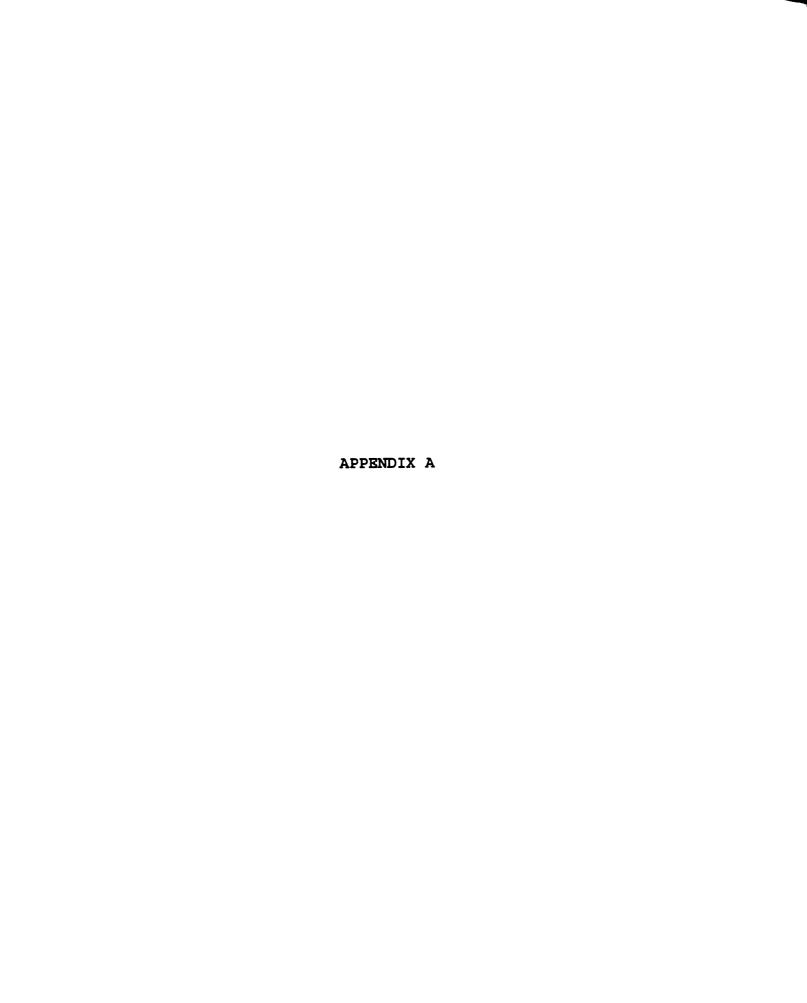
Recommendations for Future Research

As suggested by Lenski in her dissertation, there are several possibilities for future research. Because of the overlap of items for different scales, the predictive power of the scales was difficult to differentiate. To clarify components of the Safety Belief Model, the items should be reviewed in depth to learn which questions accounted for the most power to predict. If the work which has been completed in this study was to be examined in conjunction with

Lenski's, Safety Belief Model I could be more specific and be clarified.

Overall, this type of research has been performed only at a large, private institution and now at two, small private colleges. All the populations have been characterized as homogeneous and with large residential components. Because campus crime impacts commuter populations, as well as campuses which have a greater diversity in ethnicity and age, the Campus Safety Survey could be utilized as an assessment tool on a number of other campuses to learn more about behavioral intentions of college students nationally.

This study focused on one intervention, a personal safety device. There are a variety of campus safety interventions in place on college campuses, and they should be evaluated in a complex way. It should not be left up to the manufacturer of these products to demonstrate their effectiveness on college campuses. Educators and administrators need to take responsibility for providing the best safety measures for the students who are apart of their community. A research basis can take some of the guess work and ambiguity out of planning programs to highlight and encourage students to take care of themselves while they are on college campuses.



APPENDIX A

THE CAMPUS SAFETY SURVEY

Nazareth College Fall, 1996

Please complete this survey by placing an "X" by your answers and returning it through campus mail in the envelope provided. It should take no more than 15 minutes. All responses will be kept strictly confidential and no individual will be identified in any way in the study report. Thank you!

_					
1.	Some people are quite or your health?	oncerned about health,	while others are not. I	low much attention do you pay	y to
	1 a lot of attention	2 ome attention	3 🗆 little att	ention 4 \square no attent	tion
2.	How much attention do y	ou pay to wellness pro	grams offered on camp	nus?	
	1 □ a lot of attention	2 some attention	3 🗆 little att	ention 4 \square no attent	tion
3.	In general, how much atte	eation do you pay to yo	our personal safety on (campus?	
	1 🗆 a lot of attention	2 some attention	3 🗆 lättle atte	ention 4 \square no attent	tion
4.				ecurity escorts, locking your re ty from crime on campus?	oom
	1 □ yes	2 🗆 no			
5.	Are you aware of campus personnel) available to yo		us Security escorts, blu	e light telephones, campus sec	urity
	1 □ yes	2 🗆 no			
6.	If yes, do you ever use an	y of these services?			
	1 □ yes	2 🗆 no			
7.	How much do you worry	about being a victim or	a campus?		
	1 🗆 a great deal	2□ some	3 🗆 a little	4 ☐ don't worry	

8.	How much would you say that concern for your safety on campus interferes with doing things you like to do?						
	l□ a great deal	2 aome	3 🗆 a little	4 🗆 none			
9.	Property crime includes b that you will become a di			property. How likely do you think it ampus?			
	1 🗆 very likely	2 🗆 likely	3 unlikely	4 🗆 very unlikely			
10	. What do you think your students who live on car		victim of property crit	ne compared to other Nazareth			
	1 much greater	2 greater	3 🗆 less	4 much less			
11.	. Have you ever been a vie	ctim of a property crim	ne?				
	1 ☐ yes	2 🗆 no					
12.	2. Violent personal crime includes robbery, aggravated assault, sexual assault and murder. How likely do you think it is that you will become a direct victim of a violent personal crime while living on campus?						
	1 🗆 very likely	2 🗆 likely	3 unlikely	4 🗆 very unlikely			
13.	What do you think your Nazareth students who li		victim of a violent per	onal crime compared to other			
	1 much greater	2 greater	3 ☐ less	4 much less			
14.	How much power do you personal crime on campu		as to reduce your chan	ces of being a victim of a violent			
	1 🗆 a great deal	2 - some	3 a little	4 □ none			
15.	How much power do you crime on campus?	u believe you have to r	reduce your chances of	being a victim of a violent personal			
	l 🗆 a great deal	2 some	3 🗆 a little	4 none			

16. How likely is it that you would be able to physically defend yourself from an attempted violent crime?				
	1 🗆 very likely	2 🗆 likely	3 unlikely	4 very unlikely
17.	Have you ever been a vi	ctim of a violent person	nal crime?	
	1 🗆 yes	2 no		
18.	Do you know of anythin personal crime on campo		reduce his or her chan	ces of being a victim of a violent
	1 ☐ yes (please descri	be)		
	2 🗆 no			
19.	Have you attended any o	arime awareness or self	-defense workshops/m	eetings at the College or elsewhere?
	1 □ yes	2 🗆 no		
Ho	w safe do you feel wi	hile		
20.	on the Nazareth College	campus during dayligh	t hours?	
	1 ☐ very safe	2 □ safe	3 unsafe	4 🗆 very unsafe
21.	on the Nazareth College	campus after dark?		
	1 ☐ very safe	2 ☐ safe	3 unsufe	4 🗆 very unsafe
22.	in your dorm?			
	1 □ very safe	2 🗆 safe	3 🗆 unsafe	4 □ very unsafe
Ho	w much do you agree	with the following	g statements?	
	There are specific precess violent personal crime on		e which will reduce his	or her chances of being a victim of a
	1 agree very much	2 □ agree	3 🗆 disagree	4 disagree very much

24.	Sometimes I'm embarra	ssed to insist on certain	a safety precautions who	n I am out with friends.
	1 agree very much	2 🗆 agree	3 🗆 disagree	4 ☐ disagree very much
25.	I do not need to take sa	fety precautions on car	npus.	
	1 agree very much	2 ☐ agree	3 🗆 disagree	4 disagree very much
26	I sometimes don't take a	sefety procentions becau	use they take too much	time
20.	1 ☐ agree very much		3 ☐ disagree	_
27.	There isn't much a perso		_	45.
	1 agree very much	2 🗆 agree	3 🗆 disagree	4 ☐ disagree very much
In ;	general, how much o	of a hassle are the f	following safety pro	ecautions?
28.	Asking a friend to walk	on campus with you af	ter dark	
	1 ☐ very easy	2 eas y	3 a hassle	4 □ don't do
29.	Calling a friend to walk	on campus with you af	ter dark	
	1 □ very easy	2 🗆 eas y	3 🗆 a hassle	4 don't do
30	Calling Campus Security	for an eacost across c	emmes efter derk	
.		2 □ easy	3 a hassic	4 □ don't do
		•		
31.	Avoiding poorly lit paths	s on campus		
	1 ☐ very easy	2 ces y	3 🗆 a hassie	4 □ don't do
32.	Locking dorm room at n	igh t		
	1 D very easy	2 □ easv	3 □ a hassle	4 □ don't do

33.	. Keeping dorm room wi	indows locked at night		
	1 🗆 very easy	2 🗆 easy	3 □ a hassle	4 □ don't do
34.	Closing exterior residen	ice hall doors you find	propped open	
	1 □ very easy	2 🗆 easy	3 □ a hassle	4 □ don't do
35.	Arranging for first-time	dates to occur in famil	liar surroundings	
	l □ very easy	2 □ easy	3 □ a hasele	4 □ don't do
36.	Avoiding leaving a part	y alone with a new acq	uaintance	
	1 🗆 very easy	2 □ ces y .	3 🗆 a hassie	4 □ don't do
37.	Notifying security of su	spicious persons on car	mpus or in the residence hall	
	1 🗆 very easy	2 🗆 eas y	3 a hassie	4 □ don't do
38.	How much do you belie of being a victim of viol		ions such as those in questions	28-37 can reduce your chances
	1 🗆 a great deal	2 🗆 some	3 🗆 a little	4 □ none
Th	is month, will you	•		
39 .	call/ask a friend to walk	with you each time yo	u cross campus after dark?	
	1 definitely will	2 probably will	3 probably won't	4 definitely won't
40 .	call Campus Security for	r an escort each time y	ou cross campus after dark?	
	1 definitely will	2 probably will	3 probably won't	4 definitely won't
41.	avoid poorly lit paths ea	ch time you cross cam	pus after dark?	•
	1 definitely will	2 nrobably will	3 nonhehly won't	4 definitely want

42.	lock dorm room each ni	ght?		
	1 definitely will	2 probably will	3 probably won't	4 definitely won't
43.	keep dorm room windo	ws locked each night?		
	1 definitely will	2 probably will	3 probably won't	4 definitely won't
44.	close a propped door ea	ch time you find one in	your dorm?	
	1 definitely will	2 probably will	3 probably won't	4 ☐ definitely won't
45.	arrange for each date to	occur in familiar surro	mdings, if you were to date so	meone for the first time?
	1 definitely will	2 probably will	3 probably won't	4 - definitely won't
46.	avoid leaving each party	alone with a new acqu	aintance, if you were to attend	a party?
	1 definitely will	2 probably will	3 probably won't	4 ☐ definitely won't
47.	notify security if you see	a suspicious person ou	campus or in the residence ha	ills?
	1 🗆 definitely will	2 probably will	3 probably won't	4 ☐ definitely won't
48 .	Do you possess a Securi	ity Escort Beeper obta	ined from the Campus Safety	Department on your campus?
	l □ yes	2 □ no		
	If yes, do you currently c	arry the Security Esce	ort Beeper?	
	1 🗆 all the time	2 most of the time	3 aot very often	4 🗆 never
49.	Overall, how effective w	ould you say that the S	ecurity Escort Beeper is in p	reventing crime on campus?
	1 very effective	2 somewhat effecti	ve 3 aot very effective	e 4 □not at all effective
50 .	1 makes me feel a 2 makes me feel so	lot safer mewhat safer act on my feelings of p	eem have on your feelings of p ersonal safety	ersonal safety on campus?

Demographic Information (for classification purposes only) 51. What is your gender? 2 male 1 female 52. How do you describe yourself? 5 Mexican American or Chicano 1 American Indian or Native Alaskan 6 Puerto Rican 2 Asian, Asian American or Pacific Islander 7 Latin/South/Central 3 Black or African American American or other Hispanic 4 White 8 Other 53. How old are you? _____years 54. What is your class standing? 1 Freshman 4 Senior 5 Graduate Student 2 Sophomore 3 🔲 Junior 6 Other _____ 55. How long have you lived on Campus? 1 Less than One Semester 5 Four semesters 2 One semester 6 ☐ Five semesters 3 Two semesters 7 Six semesters 4 Three semesters 8 More than six 56. Which category best represents your grade point average? 1 🗆 3.5 - 4.0

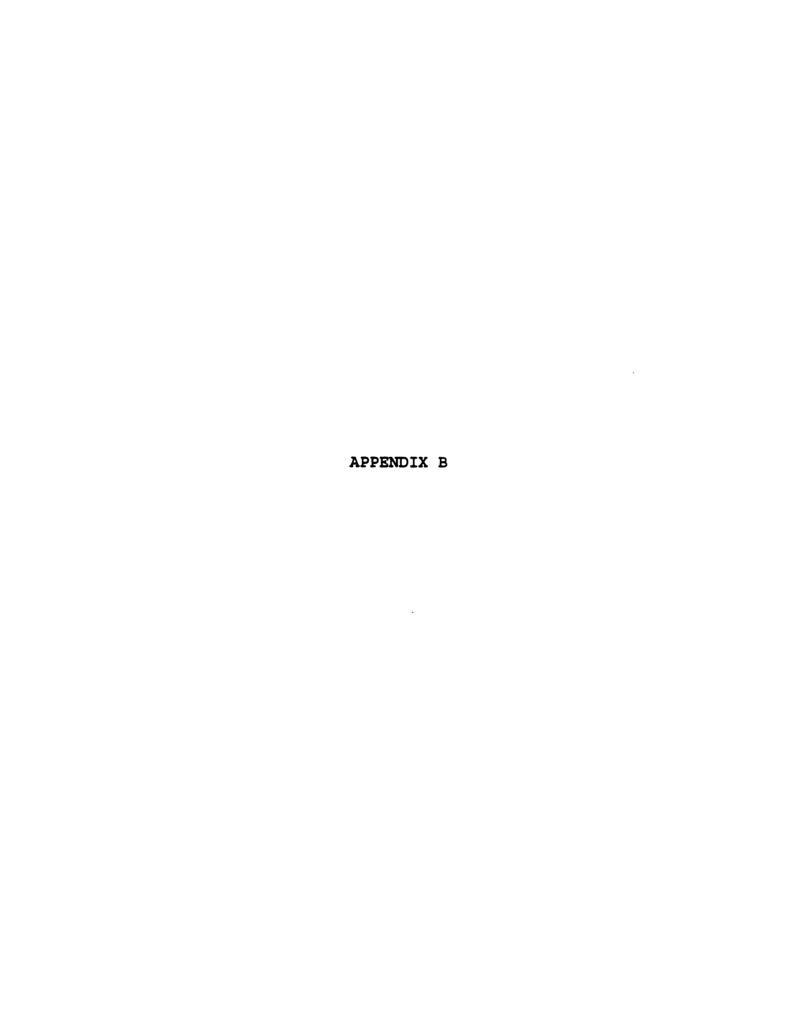
THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS SURVEY

4 🗆 2.0 - 2.5

5 under 2.0

2 🗆 3.0 - 3.5

3 🗆 2.5 - 3.0



APPENDIX B



UCRIHS APPROVAL FOR THIS project EXPIRES:

AUG - 8 1997

September 30, 1996

SUBMIT RENEWAL APPLICATION ONE MONTH PRIOR TO ABOVE DATE TO CONTINUE

Dear Student:

Please help us with a comprehensive study of safety on college campuses today. The enclosed survey focuses on experiences and perceptions of personal safety on our Campus. This research is part of a student's doctoral work and your participation by completing this questionnaire is critical in providing information useful to study the significant impact of crime on campus communities. It is my hope that the results from this questionnaire could help yield information useful in making Nazareth a safer place for all students.

The questionnaire should take about fifteen minutes to complete. We need your questionnaire no later than October 7, 1996. A response from each of you is very important. As a small means of saying thank you, we will enter the names of all who return their survey by October 7th in a drawing for three separate packages for a \$25 gift certificate to CIAO'S and two movie tickets at the Pittsford Plaza Cinema. Once you complete the survey, please complete the enclosed card marked "Dinner and a Show" and drop this card off separately from the completed survey to the Office of Residential Life so that you are included in the raffle.

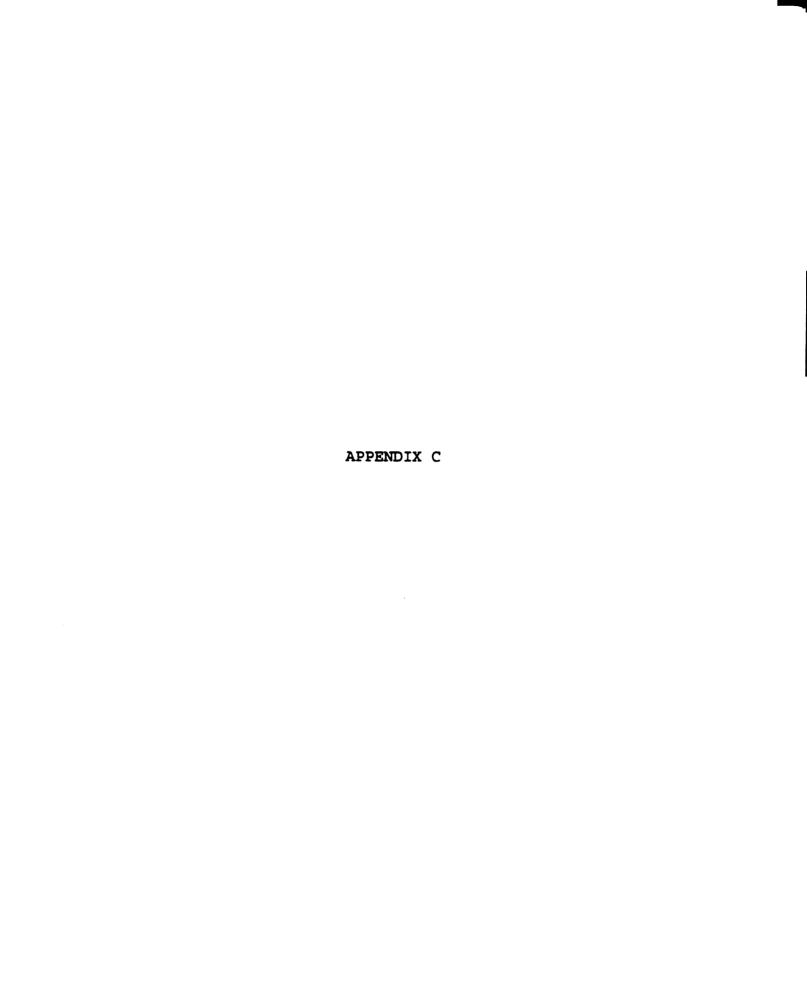
Your participation in this survey is completely voluntary and your responses to the questionnaire will be anonymous. At no time will your name be connected with your responses. You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate in this study by completing and returning this questionnaire. You may withdraw from this study at any time. If you have questions regarding your rights as a participant in this research, you may contact David Wright at (517)355-2180.

Thank you so much for completing the survey. The findings from the research will be shared with the Division of Student Affairs to be distributed to the campus community. If you have any questions, please contact me at 586-2525 x700.

Sincerely,

Joan Anderson Director of Residential Life

P.S. Your completed survey may be placed in the box marked "Campus Safety Survey" located in the Office of Residential Life or mailed back in the enclosed envelope. Don't forget to complete the "Dinner and a Show" card!!!!

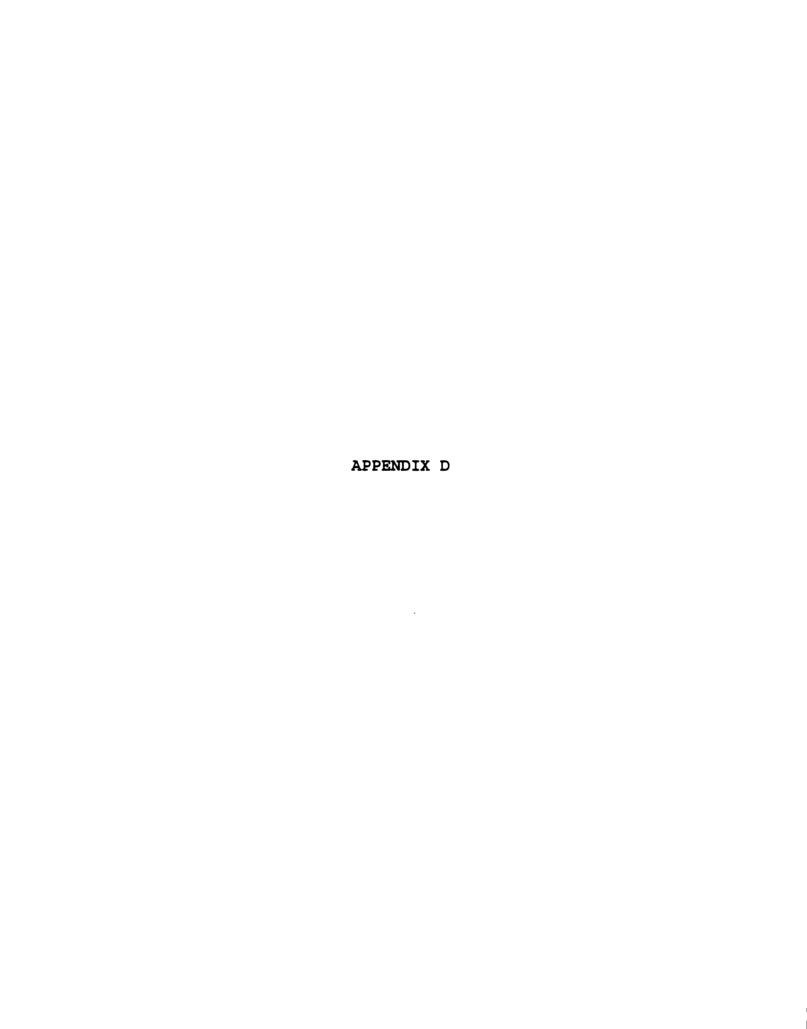


DINNER & A SHOW

Please enter my name in the drawing for movie tickets to Pittsford Plaza Cinema and dinner at Ciao's. I understand that I must turn in my completed CAMPUS SAFETY SURVEY to be included in the drawing.

Name	
On-campus phone number	
On-campus address	

Office of Residential Life Nazareth College



APPENDIX D

THE CAMPUS SAFETY SURVEY

St. John Fisher College Fall, 1996

Please complete this survey by placing an "X" by your answers and returning it through campus mail in the provided. It should take no more than 15 minutes. All responses will be kept strictly confidential and no individual will identified in any way in the study report. Thank you!

l.	Some people are quite co your health?	ncerned about health, wi	nile others are not. H	low much attenti	ion do you pay to
	1 □ a lot of attention	2 some attention	3 🗆 little atte	action	4 🗆 no attention
2.	How much attention do y	ou pay to wellness progr	ams offered on camp	us?	
	1 a lot of attention	2 some attention	3 🗆 little atte	ention	4 🗆 no attention
3.	In general, how much atte	ntion do you pay to you	r personal safety on o	ampus?	
	1 🗆 a lot of attention	2 some attention	3 🗆 little atte	ation	4 🗆 no attention
4.	Do you currently take any room door at all times, re				
	1 🗆 yes	2 🗆 BO			
5 .	Are you aware of campus personnel) available to you		Security escorts, blu	e light telephone	es, campus security
	l □ yes	2 🗆 n o			
6.	If yes, do you ever use any	y of these services?			
	1 🗆 yes	2 🗆 no			
7 .	How much do you worry	about being a victim on o	campus?		
	1 🗆 a great deal	2 □ some 3	a little	4 don't worr	y

8.	How much would you sa do?	y that concern for your	r safety on campus inte	rferes with doing things you like to
	1 🗆 a great deal	2 ☐ some	3 🗆 a little	4 □ mone
9 .	Property crime includes that you will become a di			property. How likely do you think it campus?
	1 🗆 very likely	2 🗆 likely	3 unlikely	4 □ very unlikely
10	. What do you think your who live on campus?	chances are of being a	victim of property cris	me compared to other SJFC students
	1 much greater	2 🗆 greater	3 🗆 less	4 much less
11	. Have you ever been a vi	ctim of a property crim	ne?	
	1 □ yes	2 🗆 no		·
12.				sauk and murder. How likely do you rime while living on campus?
	1 🗆 very likely	2 🗆 likely	3 unlikely	4 □ very unlikely
13.	What do you think are y students who live on car	~	victim of a violent per	sonal crime compared to other SFJC
	1 much greater	2 greater	3 ☐ less	4 much less
14.	How much power do yo personal crime on campu		as to reduce your chan	ces of being a victim of a violent
	1 🗆 a great deal	2 ome	3 a little	4 none
15.	How much power do yo crime on campus?	u believe you have to r	educe your chances of	being a victim of a violent personal
	l 🗆 a great deal	2 acme	3 □ a little	4 D mone

16.	How likely is it that you crime?	would be able to phys	ically defend yourself fr	rom an attempted violent personal
	1 🗆 very likely	2 🗆 likely	3 unlikely	4 🗆 very unlikely
17.	Have you ever been a vie	ctim of a violent person	nal crime?	
	1 □ yes	2 🗆 no		
18.	Do you know of anythin personal crime on campu		reduce his or her chan-	ces of being a victim of a violent
	1 yes (please describ	be)		
	2 no			
19.	Have you attended any o	rime awareness or self	-defense workshops/me	petings at the College or elsewhere?
	1 □ yes	2 🗆 no		
Ho	w safe do you feel wi	nile		
20.	on the St. John Fisher Co	ollege campus during d	sylight hours?	
	l 🗆 very safe	2 □ safe	3 unsafe	4 □ very unsafe
21.	on the St. John Fisher Co	ollege campus after das	k?	
	l □ very safe	2 □ safe	3 unsafe	4 □ very unsafe
22.	in your dorm?			
	1 □ very safe	2 □ safe	3 unsafe	4 □ very unsafe
Ho	w much do you agree	e with the following	g statements?	
23.	There are specific precau violent personal crime or	•	e which will reduce his	or her chances of being a victim of
	1 agree very much	2 ☐ agree	3 🗆 disagree	4 disagree very much

24.	Sometimes I'm emberra	seed to insist on certain	a safety precentions wh	en I a	m out with friends.
	1 agree very much	2 ☐ agree	3 ☐ disagree		4 disagree very much
25.	I do not need to take sa	fety precautions on car	npus.		
	1 agree very much	2 □ agree	3 🗆 disagree		4 disagree very much
26.	I sometimes don't take s	afety precautions beca	use they take too much	time.	
	1 agree very much	2 □ agree	3 🗆 disagree		4 ☐ disagree very much
27.	There isn't much a perso	n can do to avoid bein	g a victim of a crime.		
	1 ☐ agree very much	2 🗆 agree	3 🗆 disagree		4 disagree very much
In ;	general, how much o	f a hassle are the i	following safety pro	ecau	tions?
28.	Asking a friend to walk	on campus with you af	ter dark		
	l 🗆 very easy	2	3 🗆 a hassle	4 🗆	don't do
29.	Calling a friend to walk	on campus with you af	ter dark		•
	I ☐ very easy	2 🗆 easy	3 🗆 a hassle	4 🗆	don't do
30.	Calling Campus Security	for an escort across c	ampus after dark		
	1 very easy	2 🗆 easy	3 🗆 a hassie	4 🗆	don't do
31.	Avoiding poorly lit paths	on campus			
	1 very easy	2 □ cas y	3 🗆 a hassic	4□	don't do
32 .	Locking dorm room at m	ight			
	l □ very easy	2 easy	3 🗆 a hassle		4 □ don't do

33.	Keeping dorm room wit	ndows locked at night		
	1 □ very easy	2 □ easy	3 a hassic	4 □ don't do
34.	Closing exterior residen	ce hall doors you find j	propped open	
	1 □ very easy	2 🗆 eas y	3 a hassie	4 □ don't do
35.	Arranging for first-time	dates to occur in famil	iar surroundings	
	l 🗆 very easy	2 🗆 eas y	3 a hassie	4 □ don't do
36.	Avoiding leaving a party	y alone with a new acqu	naintance	
	1 🗆 very easy	2 □ селу	3 🗆 a hassie	4 □ don't do
37 .	Notifying security of sur	spicious persons on car	npus or in the residence hall	
	l 🗆 very easy	2 cas y	3 a hasele	4 🗆 don't do
38 .	How much do you belie of being a victim of viole	• • •	ons such as those in questions	28-37 can reduce your chances
	1 🗆 a great deal	2 □ some	3 a little	4 □ none
Th	is month, will you	•		
39 .	call/ask a friend to walk	with you each time you	u cross campus after dark?	
	1 definitely will	2 probably will	3 probably won't	4 🗆 definitely won't
40 .	call Campus Security for	r an escort each time ye	ou cross campus after dark?	
	l □ definitely will	2 probably will	3 probably won't	4 🗆 definitely won't
41.	avoid poorly lit paths ea	ch time you cross camp	ous after dark?	
	1 definitely will	2 nonhahly will	3 🗆 senhahlu sanat	4 definisely went

42 .	lock dorm room each s	night?		
	1 definitely will	2 probably will	3 ☐ probably won't	4 definitely won't
43.	keep dorm room wind	ows locked each night?		
	1 definitely will	2 probably will	3 probably won't	4 definitely won't
44.	close a propped door e	each time you find one i	n your dorm?	
	1 🗆 definitely will	2 probably will	3 probably won't	4 🗆 definitely won't
45 .	arrange for each date to	o occur in familiar surro	oundings, if you were to date so	nmeone for the first time?
	1 definitely will	2 probably will	3 probably won't	4. ☐ definitely won't
46.	avoid leaving each part	y alone with a new acqu	unintance, if you were to attend	i a party?
	1 definitely will	2 ☐ probably will	3 probably won't	4 definitely won't
47 .	notify security if you se	ee a suspicious person o	n campus or in the residence h	alls?
	1 definitely will	2 probably will	3 probably won't	4 definitely won't
48 .	Do you currently carry	y a hand held personal s	afety alarm?	
	1 □ yes	2 □ no		
49 .	How effective do you	think hand held persons	al safety alarms would be in pre	venting crime on campus?
	1 very effective	2 - somewhat effecti	ve 3 not very effective	4 □ not at all effective
50 .	What kind of impact of safety on campus?	do you think hand held p	personal safety alarms would h	eve on your feelings of personal
		e feel somewhat safer le impact on my feelings	s of personal safety	

Demographic Information (for classification purposes only)

51.	What is your gender?				
	1 🗆 female	2 🗆 male			
52.	How do you describe you	urself?			
	1 American Indian or 2 Asian, Asian Ameri 3 Black or African Ar 4 White	can or Pacific Is	lander	5 ☐ Mexican American or Chicano 6 ☐ Puerto Rican 7 ☐ Latin/South/Central American or other Hispanic 8 ☐ Other	D
53.	How old are you?	years			
54.	What is your class standi	ing?			
	1 Freehman 2 Sophomore 3 Junior		mior raduate Studen ther		
55.	How long have you live	i on Campus?			
	1 Less than One S 2 One semester 3 Two semesters 4 Three semesters		5 Four sen 6 Five sen 7 Six sense 8 More than	nesters esters	
56.	Which category best rep	resents your gr	ade point aver	age?	
	1 3.5 - 4.0 2 3.0 - 3.5 3 2.5 - 3.0 4 2.0 - 2.5 5 under 2.0				

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS SURVEY

APPENDIX E

·

APPENDIX E



UCRIHS APPROVAL FOR THIS project EXPIRES:

AUG - 8 1997

SUBMIT RENEWAL APPLICATION ONE MONTH PRIOR TO ABOVE DATE TO CONTINUE

September 30, 1996

Dear Student:

Please help us with a comprehensive study of safety on college campuses today. The enclosed survey focuses on experiences and perceptions of personal safety on our Campus. This research is part of my doctoral work and your participation by completing this questionnaire is critical in providing information useful to study the significant impact of crime on campus communities. It is my hope that the results from this questionnaire could help yield information useful in making SJFC a safer place for all students.

The questionnaire should take about fifteen minutes to complete. We need your questionnaire no later than October 7, 1996. A response from each of you is very important. As a small means of saying thank you, we will enter the names of all who return their survey by October 7th in a drawing for three separate packages for a \$25 gift certificate to CIAO'S and two movie tickets at the Pittsford Plaza Cinema. Once you complete the survey, please complete the enclosed card marked "Dinner and a Show" and drop this card off separately from the completed survey to the Office of Residential Life so that you are included in the raffle.

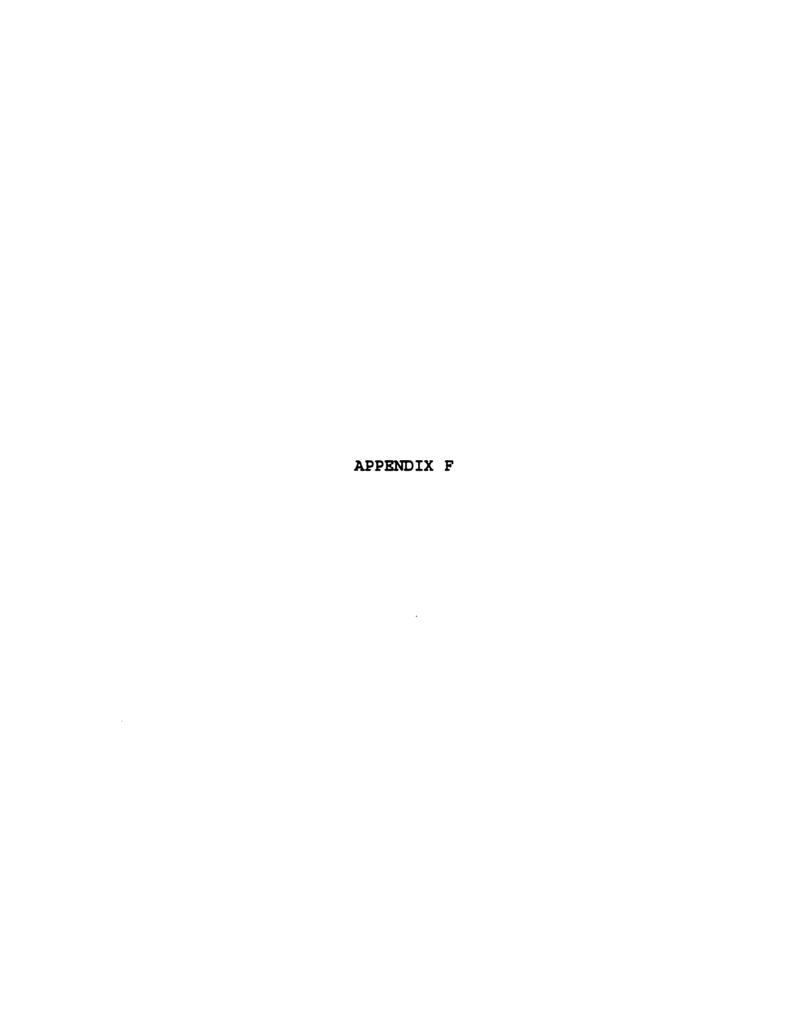
Your participation in this survey is completely voluntary and your responses to the questionnaire will be anonymous. At no time will your name be connected with your responses. You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate in this study by completing and returning this questionnaire. You may withdraw from this study at any time. If you have questions regarding your rights as a participant in this research, you may contact David Wright at (517) 355-2180.

Thank you so much for completing the survey. The findings from the research will be shared with the Division of Student Affairs to be distributed to the campus community. If you have any questions, please contact me at 385-8230.

Sincerely,

Mary-Beth Cooper Dean of Students

P.S. Your completed survey may be placed in the box marked "Campus Safety Survey" located in the Office of Residential Life or mailed back in the enclosed envelope. Don't forget to complete the "Dinner and a Show" card!!!



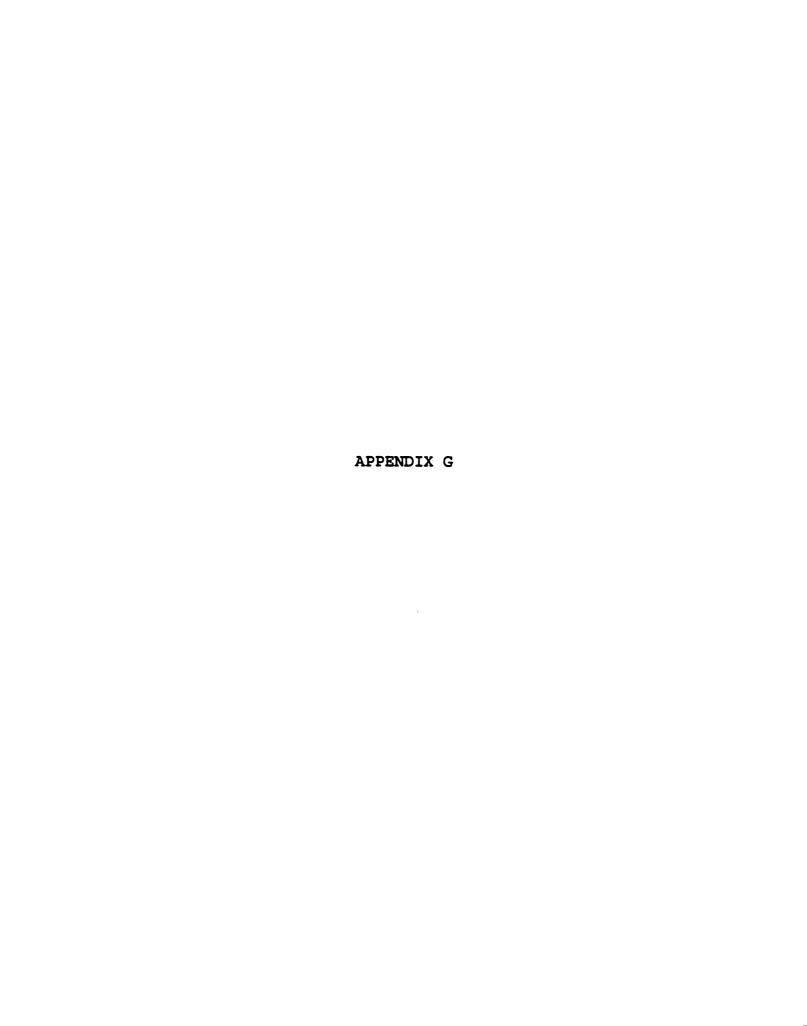
APPENDIX F

Office of Residential Life St. John Fisher College

DINNER & A SHOW

Please enter my name in the drawing for movie tickets to Pittsford Plaza Cinema and dinner at Ciao's. I understand that I must turn in my completed CAMPUS SAFETY SURVEY to be included in the drawing.

Name	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
On-campus phone number	
On-campus address	



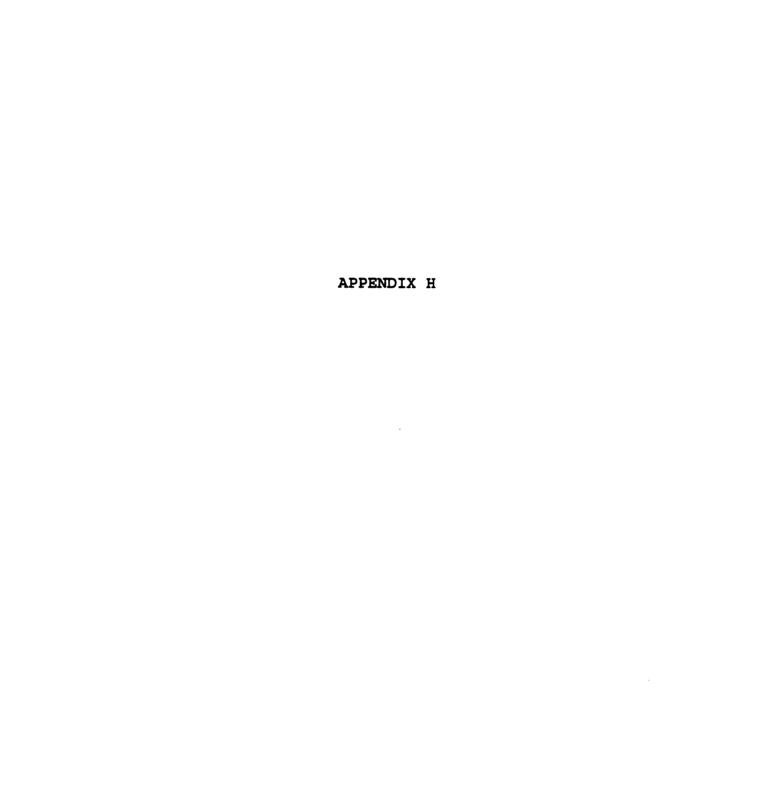
		·

Don't Forget...

To complete your campus safety survey and turn it into the office of Residential Life.

If you misplaced your original survey, you can get another from your RA.

Also, don't forget to enter the "Dinner and A Show" drawing.



APPRNDTX H

MICHIGAN STATE

August 12, 1996

TO:

Mary-Beth Cooper 24 Wood Hill Rd. Pittsford, MY 14534

IRB#: TITLE: RE:

96-412

THE REALTICMSHIP OF STUDENT PERCEPTIONS AND BEHAVIORS REGARDING PERSONAL SAFETY: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF TWO SMALL PRIVATE COLLEGS

REVISION REQUESTED: M/A 2-I

CATEGORY: APPROVAL DATE: 08/08/96

The University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects' (UCRIHS) review of this project is complete. I am pleased to advise that the rights and welfare of the human subjects appear to be adequately protected and methods to obtain informed consent are appropriate. Therefore, the UCRIHS approved this project and any revisions listed above. above.

REMINIAL:

UCRIES approval is valid for one calendar year, beginning with the approval date shown above. Investigators planning to continue a project beyond one year must use the green renewal form (enclosed with the original approval letter or when a project is renewed) to seek updated certification. There is a maximum of four such expedited renewals possible. Investigators wishing to continue a project beyond that time need to submit it again for complete review.

REVISIONS: UCRIHS must review any changes in procedures involving human subjects, prior to initiation of the change. If this is done at the time of renewal, please use the green renewal form. To revise an approved protocol at any other time during the year, send your written request to the UCRIHS Chair, requesting revised approval and referencing the project's IRB # and title. Include in your request a description of the change and any revised instruments, consent forms or advertisements that are applicable.

PROBLEMS /

Should either of the following arise during the course of the work, investigators must notify UCRIHS promptly: (1) problems (unexpected side effects, complaints, etc.) involving human subjects or (2) changes in the research environment or new information indicating greater risk to the human subjects than existed when the protocol was previously reviewed and approved.

If we can be of any future help, please do not hesitate to contact us at (517)355 2180 or FAX (517)432-1171.

ity Com

reh involving man Subjects

GRADUATE

STUDIES

OFFICE OF RESEARCH

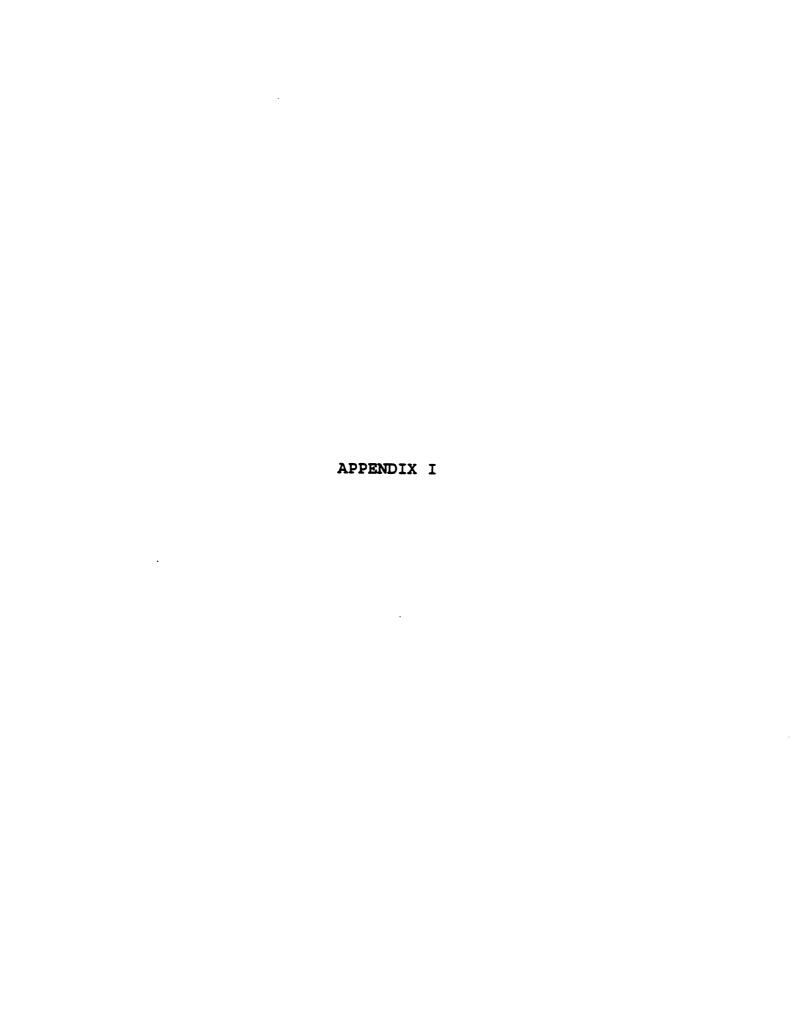
Michigan State University 232 Administration Building East Laneing, Michagen, 4824-1046 DEW: bed

> 517/355-2180 FAX: 517/432-1171

D. David E. Wright, Ph. UCRIHS Chair

Sincerely,

cc: Kathryn M. Moore



APPENDIX I

March 19, 1996

Dr. Tammy Lenski
Dean of Students
Trinity College of Vermont
208 Colchester Ave
Burlington, VT 05401

Dear Dr. Lenski,

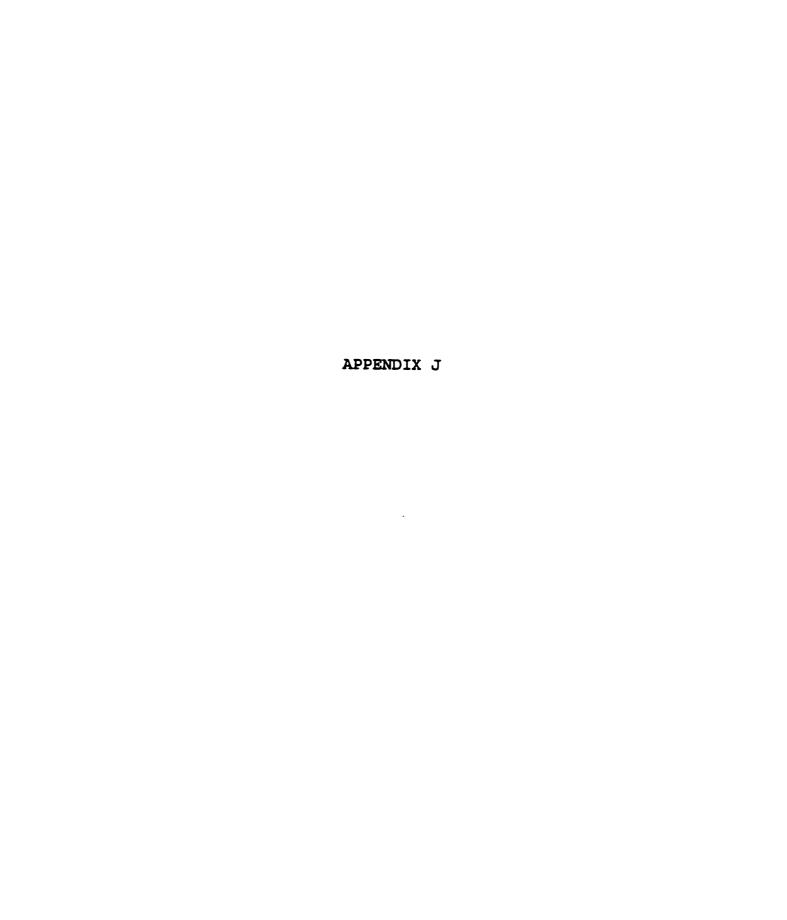
I am requesting permission to use the Campus Safety Survey you developed in 1991. I am a doctoral student at Michigan State University and I am proposing to investigate the relationship of student perceptions and behaviors regarding personal safety, at two small, private colleges in the Northeast.

I would like to use the Campus Safety Survey with a few additional items on parent & peer influence on safety issues, as well as student reported use of personal safety devices. It is my intention to test the usefulness of the Safety Belief Model in predicting students' behavioral intentions, to examine the impact of personal safety devices on behavior and to investigate the influence of parents and peers on personal safety issues.

The use of the Safety Survey will be solely for the purposes of completion of my degree. I will credit you fully in my writing and only alter the instrument as stated above. If you would be interested in my findings, I would be happy to send you information after my research is complete.

Thank you for your attention to this matter. I look forward to hearing your response.

Mary-Beth Cooper 24 Wood Hill Rd. Pittsford, NY 14534



APPENDIX J



Dean of Students

March 21, 1996

Mary-Beth Cooper 24 Wood Hill Road Pittsford, NY 14534

Dear Mary-Beth,

Thank you for your request to use the Campus Safety Survey in your doctoral work at Michigan State University. I understand that you wish to modify the instrument to include additional variables. You have my permission to do so. I'm very pleased you've found the instrument and the Safety Belief Model helpful in your work.

I am interested in the outcome of your research and would love to hear from you when you're done. Safety behavior research is much needed to help colleges develop useful safety programs for students and work like yours and mine will help fill a void in available information.

I wish you the best as you complete your research.

Very truly yours,

Tammy J. Lenski

Dean of Students

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- American Council on Education (1985, reissued 1987).

 Achieving Reasonable Campus Security. Washington, DC, One Dupont Circle. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED265774).
- Astin, A. (1977). <u>Four Critical Years</u>. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Bausell, C.R., Maloy, C.E., & Sherrill, J.M. (1989). The links among drugs, alcohol, and campus crime. MD: Towson State University Campus Violence Prevention Center.
- Becker, M.H., Maiman, L.A., Kirscht, J.P., Haefner, D.P., & Drachman, R.H. (1977). The health belief model and prediction of dietary compliance: A field experiment.

 Journal of Health And Social Behavior, 18, 348-366.
- Biglan, A., Metzler, C., Wirt, R., Ary, D., Noell, J., Ochs, L., French, C., and Hood, D. (1990). Social and behavioral factors associated with high-risk sexual behavior among adolescents. <u>Journal of Behavioral</u> Medicine, 13, 245-262.
- Burger, J.M., and Burns, L. (1988). The illusion of unique invulnerability and the use of effective contraception.

 Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 14, 264-270.
- Castelli, J. (1990). Campus crime 101. New York Times, pp. 1-2.
- Cockey, M. Sherrill, J.M., & Cave, R.B., II. (1989). Towson State University research on campus violence. In J.M. Sherrill, & D.G. Siegal (Eds.), <u>Responding to violence on campus</u> (pp. 17-28, 103-106). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- College and University Law Enforcement Officers and Campus Housing Administrators (Producers). (1985). The prevention of crime and vandalism in campus residence facilities. Louisville, KY: Campus crime prevention workshop.
- Cummings, K.M., Jette, A.M., & Rosenstock, I.M. (1978).
 Construct validation of the health belief model. <u>Health</u>
 <u>Education Monographs</u>, <u>6</u>, 394-405.

- Dolcini, M.M., Cohn, L.D., Adler, N.E., Millstein, S.G., Irwin, C.E., Kegeles, S.M., and Stone, G.C. (1989). Adolescent egocentrism and feelings of invulnerability: Are they related? <u>Journal of Early Adolescence</u>, 9, 409-418.
- Evans, N.J. (1983). Environmental assessment: Current practices and future directions. <u>Journal of College Student Personnel</u>, 24, 293-299.
- Fesenthal, E. (1994, November 29). More colleges are divulging crime reports. The Wall Street Journal, pp. B1, B10.
- Fox, J.A., & Hellman, D.A. (1985). Location and other correlates of campus crime. <u>Journal of Criminal Justice</u>, 13, 429-444.
- Glanz, K., Lewis, F.M., & Rimer, B.K. (Eds.) (1990). Health Behavior and health education: Theory, research, and practice. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Gray M. (1990). The effectiveness of personalizing acquaintance rape prevention: Programs on perception of vulnerability and on risk-taking behavior. <u>Journal of College Student Development</u>, 31, 217-220.
- Greene, E. (1988, September 28). Pressed by students and parents colleges step up their efforts to fight crime on campuses. The Chronicle of Higher Education, 35(5), A1, A31.
- Hanchette (1988). The Clerys: Victim's Parents Push Change. USA Today, October 4, 1988, p. 6A.
- Harris, D.M., & Guten, S. (1979) Health-protective behavior: An exploratory study. <u>Journal of Health and Social</u> <u>Behavior</u>, 20, 17-29.
- Hearing on H.R. 3344. The Crime Awareness and Campus

 Security Act of 1989. (1990, March 14). Washington, DC:

 Hearing before the Subcommittee on Postsecondary Education
 of the Committee on Education and Labor, House of

 Representatives. (Eric Document Reproduction Service No,
 ED 325 011)
- Hingston, R., Strunin, L., and Berlin, B. (1990). Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome transmission: Changes in knowledge and behaviors among teenagers, Massachusetts statewide surveys, 1986-1988. Pediatrics, 85, 24-29.

- Hirschorn, M.W. (1987, September 2). A parental crusade to force Colleges to reveal crime data. Chronicle of Higher Education, Pp. A3, A28.
- Hochbaum, G.M. (1958). Public participation in medical screening programs: A sociopsychological study. <u>Public Health Service Publication</u>, no. 572.
- Jessor, R. (1984). Adolescent development and behavioral health. In J.D. Matarazzo, S.M. Weiss, J.A. Herd, N.E. Miller, & S.W. Weiss (Eds.), <u>Behavioral Health</u> (pp. 69-89). New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Jessor, R. (1991). Risk behavior in adolescence: A psychosocial framework for understanding and action. Journal of Adolescent Health, 12, 597-605.
- Jessor, R. (1992). Risk behavior in adolescence: A psychosocial framework for understanding and action. Developmental Review, 12, 374-390.
- Kasl, S.V., & Cobb, S. (1966). Health behavior, illness behavior, and sick-role behavior. <u>Environmental Health</u>, 12, 246-266.
- Kirscht, J.P., Haefner, D., Kegeles, S.S., Rosenstock, I. (1966). A national study of health beliefs. <u>Journal of Health and Human Behavior</u>, 7, 242-254.
- Kosimar in Kobasic, D.M., Smith, E.R. & Barmore-Zucker, L.S. (1988). Bisman v. State of New York: The duty of a college to protect its students from harm by other students admitted under social programs. The Journal of College and University Law, 14, 575-605.
- Larson, B.B., Olsen, B., Cole, W., and Shortell, S. (1979). The relationship of health beliefs and a postcard reminder to influenza vaccination. <u>Journal of Family Practice</u>, 8, 1207-1211.
- Lederman, D. (1995). Colleges Report Rise in Violent Crime. The Chronicle of Higher Education, February 3, 1995, A31, A42.
- Lenski, T.J. (1992). <u>Students' perceptions of campus safety</u> and the effect on intended precautionary behavior. Unpublished manuscript. ACUHO-I Research and Educational Foundation, Columbus, OH.
- Lenski, T.J. (1992). <u>Students' perceptions of campus safety</u> and the effect on intended precautionary behavior.
 Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Vermont.

- Lenski, T.J., Meyers, H.W., & Hunter, D.E. (1996).
 Understanding Students' Intentions to Use Safety
 Precautions. National Association of Student Personnel
 Administrators Journal, 33,82-93.
- Maiman, L.A., & Becker, M.H. (1974). The health belief model: Origins and correlates in psychological theory. Health Education Monographs, 2, 336-353.
- Maiman, L.A., Becker, M.H., Kirsht, J.P., Haefner, D.P., & Drachman, R.H. (1977). Scales for measuring health belief model dimensions: A test of predictive value, internal consistency, and relationships among beliefs. Health Education Monographs, 5, 215-231.
- Maslow, A.H. (1954). <u>Motivation and Personality</u>. New York: Harper & Row.
- Moore, S., and Rosenthal, D. (1991). Adolescent invulnerability and perceptions of AIDS risk. <u>Journal of Adolescent Research</u>, 6, 164-180.
- Ordovensky, P. (1990, November 29). Hour by hour, campus crime toll mounts. <u>USA Today</u>, p.8A.
- Orr, D.P., Beiter, M., and Ingersoll, G. (1991). Premature sexual activity as an indicator or psychosocial risk. Pediatrics, 87, 141-147.
- Pace, C.R. (1984). An Account of the Development and Use of the College Student Experiences Questionnaire. Unpublished manuscript. Higher Education Research Institute, Graduate School of Education. University of California, Los Angeles.
- Pascarella, B.T., & Terenzini, P.T. (1991). How college affects students: Findings and insights from twenty years of research. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Roark, M. L. (1987). Preventing violence on college campuses. <u>Journal of Counseling and Development</u>, <u>65</u>, 367-371.
- Roark, M., & Roark, E. Jr. (1987). Administrative Responses to Campus Violence. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American College Personnel Association/National Association of Student Personnel Administrators. Chicago, IL, March 15-18, 1987.
- Robertson, L.S. (1977). Car crashes: Perceived vulnerability and willingness to pay for crash protection. Journal of Community Health, 3, 136-141.

- Robinson, B.E. (1988). <u>Teenage Fathers</u>. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Rosenstock, I.M. (1974). Historical origins of the health belief model. <u>Health Education Monographs</u>, 2, 328-335. (a)
- Rosenstock, I.M. (1974) The health belief model and preventive health behavior. <u>Health Education Monographs</u>, 2, 354-385. (b)
- Rosenstock, I.M. (1990) The health belief model: Explaining health behavior through experiences. In K. Glanz, F.M. Lewis, & B.K. Rimer (Eds.), Health behavior and health education: Theory, research, and practice (pp. 39-62). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Rudolph, (1990). The American College and University. University of Georgia Press, pp.87, 97.
- Schneider (1977). In A.L. Rentz and G.L. Saddlemire (Eds.), Student Affairs Functions in Higher Education (pp 232-233). Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas Publisher.
- Simpson, J.A. (1994). Developing a Safety/Security Program For Residence Halls. In <u>Safety & Security Programs for Campus Housing</u> (pp.41-53). Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association of College and University Housing Officers-International. San Antonio, TX, June 26-30, 1994.
- Smith, M.C. (1989). The ancestry of campus violence. In J.M. Sherrill, & D.G. Siegal (Eds.), Responding to violence on campus (pp. 5-15), San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Towson State University, Center for the Study and Prevention of Campus Violence (1986, 1987, 1988). National Campus Violence Survey 1986, 1987 and 1988 Data Tables. Towson, MD: Towson State University.
- Towson State University, Center for the Study and Prevention of Campus Violence (1990). The links among drug, alcohol, and student crime: research results from Center for the Study and Prevention of Campus Violence's second victimization survey. Towson, MD: Towson State University.
- Turner, J. (1993). <u>Teenage sexual risk-taking and perceived invulnerability:</u> The influence of adolescent egocentrism. Doctoral dissertation, The University of Connecticut, 1993.

- Tuttle, D.F. (1990). In S. Colino (author), Felony 101. Student Lawyer, p. 37.
- United States Congress (1990). <u>The Student Right-to-Know</u> and Campus Security Act. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Weinstein, N.D. (1980). Unrealistic optimism about susceptibility to health problems. <u>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</u>, 39, 806-820.
- Weinstein, N.D. (1982). Unrealistic optimism about susceptibility to health problems. <u>Journal of Behavioral Medicine</u>, 5, 441-460.
- White, R.W. (1975). <u>Lives in progress: A study of the natural growth of personality</u> (3rd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1975.
- Wills, S.B. (1993). Residence Hall Security. As Perceived By Students and Parents at Two Public Universities. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Illinois State University.

