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Comparing Perceptions of Campus Crime Severity Among Community College and Public Four-Year University Students

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COMPARING PERCEPTIONS OF CAMPUS CRIME SEVERITY AMONG
COMMUNITY COLLEGE AND PUBLIC FOUR-YEAR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

BY

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DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
For the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education
In the Graduate School of the
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St. Louis, Missouri

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ABSTRACT

In recent years violent crimes on several university campuses have been highlighted by mass media, drawing national attention to the issue of campus crime. Not all college campuses, however, experience the same level of crime. While community colleges serve roughly half of all undergraduates in the U.S., statistically these public institutions account for a much lower percentage of violent crimes than their public four-year university counterparts.

With the thought that perceptions and beliefs govern one's behavior, this study considers the possibility that elements of institutional culture influence student perceptions about campus crime. Two hundred and sixty-five (265) college students, from three community colleges and three public four-year universities in the state of Missouri, responded to a written survey indicating their perception of the level of severity of 13 crime scenarios. Resulting Crime Perception Scores were statistically tested with respondent demographic variables of age, gender, ethnicity, type and location of residence, type of institution attended, and size of population center supporting that institution.

Results of this study reveal that elements of institutional culture intrinsic to the student, such as their age, gender and ethnicity, significantly influence their perceptions of crime severity.

Likewise, elements extrinsic to the student, such as whether they live on or off campus, and the size of city supporting the college or university, also significantly influence these perceptions.

The results of this study help expand the current level of understanding about campus crime, filling a gap in current research on the topic, hopefully increasing the awareness of campus administrators, and prompting those officials to consider appropriate solutions or counters to the serious threat posed by campus crime.

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I would also like to thank the facilitators and instructors at participating institutions that administered the student surveys and helped secure IRB approval. The contributions of Dr. Kathleen Haywood particularly stand out. Thanks as well to Dr. Norman Myers, my former supervisor and retired President of Ozarks Technical Community College (OTC), for convincing me to pursue a doctorate. Also of great value was the support of fellow UMSL doctoral students, as well as friends here at OTC, who provided both ideas and inspiration. Of note: Cindy Epperson, Janice Meyer, Kelly Anthony, and Dr. Gavin O'Connor.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

In recent years violent crimes on several university campuses have been highlighted by the mass media, drawing national attention to campus crime. Most citizens have heard about the massacre of 32 students and faculty on the Virginia Tech campus on April 16th, 2007, as well as the killing of five students at the University of Northern Illinois on February 14th of 2008. The increasing frequency and severity of campus crime have become the focus not just of the media, but also of criminal justice and higher education research. Binge drinking and rape on college campuses have been topics of focused attention, and research confirms that the seriousness of these issues is not just a perception fueled by media coverage.

Not all college campuses, however, are experiencing this same level of violent crime. While community colleges serve roughly 11.5 million students, representing 46% of all undergraduates in the U.S. (AACC, 2009), for the three year period 2005 through 2007, these public institutions accounted for only 6% of all campus murders, 11% of all forcible rapes, 29% of campus robberies, and 29% of all campus aggravated assaults (U. S. Department of Education, 2009). This seems particularly surprising as community colleges are typically “open admission,” meaning that virtually no screening of students occurs prior to admission. Those critical of these comparisons offer that most community colleges do not maintain residence halls on campus, and that fact accounts for the difference in numbers. However, after eliminating residence hall incidents from campus crime reports, the percentage of crimes perpetrated on the campus of four-year public colleges and universities is only slightly lowered (see *Appendix A*).

Perhaps the difference lies not with the type of institution, but with the type of student attracted by a particular college or university. Are there differences in student characteristics that might influence behavior, attitudes and perceptions as they relate to campus crime? Using perceptions of crime as a gauge of attitudes and behavior, what characteristics and associated variables of institutional culture would be most likely to predict these perceptions? Does living at home with one's parents, or in an individual residence off-campus influence a person's perception of what constitutes a crime, associated levels of severity, and appropriate or acceptable behavior? How might gender, or ethnicity influence student attitudes? Does the size of the population base from which a student originates influence perceptions? In this vein, could substantial exposure to criminal activity throughout a student's life lead to a greater acceptance of criminal behavior, or might the opposite effect be true? As the variance in criminal activity on campus may suggest, are these attributes more likely to manifest themselves among university students than among those who select community colleges? This study will attempt to determine the relationship between elements of institutional culture, both intrinsic and extrinsic to the student, which may impact student perceptions and thus behavior.

Problem Statement

Most of the serious campus crime, according to crime reporting required by the "Clery Act" and made available annually by the institutions of higher learning themselves, takes place at public four-year institutions rather than at community colleges (see *Figure 1*). With campus crime becoming increasingly violent, one question should be on the mind of every college president: Why is not every type of higher education institution experiencing levels of violent crime commensurate with student distribution? It is noteworthy that private nonprofit four-year institutions reflect numbers slightly below, but close to, those of the public four-year schools

(U.S. Department of Education, 2009). Might the difference in violent crime between the two types of institutions—public community college and public four-year—be directly tied to an institutional culture common to four-year public universities? A culture shaped by the influence of factors common to university life, but either absent or of less influence on the community college campus? Research regarding institutional culture in higher education does exist, and this study will consider the influence this culture may have on student behavior and attitudes.

Existing research on campus crime and institutional culture has focused on factors such as the possible relationship between sports or fraternities and binge drinking, campus rape and crime in general. Few of these studies, however, have attempted to draw a comparison between the public four-year university and public community college campuses. An understanding of what causes the difference in incident reporting, particularly if related to differences in institutional culture, may translate into effective crime prevention or deterrence policy.

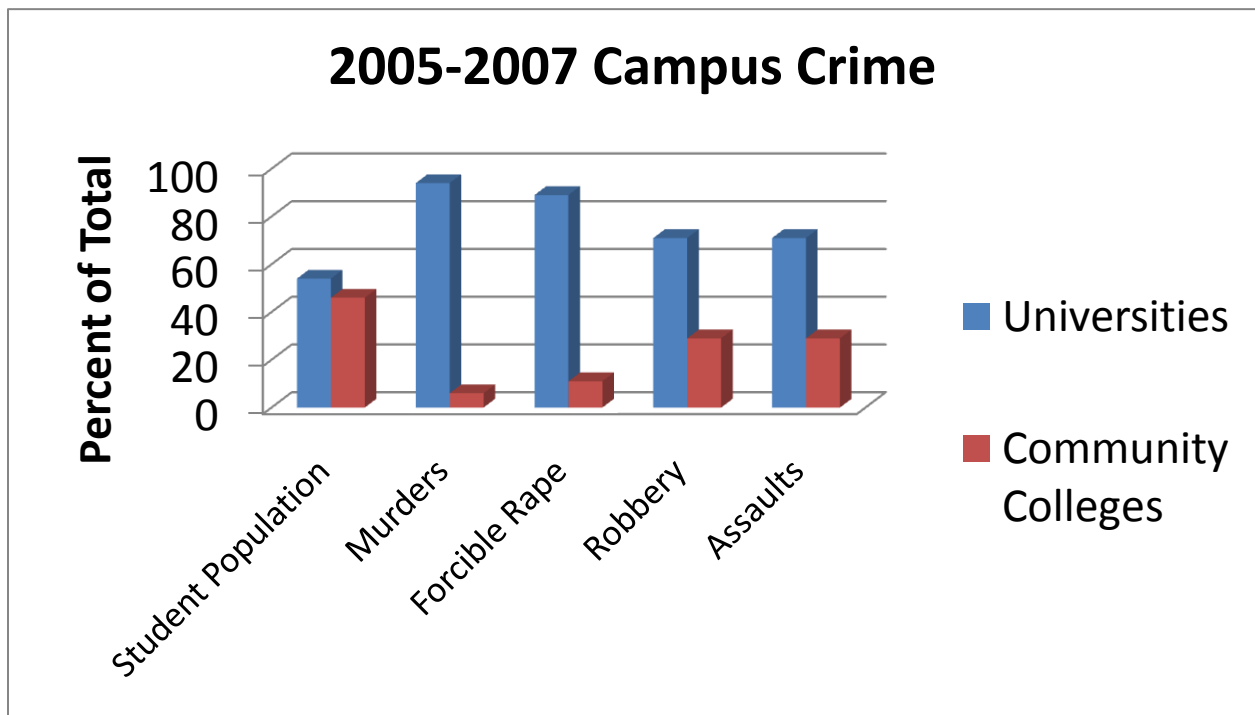


Figure 1. Campus Crime Statistics. (U.S. Department of Education, 2009).

One common thought is that the difference in crime rates between these institutions is related to the fact that many community college students are commuters, and as previously noted, fewer of these institutions have on-campus housing for their students than do public four-year institutions. But Clery Act reporting statistics do not support this as an influencing factor. Reports reveal that even after residence hall crimes are deleted from institutional statistics, the community college share of violent campus crimes for the period 2005-2007 remains comparatively low, with 7% as many murders (3 vs. 41), 27% as many forcible rapes (346 vs. 1263), 46% the number of robberies (791 vs. 1733), and 54% as many assaults (1326 vs. 2453) (Department of Education, 2009). Reference *Figure 2* below. These comparisons hold when university campuses that are also largely commuter institutions are compared to community colleges in similar settings, indicating that the presence of large percentages of residential students is not the influencing factor, even when crimes are committed outside of residence halls.

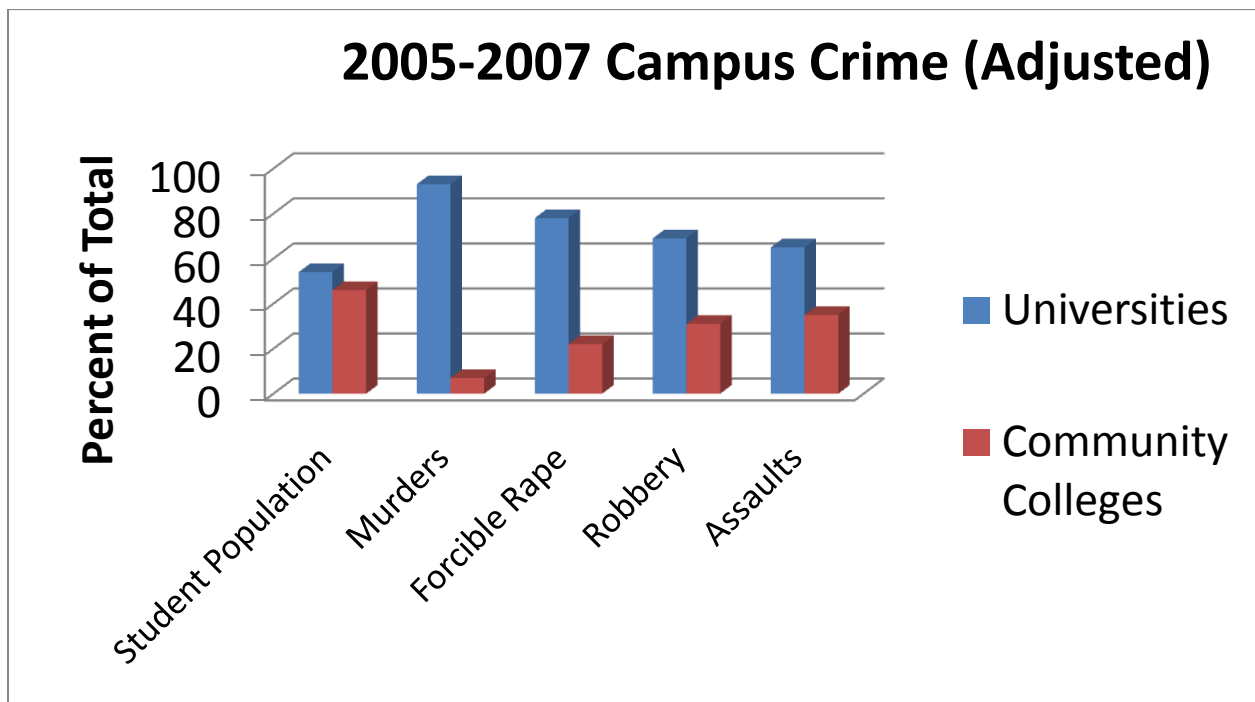


Figure 2. Campus crime statistics with Residence Hall crime numbers removed. (U.S. Department of Education, 2009).

A related issue is that at four-year public institutions, many situations conducive to criminal activity occur in the evening. On community college campuses however, where 62% of the students are part-time, 56% work more than 20 hours per week, and 93% commute, student activity on campus during the evening hours is often significant, though interaction after class hours does not typically take place *on campus* (CCSSE, 2008). How might these elements impact institutional culture, affecting student perceptions and behavior?

It may also be that four-year institutions are simply more permissive of inappropriate conduct by their students. Indeed, some research speculates that college athletes are more commonly allowed to break rules with impunity, and that collegiate-level athletics creates a culture of permissiveness, resulting in increased criminal activity on campus (Locklear, 2003). The relative absence of major collegiate sporting events on community college campuses might thus be a variable to be considered, given the pre- or post-game party atmosphere that often accompanies them. However, if the student athlete is the variable of concern, rather than visiting fans, community colleges would experience comparable levels of crime as they have sports teams with similar numbers of players.

This research theorizes that there may be a combination of influences that create a difference in institutional cultures as reflected by student perceptions and behavior. This thought is echoed by many educational theorists, both past and present, and is discussed in the following chapter. The study further postulates that how students feel about what constitutes a serious crime—their attitudes about crime severity and criminal behavior—may influence the likelihood that they will engage in such behavior. It further theorizes that these attitudes may differ between students attending community colleges and those attending four-year institutions, explaining to some degree the differing crime statistics for each institutional type.

Research Questions and Null Hypotheses

As demonstrated in Figure 3, what is known is that the number of campus crimes committed on four-year public universities is higher than, or differs from, the number of crimes committed on community college campuses. Unknown is what is different about these two types of institutions that might cause this difference. Is there some characteristic about the type of institution, *extrinsic* to the student resulting in this difference, such as the types of student residences on campus, if any? Perhaps it depends on where the institution is located. For example, is it in a rural area, an urban area, or something in between? Are there differences in the types of students attending... characteristics of the student, or variables *intrinsic* to them? Does the institution attract younger students, or older students? Are they mostly male or mostly female? What is the distribution of students by ethnicity? Do any of these variables really matter with regard to crimes committed on the campus?

This study examines whether or not a difference exists in perceptions of crime between two student populations; those enrolled in community colleges and those attending public four-year universities. The study poses the following research questions:

- RQ1: Do elements of institutional culture intrinsic to the student, such as the age, gender, and ethnicity of students, influence perceptions about criminality and criminal behavior?
- RQ2: In addition to the type of institution, do elements extrinsic to the student, such as the type and location of residence, and the size of the population base supporting the institution influence perceptions about criminality and criminal behavior?
- RQ3: Are predictors of crime severity perceptions different for students at community colleges and public four-year universities?

In answering these three research questions, the following null hypotheses were tested:

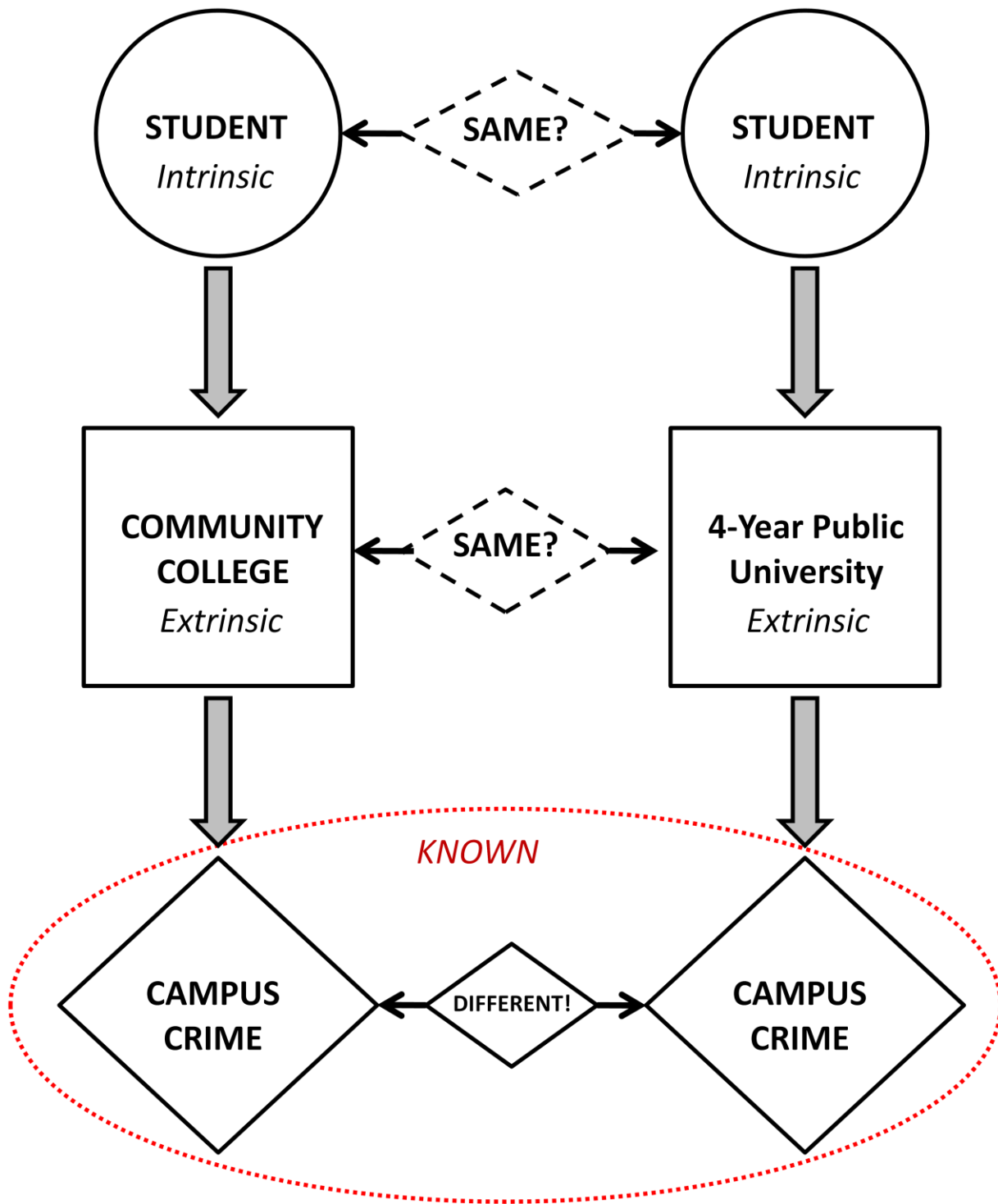
- H₀1: Elements of institutional culture intrinsic to the college student, such as age, gender, and ethnicity, do not influence their perception of crime severity.
- H₀2: Elements of institutional culture extrinsic to the college student, such as the type of institution, type and location of student residence, and size of population base supporting the institution, do not influence their perception of crime severity.
- H₀3: Predictors of crime severity perceptions do not differ for students at community colleges and public four-year universities.

Integral to this study is the question of whether female and male students have different perceptions as to the severity of crimes and what constitutes inappropriate behavior. As discussed in the next chapter, some moral development theory implies that the answer to this question is “yes” and this research will cast further light on the gender issue.

In answering the three research questions, and responding to the null hypotheses, this current study will provide college administrators information that will be of value when making policy decisions in an effort to reduce the frequency and severity of crime on their campus.

Figure 3 provides a visual representation of the origin of the research questions stated above, as this study considers possible influences on student perceptions of crime.

Figure 3. Researching Possible Influences on Student Perceptions of Crime



Delimitations

This study surveyed student perceptions of crime severity at six institutions of higher learning in Missouri. The three community colleges and three public four-year universities in the study were selected from a collection of rural, suburban and urban locations. The presence of on-campus housing and collegiate-level sports will be noted, but were not a requirement of institutional selection, nor was participation in sports a demographic of concern on the student survey.

This study does not look at private universities or colleges, and therefore makes no references related to their culture. Crime statistics used in this study exclude these institutions.

While institutional culture is influenced by all members of the institution as individuals or groups (see definition below), this study surveyed only students, not faculty, staff or administrators. In his 1909 “Spirit of Learning” speech at Harvard University, President/academician Woodrow Wilson called attention to the major segments involved with learning at a college, stating that the circle “...must include the older men, the teachers...” (as cited in Clark, 1965, p. 2). Though this study focuses on student perceptions as a potential correlative element of campus crime, it must be acknowledged that the perceptions of an institution’s staff, faculty and administrators are significant elements of institutional culture and as such, may have a direct or indirect impact on student perceptions of campus crime. It was not the purpose of this study, however, to gauge the influence of these factors.

Neither was this a study of victims or perpetrators, whose perceptions of campus crime could vary significantly from that of the average student at these institutions. Because victim and perpetrator perceptions of campus crime severity could vary significantly from that of the

average student at these institutions, they were not considered as an element of institutional culture.

In an attempt to obtain a sample of students who have been acclimated or integrated into an existing “institutional culture”, students with at least one semester of college-level coursework, attending daytime general education or foundational courses were surveyed. Sixty students from each institution received the survey, with roughly half being female, and half male.

Finally, the data presented later indicate that intercollegiate athletics may contribute to the prevalence of campus crime. By looking only at colleges in Missouri, this study may not be able to fully assess the impact of this factor, as Missouri community colleges do not offer programs in football.

Definition of Terms

In order to gain a full appreciation of the issues involved in this study, an understanding of the terminology used in it is critical. Familiarity with the following terms should assist the reader in understanding the content of this research.

- *Clery Act*: the Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act (20 USC ~ 1092(f)). This landmark federal law requires colleges and universities in the US to report annual statistics about crime on and around their campuses (*Handbook for Campus Crime*, 2005).
- *Community College*: an institution of higher learning typically offering 2-3 year Associate degree programs, characterized by open admission or access, low tuition costs, and the availability of remedial coursework to improve student chances for success at the collegiate level (Cohen and Brawer, 2003).

- *General Education Course*: academic coursework intended to provide students of higher learning with the fundamental ideas and intellectual background which serve as a foundation to success in more advanced and specialized studies. Successful completion of some lower-level general education coursework is normally required before acceptance into higher level coursework. Such courses typically deal with the arts, communication, English composition, humanities, mathematics, social sciences and natural sciences.
- *Institutional Culture*: the composite of values, social ideals, behaviors and beliefs characteristic of persons, groups, or organizations associated with the institution in question—in this case, an institution of higher learning (Birnbaum, 1988; Peterson and Spencer, 1990; CSPUP, 2001). For the purposes of this study, institutional culture includes elements both intrinsic and extrinsic to the student.
- *Perception of Crime*: a person's understanding of the potential criminality of a situation—in this case, a personal judgment on behalf of a respondent as to the severity, or lack of severity, of an action which could be perceived as criminal.
- *Public Four-Year University*: a state-funded institution of higher learning with academic programs which at the least include Bachelors' degrees—in contrast to four-year privately funded (religious or otherwise) or proprietary (for-profit) colleges or universities.
- *Violent Crime*: for the purposes of this study, and as reflected in Department of Education crime statistics as well as institutional Clery Act reporting of campus crime, violent campus crime includes the following offenses: murder/non-negligent

manslaughter, forcible sex offenses (to include rape), robbery, and aggravated assault (*Handbook for Campus Crime*, 2005).

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical construct that guided this research is Moral Development Theory, specifically as presented by Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development (1972). Kohlberg's work underpins much of the discussion presented by Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) about how college affects students and will be applied to the findings in the final chapter of this study. Findings of this research will be examined using theoretical models utilized by Pascarella and Terenzini, as well as elements of Weidman's *Model of Undergraduate Socialization* (1989).

Significance

If a true difference exists between student perceptions of crime severity at these two types of institutions that can be attributed to one or more elements of institutional culture, this study will help increase the awareness by administrators at four-year institutions that a problem with perceptions exists, hopefully prompting those officials to consider appropriate solutions or counters. Indeed, the very knowledge that a difference exists is the first step in reaching a solution. In addition, the collection of demographic information from respondents will help with an understanding of the potential influence that factors such as location of student residence play in student perceptions of crime, allowing administrators to use this information to influence decision making as to the presence or absence of on-campus residencies or the expansion of existing housing facilities. In a more general sense, it will be most helpful for college personnel to know what students think about criminal activity in the context of college life and whether attendance at some institutions appears to cultivate a greater sense of permissiveness than at

others. Student security is central to the concerns of all college personnel, and any research that sheds greater light on what may contribute to or deter criminal behavior on campus is important.

Organization

This study consists of five chapters. In Chapter Two, a review of literature concerning campus crime provides a foundation from which to understand the intricacies of the problem. To gain an accurate understanding of research and theory impacting the significant issues involved in this study, the following framework is used. A review of the background of the culture of higher education first considers the evolving nature of community colleges in America. Access and racial diversity have played a key role in the development of both the community college and four-year public university and a brief review of the historic events that have increased both of those important factors is provided, followed by a broader discussion of the influences of campus culture on student attitudes and behavior.

To understand the importance of how a college's student attitudes and values may impact their perceptions and behavior, a review of moral development theory is provided with specific attention to the work of Kohlberg and its application in the writings of Pascarella and Terenzini. The development of moral learning theory leading to Kohlberg's work is traced, with additional discussion of the contributions of one of Kohlberg's students, Carol Gilligan, and her *Model of Women's Moral Development* (1977). This is followed by a review of how research and theory of the culture of higher education has wrapped itself primarily around four issues: institutional behavior, diversity and multiculturalism, institutional/organizational management, and more recently, campus crime.

Next, a thorough review of available research on campus crime identifies the areas of binge drinking, Greek housing, collegiate athletics and rape, as the primary foci of concern. This

lays the foundation for an accounting of research surrounding crisis intervention and prevention, much of which has taken place since the Virginia Tech massacre in 2007.

Finally, Chapter 2 reviews past and recent perception studies, to include perceptions of crime severity and academic dishonesty, attempts to identify variables that previously have been used and might prove beneficial in this study. The review is concluded with a close look at the Clery Act, and campus crime reporting requirements as a model for the perception survey to be used in this study.

Chapter 3 addresses the methodology used in the study. This chapter begins with a description of survey participants and the institutions they attend, followed by an account of the survey instrument itself, the significance of its design, and the procedures followed in conducting the survey. A description of the data analysis phase provides an explanation of the dependent and independent variables used to ascertain survey results, and the analytical methods employed in examining the data. Chapter Three concludes with an examination of the limitations experienced with the conduct of this study.

Chapter 4 summarizes the findings obtained through the research. Correlations between variables and survey results are identified, and each hypothesis reconsidered in light of the results. Primarily, it determines what, if any, relationships exist between the elements of institutional culture identified and student perceptions of crime severity. It examines whether there is a variable or set of variables that could be used to predict those perceptions.

Statistical analysis is conducted using the Crime Perception Score (CPS) as the dependent variable. Predictor or independent variables include the student age group, gender, ethnicity group, type/location of residence, type of institution, and size of population center where the institution is located (Class 1 = over 300K, Class 2 = 75K to 300K, and Class 3 = less than 75K).

Statistical data are compared and contrasted in an attempt to determine relationships called into question by the three research questions:

- RQ1: Do elements of institutional culture intrinsic to the student, such as the age, gender, and ethnicity of students influence perceptions about criminality and criminal behavior?
- RQ2: In addition to the type of institution, do elements extrinsic to the student, such as the type and location of residence, and the size of the population base supporting the institution influence perceptions about criminality and criminal behavior?
- RQ3: Are predictors of crime severity perceptions different for students at community colleges and public four-year universities?

To examine the independent variables contributing to “institutional culture”, namely age, gender, ethnicity, type of institution, type of residence and institutional population base, independent samples t-testing, one-way ANOVA, and regression analysis is used as appropriate. Chapter Four discusses whether or not significance exists among independent variables, and to what extent those variables may predict CPS scores.

Chapter 5 analyzes the results of the research, and compares it to theory and literature discussed in Chapter 2. It also considers the utility or applicability of the results to the issue of campus crime itself, and how these results may help institutions of higher learning in their efforts towards crime prevention and intervention. Recommendations for further study are provided in an attempt to answer any questions that might remain, or fill gaps in research identified by the results of this study.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

Higher education holds a unique place in American history and the American psyche. Having evolved from a mixture of English and German educational ideologies, our colleges and universities engender within prospective students a sense of mystical awe, while alumni honor their experience with wild tales of glory, and with financial contributions. What actually happens during the period between these two perspectives typically varies depending on the institution or institutions attended, and the collegiate experience offered.

Institutional culture is composed of the behaviors and beliefs characteristic of persons associated with the institution in question—in this case, an institution of higher learning (CSPUP, 2001). To better understand the issue of campus crime, and why a particular category of institution of higher learning might experience more crime than another, this chapter first considers the background of American higher education culture, to include the basic differences between the typical community college and the public four-year college or university. It then provides a summary of applicable moral development theory as well as theory surrounding the culture of higher education. This is followed by a review of the current dialogue concerning campus crime itself. The chapter then considers theory surrounding perception studies, to help understand the advantages of this particular theoretical perspective in assessing the issue of student perceptions of crime severity. Finally, it looks at institutional reporting of violent crime and the Clery Act.

The theoretical framework contained in this chapter provides information foundational to understanding the issues at hand, and serves as the basis for the methodology used in this study.

Background to the Culture of Higher Education in America

Early historians and researchers used descriptions of culture to illustrate that colleges and universities have cultures that are unique from other institutional types and describe the myths and rituals of colleges and student subcultures. Rudolph (1962, 1990) described the culture of early American higher education as “the collegiate way”, referring to it as “...one of the oldest traditions of the American college, a tradition so fundamental, so all-encompassing, that to call it merely a tradition is to undervalue it” (p. 87). The collegiate way is the understanding that a college is much more than curriculum, buildings, faculty and a collection of students. In early America, it represented a pattern of life. In the college or university environment, association with one’s peers in the close communal life offered by colleges and universities gave students new standards of self-measurement which eased the transition from childhood to adulthood, a transition from perceived restriction to formerly unattained but often dreamed of freedom.

Perhaps nothing better describes the uniqueness of the college experience than the word “ritual”. Besides the military and the church, few other types of institution are as steeped in ritual as is the college. Fulghum (1995) draws attention to the fact that cultures have relied on ritual and ceremony to create order, clarity, and predictability, which are elements critical to the sustainability of any institution. He further explains that rituals are a critical method of gaining an understanding of issues and problems within an organization. In summary, ritual gives structure and meaning to daily life. When a person breaks away from the known and attempts to become established in the formerly unknown, regimen and ritual quicken this transition while building loyalty and trust among newfound peers. From the customary hazing during pledge week, to wearing a long robe and oddly-shaped hat when accepting the diploma upon completion of a degree program, tradition in higher education is thickly embedded in the collegiate way.

The issue of transition during the college years is an important one. In American culture, “traditional” college students occupy a vague place between adolescence and adulthood, and in many ways, drinking, partying and breaking the rules are part of this transitional growing-up period (Brady, 2005). In American colleges, students are receiving contradictory messages. They are expected to behave like adults, but they believe they are being treated like children. “Acting up” is their means of expressing the independence they anticipated upon leaving home. To a degree, institutional administrators have been accepting of an increment of what might otherwise be considered unacceptable behavior, due to an acceptance of ritual, and what some consider “rights of passage” through the hallowed doors of higher education. Often accepted as a phase students are expected to go through, some lesser criminal behaviors such as drinking on campus may be overlooked or tolerated. Over time, this failure to act on the part of college administration can create a perception of permissiveness and acceptance, which finds its way into the institutional culture of the college.

A first or second-year college student might have many of the same experiences whether he or she attended a four-year public university, or a community college. Indeed, with regard to institutional characteristics, why might a student chose one type of institution over the other? Typical two-year and four-year colleges are similar in that both types of institutions can be found across the nation, in cities ranging in size from a large urban area, to the smaller rural community. The size of the institution for both can range from the small 1000-student enrollment, to very large multi-campus urban campuses with enrollments in the tens of thousands.

Both offer students the opportunity to work towards at least the first two years of a baccalaureate program. A variety of delivery methods for instruction can be found in both types

of institutions, including both online and seated classroom courses as well as evening and weekend offerings. Degree programs at the community college can include Arabic or Chinese, or a semester-long program of study at a foreign university, just as one might expect at a four-year public university. Indeed, in many ways, today's community college closely reflects its four-year counterpart.

What then, are some areas in which they may differ, and why? Understanding issues like access and diversity in higher education provide part of the answer. In the *The American Community College*, educational researchers Cohen and Brawer (2003) draw attention to the evolving nature of community colleges, and the importance of these institutions in increasing access to higher education for the average American. According to Cohen and Brawer, more than any other single factor, access defines community colleges: geographic access, academic access, and financial access. Since public universities in urban areas, even highly selective ones, draw a majority of their entering students from within a short radius, community colleges differ from these institutions primarily in terms of academic and financial access (Cohen & Brawer, 2003). With this in mind, a survey of students in second year or sophomore level general education courses at the two types of institutions, located within the same urban or rural setting, should provide a very similar geographic sampling, but one that might differ in terms of academic preparation and socioeconomic background. It would, therefore, be feasible to consider that any significant difference in student responses or perceptions could be explained, at least in part, by differences in the culture of the institutions themselves, or may be a consideration of the types of students drawn to a particular type of institution.

Key to any assumption of a difference between the institutional cultures at public four-year universities and community colleges is an understanding of what the academic differences

between these two types of institutions of higher learning actually are. The “junior college” idea originated in the 1850’s with Henry P. Tappan, President of the University of Michigan. Tappan believed universities should only concentrate on the highest level of instruction, as modeled by the German university structure. This would leave instruction of lower level collegiate education to high schools as the thirteenth and fourteenth year (Anderson, n.d.).

Later in the nineteenth century, national economic hardship led to the first formal thinking on the concept of a two-year college. Baylor University’s president, Reverend J. M. Carroll, suggested that the smaller Baptist colleges in Texas and Louisiana reduce their curriculum to the first two years of study, and that these students then transfer to Baylor where they could complete the third and fourth years of their baccalaureate program (Anderson, n.d.). Elsewhere in the country at roughly the same time, two-year teacher-training institutions began to emerge. These institutions would evolve into the earliest of today’s community colleges. One unique characteristic of these institutions of higher learning was their accessibility to women. Unlike other colleges or universities, it was common for more than 60 % of these students to be women (Anderson, n.d.), an emerging theme of accessibility and diversity that will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

In the late 19th century, University of Chicago President William Rainey Harper was among the first to operationalize the suggestion that the first two years of college work were really lower level or “junior college” work and belonged as supplements to the high schools. Though Tappan had made similar recommendations almost half a century earlier, it is Harper who is often referred to as the founder of the junior college movement. Indeed, in 1900 it was Harper who initiated the awarding of the degree of Associate of Arts to students who successfully complete the junior college program (Anderson, n.d.). Shortly thereafter in 1901,

America's first public community college began as an experimental postgraduate high school program. Joliet Junior College became a reality thanks to J. Stanley Brown, Superintendent of Joliet Township High School and a close friend of Harper. That institution remains the oldest continuously operating public community college in the U.S (Joliet Junior College, 2009).

During the Great Depression in the 1930's, community colleges saw an increased role in vocational/technical education. These institutions took on the task of training and re-training the nation's workforce in an attempt to counter rapidly growing unemployment (Anderson, n.d.). The flexibility inherent in the community college structure allowed these colleges to divert resources quickly to meet the challenges of training a variety of workforce requirements. To this day, vocational and technical training remains a major aspect of the community college mission.

As noted earlier, geographic and financial access further defined the community college. In order to meet the rapidly rising demand from high school graduates, as well as the large number of returning World War II veterans requiring retraining, the need for a significant change in the way our nation approached higher education became evident. In 1947, President Harry Truman appointed a commission to consider the nation's options in meeting this challenge. The resulting Truman Commission Report, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, declared that a major goal of American education should be free and universal access to education, stating:

The time has come to make education through the fourteenth grade available in the same way that high school education is now available. This means that tuition-free education should be available in public institutions to all youth for the traditional freshman and sophomore years or for the traditional 2-year junior college course. To achieve this, it will be necessary to develop much more extensively than at present such opportunities as are now provided in local communities by the 2-year junior college, community institute,

community college, or institute of arts and sciences. The name used does not matter, though community college seems to describe these schools best; the important thing is that the services they perform be recognized and vastly extended (Truman Commission, 1947).

When the number of college-bound American high school students exploded in the 1950's and 1960's, the nation witnessed a corresponding growth of comprehensive community colleges offering a potpourri of opportunities, ranging from adult literacy and continuing education, to vocational/technical career training, and transferrable general education coursework for seamless progression to four-year institutions.

Hand-in-hand with access, another issue impacting the institutional culture of colleges and universities was the diversity of the student population. The road to diversity for American institutions of higher learning has undergone a process that while starting very slowly, in the past century has witnessed significant positive change. Our colleges and universities evolved from predominantly elitist institutions with very restricted access, to today's public colleges and universities which actively seek to proportionally mirror the nation's diverse ethnicities.

An appreciation of this process is provided through use of a generational chronology given by Geiger in his article, *The Historical Matrix of American Higher Education* (1992). Each educational generation describes key aspects or trends in the evolution of American higher education. It wasn't until what he refers to as "Generation Six" (1860-1890), that we begin to see a national impetus to move from elitism in higher education, to access by a much larger number of citizens. Geiger introduces the years from the Civil War to 1890 as "...the fulcrum of the evolution of American higher education," stating that it was during this time that new

constituencies of the industrial classes entered college, to include African-Americans and women...albeit mainly through their own separate institutions (p. 15).

Two primary movements in the U.S. are largely responsible for the shift away from the elite colleges to mass access. Rudolph's *The American College & University* addresses both (1962, 1990). Rudolph first draws attention to the movement for technological and scientific education that developed in the US, resulting in new and more popular institutions of higher learning resulting from the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890. Second, the rebuilding of the American Southland following the Civil War created the need for social and economic mobility, as well as a social philosophy that recognized the right to learning for women, farmers, mechanics, and the rising middle class. Rudolph states quite directly, "In a world remade by the Civil War the American college found that it could not avoid the questions that it had for so long evaded" (p. 243). Events had catapulted technology and social reform into the national mindset, and the federal government would respond.

To encourage the shift to mass education, the federal "hammer" came in the form of financial incentive, provided by the Morrill Federal Land Grant Act of 1862. Commonly known as the Morrill Act, this legislation put federal funding at the disposal of every state government, developing a new network of land-grant colleges which would at the least provide studies in agriculture and the mechanical arts. Each state was given 30,000 acres of public lands for each senator and representative, the sale of which was to provide funding for the new colleges. Albeit slowly, the idea did catch on. Eventually every state would have a land-grant foundation, and 17 states would have two such institutions (Rudolph, 1962, 1990).

In support of the Morrill Act, and to promote a shift towards the scientific study of agriculture, in 1887 the federal government passed the Hatch Act. The Act provided additional

federal grant funding for each state which established agricultural experimental stations in association with the land-grant college (Neilson & Moraru, n.d.). According to Geiger, the land-grant colleges neither met a popular demand, nor did they answer any need for expanded access to higher education (1992). The Hatch Act thus represented an attempt by the federal government to encourage diversification of the national workforce into an area which at the time was increasingly needed to meet the needs of a growing nation. Such would require training and education in the efficient production, distribution, and marketing of agricultural goods. As pointed out by Geiger, by the close of “Generation Six” our nation had witnessed a significant increase in the number of institutions of higher learning from roughly 200 colleges in 1860, to almost 1,000 by 1890 (1992).

Geiger’s “Generation Nine” saw the most pronounced increase in involvement in higher education by the Federal government than during any previous generation. This involvement primarily took the form of financial incentive offered to help educate veterans returning from World War II, as well as provide inducements for institutions in an attempt to expedite federal policy on racial equality and the movement from a “mass” education system, to a “universal” education system (1992).

Bonner describes the Servicemen’s Readjustment Act of 1944 (also known as the “G.I. Bill of Rights”), as the first of several great events in higher education, sparking an “unintended revolution” which resulted in the move from mass higher education in the U.S., to “universal” access. With some 12 million veterans returning to civilian life after the war, this legislation was designed primarily to provide for unemployment relief. It also included, however, a provision that would start Bonner’s unintended revolution in higher education: one year of college to veterans who had served at least 90 days, plus an additional month for every month spent in the

military up to a maximum of four years. In addition, not only were fees, books and supplies paid directly by the government, but veterans also received a monthly stipend (\$50 for unmarried and \$75 if married). A final important yet unintentional aspect of the G.I. Bill was that many universities changed their policies to more easily admit non-high school graduates (Bonner, 1986).

The impact of the Government's role of providing educational privileges to our returning veterans was an explosion. There was not just an enormous increase in the number of college students, but also in the type of students attending college. Within one year of the end of the war, more than a million veterans were in college, and ultimately over 2 million World War II veterans would attend college under the G.I. Bill. For the years 1946-48, veterans accounted for nearly half of all college students, filling institutions of higher learning with serious, hard working and mature students. With grades quickly surpassing those of their younger classmates, veteran students changed forever the perception of the older student. Bonner best sums up the impact of the G.I. Bill, saying, "Almost overnight, the G.I. Bill changed our ideas about who should go to college" (1986, p. 47). Thus began the transition to universal higher education.

Another significant attempt to ensure equitable access to higher education in America, and thus enhance the diversity of our student population, was touched on earlier in this chapter and was reflected in the Truman Commission's 1947 report, *Higher Education for American Democracy*. Within the report, the Commission called for the opening of the doors of higher education to members of society who throughout American history had, "...lingered on the periphery of the American dream of equality for all; members of lower socioeconomic groups, blacks, women, working adults, and other segments of society" (Vaughan, 1983, p. 21). The report stated that these individuals would have educational opportunities previously denied, if the

Commission's goals were adopted. Among the goals included in the report was intent to transition the nation's two-year colleges into "community" colleges, which were to play a significant role in broadening the base of higher education (Vaughan, 1983). Indeed, for the first time in history, the two-year college was seen by the government as an important means for the democratization of higher education.

Similar to the G.I. Bill, but with decidedly more clarity, the Truman Commission changed the nation's thinking regarding who could profit from higher education, suggesting that black Americans should participate equally in the American dream at a time when less than 9 % had completed high school, and less than 3 % had completed four years of higher education (Vaughan, 1983). The community college was expected to open its doors ever wider, designing programs that would meet the needs of a cross section of the population. General education was to be integrated with vocational-technical education, and comprehensive adult education programs were called for. The Commission recommended that the number of community colleges be increased, and their offerings diversified as a means of meeting the proposed influx of new American students (Truman Commission, 1947). Diversification of offerings included increasing general education courses, making the community college even more like the first two years of a four-year program. This issue will be discussed in more detail later.

The main product of the revolutionary policy of the Truman Commission was their statement that a major goal of American education should be free and universal access to education. While America's public four-year institutions have championed diversity of education as well, the student composition at community colleges remains much more diverse, and is becoming increasingly more so. Ethnic minorities comprise 35 % of the country's

community college student population (AACC, 2009), compared to roughly 32 % at all degree-granting institutions combined (NCES, 2009).

Within today's community college student body, the population is 65 % white, 15 % Hispanic, 13 % Black, 6 % Asian, and 1 % Native American. When considering students by ethnic group, we find that 55 % of all Native American, 55 % of all Hispanic, 46 % of all Asian, and 46 % of all Black undergraduate students attend community colleges. By gender, 60 % of community college students are women (AACC, 2009).

When considering institutions of higher learning and institutional culture, programmatic differences between the community college and its four-year public counterpart are growing increasingly few. Community colleges are frequently used by students pursuing a bachelor's degree as a low-cost means of completing general study requirements in the early stages of a degree program. Due to state mandated or institutionally established articulation agreements, most general education coursework offered by community colleges is transferrable to local four-year public universities.

On the other end of the spectrum, a number of four-year institutions have now developed technical baccalaureate programs that allow community college students to transfer into vocational degrees such as computer science or nursing. Previously, four-year institutions made little accommodation for the articulation of credits from community college programs. Now, articulation agreements between community colleges and their four-year counterparts pave the way for a smooth transition, encouraging more students with strong academic backgrounds to begin their work at community colleges. A key thought generated by this discussion is that students at the community college are increasingly similar to freshmen and sophomore students at many four-year institutions. Therefore, a survey of students taking general education or

foundational coursework could be expected to yield comparable results regardless of the institution being attended.

Summary of Applicable Theory

To gain a better understanding of the relationship between student perceptions of crime and the role or impact of institutional culture on these attitudes, it is useful to review relevant theory. Of note, age and gender emerge as important considerations for student perceptions and behavior. Students bring these intrinsic factors with them to college, where their characteristics merge with those of their peers to become part of the institutional culture.

Research indicates that perceptions of the severity of particular criminal acts can be tied directly to students' concept of what they consider to be moral and/or immoral behavior. In criminal law, the terms *mala prohibita* and *mala in se* are used to describe acts or behavior society deems unacceptable. *Mala prohibita* acts are "crimes that are made illegal by legislation", whereas *mala in se* acts are crimes that are "immoral or wrong in themselves" (Rush, 2002). Though one student may consider the *mala prohibita* act of grand theft auto to be a crime with a low level of severity, another student, when considering the penalty of the crime, might perceive it as a crime with a moderately high level of severity. While one expects differences in the perceived severity of *mala in se* crimes to be less frequent, confounding variables could on occasion result in a greater than expected variance. What variables might impact moral reasoning in such a way?

The effect attendance at different college types has on student development of attitudes, values, and moral reasoning is touched on in Pascarella and Terenzini's landmark study, *How College Affects Students* (2005). Their research considers that the type of student attracted by a particular institution may indeed impact results of any study on moral reasoning (liberal arts and

Bible colleges, for example). Using results taken from McNeel's 12-institution study in 1994, Pascarella and Terenzini argue for the possibility that between-college differences found in principled moral reasoning represent actual *institutional* effects.

Though the Pascarella and Terenzini study is primarily concerned with the influence the entire process of higher education has in shaping student attitudes, values and beliefs, institutional effects on attitudes and behaviors are indeed considered a variable of influence. The confounding effects of student maturity, fraternity or sorority membership, and intercollegiate athletic involvement are also considered (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Age (maturity), and location and type of student residence (to include Greek houses), are two of the six variables to be considered by this study.

A discussion of moral development theory essential to the theoretical underpinnings of this study finds its beginnings in Kant's moral philosophy, and the "Categorical Imperative." Like other philosophers of the late 18th century, Locke and Hobbes to name a few, Kant agreed that moral requirements are based on standards of rationality, however, while many of his predecessors taught that those same standards were either desire based principles, or principles based on rational intuition, Kant took another approach. He believed that moral law is a principle of reason itself, not based on contingent facts about the world, and that moral obligation applies to all rational agents. His argument was based on his doctrine that a rational will is autonomous. In other words, the fundamental principle of morality, the Categorical Imperative, is the law of an autonomous will, and it is this self-governing reason that each person possesses equal worth, and all are thus deserving of equal respect (Kant's Moral Philosophy, 2004). This Kantian philosophy continues to influence the theory of moral development

centuries after its origin. One more recent theoretician influenced by Kant was Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget.

Piaget (1932, 1965, 1997) is perhaps best known for his theory of cognitive development. Piaget believed that individuals construct and reconstruct their knowledge of the world based on their life lessons or interactions with the environment, and thus morality is a developmental process (Murray, n.d.). His theory of moral development appears to have been influenced by his cognitive theory, as both have the same basic format and are based on stages that children pass through at certain approximate ages. The first stage, known as “pre-moral judgment”, lasts from birth until about year five. In this stage, children do not understand the concept of rules and have no idea of morality. In the second stage, called “moral realism”, the child understands the concept of rules, but rules are forced on them from above. According to moral realism, wrongdoing is evaluated in terms of consequences, not intentions of the perpetrator. The letter of the law is valued above the purpose of the law. According to Piaget’s theory, this stage lasts roughly from age five to nine.

The third stage often overlaps the second stage. Known as “moral relativity”, children in this stage recognize that rules can be changed if there is mutual consent. In addition, they begin to develop their own idea of morality. Actions and infractions are evaluated in terms of intentions. Thus emerges the idea that punishment should fit the crime (Piaget, 1997). In assessing the relevance of Piaget’s theory to the current study, moral development increases with maturity or age. Similar ideas were shared by Lawrence Kohlberg, who modified and elaborated on Piaget’s work.

Kohlberg’s Theory of Moral Development (1972) provides a glimpse into the cognitive process by which moral choices are made. His theory breaks moral reasoning into three general

levels with two transitional stages in each. The first level is referred to as “preconventional”. At this level, likely physical consequences determine if a behavior is considered good or bad. The individual defers to superior power out of self-interest. Concern for laws or rules is based solely on the consequences of violating those rules. During the second stage of this level the individual begins to see an emerging relativism. At the “conventional” or second level, expectations of others receive value, and behavior is guided by the need for approval from parents and peers. Later in that level, at Stage 4, respect for authority as a social obligation emerges. Laws are recognized as necessary for the protection and maintenance of the group as a whole. At Stage 5, the “postconventional,” or third level, emphasizes equality and mutual obligation. Finally, at Stage 6, the “Highest value [is] placed on human life, equality, and dignity” (Kohlberg, 1972). Personal ethics and decisions of conscience guide choices and behavior.

As with Piaget, Kohlberg sees moral development progressing as the individual grows in age. This idea has two implications for the current study. First, individuals of roughly the same age should be at similar stages of moral development. Second, by the time individuals are old enough to attend college, they should be in the final stages of moral development though it will be of interest to determine if older college students provide significantly different CPS scores than their younger counterparts.

Carol Gilligan, a research assistant of Kohlberg, questioned the applicability of the Kohlberg model to women. As a consequence, she developed *Gilligan’s Model of Women’s Moral Development* (1977), which applies a different set of perspectives to three stages of development for women’s moral reasoning. The first level is referred to as *Orientation to Individual Survival*. The focus at this level is almost entirely on self and one’s desires and needs. Such a focus may prevent recognition of moral dilemmas. When progressing from this level, a

person enters a period described by Gilligan as the transition from “Selfishness to Responsibility”, whereupon they enter the second level. This level is referred to as *Goodness as Self-Sacrifice*. At this stage of moral development, caring and responsibility for others becomes the basis for acceptance, and the individual begins subordinating her needs to the needs of others (Gilligan, 1977).

The transition between the second and third levels begins as the individual redefines responsibility as not just caring for others, but caring for oneself as well. It is at that point one enters the third and final level: *The Morality of Nonviolence*. At this point, the individual accepts nonviolence as a moral principle and the basis for decision making (Gilligan, 1977).

Like Piaget and Kohlberg, Gilligan’s moral development theory progresses as the individual matures and life experiences expand, however, the focus stresses the difference in development based on gender. The results of this study, if Gilligan’s theory is accurate, could be expected to vary significantly based on the gender of the student respondent. As with age, the variable of gender as intrinsic to students, is brought with them and merged into the institutional culture of the college attended.

Pascarella and Terenzini summarize the differences between the Kohlberg and Gilligan models as differences between “the morality of rights and the morality of responsibility, between concepts of autonomy and separation and concepts of connectedness and relationships” (2005, p. 44). Understandably, progress through both Kohlberg’s and Gilligan’s levels of moral development would vary depending on the individual. Given these models, elements such as age or maturity (Kohlberg), and gender (Gilligan), could be expected to play a significant part in moral development, as might educational advancement as presented by Pascarella and Terenzini. Other elements of institutional impact on students are examined in the following three models of

student change in college: Weidman's *Model of Undergraduate Socialization* (1989), Tinto's *Theory of Student Departure* (1993), and Pascarella's *General Model for Assessing Change* (1985).

Weidman's *Model of Undergraduate Socialization* incorporates both psychological and social-structural influences impacting student lifestyle preferences and values. These are elements this study considered indirectly through a survey of student perceptions. The Weidman model hypothesizes that students bring valuable intrinsic background characteristics with them to college. Then during the collegiate experience, normative contexts, both academic and social, to include institutional size and type of residence, combine with non-college reference groups. These groups include peers, employers and community organizations. Parental socialization is also considered as normative context during college, and includes parental life style and parent/child relationships. The combination of all these influences creates a set of socialization outcomes, reflected by student lifestyle preferences and values (Weidman, 1989).

In a similar vein, according to Tinto's *Longitudinal Model of Institutional Departure* (1993), students enter college with various patterns of personal, family, and academic characteristics with regard to intentions and commitments. These intentions and commitments are subsequently modified and reformulated through a series of interactions between the student and the structures and members of the academic and social systems of the institution. In terms common to this study, the elements of institutional culture influence student perceptions and behavior. Institutional experiences within the academic system can be formal, as in the case of academic performance, and/or informal, such as student interactions with faculty and staff. Indeed, research has shown that relationships with faculty are stronger predictors of learning success than student background characteristics (Lundberg & Schreiner, 2004). Thus, academic

integration may transform the goals and commitments a student had when originally entering the institution (Tinto, 1993).

Likewise, these original goals and commitments may be influenced in a positive or negative manner by the student's experiences within the social system of the institution. Such experience may occur through formal exchanges, as in the case of extracurricular activities, or informally, through peer group interactions (Tinto, 1993). As identified later in this chapter, peer group interaction can lead to peer pressure to conduct positive or negative activities. It is the negative activity often leading to campus crime that is of concern to this study.

Rewarding encounters within the academic and social systems of the institution lead to greater student integration in these systems. To put it in the perspective of this research, the student becomes integrated into the institutional culture. How long it takes for any significant level of cultural assimilation to take place is highly dependent upon the individual and his or her circumstances.

While Tinto's model is largely concerned with influences exerted *socially* by peers and faculty at an institution, Pascarella's *General Model for Assessing Change* (1985) includes explicit consideration of both an institution's structural characteristics and its environment. This model identifies direct and indirect effects on the student "change process" of five main sets of variables. These sets include, (a) students' background and precollege characteristics, (b) the structural and organizational features of the institution (size, selectivity, student residence characteristics), (c) the college/university "environment", (d) the student interaction with socializing agents on campus, and (e) quality of effort on behalf of the student (1985).

According to Pascarella, students attending an institution bring with them attitudes and behavioral characteristics formed by previous life experiences. Such experiences may be

influenced by variables such as the student's age, gender, and ethnic culture. When combined with the second set of variables, the structural/organizational characteristics of the institution to be precise, the institutional environment as the third set of variables is the result.

In a similar manner, students' background traits, the institutional environment, and a fourth set of variables which includes influence of peers and faculty, influence Pascarella's fifth set of variables: quality of effort. Peer and faculty are referred to as "agents of socialization" (Pascarella, 1985). While Pascarella initially designed the General Causal Model to explain changes in students' learning and cognitive development, it is considered equally appropriate for the study of other student outcomes (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Thus, the variables used by Pascarella's model should prove valuable in helping ascertain student perceptions of crime severity, the intent of this study.

In light of earlier research, and for the purposes of this study, age, gender, and level of education, as well as type of institution attended, ethnicity, and type of living quarters were all considered in an assessment of college student perceptions of crime severity. With a better understanding of the theoretical underpinnings of moral development and change theory as they relate to college students, this study will now look at earlier research regarding the culture of higher education.

The Culture of Higher Education

While the historical perspective discussed earlier provides an appreciation of the cultural origins of American higher education, an assessment of the research focus covering the culture of higher education yields additional insight. According to Maassen, research has been concerned with the culture of higher education for three primary reasons. The first is to identify the uniqueness of higher education culture as differentiated from other organizations. The second

interest is in consideration of diversity and multiculturalism as elements of the higher education culture; and the third is to examine culture in the vein of organizational leadership and management.

Regarding the first, Clark (1968) initially drew attention to the idea of the impact of culture in higher education in the 1960's, helping to explain why our institutions of higher learning often behave the way they do. Referencing Woodrow Wilson's 1909 "Spirit of Learning" speech, Clark reiterated that campus culture may be composed of many subcultures, and that the balance of homogeneity (few subcultures) and diversity (many subcultures) takes "radically different forms in small and large colleges" (Clark, 1968).

Clark also presents the idea that student perspectives are also "exceedingly varied," at least among colleges with large campuses. He believes that student perspectives follow four basic orientations or subcultures: collegiate, academic, vocational, and non-conformist (Clark and Trow, n.d.). The collegiate orientation (referred to whimsically as the "Joe College" way of life), centers around the fun and sports activities. This orientation is often located in, and supported by sororities and fraternities. The academic subculture mimics faculty behavior and focusing on academic progression.

The vocational orientation pursues job skill and career development as a priority. Clark states that this "no-nonsense" orientation is common among men from lower socio-economic backgrounds. Clark does not consider students of this orientation as a subculture because they do not tend to "cling together" enough to support one another, but rather, "pass as strangers" (Clark, 1968). Of note, many community colleges place a significant emphasis on vocational training, offering a number of workforce training and vocational certificate programs which may attract a student group who shape the culture quite differently than do university students.

Finally, the nonconformist orientation typically involves a serious commitment to ideas or artistic performance, but a weak identification if not deliberate distancing from the “regular machinery” of the campus which is often seen as “the Establishment” (Clark, 1968). An example of this orientation can be found in the student subcultures that emerged across the country in the 1960s and 1970s as women’s liberation, civil rights and anti-war movements.

A pioneer of the study of the culture of higher education, Clark’s theory regarding the culture and subcultures of colleges correlates with research on campus crime and the hypotheses of this study. This will be further demonstrated later in the chapter.

In the next wave of research identified by Maassen (1969), attention on culture in higher education stemmed from considerations of diversity and multiculturalism. In the 1960s, due to the federal government’s linking of financial aid grants to an institution’s access policies, the diversity of the student body became an important consideration for American higher education. But it was the U.S. Supreme Court decision in the 1978 case *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke*, that confirmed the student benefits of diversity in higher education. In this landmark decision Justice Lewis Powell, writing for the majority, provided the initial impetus for the notion of racial and ethnic diversity on college campuses. He argued that the...“atmosphere of ‘speculation, experiment and creation’—so essential to the quality of higher education—is widely believed to be promoted by a diverse student body,” and... “the nation’s future depends on leaders trained through wide exposure to the ideas and mores of students as diverse as this Nation of many peoples” (p. 2760).

Kuklinski compares two studies concerned with the benefits of campus diversity. The article references the 2003 U. S. Supreme Court decisions in two related cases (*Grutter v. Bollinger et al.* [No. 02-241, 539 U.S._ (June 23, 2003)] and *Gratz et al. v. Bollinger et al.* [No.

02-516, 593 U.S._(June 23, 2003)], upholding the right of universities to consider race in their admission procedures, while at the same time placing limits on that right (2006). In the years leading up to that case, social scientists used research findings in an attempt to influence public opinion regarding the impact of campus diversity.

Kuklinski compared two “dueling surveys” which had gained especially high profiles during the diversity debate. The results from one survey were published by Gurin, Dey, Hurtado and Gurin, in an article concerning diversity in higher education. The second survey of interest was published by Rothman, Lipset and Nevitte (cited in Kuklinski, 2006).

The Gurin study stated that there was an emerging body of scholarship supporting a racially and ethnically diverse postsecondary education experience, referencing survey data to demonstrate that a wide variety of individual, institutional, and societal benefits are linked with diversity experiences (Gurin, Dey, Hurtado & Gurin, 2002). The Rothman et al., study on the other hand, which was also based on survey data, claimed that campus diversity has few positive and many negative effects on attitudes and educational outcomes (Rothman, Lipset & Nevitte, 2002). In his comparison of these two opposing studies, Kuklinski concluded that while both met the basic requirements as scientific studies, Gurin’s was more theoretically based, while Rothman’s appeared overly focused on “question wording and social desirability”, showing inattention to other matters (Kuklinski, 2006, p. 119).

In addition to the focus on diversity studies, Maassen identified a third wave of research concerning the growing interest in institutional management in the application of *organizational* culture in higher education (1996). Studies of organizational leadership and management within higher education help institutions run more efficiently and effectively. When applying lessons learned from the business world, an increased knowledge and awareness of an institution’s

organizational culture greatly benefits the leadership's efforts with regard to managing faculty and staff. Indeed, colleges of education today typically include leadership curriculum taken from both organizational cultures: business and higher education. However, due to the unique challenges of running a college or university, traditional organizational leadership and management theory is increasingly inadequate. Thus, texts that focus on principles of leadership and organization for higher education, including *How Colleges Work*, by Robert Birnbaum (1988), *Organization and Governance in Higher Education*, a collection of works edited by M. Christopher Brown II (2000), and *Leadership as Service*, by Kent Farnsworth (2007), represent an expansion of Maassen's original thoughts regarding organizational culture as applied to higher education.

As an addition to Maassen's three motivations for research in the culture of higher education, this researcher believes that we have entered a new period of interest, and a thus fourth reason: to help answer concerns regarding student perceptions and behavior and the influence culture might have on these student characteristics. This area is currently manifested by research in binge drinking, sexual assault, and in the wake of student shootings, crisis intervention.

Campus Crime and Behavior Studies

As previously stated, colleges across the country are experiencing growth in violent crime on their campuses. Reaves (2004) provides a useful breakdown of the law enforcement element of the campus crime equation. Citing Bureau of Justice statistics, Reaves discusses the average number of violent crimes (murder, rape, robbery and aggravated assault) reported to campus law enforcement agencies. However, while the numbers are broken down between four-

year public and four-year private institutions, there is no differentiation in this research between four-year institutions and community colleges.

As reflected by the Reeves study, very little research has considered the variance in campus crime based on type of institution. The study of violent crime on the college campus by Ricky Tompkins of the University of Arkansas School Violence Resource Center, however, provides a breakdown of campus crime by type of institution, albeit as a side issue rather than primary emphasis of the study. The Tompkins study lists violent crimes (murder, forcible rape, robbery and aggravated assault) for the years 1998 through 2000. Headings include both public four-year and public two-year institutions.

Quoting Department of Education statistics for the three year period 1998-2000, public four-year institutions experienced 26 murders, while their public two-year counterparts only had 9. Over the same period, community colleges reported only 11% as many forcible rapes, 58% the number of robberies, and only 37% as many cases of aggravated assault as their four-year counterparts (Tompkins, n.d.). Given the fact that community colleges constitute 46% of all undergraduates in the United States, these numbers could be expected to be roughly equal, unless factors other than student numbers influence campus crime (Kolesnikova & Shimek, 2008).

Campus Crimes: Areas of Concern

Significant research has been conducted on campus crime primarily in three areas: rape, binge drinking, and more recently, crisis intervention and prevention. The majority of research available regarding the adverse behavior of college students is concerned with binge drinking. With a strong correlation found to exist between drinking and the commission of crimes, research theory in this area has been very helpful for the purposes of this study. One of the most important examples is the body of research provided by the Harvard School of Public Health

through its College Alcohol Study (CAS). First conducted in 1993, this annual survey provides significant information on the issue of binge drinking on the campuses of American institutions of higher learning, aiding not only in the development of theory related to this specific issue, but demonstrating application to a wider range of problems in the collegiate environment.

The tradition of drinking while attending college has developed into a culture entrenched in many levels of students' environment, spawned by the insecurity of students as they enter a new, exciting time in their lives. Customs handed down through generations of college drinkers reinforce students' expectations that alcohol is a requirement of social success (USDHHS, 2009). Tolerance by society, and in some cases tacit approval by college administrators, classifies college drinking as a rite of passage, imbedding it further in the culture of higher education. As mentioned previously, apart from the possibility of underage drinking, while drinking in and of itself may not be a crime, some of the most significant research currently available points to a strong linkage between drinking and campus crime. Thus, current literature about college binge drinking is important to this study.

Findings suggest that the Greek system (fraternities for the most part...sororities to a lesser extent) provides a social environment that facilitates a heavy drinking lifestyle among its members (Sher, Bartlow & Nanda, 2001; Wechsler, Dowdall, Davenport & Castillo, 1995). Greeks believe that higher levels of alcohol use are normative, and that their peers are more supportive of heavy drinking practices, such as binge drinking. The issue of peer norms as a causal variable of undesirable behavior by college students was addressed by Sher, Bartholow and Nanda (2001). Peer norms were not only significantly related to Greek membership, but they also largely accounted for the Greek heavy-drinking relationship. Of interest to this study on student perceptions of crime, peer norms are a reflection of institutional culture. The Sher et

al., study discusses other “third variables,” such as extraversion/sociability, impulsivity/disinhibition and academic ability, that may contribute to heavy alcohol use by college students (2001); however, by concentrating on Greek membership, it focuses almost exclusively on four-year public institutions with no consideration given to institutional type.

One particular researcher, Dr. Henry Wechsler, is considered by many in higher education to be the premier expert on binge drinking in the United States and, as such, his name appears as coauthor of numerous studies. Research conducted in 1995 by Wechsler, Dowdall, Davenport and Castillo, found a high risk of bingeing among students who are male, white and single. Other significant factors identified by the study include residence in a fraternity or coeducational dormitory.

In an assessment of the 1999 College Alcohol Study (CAS), Wechsler, Lee, Kuo and Lee address the issue of “second-hand” effects of alcohol use as harmful to the campus community. Second-hand problems identified included vandalism, and physical and sexual assaults. Contrary to the trend towards increasing levels of campus crime reflected elsewhere, responses to the 1993, 1997 and 1999 CAS surveys indicated a “significant decrease” in the more violent second-hand binge drinking effects such as being assaulted, or being the victim of sexual assault or date rape. At the same time less violent effects, such as experiencing an unwanted sexual advance and having to take care of a drunken student, increased significantly (Wechsler, et al., 2000).

Dowdall and Wechsler (2002) mention in their review of the CAS, most current studies of college drinking do not address the influence of the college itself, and its particular alcohol environment. They further state that there is a need to broaden the range of issues studied when considering drinking behavior, extending analysis to the economic, political, and ecological

considerations. In addition, Dowdall and Wechsler believe consideration should be given to the entire “college environment” to include the type of college, residential system, location of the institution, and intercollegiate athletics (2002). This study on student perceptions of crime looks at these variables as well as others considered significant by various other research studies.

A follow-up report to the 2008 CAS was penned by Wechsler and Nelson. Perhaps most critical in this report was the fact that at some colleges almost no students binge drink, while at others nearly four in every five students do. In fact, levels of binge drinking remain very stable at the same colleges over time, suggesting that some college environments—or what this study refers to as institutional cultures—promote binge drinking. Finally, the study also indicates that students who live off-campus with friends or in other unsupervised settings (i.e., not with parents), were also more likely to binge drink (Wechsler and Nelson, 2008). By gauging student perceptions of crime severity, the survey used in the current study provides additional insight on this issue.

The idea of the “jock” culture as a breeding ground for campus crime reached the national spotlight following the Duke University lacrosse team’s scandal involving alleged sexual assault. One often-referenced statistic concerning student-athletes comes from the Benedict-Crosset Study (1993). This study reviewed 107 cases of sexual assault reported at 30 Division I schools between 1991 and 1993. It found that while male student-athletes make up a mere 3.3 % of the collegiate population, they were involved in 19 % of sexual assaults and 35 % of domestic violence cases on campus (Locklear, 2003). The Benedict-Crosset Study surveyed only Division I colleges and universities, leaving community colleges out of the research. While many community colleges do have intercollegiate sporting activities available, is the institutional culture of these colleges impacted in the same manner as the four-year schools? Do community

college athletes behave similarly? While the absence of research in this particular area leaves that question largely unanswered, this study on student perceptions of crime could have some implications.

The presence of college athletics is not the only institutional variable which has been the focus of sexual assault studies. Much research regarding rape on campus goes back to concerns over fraternities. Martin and Hummer's study (1989), *Fraternities and Rape on Campus*, looks at the fraternity as a social context group or organization that encourages sexual coercion of women. They elaborate, saying,

An analysis of the norms and dynamics of the social construction of fraternity brotherhood reveals the highly masculinist features of fraternity structure and process, including concern with a narrow, stereotypical conception of masculinity and heterosexuality; a preoccupation with loyalty, protection of the group and secrecy; the use of alcohol as a weapon against women's sexual reluctance; the pervasiveness of violence and physical force; and an obsession with competition, superiority, and dominance (1989, p. 457).

The study goes on to say that fraternities are bound to continue to violate women socially and sexually unless they change in "fundamental" ways. The fundamental change mentioned implies a change of institutional culture, not just for the fraternity itself, but possibly of the college or university on which the fraternity is located.

Crisis Intervention and Prevention

The aforementioned concerns of campus crime have been researched and theorized upon for decades. A new body of research concerning higher educational institutions, however, has not previously held the level of attention it is now being given. Early crisis management

strategies dealt largely with post-incident response, and thus offer little theoretical support to this study; however, prevention strategies offer a look at elements or variables which may affect student perceptions of crime. Wieseler and Hanson (2001), in their work regarding crisis prevention, provide a general description of “challenging” (i.e., unwanted) behaviors, but do not discuss actual variables associated with individuals exhibiting such behavior.

The evolution of crisis intervention theory with regard to higher education began in earnest following the Virginia Tech massacre in 2007. During a violent series of attacks, a student shot and killed 5 faculty members and 27 students before committing suicide. Seventeen other students were wounded by gunfire, and six were injured when they jumped from second-story windows to escape. This horrifying event represented the most deadly attack ever on a college or university campus in the United States (Virginia Tech Review Panel, 2007).

In the days following the mass killings, Virginia Governor, Tim Kaine, quickly appointed an investigative panel to examine events leading up to that crisis, the incidents themselves, and the immediate aftermath. Gordon Davies, a member of that panel, detailed the panel’s work in his article, *Connecting the Dots: Lessons from the Virginia Tech Shootings* (2008). According to Davies, the panel identified three main concerns for the Governor’s attention. The first was structural, calling attention to problems within the underlying systems of public health and public safety provided by state and federal governments. The second concern regarded management by the university and state government and what was done or not done by top decision makers. The final concern dealt with actions on the ground, and what was done at the scenes of carnage, as well as the medical care and victim-survivor services provided (Davies, 2008). The Virginia Panel’s report serves as a significant piece of documentation, used frequently throughout higher

education by institutions attempting to increase the significance of crisis prevention and response within their institutional culture.

Indeed, efforts to create a culture of crisis prevention and response have both directly and indirectly altered institutional culture. For example, the Campus Violence Prevention Program at the University of California, Davis Campus, offers supportive response to survivors, sexual assault awareness training, and a peer educator program as part of its preventive effort to create “...an environment that encourages awareness of the issues of sexual assault, relationship violence and hate or bias related activities” (UC Davis, 2009, para. 3).

Elsewhere, numerous colleges and universities are contracting with security management firms to conduct risk assessments in an attempt to enhance the crisis prevention and response aspect of their institutional culture. Applied Risk Management’s 2008 report to the Massachusetts Department of Higher Education is one such example. This report, (a) defined the nature and scope of campus violence both nationally and in Massachusetts; (b) reviewed previous reports of study groups and task forces attempting to enhance campus safety and violence prevention; (c) examined the current state of security and violence prevention at institutions of higher learning; and (d) by comparing those results, established best practices resulting in a series of recommendations (ARM, 2008).

Also in the wake of the Virginia Tech tragedy, the International Association of Campus Law Enforcement Administrators (IACLEA) put together a task force to study tragedies with the intent of enhancing protection for the nation’s 15 million students in the approximately 4,200 institutions of higher education (Thrower, Healy, Margolis, Lynch, Stafford & Taylor, 2008). The resulting report encourages institutions of higher learning to employ comprehensive

programs to end violence against women on campus. Such crimes included stalking, sexual assault, and relationship violence.

Zdziarski, Dunkel and Rollo (2007), provide significant guidance for campus crisis management to include information regarding crisis prevention. Very little examination, however, is given to the perpetrators of campus crime that constitute a crisis, such as campus shootings, and little consideration is given to the campus environment or institutional culture that may engender a student's inclination towards criminal behavior.

Crime Perception Studies

Perception studies represent a viable means of gauging the beliefs and attitudes individuals have about particular issues. Such studies are frequently used to provide researchers insight into the predictability of certain behaviors or the presence of belief systems upon which certain behaviors may be justified. For example, a qualitative study assessing perceptions of hate crimes among college students, revealed that respondents are less likely to define certain groups of people as victims of hate crimes (Miller, 2001). This study was conducted specifically among students in a criminal justice degree program in an effort to see if these students were more inclined than students from other disciplines to agree with and label identified scenarios as hate crimes. The instrument in this study included 20 crime situations and students were asked to indicate whether or not each scenario constituted a hate crime. Survey items were based on actual crimes, and responses of likelihood were indicated on a seven-point Likert scale. Results of the study imply that while criminal justice educators are providing their students more instruction on the issues of multiculturalism, gender diversity and hate crimes, some problems remain. Among the most notable: male criminal justice students still exhibit significant variation

on minority and gender issues, and white students display a level of insensitivity towards Jewish victims (Miller, 2001).

In a similar study regarding perceptions of hate crimes, Craig and Waldo (1996) assessed perception among young adults who responded to a sentence completion task: a single page questionnaire containing five phrases designed to tap perceptions of the typicality of hate crimes, their victims, and their perpetrators. The researchers believed that perceptions reflect underlying attitudes and beliefs that can either facilitate tolerance or result in hostility. According to the results of this study, participants' perceptions of factors such as what a hate crime actually involves, why they occur, and who the victims are, indicate that victims will be met with different experiences when they tell others that they have experienced a "hate crime." (Craig & Waldo, 1996). In a similar fashion, this study hypothesizes that student perceptions indicate either a leniency towards criminal behavior, or an intolerance of such activity, and this reaction can be tied to the institutional culture of the college attended.

Another study looks specifically into the measurement of perceptions of crime severity. Stylianou (2003) states that typically, researchers have been interested in modeling severity perceptions based on theoretically or empirically identified characteristics or categories of acts. This is in contrast with the present research, which attempts to discern if a relationship exists between crime severity perceptions and elements of the institutional culture. While the Stylianou study describes a dilemma associated with the adequate appointment of seriousness levels in classifying respondent input, this current study simply compared the input of each respondent with that of all other respondents. Dissimilar respondent variables were then compared to determine if correlation exists, and if so, the level of significance.

The use of perception studies with college students has created a foundation of significant research in the area of academic dishonesty. One rather notable study came on the heels of a 1990 probe finding that over 30 % of the 250 undergraduate students taking a computer engineering class at MIT, the pinnacle of technical education in the United States, were found to have cheated on homework problem sets (Lipson & McGavern, 1993).

In a subsequent study of undergraduate academic dishonesty at MIT, Lipson and McGavern (1993) conducted a survey of undergraduates, faculty, and graduate teaching assistants. With regard to the students, undergraduates were asked about their own behavior and the behavior of other students, whether particular acts constitute cheating, and if they had cheated in the past, their justification for doing so. A survey consisting of both structured and open-ended questions was given to students (N=891), with a 44 % response rate.

The findings revealed that 56 % of student respondents were “bothered” by the degree of academic dishonesty committed by MIT undergraduates. Another 56 % were “confused” about what actually constitutes academic dishonesty. In addition, three variables were found to have an association with cheating: year in school, grade point average, and living group type. With regard to the first, Sophomores were found to be significantly more likely than students in other years to have higher mean values on the “Serious” Cheating Index. Though the freshman year is generally thought to be a time of great tension, it is believed that the first-year prohibition against subject overloading and the existence of Pass/No Record grading attributed to lower cheating rates for that group of students. Sophomores, on the other hand, were in their first year of receiving letter grades and had begun taking classes in their desired areas of study (Lipson & McGavern, 1993).

The next variable found to have a significant association to cheating was somewhat logical, that being grade point average (GPA). Those with lower averages were more likely to cheat. Concerning the third variable, living group type, students from independent living groups—small independent houses on campus—were found to have a higher mean value on the Cheating Index than other students. In particular, they were more likely to copy a problem set or study from an old quiz or exam than those living in dorms or off-campus. Finally, the top three causes of cheating identified by the undergraduate students were, in rank order, (1) assignments were overly time-consuming, (2) assignments were overly difficult, and (3) there were many assignments all due on the same day (Lipson & McGavern, 1993). This early student perception study provided administrators at MIT valuable information which they could use to effectively counter this newfound threat to their institutional credibility.

In a similar study, Jackson explored the impact of “institutional climate” on academic dishonesty (2006). As with this current study, college students from six higher education institutions in the state of Missouri, three community colleges and three public universities, were surveyed. Two hundred and ninety-five students responded to a survey instrument containing both quantitative and qualitative questions. Four separate scales were used to measure incidence of academic dishonesty, perceived opportunity to commit acts of academic dishonesty, student attitudes towards cheating, and social control (Jackson, 2006).

Key conclusions drawn from that study which are relevant to this current study include the following. First, when comparing students from community colleges with students from public universities, the overall self-reported incidence of academic dishonesty does not differ significantly. Next, student attitudes about cheating and the incidence of academic dishonesty are strongly related. As Jackson puts it, “Incidence of academic dishonesty increases

significantly as students' attitudes toward academic dishonesty become more accepting" (Jackson, p. 126, 2006). In other words, attitudes toward cheating and cheating behavior are closely linked. Similar to Jackson's work, this current study assumes that student perceptions of crime may be reflective of attitudes and potentially criminal behavior.

Finally, the Jackson study identifies age as a common predictor of academic dishonesty among college students, regardless of the type of institution. To summarize, "as participant age increased, cheating decreased" (p. 88). Likewise, this current study includes age as a possible predictor of student perceptions of crime severity. Chapter 4 of this study assesses the statistical significance of age as a predictor variable.

Another piece of empirical research on academic dishonesty dealt with the increasingly complex and frequent issue regarding the use of information or computer technology (IT) in cheating. While earlier research had addressed the issue of cheating, Etter, Cramer and Finn's 2006 study was one of the first significant studies following the creation of the Internet. This research included two studies which surveyed students from two small institutions—one, a church-affiliated liberal arts college, and the other a regional two-year campus of a major research university.

The survey instruments for the two studies provided quantitative data for personal background (gender, age, and computer, software and e-mail use), ratings of academically dishonest uses of IT, and responses to an Ethical Position Questionnaire. The questionnaire asked students to rate 24 "questionable" behaviors on a Likert scale of 0 to 5, ranging from not dishonest (0), to very serious (5). Study 1 was administered to 237 students enrolled in an undergraduate computer applications course at the church-affiliated college, while Study 2 was

provided to 202 students across a broad sample of courses at the two-year campus of the research university.

In assessing the results of the two studies, one striking limitation was the fact that the two were conducted 16 months apart. When considering the rate of IT innovation, that represents a significant period of time when comparing cheating with information technology. Indeed, Etter, Cramer and Finn acknowledge that the three behaviors exhibiting the greatest change in rankings between the two institutions were all based on software innovations such as instant messaging, bibliographic software, and free software downloaded from the Web, which would be difficult to characterize as “old forms of questionable behavior” using new technologies (2006).

The research revealed that higher ratings of seriousness of cheating occurred at the church affiliated school, female students held more critical attitudes than male students did, and in this case, the church affiliated school sample was heavily weighted with women (70 %) (Etter, Cramer & Finn, 2006). Because the aspect of gender was of concern for a hypothesis of this current study, special attention was given to ensure an equitable between-gender distribution of surveys.

Another more recent study considers college students’ perceptions of business ethics—the violation of ethics, to be precise (Smyth, Davis & Kroncke, 2009). In this study, 786 students were surveyed regarding their attitudes toward, and experiences with, cheating and their perceptions of professional ethics in business. Surveys were conducted at three institutions with enrollments of less than 3,500 students. Of these three institutions, two were private religious colleges while one a public college. To obtain a broad cross-section of students, this study surveyed students during classes in courses representing various majors. The survey itself included a set of open-ended questions regarding various aspects of cheating, as well as a list of

academic and business situations or scenarios. Respondents were asked to rate scenarios on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not dishonest at all), to 7 (very severe dishonesty). A number of demographic variables were also collected to assess how student attitudes regarding cheating may differ by demographic grouping.

In line with a number of other studies that have examined collegiate cheating by gender, the Smyth et al. study results suggest that female students assessed questionable situations to be more unethical than did male students, and upper division students had higher ethical perceptions than did the lower division respondents. Results showed significant institutional differences with students at the public college reflecting the lowest average response on the more serious unethical behavioral statements (Smyth, Davis & Kroncke, 2009). As demonstrated in Chapter Three, elements of the methodology used in the ethics study are similar to those used to assess student perceptions of crime severity and what difference may exist between students at four-year public universities and community colleges.

Another piece of research used to develop this particular study was a survey of the impact institutional compliance with the Clery Act, requiring institutions of higher education to provide annual crime reports, has on college student behavior. In this study, Janosik and Gehring (2001), of the Educational Policy Institute of Virginia Tech conducted a nation-wide survey with 3,866 respondents, 13% of whom attended community colleges. The study's first task was to determine the level of student awareness of Clery Act provisions, and second, determine if knowledge of Clery Act information regarding their particular campus impacted their decision to attend that institution, or prompted changes in behavior to enhance personal safety. A simple 13 question yes or no survey was used to gather responses. Useful demographics collected from respondents included the type of institution attended, population base where the institution was

located (33% urban, 67% rural), gender (59% female, 41% male), whether the respondent lived on-campus (58%) or off-campus (42%), and whether they had been a victim of crime (15%) while enrolled at their respective institution. All of the demographic variables noted above were considered by this crime perception study except for the respondent's victim status.

Results of the study revealed that students tend to feel safer on campus than off. A total of 89% of respondents reported that they feel safe or very safe on their respective campuses, while only 79% feel safe or very safe off-campus. Although institutions are required to make public their campus crime statistics, only 24% of respondents reported receiving a summary of Clery Act information in their admissions materials, and only 8% actually considered that material when selecting the college or university attended. Further, when considering the population base in which the institution was located, students attending urban institutions were significantly more likely to have read additional crime awareness or crime prevention materials, besides Clery Act information, than students attending rural colleges or universities (Janosik & Gehring, 2001).

The study discussed above draws attention to the significant nature of the *Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act*, and how students and their parents may or may not be utilizing it for its intended purpose. Another concern, however, and one voiced by critics of numbers revealed by campus crime reports, is that institutions are inaccurate in their Clery Act reporting. Skepticism is manifest through two streams of thought. The first deals with inaccuracies in the reporting itself, and the second with the level at which student victims are actually reporting crimes.

In a recent *Chronicle of Higher Education* article, Chief of Police at George Washington University, Dolores Stafford, calls attention to the complexity of campus crime reporting

requirements. Stafford, considered a national expert on the Clery Act, frequently travels to institutions to perform audits, and claims that institutions are very confused as to how to actually count crimes. “Not once,” she states, “have I found a campus that’s completely in compliance” (Lipka, 2009). To add to the problem, amendments to the Act continue to change reporting requirements.

The question of whether or not student victims are actually reporting campus crime was a key issue discussed in a 2005 Campus Violence White Paper commissioned by the American College Health Association. This report claims that campus crime statistics have been found to be flawed due to a significant level of underreporting, and quotes a 1997 study that states only 25 % of campus crimes were reported to any authority across all offenses to include only 22 % of rapes and 50 % of aggravated assaults. The main reasons given by students for not reporting was that the crimes were too minor (39 %), a private matter (16 %), or it wasn’t clear to the student that a crime was committed (5 %) (Carr, 2005).

Regardless of critics, the Clery Act remains an important piece of legislation, helping highlight the important issue of campus crime. The Act’s significance to this study, as concerned with student perceptions of crime severity, is more that of a statistical indicator and tool for creation of the crime perception survey that will be used. Signed into law in 1990, the Clery Act requires institutions of higher learning that participate in federal financial aid programs to keep and disclose information about crime on or near campus. The U.S. Department of Education (ED) is responsible for gathering the data and monitoring compliance.

Clery Act reporting must include statistics on criminal homicide (murder), sex offenses (rape), robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, motor vehicle theft, and arson, and indicate any crimes believed to have been hate crimes. These reports must also include arrests and

disciplinary referrals for liquor law violations and illegal weapons possession, bearing in mind that laws or restrictions on alcohol and weapons vary from state to state (Reaves, 2008). When considering the severity of crime, Clery Act requirements divide offenses into either violent or property crimes. Violent crimes include murder, forcible sex offense, robbery, and aggravated assault. Property crimes include burglary, larceny/theft, motor vehicle theft, and arson (Reaves, 2008). Of these, larceny/theft is not required to be reported by the Clery Act.

In addition to an annual report submitted to the ED, campuses must also provide this information to current and prospective students and employees by October 1st of each year. The campus security office must keep a public log of all crimes reported or known to campus law enforcement officials, and provide timely warning of crimes that represent a threat to student or employee safety. Statistics must be kept for the most current three years for crimes committed on campus, in institutional facilities, in non-campus buildings, and on public property (Reaves, 2008).

The U.S. Department of Education's *Handbook for Campus Crime Reporting* provides institutional security and law enforcement officials with detailed examples of the types of offenses, how they are defined, and how they should be reported. Crime scenarios are provided for many of the offenses to enhance officials' understanding, and ability to differentiate between varying levels of severity (U.S. Department of Education, 2005). The survey used in this study included similar scenarios of campus crime to gauge student perceptions of crime severity.

To gain an understanding of the role institutional culture plays within institutions of higher education, we have examined the collegiate way, and the importance of cultural elements like ritual during the transition to college life experienced by many students. The increasing similarity between the community college and public four-year institutions was discussed,

indicating an increasing similarity between students attending both types of schools. An overview of theory surrounding moral development, as well as change theory with regard to institutional influence on college students, was followed by a review of the motives for research regarding the culture of higher education.

Significant literature currently available on the various types of campus crime was reviewed. The applicability of perception surveys to this type of study was assessed, observing current examples of research and their methodology, and identifying methods similar to those used by this study. Finally, the nature of data gathered for and displayed by Cleary Act reporting was reviewed, along with the requirements for the Act.

With a better understanding of the above key areas, we will now consider the methodology utilized for this research study.

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

The intent of this study is to ascertain whether elements of institutional culture such as a student's age, gender, and ethnicity, as well as the type and location of residence, the type of institution attended, and the size of that institution's population base, lead to a difference in perceptions of crime severity. That objective drives the methodology used by this study, influencing the participants selected, the instrument used to gather requisite data, the procedures used for data collection, and the methods by which these data will be subsequently analyzed.

Participants

The data set consisted of 262 college students from public community colleges (N = 144) and public four-year universities (N = 118). The sample was comparable in age and gender to the population of first- and second-year college students enrolled at the participating schools. Sixty surveys were provided to facilitators/instructors at each of six institutions of higher learning, for a total of 360 potential respondents. The sample is composed of female and male students that attend daytime classes.

Institutions

Surveys were equitably distributed to students at both public four-year universities and public community colleges. For this particular study, these institutions are located in Missouri. The community colleges include St. Louis Community College – Forest Park (St. Louis, MO), Ozarks Technical Community College (Springfield, MO), and Moberly Area Community College (Moberly, MO). The four-year universities include the University of Missouri – St. Louis, Missouri State University (Springfield, MO), and Missouri University of Science and Technology (Rolla, MO).

The above institutions were selected for this study in an attempt to obtain responses from students attending each of the two types of institutions (community colleges and public four-year universities), located within similar population bases. The population base supporting the University of Missouri-St. Louis and St. Louis Community College at Forest Park, exceeds 300,000. Missouri State University and Ozarks Technical Community College, each located in Springfield, Missouri, draw from a population base of under 300,000, but more than 75,000. Moberly Area Community College and Missouri S & T each draw from cities with a population of 75,000 or less. The pairing of the two types of institutions in this manner helped equalize third-variable elements impacting student perceptions, allowing elements of institutional culture to be more clearly differentiated.

In addition, both community colleges and four-year public institutions with sports programs have been included in this study, so that variances between respondents from the two types of institutions can be considered more reflective of institutional culture.

Institutional information concerning the community colleges and universities that agreed to participate in this study has been summarized in Appendix “E”. The table includes type of institution (community college or public four-year university), location, size of population base supporting the institution (i.e., institutional setting), availability of on-campus housing, and the presence or absence of collegiate-level athletics.

Because this study considers differences in institutional culture that may have had an impact on student perceptions of crime severity, a brief description of the participating institutions has been included here. Sources for this information include institutional web sites and catalogs.

St. Louis Community College-Forest Park. The St. Louis Community College system (STLCC) includes four primary campuses and several smaller education centers in the St. Louis metropolitan area. STLCC is the largest community college system in Missouri, and one of the largest in the nation. With a population base in excess of 350,000, it is the “Class 1” community college paired with its neighbor, the University of Missouri-St. Louis in this study. Enrollment for college credit classes for the Fall 2009 semester numbered 28,019. The median age of students attending STLCC is 23. About 57% of the students attend part-time, 43% are full-time (STLCC *Quick Facts*, 2009). According to the STLCC mission statement, the college, “...expands minds and changes lives every day. We create accessible, dynamic learning environments focused on the needs of our diverse communities” (STLCC *Mission Statement*, 2009).

Students attending the Forest Park campus of STLCC participated in this study. Forest Park is considered the district’s city or urban campus. As a commuter campus, there are no on-campus living facilities for students. Forest Park offers intercollegiate competition in soccer, basketball, baseball and softball for both men and women.

Ozarks Technical Community College. Ozarks Technical Community College (OTC) is the community college in this study categorized with the “Class 2” population base, supported by a Springfield, Missouri, population of over 150,000. Fall 2009 enrollment was reported as 12,884, with an average age of 25 for its students (OTC *Fact Sheet*, 2009). There is no student housing on campus, and there are no inter-collegiate athletics at the college.

The mission of OTC is to “promote student learning through accessible, high quality, affordable workforce training, and technical and general education that is responsive to the educational needs of the community and its diverse constituencies.” OTC fulfills its mission

through programs and services in technical education, general education, developmental education, workforce development, continuing education and community service, and student services (OTC Catalog, 2009).

Moberly Area Community College. Moberly Area Community College (MACC) represents the “Class 3” community college in this study, with a community population base of 14,000. Current enrollment stands at roughly 5,000, and on-campus housing is available for 30 female, and 24 male students. Men’s and women’s basketball and cheerleading are listed as the athletic activities available at MCCA (MACC, 2009).

In the mission statement included on its website, MACC identifies itself as: “...a public institution of higher education, provides open admission to students and fosters excellence in learning through innovative educational programs and services that are geographically and financially accessible throughout our service region” (MACC, 2009, para. 1). It considers its “institutional purposes” as providing: (a) educational programs and services; (b) student support services; (c) open admissions; (d) commitment to excellence; (e) collegiate environment; (f) community partnerships and cooperative efforts; and (g) support of economic development (MACC, 2009).

University of Missouri-St. Louis. The University of Missouri-St. Louis (UMSL) is considered a “Class 1” institution for the purposes of this study, with a population base of over 350,000. A public, four-year institution, it is the largest university in the St. Louis metropolitan area, and the third largest in Missouri. Total enrollment for the Fall 2009 semester was 12,141 of which 9,168 were undergraduate students (UMSL, *Enrollment*, 2009). The average age of the full-time student population is 23.8, but with part-time students included the average age moves upward to 27.3 (UMSL, *Factbook*, 2009). More than 1,200 students live on campus in residence

halls and student apartments, as well as fraternity and sorority houses. Men's intercollegiate competition at UMSL includes baseball, basketball, golf, soccer, and tennis. Women's athletic programs include basketball, golf, soccer, softball, tennis, and volleyball.

The mission of UMSL is to provide "...excellent learning experiences and leadership opportunities for a diverse student body." The UMSL Values Statement centers around the values of: (1) excellence, (2) integrity, (3) partnerships, (4) opportunity, and (5) diversity, and (6) stewardship (UMSL, *Campus Mission*, 2009, para. 3).

Missouri State University. Missouri State University (MSU), formerly Southwest Missouri State University (SMSU), is the public university in this study supported by a "Class 2" population base, paired with Ozarks Technical Community College, also in Springfield. Total Fall 2009 enrollment was 19,489 of which 16,273 were undergraduate students. Of the undergraduates, 12,800, or almost 79% were fulltime. The average age of the MSU student is 22, with 13% being age 25 or older. 19 % of all undergraduates, or approximately 3,000 students, live on campus, either in residence halls, student apartments, or Greek housing (MSU, *College Portrait*, 2009). MSU supports 14 different intercollegiate athletic activities, including both men's and women's teams.

In a *Declaration of University Community Principles*, MSU provides insight into the institutional culture it desires for itself:

"The community of scholars that is Missouri State University is committed to developing educated persons. It is believed that educated persons will accept responsibility to act in accordance with the following principles:

- Practicing personal and academic integrity.

- Being a full participant in the educational process, and respecting the right of all to contribute to the ‘Marketplace of Ideas.’
- Treating all persons with civility, while understanding that tolerating an idea is not the same as supporting it.
- Being a steward of the shared resources of the community of scholars.
- Choosing to accept these principles suggests that each participant of the community refrains from and discourages behavior that threatens the freedom and respect each member deserves” (MSU *Declaration*, 2009, para. 3).

In the preamble to the declaration, MSU draws attention to the fact that as an institution, its culture is formed by the “primary participants of this community,” which it goes on to identify as “students, faculty, and staff, who themselves come from a variety of external communities” (MSU Declaration, 2009). It is this very idea that is foundational to this study... that elements both internal and external to the members of an organization (college students in this case), form the institutional culture, which in turn influences the perceptions and behavior of its members.

University of Missouri-Science and Technology. The Missouri University of Science and Technology (MS&T), formerly the University of Missouri, Rolla, is a public, four-year institution is categorized in this study as the “Class 3” four-year institution with a population base of approximately 18,000. Fall 2009 enrollment was reported to be 6,800, of which 5,200 were undergraduate students. On-campus housing is available for over 1,600 students via residence halls and student apartments, as well as fraternities and sororities. With regard to sporting activities, the NCAA Division II athletic program at MS&T includes baseball, football,

basketball, cross-country, soccer, swimming and track & field for men, as well as basketball, cross-country, soccer, track & field, softball and volleyball for women (MS&T Catalog, 2009).

As Missouri's technological research university, the Mission Statement of MS&T is as follows: "Missouri University of Science and Technology integrates education and research to create and convey knowledge to solve problems for our State and the technological world" (MS&T Catalog, 2009). Indeed, while Missouri S&T is nationally recognized for its excellent undergraduate engineering programs and boasts students from 47 states and 51 nations (*Information about MS&T*, 2009), the school's largest "feeder" high school comes from within the town of Rolla itself (Gragg, 2009).

The Instrument

To gather needed data, a tool was needed which would accurately collect information of a manageable size, and communicate average scores representing perceptions of the severity of a crime committed within a given scenario. To meet these needs, the primary source of information for this study was a survey of student perceptions of the severity of crimes described in scenarios constructed by the researcher (*Appendix C*).

In creating the survey, the intent was to keep it as short as possible while offering enough scenarios to provide a valid assessment of perceptions of crime along the full spectrum of criminal activity. Gall, Gall and Borg (2007) state that, "a questionnaire that measures attitudes generally must be constructed as an attitude scale and must use a substantial number of items (usually at least 10) in order to obtain a reliable assessment of an individual's attitude" (p. 235).

While the survey itself has not been used in previous research, its similarity to surveys that have been used provides an element of validation. Demographics collected by the survey

are representative of studies discussed in the previous chapter, and use of the Likert scale is common in research of this type.

To further ensure validity of the instrument, a pilot test was conducted among first-year college students at a community college and at a public four-year university to determine if what was intended to be measured could actually be measured (validity), and measured consistently (reliability). A total of thirty students at Missouri State University and Ozarks Technical Community College, who would not be part of the later study, received the pilot survey. First-year students were identified as respondents in an attempt to minimize extraneous variables which might influence student perceptions. The test was conducted from a sample of students enrolled in Ethics (Philosophy) at the community college, and Communication students at the university.

Actual responses were received from 15 community college students (9 male, 6 female), and 11 university students (7 male, 4 female). While the sample size of the pilot was not adequate to test the actual hypotheses, it successfully tested the reliability and validity of the survey instrument. The pilot helped identify issues which needed to be corrected to remove the possible presence of extraneous variables or influences which could detract from efforts to measure crime perceptions among college students.

As a result of the test, it was determined that surveying the responses of first-year students alone may not accurately reflect the influence of institutional culture. Therefore, it was decided that respondents would not be limited to first-year college students. In addition, it was determined that the survey should be conducted towards the end of the fall semester to ensure that if a respondent is a first-year student, he or she has had at least several months to acclimate to the collegiate environment.

As the sample size indicated, the pilot survey was not equitably distributed between genders. In analyzing the results, it became very apparent that gender may influence responses, and an equitable representation of male and female respondents would be critical to the reliability of an assessment of any gender-related differences that may emerge from this research. The actual survey was distributed in roughly equal numbers between male and female respondents in an effort to increase instrument reliability. Along these same lines, the addition of like-crime scenarios with alternating gender of the perpetrator was added to the survey following the pilot phase to further identify potential gender-related differences in responses.

Finally, beyond the pilot survey itself, discussions with a panel of experts in higher education also helped focus the efforts of this research. Additional variables, such as age, ethnicity, and type of residence were added to help gain a better understanding of what may be some of the more influential elements within the culture of institutions of higher learning, as revealed by student perceptions.

To ensure validity of the sample, surveys were provided to students of selected general education or foundational classes. This was done to ensure that the student sample was spread across the spectrum of academic disciplines, not just among education students or criminal justice majors as had been the case in studies cited earlier. Creating this diversity of response improved the probability that differences in responses were influenced by variances in institutional culture rather than student major.

Within the survey, in several scenario examples the gender of the perpetrator of similar-severity crimes was switched to help verify what differences may be explained by gender of the respondent. For example, students may view statutory rape as being less serious if the offender is female and the victim male.

Finally, to ensure anonymity of the respondents, no identification by name or other contact information was requested in the demographics section. This encouraged students to respond in accordance with their true feelings.

Procedures

Following receipt of approval from the respective Institutional Review Boards, surveys were sent to faculty members who agreed to participate in this research effort at each of six institutions of higher learning. As discussed previously, three of these colleges are community colleges and three are public four-year universities. A letter of instruction (*Appendix D*) provided participating faculty with background information regarding the study, and specific information explaining survey distribution. The faculty were asked to distribute the surveys to 60 students attending daytime general education or foundational courses, with roughly half given to female students, and half to male students. No regard was to be given ethnicity or age of the students when distributing surveys.

The students were asked to complete the survey by themselves, returning them to the faculty member immediately after completion. Each survey package consisted of a cover letter (*Appendix B*) which explained what the survey was about and served as the informed consent notice. Completion and return of the survey was viewed as providing consent. The actual survey (*Appendix C*) consisted of two pages and included the demographic section followed by instructions and the 13 crime scenarios. The form was designed to take respondents no longer than 10 minutes to complete.

Facilitators and/or faculty contacts were asked to gather and return all surveys in the postage paid envelope provided. The final results of this study will be shared with those faculty contacts and made available to the administration of the participating institutions if desired.

Design

As noted earlier, the nature of the research question and measurability of the variables to be assessed weighed heavily in favor of a quantitative study. To gather sufficient data, each survey included demographic questions which served as independent variables in the analysis, with each respondent asked to provide their age (18-20, 21-24, or 25 and over), year of college enrollment, and ethnicity. Choices of ethnicity included (1) Asian, (2) Black, (3) Hispanic, (4) White, and (5) other. Other demographic information requested included the type and location of the student's residence, with options including (1) on-campus residence or dormitory, (2) fraternity or sorority house, (3) off-campus independent residence (apartment, duplex, etc.), and (4) off-campus in home of parent(s) or relative(s).

The demographic section was followed by 13 crime scenarios which varied in the level of crime severity, similar to scenarios and descriptions provided in *The Handbook for Campus Crime Reporting* (U.S. Department of Education, 2005). The level of severity of the crime within each scenario was measured by use of a Likert scale from 1 to 6. Students circled the level of severity they perceived the crime to be that was committed by the perpetrator in the scenario. The use of six points or options rather than five was intended to prevent the median effect or tendency, the inclination for a respondent to select the median number of the scale (3 for a Likert scale of 5) rather than fully consider all possible values.

With 13 total scenarios included in the survey, the maximum score possible was 78 if all scenarios were judged to be extremely severe, with a minimum score of 13 possible. Each respondent thus received a "crime perception score" (CPS) between 13 and 78. The CPS served as the dependent variable in statistical computations. The independent variables provided by respondent demographics and institutional classifications served as the predictors.

Cronbach's Alpha Test was used with the results of the pilot survey to establish reliability and internal consistency for the questionnaire. Results were an alpha of .86 with $n = 13+$. A reliability coefficient of .70 or higher is considered "acceptable" in most social science research situations (UCLA, 2009).

Data Analysis

In the Data Analysis phase, respondent data to include demographics and CPS scores were entered into an SPSS Data Editor file for each case. Statistical analysis was performed using the CPS number as the dependent variable, with predictor variables including student age group, gender, ethnicity group, type/location of residence, the two types of institutions, and size of population center where the institution is located (Class 1= over 300K, Class 2 = 75K to 300K, and Class 3 = less than 75K).

Statistical data were compared and contrasted to determine relationships stipulated in the three research questions stated in Chapter One:

- RQ1: Do elements of institutional culture intrinsic to the student, such as the age, gender, and ethnicity of students, influence perceptions about criminality and criminal behavior?
- RQ2: In addition to the type of institution, do elements extrinsic to the student, such as the type and location of residence, and the size of the population base supporting the institution influence perceptions about criminality and criminal behavior?
- RQ3: Are predictors of crime severity perceptions different for students at community colleges and public four-year universities?

In the initial analysis of independent variables included in institutional culture, independent-samples t-Tests, one-way ANOVA and regression analyses were used as

appropriate. Chapter 2 of this study references research conducted by Dowdall and Wechsler regarding the College Alcohol Study. That study states consideration must be given to the entire “college environment” to fully understand student alcohol abuse. They list variables of the environment to include: (a) type of college, (b) residential system, (c) location of the institution, and (d) intercollegiate athletics (2002). Indeed, elements of the institutional culture help explain differences this researcher hypothesized to exist between college student perceptions of crime. For this study, these elements are the independent variables: type of institution, gender, ethnicity, age, type of residence, and population base. Regression analysis allowed the researcher to discern relationships between one or more categorical predictor or independent variables, and the single quantitative dependent variable, CPS.

To compare CPS scores between the two levels of institution (the independent variable) an independent samples *t*-test was used. This is because the single dependent variable (CPS) is *quantitative*, and the *categorical* IV (educational institution) has two levels (four-year and community college). A similar comparison was made between male and female respondents, again with an independent-samples *t*-test using CSP as the dependent variable, and gender as the independent variable with two categories (male and female).

One-way ANOVA tests were conducted when the predictor variable consisted of more than two levels, as was the case with age, ethnicity, type and location of residence, and population base. Additional statistical consideration was given to responses to the gender-alternated scenarios (one and six; four and eleven).

Limitations

The ability to generalize the results of this study to the greater population of college students across the nation is limited by several issues, the first being the location of the

institutions, and thus the students involved in this research. While it is true that only institutions of higher learning in Missouri were used to gather data, a measure of correction resides in categorization by the size of the population bases supporting these institutions. In many historical studies, samples from the Midwest are considered as unbiased and representative of the perspectives and practices of the “average” American. The Iowa Caucus is a good example from the political spectrum. In a similar fashion, this research anticipates an ability to generalize the results of this survey across the larger population of college students. It is understood, however, that students attending colleges and universities in other regions of the country may bring very different values to their college experience, so generalizations will be tempered by this reality.

There are other limitations to this generalization. As noted earlier, Missouri community colleges do not offer certain sports programs—most notably football. If athletics are a significant contributor to student perceptions, this might distinguish results from what would be seen in a state like Texas, where many community colleges offer this sport.

Finally, this study does not allow respondents to identify themselves as having been a victim or perpetrator of campus crime. Such information could add valuable data for college administrators and the decision making process at institutions of higher learning. However, because victim and perpetrator perceptions of campus crime severity could vary significantly from that of the average student at these institutions, it was not considered in this study as an element of institutional culture. The large sample size involved with this study and the statistical methods applied, helped nullify any outlier effect caused by respondents who have been victims or perpetrators of campus crime.

With a firm understanding of the methods involved in this study, the following chapter examines actual survey results and applies them to the research questions and hypotheses.

CHAPTER 4

Findings and Discussion

“In spite of the familiar picture of the moral dangers which environ the student, there is no place so safe as a good college during the critical passage from boyhood to manhood” (Rudolph, 1990, p. 88). Spoken in 1869 by a college president, the above quote describes an era in American higher education rather unlike that of today. A crime perception survey conducted among colleges in the mid-1800’s would likely yield quite different results from those revealed by this survey of current community college and university students.

With regard to the impact institutional culture may or may not have on campus crime, this chapter will consider the results of the student surveys, and will determine what differences in perceptions of crime severity, if any, exist between students based on the variables of age, gender, ethnicity, type of institution, type and location of residence, and population base supporting the institution. Further, it will consider to what extent these variables, alone or together, might be used to predict these perceptions, keeping in mind perceptions reveal underlying beliefs which ultimately impact behavior.

Specifically, this chapter responds to the following, previously stated research questions:

- RQ1: Do elements of institutional culture intrinsic to the student, such as the age, gender, and ethnicity influence perceptions about criminality and criminal behavior?
- RQ2: In addition to the type of institution, do elements extrinsic to the student, such as the type and location of residence, and the size of the population base supporting the institution influence perceptions about criminality and criminal behavior?
- RQ3: Are predictors of crime severity perceptions different for students at community colleges and public four-year universities?

In responding to these questions, the chapter provides data to retain or reject the following null hypotheses:

- H₀1: Elements of institutional culture intrinsic to the college student, such as age, gender, and ethnicity, do not influence their perception of crime severity.
- H₀2: Elements of institutional culture extrinsic to the college student, such as the type of institution, type and location of student residence, and size of population base supporting the institution, do not influence their perception of crime severity.
- H₀3: Predictors of crime severity perceptions do not differ for students at community colleges and public four-year universities.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17.0 was used as the statistical analysis program for this study, providing descriptive statistics, comparisons of means, and statistical analysis as tools respond to the above. The results of these assessments follow.

Design & Procedures

Following receipt of research approval through the formal IRB process at each of the six institutions of higher learning, surveys (*Appendix C*) were sent to faculty members teaching a variety of general education or foundational courses who had agreed to participate. As discussed previously, three of these colleges were community colleges and three were public four-year universities located within the state of Missouri. A letter of instruction (*Appendix D*) was provided to participating faculty with background information regarding the study, IRB approval and specific information pertaining to survey distribution. Each institution received 60 surveys, and participating faculty were asked to distribute them, approximately half to female students, and half to male students.

The surveys were administered and returned to the researcher during the Fall and Spring/Winter semesters of academic year 2009/2010. At the conclusion of data collection, a total of 266 surveys were received, yielding a 73.8% return rate. Return rates for the institutions were as follow: St Louis Community College – Forest Park, 88%; Ozarks Technical Community College, 77%; Moberly Area Community College, 80%; University of Missouri – St. Louis, 42%; Missouri State University, 95%; and Missouri Science and Technology, 62%.

Of the 266 returned surveys, four were removed as outliers as a result of data screening, resulting in 262 samples (*N*) used during statistical analysis. Visible screening by the researcher led to elimination of two cases that responded with ratings of “1” for all survey scenarios, and one case that failed to fill out the reverse side of the survey. A preliminary regression was run to calculate Mahalanobis’ Distance. Outliers were tested using *chi square* critical value at $p < .001$, resulting in the removal of one final outlier.

A residuals plot was used to test normality, with Crime Perception Score (CPS) being the dependent variable. Residuals were clustered around zero, revealing normality. Multiple regression results further supported this, as collinearity statistics yielded tolerance figures over .96, revealing that multicollinearity among the variables included in the regression model was not a problem.

Demographics

Demographic data collected from the surveys provided information regarding respondent age, gender, and ethnicity, as well as type and location of residence. Information regarding the type of institution and population base supporting that institution was coded by the researcher.

Institutional Data

To gain an understanding of the participants involved in this study, data is provided in the form of summary tables. Frequency statistics provided the following information regarding Crime Perception Score mean (m), median and mode by institution (*Table 1*).

Table 1

Composite Crime Perception Scores by Institution

<u>Institution</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>m</u>	<u>Median</u>	<u>Mode</u>
St. Louis Community College (STLCC)	50	60.08	61	57
Ozarks Technical Community College (OTC)	46	57.74	59	64
Moberly Area Community College (MACC)	48	56.19	57	59
University of Missouri – St. Louis (UMSL)	25	60.40	60	60
Missouri State University (MSU)	57	54.79	56	54
Missouri Science & Technology (MS&T)	36	55.50	54	49
Totals	262	57.21	57.50	64

In considering whether community college students and students at public four-year institutions vary in their perception of crime severity, analyzing CPS student scores under type of institution reveals that community college respondents ($N=144$) had a mean score of $m = 58.03$, while their counterparts at public universities ($N=118$) had $m = 56.19$. Interestingly enough, however, multiple regression analysis did not identify *type of institution* as a significant variable in predicting CPS scores. This will be discussed in more detail in the following section.

Respondent Demographics

To gather information on the variables of interest, respondents were asked to provide their age, gender, ethnicity, and location and type of residence. Type of institution and size of

population base were variables identified by the researcher. To begin the data analysis process, once the material was gathered, descriptive statistics representing the participants was produced.

Results for each variable follow, beginning with the variable of *age* in Table 2.

Table 2

Age Distribution by Institution, N = 262

<u>Institution</u>	<u>No Response</u>	<u>18 - 20</u>	<u>21 - 24</u>	<u>>25</u>
STLCC	4	20	9	17
OTC	-	15	20	11
MACC	5	19	15	9
UMSL	-	7	10	8
MSU	-	50	4	3
MS&T	-	30	5	1
Totals	9	141 (56%)	63 (25%)	49 (19%)

The sample ($N=262$) consisted of participants ranging in age from 18 to a high of 52. Nine participants opted not to provide their age. The age groups of those who *did* respond included 56% between the ages of 18 and 20; 25% between 21 and 24 years old. The remaining 19% were 25 or older. Public universities had a larger percentage of 18-20 year-olds (62%), while 70% of respondents 21 to 24, and 76% of respondents 25 and over attended community colleges.

The age distribution for respondents resembles available information on overall college student age composition. The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) estimates that for 2008, the student age distribution for all degree-granting institutions was 43% for 18-21 year-olds, 18% for 22-24 year-olds, and 39% for students 25 and older (2009). For community

colleges, the average age of a student was 29, with 43% age 21 or younger...the same percentage as for all degree-granting institutions (AACC, 2009).

Table 3 summarizes the gender of respondents.

Table 3

Gender Distribution by Institution, N = 262

<u>Institution</u>	<u>No Response</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Total</u>
STLCC	5	33	12	50
OTC	-	22	24	46
MACC	3	29	16	48
UMSL	-	14	11	25
MSU	-	30	27	57
MS&T	-	9	27	36
Totals	8	137 (52%)	117 (48%)	262

The sample ($N=262$) was made up of 137 females (52%) and 117 males (48%), very close to the half-and-half gender split desired for this study. Among the respondents from the public universities, 45% were female and 55% male. Community college respondents were 58% female and 42% male. While this study sought an equitable split between the gender of respondents for purposes of statistical assessment, nation-wide the student bodies of both community colleges and four-year public universities actually consist of a female majority. According to the NCES, in 2007 the gender distribution was 57% female, and 43% male for all degree-granting institutions (2009), and community college statistics reveal a 60- 40 split in female to male students (AACC, 2009).

Another area for which national statistical information is readily available is the variable of ethnicity, which is covered next in Table 4 for distribution within the research sample.

Table 4

Ethnicity Distribution by Institution, N = 262

<u>Institution</u>	<u>No Response</u>	<u>Asian</u>	<u>Black</u>	<u>Hispanic</u>	<u>White</u>	<u>Other</u>
STLCC	-	1	26	3	19	1
OTC	1	-	1	-	44	-
MACC	-	1	5	2	38	2
UMSL	-	1	2	2	20	-
MSU	-	1	-	1	52	3
MS&T	-	1	4	1	29	1
Totals	1	5 (2%)	38 (15%)	9 (3%)	202 (77%)	7 (3%)

The sample ($N = 262$) consisted of the following distribution by ethnicity: 2% Asian, 15% Black, 3% Hispanic, 77% White, and 3% “other”. One participant opted not to provide ethnic information. When broken down by institutional type, the ethnic composition of the community college students was 1% Asian, 22% Black, 4% Hispanic, 70% White, and 2% “other”. For the participating public universities, the respondents self-identified as 2% Asian, 5% Black, 3% Hispanic, 86% White, and 3% “other”.

The distribution for ($N = 262$) respondents in most cases does not resemble statistics given for the ethnic composition of college students nation-wide. For 2007, the distribution for all degree-granting institutions was 6.7% Asian/Pacific Islander, 13.1% Black, 11.4% Hispanic, and 64.4% White (NCES, 2009). For community colleges, the distribution is similar, with 6%

Asian/Pacific Islander, 13% Black, 15% Hispanic, and 65% of students identified as White (AACC, 2009).

While respondent distribution does not resemble overall numbers for degree-granting institutions, it does more closely resemble the ethnic composition for the state of Missouri. The state’s ethnic distribution in 2008 was reported by the U.S. Census Bureau as approximately 1.5% Asian, 11.5% Black, 3.2% Hispanic, and 82% White, not Hispanic (2009).

In addition to the variables of age, gender and ethnicity, respondents were asked to self-identify based upon the type and location of their residence. Specific residence information provided by the respondents is included in Table 5 below.

Table 5

Type and Location of Residence by Institution, N = 262

<u>Institution</u>	<u>No Reply</u>	<u>Dormitory / Residence Hall</u>	<u>Fraternity / Sorority</u>	<u>Off Campus Independent</u>	<u>Off Campus Parent / Relative</u>
STLCC	-	-	-	25	25
OTC	-	-	-	32	14
MACC	-	3	-	30	15
UMSL	-	1	-	15	9
MSU	-	41	-	10	6
MS&T	-	23	6	5	2
Totals	-	68 (26%)	6 (2%)	117 (45%)	71 (27%)

With regard to the type and location of residence, respondents ($N = 262$) indicated that a mere 2% lived in Greek housing and 26% live in campus dormitories or residence halls, while 27% live off-campus with a parent or relative, and 45% live independently in a house or apartment off-campus.

Breaking this data down by type of institution identifies several significant differences in where students reside—at least respondents to this study. Of the 68 respondents who reside in dormitories or residence halls, only three were community college students. Indeed, most of the community college respondents live off-campus, either independently (60%), or with a parent or relative (38%). Nation-wide statistics for community college students reveal that on-campus housing is available at 233 of the 1,043 public community colleges (AACC, 2009). However, only one of the three community colleges participating in this study has on-campus student housing available. Conversely, all three of the public universities involved in this study have on-campus residence options, as indicated in Chapter 3. The multiple regression test covered later in this chapter will address directly the issue of type and location of residence as a variable influencing student perceptions of crime severity. As addressed earlier in this study, however, Clery Act reporting indicates that even when dormitory and residence hall crime is omitted from crime statistics, the majority of campus crimes still take place on public university campuses (Department of Education, 2009).

One other consideration made evident in Table 5 is the fact that 38% of community college respondents live either with a family member (parents or relatives), while the same was true of only 14% of public university respondents, the majority of whom were at a large, urban commuter university. As discussed in Chapter 2, past theorists have suggested that parental socialization, a student's family background and residence all contribute to their behavior and success in college (Pascarella, 1985; Weidman, 1989; Tinto, 1993). This researcher found no specific statistical information at the national-level concerning the number of university students residing with family members. The thought that continued close parental or familial contact plays an important role in student perceptions and behavior, especially when that student lives

with family members, is a real possibility. The following testing and analysis of respondent data will provide statistical assessment which will respond to this question.

Testing of Null Hypotheses

Null Hypothesis 1(H₀₁)

With the demographic statistics presented, the attention of this study turns to statistical analysis of survey data to respond to the research questions and null hypotheses. To review, H₀₁ states: “Elements of institutional culture intrinsic to the college student, such as age, gender, and ethnicity, do not influence their perception of crime severity.”

For the purposes of this study, predictor or independent variables intrinsic to the college student have been identified as age, gender and ethnicity. Using CPS scores as the dependent variable, each of these predictors, or independent variables was assessed through statistical testing to discern possible impact on student perceptions of crime severity, assuming that by understanding student perceptions, a link to beliefs and behavior might be found. Following were the tests used and results observed for the three predictor variables associated with the first null hypothesis.

Because age was compartmentalized into three levels, a one-way ANOVA was used to determine the significance of the difference between the three means associated with the predictor variable (IV), and a dependent variable (DV) of Crime Perception Score (CPS). The three levels of age were (1) 18 to 20, with a CPS $m = 56.18$ and $sd = 7.825$; (2) 21 to 24, with $m = 57.87$ and $sd = 8.503$; and (3) 25 and over, with $m = 59.76$ and $sd = 10.03$. The differences among the means were statistically significant at the .05 level [$F(2, 250) = 3.436$, $p=.034$, partial $\eta^2 = .027$]. The ANOVA demonstrated gender as a significant variable, calculated effect size revealed that only a small portion of CPS score variance is accounted for by each age category.

Tukey HSD and Scheffe post hoc tests were conducted to determine which age categories were significantly different. Results of both revealed that the age group of “18 to 20” was significantly different from age group “25 and older”, with a mean difference of -3.57 and $p = .031$. Tables 6 and 7 below provide descriptive and ANOVA results for the statistical testing of the predictor, age.

Table 6

Descriptives for Age on CPS

Level	N	m	sd	Std. Error	95% Confidence		Min.	Max.
					Lower (Bounds)	Upper		
18-20	141	56.18	7.825	.659	54.88	57.49	31	70
21-24	63	57.87	8.503	1.071	55.73	60.01	32	73
25 & over	49	59.76	10.030	1.433	56.87	62.64	20	76
Total	253	57.30	8.539	.537	56.24	58.35	20	76

Table 7

ANOVA for Age

	Sum of Squares	df	m^2	F	Sig.
Between Groups	491.516	2	245.758	3.436	.034
Within Groups	17883.251	250	71.533		
Total	18374.767	252			

These data indicate that students in the age group “25 and older” are significantly more sensitive to crime severity than are students between the ages of 18 and 20.

To summarize the above findings, the older a student is, the more critical they are of criminal behavior. And because the most significant difference in CPS exists between students 20 or below and 25 or older, if sensitivity to crime severity is a reflection of potential behavior, one might expect colleges with older student populations to have lower incidents of criminal activity—supportive of the national data on community colleges and public four-year universities.

Gender was the next predictor variable to be considered for treatment. Because gender involves only two levels (female and male), an independent samples *t*-test was used to test significance with the DV as CPS. An independent samples *t*-test was conducted revealing female CPS $m = 59.77$, $sd = 7.094$, and male CPS $m = 54$, $sd = 9.213$. The difference between the two means was statistically significant ($t(252) = 5.636$, $p = .000$). In addition, calculations to determine effect size resulted in a Cohen's $d = .71$, demonstrating a medium-sized effect and practical as well as statistical significance.

Statistical analysis thus revealed that the higher sensitivity to crime severity expressed by women respondents was more than just chance, and male respondents indeed reflected a less critical view on the crime scenarios in this study. Given that perceptions provide an indication of potential behavior, as a result of these findings it could be expected that institutions of higher learning with a greater percentage of women in the student body would experience lower levels of campus crime.

Ethnicity was the next student-intrinsic predictor variable for consideration. With five levels, the predictor variable of ethnicity required a one-way ANOVA to test significance. The five levels and their means associated with ethnicity included (1) Asian, with a CPS $m = 54$ and $sd = 3.082$; (2) Black, with CPS $m = 61.11$ and $sd = 10.426$; (3) Hispanic, with CPS $m = 63.22$

and $sd = 8.857$; (4) White, with CPS $m = 56.54$ and $sd = 8.204$; and (5) Other, with CPS $m = 50.57$ and $sd = 15.915$. The differences among the means were statistically significant at the .05 level, [$F(4, 256)=4.387, p=.002, \text{partial } \eta^2=.065$].

While the differences in means expressed by respondents of different ethnicity were statistically significant, the partial eta squared reveals less of a practical significance given the effect size. This implies that when ethnic respondent groups are equitable, the difference between categories would likely be less significant. None-the-less, the variable of ethnicity can be considered a significant factor in an assessment of student perceptions of crime severity.

Tukey HSD and Scheffe post hoc tests were conducted to determine which ethnicity categories were significantly different. Tukey HSD results revealed that the ethnic group “Black” was significantly different from “White” ($p = .029$) and “other” ($p = .031$), and “Hispanic” was significantly different from “other” ($p = .037$). According to the Scheffe test, however, results yielded no significant difference. Because sample sizes were disproportionate, with “Asian”, “Hispanic” and “other” at $N < 10$, post hoc testing of these three levels of ethnicity may not yield reliable results. The significance between levels of “Black” ($N = 38$) and “White” ($N = 202$), however, are considered reliable with $p = .029$.

With the significance of ethnicity provided by this research, and given that perceptions serve as a possible indicator of behavior, it would be logical to assume that the more diverse a college or university campus is, the lower its level of crime.

Tables 8 and 9 on the following page provide descriptive and ANOVA results for the testing of the student-intrinsic variable of *ethnicity*.

Table 8

Descriptives for Ethnicity on CPS

Level	<i>N</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>sd</i>	Std. Error	95% Confidence		Min.	Max.
					Lower (Bounds)	Upper		
Asian	5	54.00	3.082	1.378	50.17	57.83	51	59
Black	38	61.11	10.426	1.691	57.68	64.53	17	73
Hispanic	9	63.22	8.857	2.952	56.41	70.03	42	71
White	202	56.54	8.204	.577	55.40	57.68	20	76
Other	7	50.57	15.915	6.015	35.85	65.29	31	70
Total	261	57.23	9.006	.557	56.13	58.32	17	76

Table 9

ANOVA for Ethnicity

	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	<i>m</i> ²	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Between Groups	1352.631	4	338.158	4.387	.002
Within Groups	19735.032	256	77.090		
Total	21087.663	260			

Having assessed the significance of means within the predictors, statistical testing was need to determine which variables, when combined with the effect of the other variables, were accurate in predicting CPS. To do this, multiple regression was conducted. The first test included data collected from all respondents ($N=262$). Regression results indicated that the overall model which significantly predicts CPS scores, included the predictors of gender, age, and ethnicity. Of note, this model included only the student-intrinsic variables. The model had

significance (Sig.) = .000, $R^2 = .149$, $R^2_{adj} = .139$, and $F(3, 258) = 15.057$, $p < .05$, and accounts for 14.9% of variance in CPS scores.

Thus, in responding to the first null hypothesis, data suggested that the variables intrinsic to students (age, gender and ethnicity) do indeed influence their perception of crime severity. A summary of regression results is presented in Table 10 and indicates that all three of the variables considered in null hypothesis 1 (gender, age and ethnicity) significantly contributed to the model.

Table 10

Full Model Summary of CPS Predictor Variables

Model	R	R ²	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance
1 <i>Gender</i>	.307	.094	-.307	-5.206	.000	1.000
2 <i>Gender</i> + <i>Age</i>	.367	.135	-.332 .202	-5.704 3.476	.000 .001	.985 .985
3 <i>Gender</i> + <i>Age</i> + <i>Ethnicity</i>	.386	.149	-.314 .203 -.121	-5.375 3.508 -2.076	.000 .001 .039	.964 .985 .978

Null Hypothesis 2 (H₀₂)

The second null hypothesis states: “Elements of institutional culture extrinsic to the college student, such as the type of institution, type and location of student residence, and size of population base supporting the institution, do not influence their perception of crime severity.”

Results from multiple regression discussed above indicate that in combination with all independent variables, the student-extrinsic variables of (1) type of institution, (2) type and location of residence, and (3) population base supporting the institution, were not considered significant in predicting CPS scores. Earlier discussion of demographics do, however, draw attention to several key issues related to mean CPS scores.

To test the first extrinsic variable, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted for DV = CPS and IV type of institution (1 = community college, 2 = four-year public university) resulting in a community college CPS $m = 58.03$ and public university CPS $m = 56.19$. The difference between the two means was not statistically significant ($t(260) = 1.653, p = .10$).

Next, a one-way ANOVA was used to determine the significance of the difference between the four groups associated with the predictor variable, type and location of residence, and the DV of CPS. The four levels of residence were: (1) dorm or residence hall, with $m = 55.18$ and $sd = 8.107$; (2) Greek house, with $m = 58.33$ and $sd = 6.218$; (3) off-campus independent, with $m = 58.48$ and $sd = 8.943$; and (4) off campus with parents or family, with $m = 56.96$ and $sd = 9.826$. The differences among the means were not statistically significant at the .05 level, [$F(3, 258)=2.007, p=.113, \text{partial } \eta^2=.023$]. Descriptives (Table 11) and ANOVA (Table 12) are provided below.

Table 11

Descriptives for Type and Location of Residence on CPS

Level	N	m	sd	Std. Error	95% Confidence		Min.	Max.
					Lower (Bounds)	Upper		
Dorm/ Res. Hall	68	55.18	8.107	.983	53.21	57.14	31	70
Greek House	6	58.33	6.218	2.539	51.81	64.86	49	66
Independent Residence	117	58.48	8.943	.827	56.84	60.12	20	76
Parent/ Family	71	56.96	9.826	1.166	54.63	59.28	17	73
Total	262	57.21	8.994	.556	56.11	58.30	17	76

Table 12

ANOVA for Type and Location of Residence

	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	<i>m</i> ²	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Between Groups	481.585	3	160.528	2.007	.113
Within Groups	20633.286	258	79.974		
Total	21114.870	261			

To summarize, though demographics reveal that a much larger percentage of community college respondents live with relatives, there was no significant difference in mean CPS scores between public university respondents and community college respondents that live off-campus with family members. This prompted a closer look at the variable.

As discussed previously, not only did multiple regression determine that this student-extrinsic variable was not considered a predictor variable of CPS score, but the one-way ANOVA test determined that the differences among the means were not statistically significant at the .05 level, [$F(3, 258)=2.007, p=.113$]. However, after combining variables to produce on-campus residence and off-campus residence data, an independent-samples *t*-Test was conducted using the resulting two new levels of the variable, type and location of residence, in effect creating the modified variable, location of residence. When the levels representing “dorm or residence hall” were combined with “Greek house” to produce the new level, “on-campus residence”, and “off-campus independent” was combined with “off-campus with parents or family”, statistical testing produced somewhat different results.

An independent samples *t*-Test conducted for DV = CPS and the IV, location of residence with levels for (1) on-campus residence, and (2) off-campus residence, resulted in an on-campus $m = 55.43$ and off-campus $m = 57.90$. The difference between these two new CPS

means was statistically significant ($t(260) = -2.472, p = .045$). While the t -test yielded significant results, subsequent multiple regression analysis using the modified variable with CPS scores showed no change in the predictor variables provided by the previous model. As a result, *type and location of residence* was still not considered a significant predictor of CPS score.

With regard to the possible impact the size of population base may play on student perceptions of crime severity, a one-way ANOVA was used to determine the significance of the difference between the three groups associated with this variable, and CPS scores. The three levels of population base were Class 1 (>300,000) with a $m = 60.19$ and $sd = 9.699$; Class 2 (75,000 to 300,000) with a $m = 56.11$ and $sd = 8.787$; and Class 3 (< 75,000) with a $m = 55.89$ and $sd = 8.023$. The differences among the means were statistically significant at the .05 level [$F(2, 259) = 6.004, p = .003, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .044$]. The small effect size reveals that a relatively small portion of CPS variance is accounted for by this variable. The Tukey HSD post hoc test was conducted to determine which population base categories were significantly different. Results revealed that Class 1 differed significantly with both remaining categories.

Tables 13 and 14 provide descriptive and ANOVA results for this test.

Table 13

Descriptives for Size of Population Base on CPS

Level	N	m	sd	Std. Error	95% Confidence		Min.	Max.
					Lower (Bounds)	Upper		
Class 1	75	60.19	9.699	1.120	57.96	62.42	17	76
Class 2	103	56.11	8.787	.866	54.39	57.82	20	74
Class 3	84	55.89	8.023	.875	54.15	57.63	37	71
Total	262	57.21	8.994	.556	56.11	58.30	17	76

Table 14

ANOVA for Size of Population Base

	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	<i>m</i> ²	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Between Groups	935.623	2	467.811	6.004	.003
Within Groups	20179.248	259	77.912		
Total	21114.870	261			

While a comparison of mean CPS scores among the three levels of population bases reveals a significant difference among them, multiple regression determined that in combination with the other variables of institutional culture, this IV itself is not an accurate predictor of CPS scores.

In concluding discussion of H₀₂, and the impact of student-extrinsic variables, while differences in means for the type of institution and type and location of residence were not statistically significant, additional testing for location of residence, and testing of the variable, size of population base, provided significant results. Null Hypothesis 2 is therefore, rejected.

Null Hypothesis 3 (H₀₃)

The third null hypothesis states: “Predictors of crime severity perceptions do not differ for students at community colleges and public four-year universities.” While the CPS means for respondents from each of the two institutions may not have been significantly different, as determined by the independent samples *t*-test mentioned during the discussion of H₀₂, predictor variables indeed varied between the two types of institutions.

To determine if any of the variables of institutional culture served as predictors for both community college respondents and public university respondents, regression was run separately for each type of institution. Results using community college data indicated that the model that

significantly predicts Crime Perception Scores included the predictors of gender and age, but did not include ethnicity. As previously mentioned, the overall model did include ethnicity.

Tolerances were .943 for both variables, demonstrating that multicollinearity was not a problem.

The model itself had a significance of $p = .000$, $R^2 = .167$, $R^2_{adj} = .155$, $F(1,142) = 14.109$, $p < .05$, accounting for 16.7% of variance in CPS scores.

Regression analysis was then conducted using four-year public university data. Results provided a model that significantly predicts CPS scores included the predictors of gender and ethnicity, but did not include age. Tolerances were 1.000 for both variables. The model had a Sig. = .000, $R^2 = .129$, $R^2_{adj} = .113$, $F(2,115) = 8.480$, $p < .05$, accounting for 12.9% of variance in CPS scores.

To summarize, when using data from both types of institutions, the variables intrinsic to students (age, gender and ethnicity) do indeed influence their perception of crime severity. However, while gender serves as a predictor variable at both community colleges and public universities participating in this study, when considered in concert with the other variables of potential influence, the only additional variable considered significant at the community college was age. At the public universities, ethnicity was the only additional significant variable.

In conclusion, regression analysis reveals that predictors differ for students at community colleges, and students at public four-year universities. Thus, Null Hypothesis 3 is rejected.

Additional Analysis

The assessment that gender plays a significant role in predicting crime severity perceptions (and possibly behavior related to those perceptions), can be further analyzed by considering responses to the gender-paired scenarios included in the survey. Results in the form of mean scores by gender are given in Table 15 on the following page.

Table 15

Gender Issue Paired Scenarios: Mean CPS by Gender

<u>Scenario</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>
1. Two male students get in an argument over a female student. One of the men, an ex-boyfriend of the female student, kicks the other male student, breaking three of his ribs.	4.78	4.26
6. Two female students get in a fight over a male student. One of the women, the ex-girlfriend of the male student, hits the other female student in the mouth, chipping two of her teeth and lacerating a lip, which requires stitches.	4.48	3.83
4. A 19-year-old female student has sex with a 15-year-old juvenile male in the student's apartment. There is no use of force or threat of force. The statutory age of consent is 16.	4.09	3.15
11. A 19-year-old male student has sex with a 15-year-old juvenile female in the student's apartment. There is no use of force or threat of force. The statutory age of consent is 16.	4.2	3.53

In the first set of paired scenarios (#1 and #6), same-gender rivalry over a member of the opposite sex results in physical assault. While the severity of harm inflicted in the two scenarios may appear different, variance between the means of each gender could be expected to be similar. In the first scenario, with male-on-male violence, the female CPS mean (4.78) was .52 greater than the male CPS mean (4.26). In the second scenario, having female-on-female violence, both means were lower, showing a lower sensitivity to the crime committed probably due to an assumption of a lower level of harm, but the difference in means was .65 with the female response again being higher.

The next set of paired scenarios (#4 and #11), involves a college student having sex with a minor. In the first scenario, a 19-year-old female has sex with a 15-year-old male. The female respondent CPS $m = 4.09$ was .94 greater than their male counterparts at $m = 3.15$. The second

scenario in this set involves a 19-year-old male student having sex with a 15-year-old female. In this instance, both male and female respondent means were higher than the reverse-gender scenario represented by #4, but the mean difference between genders was only .67.

To further assess what appeared to be a respondent bias against male perpetrators in these scenarios, two new variables were created. The variable, *PerpFemale*, combined scores by gender of respondent for the above scenarios in which women were the perpetrators, #4 and #6. Then, *PerpMale* was created by combining scenarios #1 and #11.

An independent samples *t*-Test for *PerpFemale* yielded a CPS $m = 8.5693$ for female respondents, and CPS $m = 6.9744$ for male respondents, demonstrating a significant difference between female and male perceptions of crime severity for scenarios in which females were the perpetrators ($t(254) = 5.956, p = .00$). Calculations to determine effect size resulted in a Cohen's $d = .75$, demonstrating a medium-sized effect.

A second *t*-Test was conducted using *PerpMale* for male perpetrators. The results of this test produced a CPS $m = 8.9781$ for female respondents, and CPS $m = 7.7863$ for male respondents. Again, a significant difference between means was determined to exist ($t(254) = 4.862, p = .00$). Effect size calculations for the variable *PerpMale* also yielded a medium effect size at $d = .32$.

The evidenced produced by statistical tests combining results of the gender-paired scenarios by gender of perpetrator revealed that both male and female respondents judge crimes perpetrated by males as being more severe than crimes of a similar nature perpetrated by females.

Summary and Conclusion

This chapter began with a review of the research questions and null hypotheses, followed by a recap of the research design and data collection procedures. Using an SPSS database populated with respondent data, an assessment of crime perceptions score means, medians and modes by participating institution was presented. This was followed by a summary of the respondent demographics of age, gender, ethnicity and location and type of residence. Using statistical analysis, the three null hypotheses were then tested and results presented. Finally, additional analysis was conducted using the results of the CPS scores provided for gender-paired scenarios.

Using the predictor variables identified as significant by multiple regression analysis, and accompanying mean CPS scores, the respondent with the highest crime perception score would statistically have been provided by a female, over 25 years old. Likewise, the lowest score would have been submitted by an 18 to 20 year-old male. In addition, although not significant, a comparison of “type of institution” means reveals community college respondents have the higher CPS mean. A summary of responses by each scenario is included at *Appendix F*.

CHAPTER 5

Summary, Discussion, and Recommendations

This chapter is organized into four sections. The first section presents an overview of the study, a description of the research design, and explanation of data collected. The second section provides a summary of major findings as they pertain to the null hypotheses, with additional analysis on gender-influenced perception and response. A discussion of these findings as they relate to the current body of theory and literature regarding campus crime and elements of institutional culture is included. The third section presents conclusions which may be drawn from the current study. The fourth and final section proposes recommendations for future research related to this topic.

Overview

As related in Chapter 2 of this study, the current body of research regarding campus crime reveals heightened concern over this issue across the nation. Little attention, however, has been paid to the differing levels of crime reported by institutional type, in particular the difference between levels at community colleges versus four-year public universities. Even with dormitory crime removed from institutionally-reported statistics, the level of serious crimes committed on public university campuses remains much higher than on community college campuses. In an effort to ascertain possible reasons for such a difference, this study looks at elements of institutional culture both intrinsic and extrinsic to the student, which may provide clues.

Purpose Statement and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to determine if a difference exists in perceptions of crime between two student populations: those enrolled in community colleges and those attending

public four-year universities. And if a significant difference does exist, what variables may contribute to that difference. The study poses the following research questions:

- RQ1: Do elements of institutional culture intrinsic to the student, such as the age, gender, and ethnicity, influence perceptions about criminality and criminal behavior?
- RQ2: In addition to the type of institution, do elements extrinsic to the student, such as the type and location of residence, and the size of the population base supporting the institution influence perceptions about criminality and criminal behavior?
- RQ3: Are predictors of crime severity perceptions different for students at community colleges and public four-year universities?

In an attempt to answer these questions, the following null hypotheses were tested:

- H₀1: Elements of institutional culture intrinsic to the college student, such as age, gender, and ethnicity, do not influence their perception of crime severity.
- H₀2: Elements of institutional culture extrinsic to the college student, such as the type of institution, type and location of student residence, and size of population base supporting the institution, do not influence their perception of crime severity.
- H₀3: Predictors of crime severity perceptions do not differ for students at community colleges and public four-year universities.

Integral to this study is the question of whether female and male students have different perceptions as to the severity of crimes and what constitutes inappropriate behavior. Further, is gender-bias evidenced in the commitment of a crime against one gender, versus a similar crime with the genders of perpetrator and victim reversed?

Review of Methodology

In responding to the above research questions and null hypotheses, this study attempts to ascertain whether elements of institutional culture intrinsic to the student, such as age, gender, and ethnicity, and elements extrinsic to the student, such as the type and location of residence, the type of institution attended, and the size of that institution's population base, lead to a difference in perceptions of crime severity levels.

The primary source of information for this study was a survey of student perceptions of the severity of crimes as described in series of scenarios. These short scenarios offered enough variety to provide a valid assessment of perceptions along the full spectrum of criminal activity. While the survey itself has not been used in previous research, its similarity to surveys that have been used and pilot testing using the instrument provide an element of validation. Demographics collected by the survey are representative of other research, and use of the Likert scale, as was used in this study, is common. To further strengthen validity of the sample, surveys were provided to students of various general education or foundational classes, ensuring the student sample was representative of the spectrum of academic disciplines.

The nature of the research questions and measurability of the variables to be assessed weighed heavily in favor of a quantitative study. Along these lines, each survey included several demographic questions which served as independent variables in the analysis of data. Demographics requested of each respondent included their age, year of college enrollment, and ethnicity. Choices of ethnicity included (1) Asian, (2) Black, (3) Hispanic, (4) White, and (5) other. Demographic information also included location and type of student residence. Residence options included (1) on-campus residence or dormitory, (2) fraternity or sorority

house, (3) off-campus independent residence (apartment, duplex, etc.), and (4) off-campus in home of parent(s) or relative(s).

Following the demographic section were 13 crime scenarios which varied in level of crime severity, with the level measured by a Likert scale rating from 1 (least serious) to 6 (most serious). Based on their responses, each respondent received a “crime perception score” (CPS) between 13 and 78. The CPS served as the dependent variable in statistical computations. The independent variables (respondent demographics and institutional classifications) were the predictors.

In several scenario examples the gender of the perpetrator of similar-severity crimes were switched to help verify what differences may be explained by gender of the respondent. Finally, complete anonymity of respondents was ensured, with no identification by name or other contact information requested in the demographics section.

Regarding the participants in this research, sixty surveys were provided to facilitators/instructors teaching a variety of general education or foundational courses at each of six institutions of higher learning (three community colleges and three public universities), for a total of 360 potential respondents. Participating institutions were selected in an attempt to obtain responses from students attending each of the two types of institutions located within similar population bases. The population base supporting the University of Missouri-St. Louis and St. Louis Community College at Forest Park, exceeds 300,000 (Class 1). Missouri State University and Ozarks Technical Community College, each located in Springfield, Missouri, draw from a population base of under 300,000, but more than 75,000 (Class 2). Moberly Area Community College and Missouri University of Science and Technology each draw from cities with a population of 75,000 or less (Class 3). The pairing of the two types of institutions in this manner

was intended to help equalize third-variable elements impacting student perceptions, allowing elements of institutional culture to be more clearly differentiated.

Following the elimination of outliers, the actual data set consisted of $N = 262$ college students from public community colleges ($N = 144$) and public four-year universities ($N = 118$). The sample includes female ($N = 137$) and male ($N = 117$) students (8 chose not to identify their gender), attending daytime general education or foundational classes. The following section describes the major findings of the research, following statistical analysis.

Major Findings

Completion of this study provides valuable information illuminating perspectives of college students and their perceptions of crime—perspectives often absent in the literature and theory surrounding campus crime. In search of an answer to the question of why the level of campus crime on community college campuses is so much lower than crime on public four-year university campuses, findings from the data collected contribute information concerning student-centric differences in the institutional culture of these two types of higher education institutions. Differences and similarities are revealed by respondent demographics, as well as the findings surrounding the null hypotheses of this study.

Demographics

Demographic data provided by this study yield information not just about the respondents, but also about the particular type of institution attended. Respondents were asked to provide their age, gender, ethnicity and type and location of residence. Type of institution and the classification of population base supporting the institution were noted by the researcher.

When age was analyzed as a factor, 56% of respondents were between the ages of 18 and 20, 25% were between 21 and 24, and 19% were 25 or older. Because the participants targeted

were students of general education or foundational classes, this age distribution might be expected—at least at a public university. Indeed, when considering institutional results, public universities had a larger percentage of 18 to 20 year-olds (62%), while 70% of respondents 21 to 24, and 76% of respondents over the age of 25 attended community colleges. The fact that the average age of community college students across the nation is 29 supports the age demographics represented by this study (AACC, 2009). As will be seen in the discussion of H₀1 that follows, age is a key variable in this study, and begins to explain why campus crime may be a greater problem at campuses with younger student populations.

Student demographic data also included gender, with 52% of all respondents being female, and 48% male. This figure comes closer to representing the mix of the public university student body than that of the community college, as the national average for community colleges reveals a 60/40 distribution (AACC, 2009). Given that the faculty were asked to distribute surveys on a roughly 50/50 by-gender basis, however, any comparison to national figures is not important for the purposes of this study. Rather, the 50/50 mix is desired to enhance the validity of survey CPS score comparisons. The finding in this study that female students are more inclined to judge criminal activity as severe, however, suggests that institutions that are predominantly female would have lower crime rates.

Ethnicity is another variable which demonstrated a significant effect in this study. With regard to demographics, overall respondent information revealed an ethnic distribution which is more representative of the state of Missouri's ethnic composition (Census Bureau, 2009), than the ethnic composition of college students among degree-granting institutions in the U.S. (NCES, 2009). When assessing the difference between respondent ethnicity of the two types of institutions, however, the community college figures reveal a greater diversity of

students, with 1.47 times as many minority students participating in this study. This reflects the ethnic representation at community colleges as nation-wide, students at community colleges represent a more diverse ethnic mix than do public four-year universities (AACCC, 2009). The impact of ethnicity as a variable of significance will be covered in more detail in the discussions which follow later in this chapter.

Location and type of residence is arguably one of the more contentious aspects of any attempt to identify potential sources of variance between community college and university crime. As will be discussed in the review of this study's implications for theory and literature, the issue of location and type of residence is typically a major consideration in assessments of campus crime and violence (Martin & Hummer, 1989; Sher, Bartlow & Nanda, 2001; Wechsler, Dowdall, Davenport & Castillo, 1995; Wechsler, Lee, Kuo & Lee, 2000;). While the scarcity of dormitories on community college campuses in Missouri may be a consideration in this current study, nation-wide, over 23% of community college campuses offer residence halls though these AACCC data (2009) do not indicate percentages of students in residential housing, which may remain relatively small. In addition, as previously discussed, removing dormitory crimes from Clery Act crime totals still results in a large disparity of crimes between the two types of institutions.

Rather than the presence or absence of dormitories, perhaps living with a parent or parents, or other relative(s) plays a part in sensitizing college students to the severity of crime. As discussed briefly in the previous chapter, according to the demographics provided by respondents in this study, community college students were 2.7 times more likely to live off-campus with parent(s) or relatives(s), than were their public university counterparts. Statistical

analysis provided in the discussion of H₀₂ will consider the statistical significance of this level of the variable type and location of residence.

A final demographic considered by this study is the size of population base supporting the institution being attended. Consideration is given to the fact that the majority of students attending public institutions of higher learning are drawn from within a short radius of that college or university (Cohen & Brawer, 2003). It is expected that some elements of local culture students will bring with them to college, become an element of the institutional culture.

As with the 50/50 split between genders, the split of respondents among the three classifications of population base was an intentional attempt to strengthen the validity of variances that may appear not just between students within the different population classifications, but between students of the two types of institutions within the same classification. There was some disparity between the numbers of respondents from the two types of institutions at the different classification levels, however statistical analysis and post-hoc testing confirmed areas of significance. These will be discussed in more detail as consideration is given the null hypotheses used in this study.

Null Hypothesis 1 (H₀₁)

The first null hypothesis states: “Elements of institutional culture intrinsic to the college student, such as age, gender, and ethnicity, do not influence their perception of crime severity.” Findings regarding this null hypothesis are broken down into the three student-intrinsic variables as addressed below.

The first variable to be tested was age. A one-way ANOVA determined that the differences among the three means associated with age (18 to 20; 21 to 24; 25 and over) were statistically significant. Multiple regression analysis determined age to be one of the variables

that significantly predicted CPS score. Therefore, age is considered to play a role in influencing student perceptions of crime, and potentially behavior. These results do not support H_01 .

According to these findings, the older a student is, the more critical they are of criminal behavior. And since the most significant difference in CPS exists between students 20 or below and 25 or older, if sensitivity to crime severity is indicative of potential behavior, one might expect colleges with older student populations to have lower incidents of criminal activity—supportive of the national data on community colleges and public four-year universities.

The second variable tested was gender. Results from an independent-samples *t*-test revealed a higher mean CPS for females than males, and a significant difference between the two means meant that the higher sensitivity to crime severity expressed by female respondents was more than just chance. When respondent data from both types of institution was used, the results of multiple regression analysis determined gender to be the most significant predictor of CPS scores, accounting for 9.4 percent of variance, with $R^2 = .094$. Thus, as a factor intrinsic to the student, gender does not support H_01 . As a result of these findings, it can be expected that institutions of higher learning with a higher percentage of women in the student body would experience lower levels of campus crime. While national statistics demonstrate the 60/40 ratio of female to male students is greater at community colleges (AACC, 2009), than the 54/46 ratio at public four-year institutions (Mather and Adams, 2010), the regression analysis conducted in this study reveals the best predictor model includes age and ethnicity, in addition to gender.

The final student-intrinsic variable to be discussed, and the last of the three considered statistically significant enough to be included in the regression model, was ethnicity. In addition to regression analysis, a one-way ANOVA was conducted, and the results determined the differences in CPS means for respondents of different ethnicity to be statistically significant. An

assessment of the means found Hispanic respondents to be most sensitive to crime severity, followed by Black, White, Asian and “other”. Because of the small sample size for Hispanic, Asian and “other” in this Missouri study, additional research may be prudent to verify the results of this study. With the significance of ethnicity provided by this research, however, it would be logical to assume that the more diverse a college or university campus is, the lower its level of crime. As discussed earlier, the student body of the community college nation-wide is indeed more diverse, with an over 35% distribution of minority students (AACC, 2009). The percentage of minorities attending all degree-granting higher education institutions in the U.S. is roughly 32% (NCES, 2009).

Given the above significance of age, gender and ethnicity—the three variables intrinsic to the student—Null Hypothesis 1 was rejected.

Null Hypothesis 2 (H₀₂)

The second null hypothesis states: “Elements of institutional culture extrinsic to the college student, such as the type of institution, type and location of student residence, and size of population base supporting the institution, do *not* influence their perception of crime severity.”

Perhaps the greatest surprise emerging from the testing of data collected by this research was the absence of statistical significance between the CPS means of respondents from the two types of institution. Not only did the independent-samples *t*-test reveal the difference in means as not statistically significant, but multiple regression analysis also excluded the variable of *institution type* from the prediction model. Though community college respondents had a higher mean CPS (58.03 vs. 56.19), the difference in means, at least for the purpose of this study, was not considered statistically significant. This was surprising indeed, given the results seen in the treatment of demographic data, where the differences of means observed between levels of

variables associated with these two types of institutions paint a different picture. For example, if the gender composition of respondents in this study more closely resembled that found at each of these two types of institutions, might the resulting CPS scores have shifted results to the point that *type of institution* would have been identified as a significant predictor variable, with a significant difference between means? The results indicate, however, that age, gender and ethnicity are the primary determinants of CPS score, not institution attended.

Another unexpected result yielded by this study dealt with *type and location of residence*. Despite the intriguing results of descriptive statistics gathered from demographic data discussed earlier, a one-way ANOVA test using data from all respondents ($N = 262$) revealed that differences among the means statistically were not significant. In addition, multiple regression analysis showed type and location of residence was not included as a significant predictor variable in any of the models ($N = 262$, $N = 144$ for community colleges, and $N = 118$ for university samples).

A closer look at this variable, however, yielded different results. When new variables were created by combining the two types of off-campus residence into a new variable, and the two types of on-campus residence into another, subsequent testing using an independent-samples *t*-test resulted in statistically significant results ($t(260) = -2.472$, $p = .045$). To summarize, *location of residence*, on-campus versus off-campus, does impact student CPS scores, with respondents living off-campus having a higher mean CPS score, and thus demonstrating a higher sensitivity to crime severity, than their on-campus counterparts.

While this finding supports the argument that public universities experience more campus crime because they have more students living in residence halls and fraternities, it does not explain the difference in crime levels between community colleges and public universities that

remain after totals are adjusted for residence hall crimes. It would appear feasible that such a difference could be explained by the difference in the student-intrinsic variables discussed previously. Indeed, even with the creation of the new levels of residence (on-campus and off-campus), that new student-extrinsic variable did not appear as a predictor in the subsequently run regression analysis.

Another finding that was rather unexpected to this researcher, dealt with the student-extrinsic element of *size of population base*. As previously mentioned in Chapter 4, a one-way ANOVA determined that differences among the means are statistically significant, and a post-hoc test revealed that Class 1 differed significantly with both remaining categories. Statistically, these tests reject H_0 . The fact that the size of population base impacts student perceptions of crime was not actually unexpected. The surprise was that based on overall data ($N = 262$), the larger the population base was, the higher the CPS mean scores. Of particular interest was the fact that descriptive statistics revealed the CPS mean for both types of institution in Class 1 (over 300,000) was the highest within their respective institutional type: 60.08 for STLCC, and 60.40 for UMSL. A post-hoc test using Tukey HSD with overall data confirmed Class 1 as significantly different from Classes 2 and 3.

Another interesting aspect of this assessment is that the CPS mean difference between types of institution for Class 1 (0.32) is lower than either Class 2 (2.95) or Class 3 (.69), meaning a more homogenous student perception in the largest urban setting, regardless of institution type. Are students from larger population bases more sensitive to crime because they have witnessed more of it? Or are these particular institutions doing a better job of sensitizing their students to crime as a part of their institutional culture, given their population base?

In concluding discussion of H_02 , and the impact of student-extrinsic variables, while differences in means regarding the *type of institution* and *type and location of residence* were not seen to be statistically significant, additional testing for *location of residence*, and testing of the variable *size of population base* supporting the institution provided significant results. This null hypothesis was therefore, rejected.

Null Hypothesis 3 (H_03)

The final null hypothesis states: “Predictors of crime severity perceptions do *not* differ for students at community colleges and public four-year universities.” To obtain an assessment which would respond to H_03 , multiple regression analysis was conducted using community college and four-year public university data separately.

While earlier regression results using all data resulted in a model with the three student-intrinsic variables of *age*, *gender* and *ethnicity*, institution-specific results were in part unexpected. Results for community college data showed *gender* and *age* to be the only two variables emerging for this model, while *gender* and *ethnicity* were the variables used in the university model. Though community colleges are ethnically more diverse, at least in this current research there is no significant difference between the CPS means of the ethnicities represented. This observation deserves further analysis in that it may still point to a difference in institutional culture between the two. While community colleges have a more diverse student body, because ethnicity is not a significant predictor in the regression model, does the community college student body therefore represent a more uniform or standardized group of students than their university counterpart?

Historically, universities have attracted a certain type of student by offering the ability to identify with fraternities, sororities, athletic teams, and numerous other social organizations.

Perhaps the fact that community colleges place less of an emphasis on these types of student divisions (or equally as likely, community college students have less money to participate), actually serves as a strength resulting in a student body that concentrates more on academics and less on extracurricular, potentially divisive activities. Indeed, these are the activities and organizations which create subcultures within the institutional culture as described by Clark in Chapter Two (Clark & Trow, n.d.). Student identification with subcultures may detract from institutional attempts to create a culture of crime prevention and deterrence.

Perhaps this is an issue public university administrators need to consider in their attempt to reduce campus crime. In other words, do they need to consider creating a more cohesive, less divided student body? While this proposal may seem contrary to the notion of students finding themselves through socialization, there may be other healthy forms of socialization not associated with dividing the campus into numerous subdivisions or subcultures.

It is significant that the regression analysis by institution type revealed age as a significant predictor variable for community college respondent CPS, while it was not significant for public university results. As related earlier, a Tukey HSD post-hoc test revealed that the CPS mean associated with age category of “18 to 20” was significantly different from age group “25 and older”. On the average, older students in this study provided higher CPS scores, revealing a greater sensitivity for crime. In addition, the average student age at community colleges is higher than at public universities, both in this study and according to national statistics (AACC, 2009). Given these results, it is probable that age and gender in combination play a significant role in the difference between the level of crime experienced on university and community college campuses.

As a result of the statistical data stated above, H_03 was rejected. The results of this study reveal that predictors of crime perception indeed vary between students at community colleges and those at four-year public universities, though probably not as a result of the institution attended.

Table 16 provides a summary of findings from results of the research conducted in this study.

Table 16

Summary of Findings

Null Hypothesis	Results	Methods	Findings
H_{01}	Rejected	Multiple Regression	gender, age, ethnicity
(age)		One-way ANOVA	$F(2, 250)=3.436, p=.034$
(gender)		Independent-samples t -Test	$t(252)=5.636, p=.000$
(ethnicity)		One-way ANOVA	$F(4, 256)=4.387, p=.002$
H_{02}	Rejected	Multiple Regression	(no predictors included)
(institution)		Independent-samples t -Test	$t(260)=1.653, p=.100$
(residence)		One-way ANOVA	$F(3, 258)=2.007, p=.113$
(residence)		Independent-samples t -Test	$t(260) = -2.472, p = .045$
(pop. base)		One-way ANOVA	$F(2, 259)=6.004, p=.003$
H_{03}	Rejected	Multiple Regression, 2-yr	gender, age
		Multiple Regression, 4-yr	gender, ethnicity

Additional Analysis

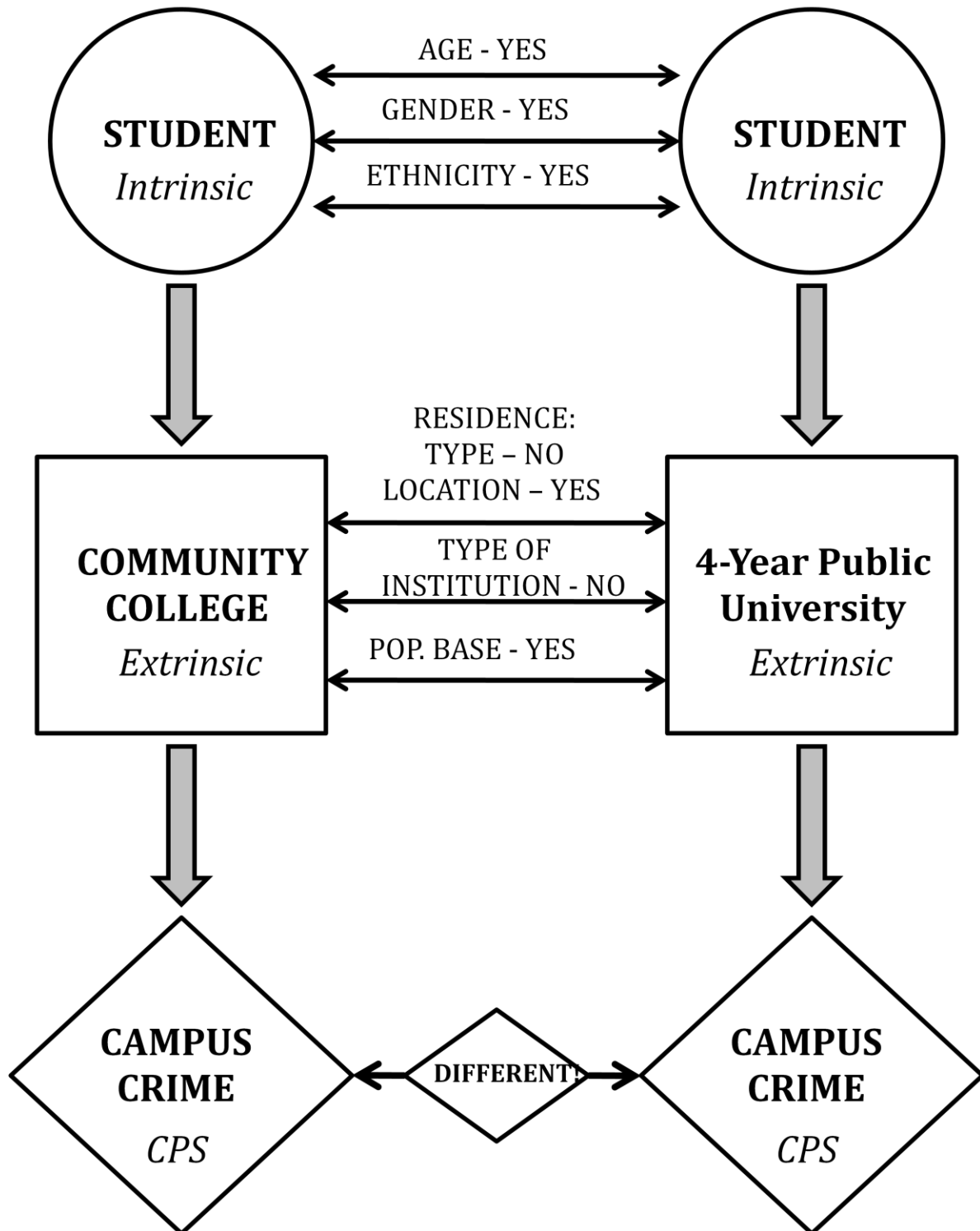
As detailed in Chapter 4, a supplemental assessment of the role of gender in crime perceptions was conducted, using gender-paired scenarios included in the survey. In the first

scenario, with male-on-male violence, the female mean was greater. In the second scenario, with female-on-female violence, both means are lower than with male-on-male violence, but the female response was again higher than the male.

The second set of paired scenarios involved college students having sex with a minor of the opposite sex, with gender of the perpetrator and victim switched in the paired scenario. While the mean female score was higher in both instances, as with the first pair of scenarios crime perception scores were higher for both genders for the scenario in which the male was the perpetrator. This possibly reflects a bias against the male gender as perpetrator with regard to perception of crime severity. Such a perception is apparently held by both male and female respondents.

The above assessment, revealing a difference in the way men and women view criminal behavior, ties directly back to theoretical discourse included in Chapter 2 of this study. Gender, as well as age and ethnicity, were discussed along with student-extrinsic variables, in the earlier discussions of the theoretical and literary baseline for this research. Figure 4 below, provides a visual overview of what the results of this study imply with regard to a possible explanation for the difference in the level of campus crimes on community college and public university campuses. Implications this research has for relevant theory and literature will be covered in the section that follows.

Figure 4. Influences on Student Perceptions of Crime



Implications for Theory and Literature

The results of this research present important implications for theory and literature concerning college students and campus crime. As discussed in the second chapter of this study, theoretical underpinnings are found in moral development theory and (college) student change theory and models. To restate, the primary interest of this study centers around the noticeable difference in the number of crimes committed on public university campuses, versus crimes on community college campuses. Does that fact translate to a significant difference in perceptions about crime and criminal behavior on the part of the students or the type of students at these two different types of institutions?

Concerning institutional differences, Chapter Two opens with a discussion regarding Pascarella and Terenzini's research of the effect attendance at different college *types* has on student development of attitudes, values, and moral reasoning. Pascarella's *General Model for Assessing Change* includes explicit consideration of both an institution's structural characteristics and its environment (Pascarella, 1985). Indeed, the institutional characteristics of four-year public universities and community colleges at times reveal a stark contrast, as discussed in the second chapter. However, statistical results of this study do not reflect a significant level of institutional difference with regard to respondent CPS scores when using type of institution as a predictor variable. The exception to this observation may be on-campus living, which might be considered a factor of university life. However the analysis conducted here has not allowed the researcher to determine the extent of this factor's influence.

Throughout the theoretical literature and research considered in Chapter Two, the term "structural characteristics" typically includes student residence. With regard to the *General Model for Assessing Change*, the significance placed on the institutional characteristic of

“percent residential” is supported by this study when the location of student residence is divided between off-campus and on-campus.

In a like manner, Weidman’s *Model of Undergraduate Socialization* contends that during the collegiate experience, social “normative contexts,” to include institutional size and type of residence, influence student values. Again, in assessing the impact the location and type of residence has on student CPS scores, this study determined that the variable including the four levels yielded no significant difference. However, when classified simply as on-campus or off-campus, student residence revealed that a significance does exist, supporting that variable in the Weidman model. This phenomenon deserves further investigation.

The issue of on-campus residence could be related to the idea that peer influence weighs heavily on college students. Tinto’s *Longitudinal Model of Institutional Departure* is largely concerned with influences exerted socially by peers and faculty at an institution (1993). While this current study did not consider the role faculty might play in student perceptions of crime severity, peer influence might be revealed in the scores of respondents living in dormitories or Greek houses. Again, while initial statistical analysis revealed no significant difference between the four levels of type and location of residence, the consideration of off-campus housing and on-campus housing (which includes both residence halls and Greek houses) demonstrated a significant difference between the means. Thus, the results of this current research could lend additional credence to the weight of peer influence on student values and perceptions.

The parental influence on student outcomes was also an important part of Weidman’s model. While demographics demonstrated a higher level of community college students live with their parents or relatives than their public university counterparts, statistical testing did not support the idea that a significant difference exists between or among the four levels of student

residence, thus the CPS scores of respondents living with their parents or relatives did not vary significantly from the other respondents, regardless of type and location of residence.

Pascarella and Terenzini also considered that the type of student attracted by a particular institution may impact results of any study on moral reasoning (2005). Likewise, the general and student socialization models both hypothesize that students bring valuable intrinsic background characteristics with them to college (Pascarella, 1985; Weidman, 1989). While results of the statistical comparison in this study between types of institutions found no significant difference between the mean CPS scores of four-year public university students and community college students, a close look at variables intrinsic to the student revealed different results that support Pascarella and Terenzini's assertion.

Indeed, the types of students attracted by the public universities and community colleges in this study varied and may account for much of the difference seen in crime statistics. Demographics reveal a difference in average age, a slight difference in gender composition, and a more ethnically diverse composition of the community college student body. These are all intrinsic variables students bring with them into the college environment...variables which are an additive to the culture of the institution itself.

An underlying principle of moral development theory, is that an individual's moral development progresses as they mature. Moral development theory implies that by the time individuals are old enough to attend college, they are in the final stages of moral development (Kohlberg, 1972; Piaget, 1997).

Taking the issue of age one step further—i.e., moral development as it applies to college students—Pascarella and Terenzini present the following:

“The weight of evidence from a large number of studies that used different instruments and were conducted in different cultures clearly indicates that college is linked with statistically significant increases in the use of principled reasoning to judge moral issues. Upper classmen tend to show higher levels of principled reasoning than freshmen or sophomores...” (pp. 345-346, 2005).

With regard to this current research, regression analysis indeed revealed age to be one of the key predictors of crime perception scores. In addition, a test of within-group variance identified a highly significant difference between college students 18-20 years old, and their counterparts 25 years and older, with the older students having a significantly higher mean CPS score.

Based on the results of this research, when considering Pascarella and Terenzini’s statement above, a more accurate conclusion would be: “Older students tend to show higher levels of principled reasoning than their younger counterparts.” Of further consideration to this study is the fact that the average community college student is older than his or her public university counterpart, regardless of whether they are in their first or second year of college (the terms freshman and sophomore are often not used at community colleges).

Consideration of the student-intrinsic variable of gender followed age in this study. As discussed in Chapter Two, Gilligan asserted that Kohlberg’s moral development theory did not apply adequately to women, and thus developed the *Model of Women’s Moral Development*. The third and final stage of this moral development model, the “morality of nonviolence” stage, accepts nonviolence as a moral principle and the basis for female decision making (Gilligan, 1977). The significant results of statistical testing of gender data in this study tend to support Gilligan’s supposition that a difference in moral valuing indeed exists between the genders.

Finally, the student-intrinsic variable of ethnicity was addressed in the second chapter discussion of the *General Model for Assessing Change*, as one of the precollege traits that impacts student outcomes/development. It also could be argued that ethnicity should be considered as an element of Weidman's student background characteristic of *socioeconomic status*, or Tinto's pre-entry attribute of *family background*. If this be the case, then the statistical results of this current research supports all three models, as ethnicity was determined to be a significant variable in the overall prediction model for student perception of crime severity.

This study takes the three models one step further, however, demonstrating that the more diverse a student body, the higher the average crime perception score. Following this logic, campuses with greater diversity might experience lower the rates of campus crime. A more thorough examination of this phenomenon would help substantiate the possibility.

Summary of Conclusions

A key assumption of this study is that perceptions are based on a person's beliefs and values, and that these beliefs and values typically govern one's behavior. For example, a person with a very low perception of seriousness, or sensitivity to a particular crime scenario might be more likely to commit that crime than would someone who demonstrated a high sensitivity to that same crime scenario.

Using the above premise, in an effort to discern why a difference exists between the number of campus crimes committed on public university campuses, and the number committed on community college campuses, a survey of crime severity perceptions was conducted with students from both types of institution. Based on the results of data collected during this research, the following conclusions have been reached:

1. Elements of institutional culture brought by the student to college (i.e., elements intrinsic to them), influence their perception of crime severity.
 - a. With regard to age, older students are more critical of criminal acts.
 - b. With regard to gender, female students are more critical of criminal acts than their male counterparts.
 - c. With regard to ethnicity, Hispanic and Black students are more critical of criminal acts than their White counterparts.
2. Some elements of institutional culture extrinsic to the student influence their perception of crime severity.
 - a. While there is a difference in student perceptions of crime severity between students at community colleges, and those who attend public universities, the difference is not considered statistically significant when factors of age, gender and ethnicity are removed.
 - b. When comparing students who live on-campus and those who live off-campus, college students that live off-campus are more critical of criminal acts than their on-campus counterparts.
 - c. Students attending universities or community colleges in cities with a population of over 300,000, tend to be more critical of criminal behavior than do students attending those institutions in cities with less than 300,000 inhabitants.
3. The best predictors of crime severity perceptions among college students differ for community colleges and universities. While gender and age are the best predictors

for community college participants, gender and ethnicity are significant predictors for respondents attending universities.

Recommendations for Further Research

In light of the implications this research has for relevant theory and literature, and given the conclusions provided above, the following issues are recommended for further study:

1. As discussed early in this study, participation in sports or athletics was not considered as a variable in this particular study. While research regarding university campus crimes such as rape and other second-hand alcohol-related crimes frequently considered athletics as a main variable (Benedict and Crosset, 1993; Dowdall and Wechsler, 2002; Loelear, 2003), the fact that community colleges in Missouri have rather limited athletic programs led to the decision not to include it as a predictor variable. A follow-up study may wish to conduct a similar perception survey among students at both types of institution, with popular sports programs. Sports fans and players alike represent a pool of students that could provide valuable data for any future crime perception study.
2. While ethnicity was shown to be a significant predictor of CPS scores for public universities, a more equitable sampling could yield more reliable results. A larger and more equitable sample of the five levels of ethnicity would overcome questions regarding the low sample sizes (N) for Hispanic, Asian and “other” respondent levels participating in this study. Use of a deliberate sampling method for the ethnic levels at each institution in states with broader ethnic diversity would strengthen statistical results.

3. Related to the above, additional research regarding the ethnic distribution of a student body and perceptions of crime severity could clarify the impact diversity has on campus crime. A comparison of results from universities of varying levels of student body diversity, or likewise, a study of multiple community colleges with varying levels of ethnic distribution, could further identify the influence that diversity as a variable has on crime perceptions and thus campus crime.
4. Deliberate sampling for a more equitable mix of on-campus residence could provide better representation by Greek house residents, which was represented by a relatively small sample size in this study. A similar study focusing on on-campus types of residence, or possibly a survey seeking differences between sororities and fraternities for a gender comparison, could provide valuable results.
5. A study using deliberate sampling methods to ensure a gender mix proportional to that found on each of the two different types of institutions would provide a more realistic calculation of the difference between types of institution. When considering differences between the two types of institution, the attempted 50/50 gender mix of this study may have negated an institutional effect caused by the fact that community colleges have a higher distribution of female students than do public universities. A proportional sampling would overcome this issue.
6. According to the student change theories of Pascarella, Weidman and Tinto, and given Pascarella and Terenzini's assertion that upper classmen tend to show higher levels of principled reasoning than freshmen or sophomores, this researcher would recommend that a longitudinal study be conducted using the crime severity instrument for students at both community colleges and public universities. This

- would help answer the question of whether CPS scores for students progression through community college programs experience the same rate of CPS change as do their public university counterparts. An alternative might be to survey students of all four class levels, freshmen through senior years, comparing CPS scores of the three age categories within each class level. Results would determine the significance of student age versus level of education.
7. When considering the issue of campus diversity, a question surfaced regarding the possibility that the community college student body may represent a more uniform or standardized group of students than their university counterparts. A future study assessing variations in crime perception scores for students that focuses on internal institutional divisions or subcultures could provide valuable information regarding this question.
 8. Finally, because this study did not consider the role faculty might play in student perceptions of crime severity, subsequent research including faculty influence as a variable, and using mixed method research could provide an additional element of understanding as to why campus crime differs between the two types of institutions.

Closing Remarks

As can be seen from the above recommendations for future research, while this study has provided new insight and understanding into the influence elements of institutional culture have on college students, much remains to be done. Although statistically there may be no overall significant difference between the CPS scores of students attending public universities and community colleges, this study has shown that when assessing the separate variables, differences between the types of students attending these two types of institutions do indeed exist.

Because of the difference in types of students, institutional administrators will find some programs combating campus crime to be more effective than others, depending on the type of institution. Crime awareness training at a university may be more appropriately focused on freshmen and sophomore fraternity and dormitory residents, while for a community college, requiring 18-year old male students to complete crime awareness training as part of the registration process might be a more effective use of resources. Indeed, administrators at either type of institution need to be aware that a decision to build residence halls will likely result in an increase in campus crime. However, an effective crime awareness program targeting the residents could offset the likelihood of increased crime.

In conclusion, enough of a difference exists between the institutional cultures of community colleges and public universities to warrant that future research, regarding campus crime or another topic, take into account the differences that exist between these two institutions and their students. Doing so will provide a more accurate assessment of many higher education issues.

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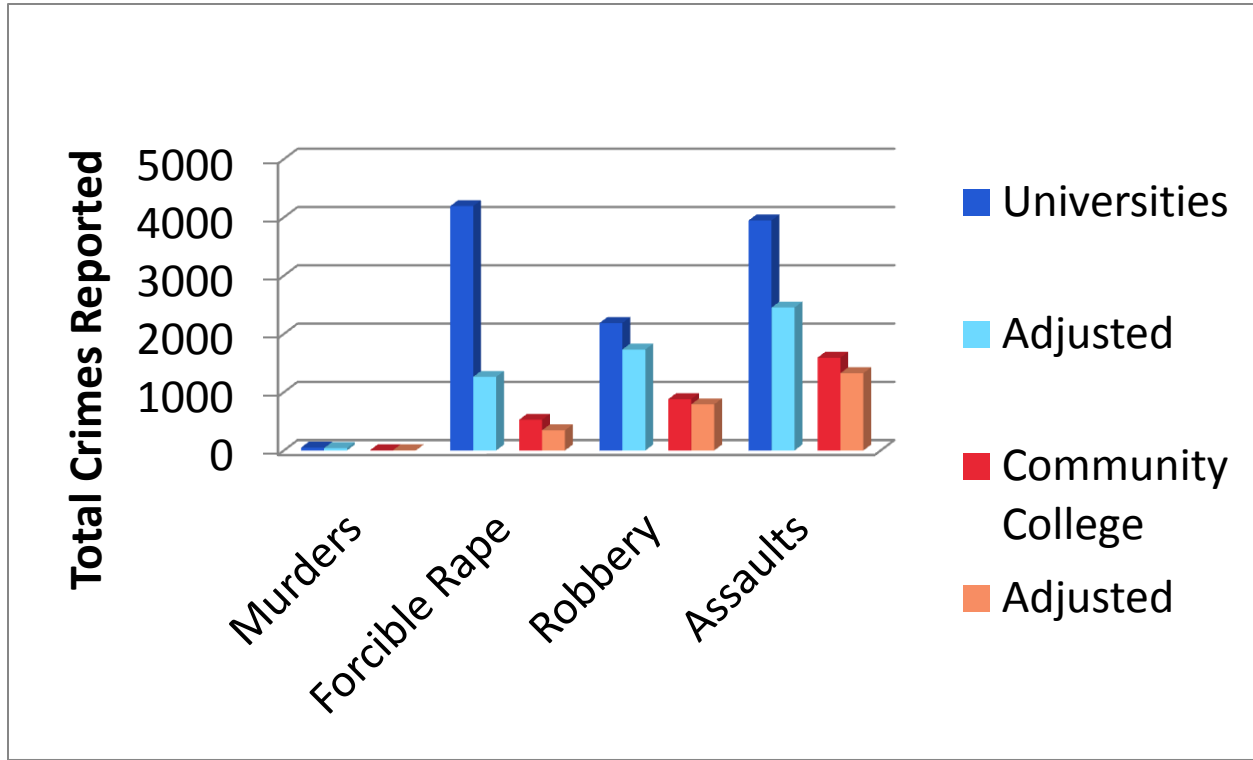
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Appendix A

U. S. Department of Education Campus Crime Totals: 2005-2007



(2005-2007 adjusted totals equal on-campus crimes minus residence hall incidents)

Total Violent Campus Crimes by Institution and Year

Crime	Type of Institution	2005	2006	2007
Murder	Public, 4-year or above	4	5	41
	Public, 2-year	2	0	1
Forcible Rape	Public, 4-year or above	1402	1399	1393
	Public, 2-year	170	174	183
Robbery	Public, 4-year or above	741	708	738
	Public, 2-year	272	307	302
Assault	Public, 4-year or above	1298	1351	1299
	Public, 2-year	519	570	503

(U.S. Department of Education, 2009)

Appendix B

Respondent Cover Letter

(date)

Dear Respondent,

I am a doctoral student in the College of Education at the University of Missouri-St. Louis, and I am conducting a survey of college student perceptions of crime severity. The objective of this research is to attempt to understand whether or not perceptions vary depending on the type of institution attended, as well as various characteristics of the respondent. Through your participation, I hope to understand more about how the institutional culture of colleges and universities may influence student perceptions of campus crime.

Enclosed with this letter is a brief survey that first asks several questions about you. This is followed by thirteen scenarios of criminal activity taking place on a college campus, which you will rate according to your perception of the level of seriousness of the crime, on a scale of 1 (least serious) to 6 (most serious).

This survey is completely anonymous. If you choose to participate, do not write your name on the questionnaire. I do not need to know who you are and no one will know whether you participated in this study. You have the right not to answer any question(s) you do not want to answer, and nothing you say on the questionnaire will in any way influence the grade you will receive in the course you are attending. Your participation will constitute consent to have your responses used in my study. If you are not at least 18 years of age, do not complete the survey. Return it to your instructor.

I hope you will take a few minutes to complete this questionnaire. Campus crime is of growing concern to American institutions of higher learning, and your participation might help identify factors that could lead to new policies to reduce this problem. Again, your participation is voluntary and there is no penalty if you do not participate.

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about participating in this study, you may contact me at (417) 447-8197, or at lundstrl@otc.edu. If you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, you may contact the University of Missouri-St. Louis, Office of Research Administration by mail at 341 Woods Hall, One University Boulevard, St. Louis, MO 63121-4400, by phone at (314) 516-5899, or by e-mail at ora@umsl.edu. This study was approved by the UMSL Institutional Review Board (#091012L) on the date of 10/12/2009.

Sincerely,

Loren M. Lundstrom

Loren M. Lundstrom
Assistant Dean for Arts & Letters
Ozarks Technical Community College

Appendix C
Crime Severity Survey

PART ONE: *Some questions about you.*

Please answer the following questions. Circle or check where appropriate.

Name of College/University _____

Date _____ Age _____ Gender: Female / Male

Ethnicity: ___ Asian ___ Black American ___ Hispanic ___ White ___ Other

Which semester of college are you in? _____ (first, second, third...)

Where do you live? ___ Dormitory or Residence Housing ___ Fraternity or Sorority House
___ Off-Campus Independent Residence or Apartment ___ Off-Campus with Parent or Relative

PART TWO: *Instructions.*

Rate the severity of the following scenarios of criminal activity using a scale of 1 to 6, with 1 being the **least** serious, and 6 being the **most** serious. Circle your answer. When you have completed the survey, please return it to your instructor.

PART THREE: *Crime Scenarios.*

Please rate the following crime scenarios according to their level of severity.

1. Two male students get in an argument over a female student. One of the men, an ex-boyfriend of the female student, kicks the other male student, breaking three of his ribs.
1 2 3 4 5 6

2. The ex-boyfriend of a female student had sex with her in her residence hall room while she was unconscious after a night of drinking alcohol.
1 2 3 4 5 6

3. In a campus parking lot, a student is forced out of her car, and the thief flees the scene driving the stolen car.
1 2 3 4 5 6

4. A 19-year-old female student has sex with a 15-year-old juvenile male in the student's apartment. There is no use of force or threat of force. The statutory age of consent is 16.
1 2 3 4 5 6
5. Two groups of students get into an argument in a campus parking lot. Jim punches Joe and causes him to hit his head on a concrete sidewalk, inflicting severe head trauma. Two days later, Joe dies.
1 2 3 4 5 6
6. Two female students get in a fight over a male student. One of the women, the ex-girlfriend of the male student, hits the other female student in the mouth, chipping two of her teeth and lacerating a lip, which requires stitches.
1 2 3 4 5 6
7. A student reported that audio CD's in his vehicle were stolen when he forgot to lock his car door.
1 2 3 4 5 6
8. An 18-year-old male student showed up for classes one morning intoxicated.
1 2 3 4 5 6
9. A 20-year-old female was caught defacing a statue of the college founder with red paint.
1 2 3 4 5 6
10. A 21-year-old male student is cited for having .32 caliber revolver concealed in his book bag in violation of state law. He claimed he was protecting himself from a bully.
1 2 3 4 5 6
11. A 19-year-old male student has sex with a 15-year-old juvenile female in the student's apartment. There is no use of force or threat of force. The statutory age of consent is 16.
1 2 3 4 5 6
12. A non-student is shot and killed during an armed robbery on a sidewalk in front of a campus building.
1 2 3 4 5 6
13. A female student was forcibly raped by an unidentified male while jogging along a campus trail.
1 2 3 4 5 6

Appendix D

Instructor Instructions

(date)

Dear Instructor,

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this survey! The objective of this research is to attempt to understand whether institutional culture—to include the variables of student gender, age, ethnicity, and location of residence, as well as population base supporting the institution, and type of institution—influence student perceptions of campus crime severity. Hopefully, the results of this study will assist institutional administrators in their efforts to better understand and help prevent campus crime.

Enclosed you will find copies of a brief survey, each with a cover letter to the respondent explaining the nature of the survey, and ensuring anonymity. The survey itself consists of a single, double-sided page with a short demographic section followed by thirteen scenarios of criminal activity taking place on a college campus. Your students are asked to rate each scenario according to their perception of the level of seriousness of the crime, on a scale of 1 (least serious) to 6 (most serious).

Participants should have completed at least one semester of college coursework, and be at least 18 years old. If possible, please attempt to distribute half of the surveys to female students, and half to male students. This survey is intended to be anonymous. Respondents should not include their name on the questionnaire. In addition, they have the right not to answer any question(s) they do not want to answer, and if they decide not to participate, that's fine too.

If you have any questions or concerns about administering this survey, you may contact me at (417) 447-8197, or at lundstrl@otc.edu. If any respondents have questions about their rights as a research subject, the cover letter instructs them to contact the University of Missouri-St. Louis, Office of Research Administration by mail at 341 Woods Hall, One University Boulevard, St. Louis, MO 63121-4400, by phone at (314) 516-5899, or by e-mail at ora@umsl.edu. This study was approved by the UMSL Institutional Review Board (#091012L) on the date of 10/12/2009.

Again, I'd like to thank you for agreeing to help administer this survey. Campus crime is of growing concern to American institutions of higher learning, and your assistance will help identify factors that could lead to new policies to reduce this problem.

Thanks again for your help!

Loren M. Lundstrom
Assistant Dean for Arts & Letters
Ozarks Technical Community College

Appendix E
Institutional Information

INSTITUTION	TYPE	C 3	C 2	C 1	Dorm	Greek	Sport	Pop	Location
Moberly Area	CC	X			Y	N	Y	14K	Moberly
Missouri S & T	4Y	X			Y	Y	Y	18K	Rolla
Ozarks Tech	CC		X		N	N	N	150K	Springfield
Missouri State	4Y		X		Y	Y	Y	150K	Springfield
STLCC-Forest Park	CC			X	N	N	Y	350K	St. Louis
UMSL	4Y			X	Y	Y	Y	350K	St. Louis
		≤75K	≤300K	>300K					

Appendix F
Scenario Responses

Scenario #1

“Two male students get in an argument over a female student. One of the men, an ex-boyfriend of the female student, kicks the other male student, breaking three of his ribs.”

	1 Least Serious	2	3	4	5	6 Most Serious	Mean CPS
STLCC	4.0%	0.0%	4.0%	18.0%	34.0%	40.0%	4.98
OTC	0.0%	6.5%	2.2%	34.8%	41.3%	15.2%	4.57
MACC	2.1%	4.2%	10.4%	37.5%	35.4%	10.4%	4.31
UMSL	0.0%	4.0%	4.0%	20.0%	32.0%	40.0%	5.00
MSU	1.8%	0.0%	8.8%	42.1%	36.8%	10.5%	4.44
MS&T	2.8%	5.6%	13.9%	36.1%	38.9%	2.8%	4.11

*Note: Community College $m = 4.63$; Public University $m = 4.36$

Scenario #2

“The ex-boyfriend of a female student had sex with her in her residence hall room while she was unconscious after a night of drinking alcohol.”

	1 Least Serious	2	3	4	5	6 Most Serious	Mean CPS
STLCC	2.0%	0.0%	4.0%	2.0%	18.0%	74.0%	5.56
OTC	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	28.3%	71.7%	5.72
MACC	0.0%	0.0%	4.2%	4.2%	22.9%	68.8%	5.56
UMSL	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.0%	12.0%	84.0%	5.80
MSU	3.5%	0.0%	0.0%	7.0%	29.8%	59.6%	5.39
MS&T	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.8%	36.1%	61.1%	5.58

*Note: Community College $m = 5.61$; Public University $m = 5.53$

Scenario #3

“In a campus parking lot, a student is forced out of her car, and the thief flees the scene driving the stolen car.”

	1 Least Serious	2	3	4	5	6 Most Serious	Mean CPS
STLCC	0.0%	4.0%	2.0%	18.0%	16.0%	60.0%	5.26
OTC	0.0%	2.2%	0.0%	19.6%	45.7%	32.6%	5.07
MACC	0.0%	2.1%	8.3%	12.5%	47.9%	29.2%	4.94
UMSL	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	32.0%	12.0%	56.0%	5.24
MSU	0.0%	5.3%	5.3%	24.6%	26.3%	38.6%	4.88
MS&T	0.0%	0.0%	8.3%	30.6%	41.7%	19.4%	4.72

*Note: Community College $m = 5.09$; Public University $m = 4.91$

Scenario #4

“A 19-year-old female student has sex with a 15-year-old juvenile male in the student’s apartment. There is no use of force or threat of force. The statutory age of consent is 16.”

	1 Least Serious	2	3	4	5	6 Most Serious	Mean CPS
STLCC	8.0%	14.0%	10.0%	28.0%	16.0%	24.0%	4.02
OTC	8.7%	17.4%	13.0%	23.9%	26.1%	10.9%	3.74
MACC	14.6%	6.3%	16.7%	20.8%	25.0%	16.7%	3.85
UMSL	12.0%	12.0%	8.0%	32.0%	12.0%	24.0%	3.92
MSU	8.8%	19.3%	36.8%	8.8%	19.3%	7.0%	3.32
MS&T	8.3%	27.8%	11.1%	30.6%	16.7%	5.6%	3.36

*Note: Community College $m = 3.88$; Public University $m = 3.46$

Scenario #5

“Two groups of students get into an argument in a campus parking lot. Jim punches Joe and causes him to hit his head on a concrete sidewalk, inflicting severe head trauma. Two days later, Joe dies.”

	1 Least Serious	2	3	4	5	6 Most Serious	Mean CPS
STLCC	2.0%	0.0%	0.0%	6.0%	6.0%	84.0%	5.6
OTC	0.0%	2.2%	0.0%	6.5%	19.6%	71.7%	5.59
MACC	0.0%	4.2%	2.1%	6.3%	22.9%	64.6%	5.42
UMSL	4.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.0%	4.0%	88.0%	5.68
MSU	0.0%	0.0%	1.8%	5.3%	28.1%	64.9%	5.56
MS&T	0.0%	0.0%	2.8%	8.3%	27.8%	61.1%	5.47

*Note: Community College $m = 5.53$; Public University $m = 5.56$

Scenario #6

“Two female students get in a fight over a male student. One of the women, the ex-girlfriend of the male student, hits the other female student in the mouth, chipping two of her teeth and lacerating a lip, which requires stitches.”

	1 Least Serious	2	3	4	5	6 Most Serious	Mean CPS
STLCC	2.0%	4.0%	10.0%	28.0%	26.0%	30.0%	4.62
OTC	0.0%	8.7%	15.2%	39.1%	32.6%	4.3%	4.09
MACC	4.2%	6.3%	18.8%	41.7%	22.9%	6.3%	3.92
UMSL	4.0%	0.0%	12.0%	28.0%	28.0%	28.0%	4.60
MSU	3.6%	1.8%	8.9%	58.9%	23.2%	3.6%	4.07
MS&T	0.0%	11.1%	16.7%	27.8%	38.9%	5.6%	4.11

*Note: Community College $m = 4.22$; Public University $m = 4.16$

Scenario #7

“A student reported that audio CD’s in his vehicle were stolen when he forgot to lock his car door.”

	1 Least Serious	2	3	4	5	6 Most Serious	Mean CPS
STLCC	22.0%	24.0%	22.0%	18.0%	8.0%	6.0%	2.84
OTC	26.1%	28.3%	28.3%	10.9%	4.3%	2.2%	2.46
MACC	33.3%	31.3%	18.8%	14.6%	2.1%	0.0%	2.21
UMSL	8.0%	24.0%	36.0%	28.0%	4.0%	0.0%	2.96
MSU	26.8%	35.7%	23.2%	8.9%	1.8%	3.6%	2.34
MS&T	22.2%	33.3%	22.2%	13.9%	5.6%	2.8%	2.56

*Note: Community College $m = 2.51$; Public University $m = 2.52$

Scenario #8

“An 18-year-old male student showed up for classes one morning intoxicated.”

	1 Least Serious	2	3	4	5	6 Most Serious	Mean CPS
STLCC	22.0%	18.0%	26.0%	10.0%	12.0%	10.0%	2.96
OTC	13.0%	37.0%	30.4%	17.4%	2.2%	0.0%	2.59
MACC	27.1%	29.2%	18.8%	14.6%	10.4%	0.0%	2.52
UMSL	28.0%	20.0%	20.0%	12.0%	12.0%	8.0%	2.84
MSU	21.4%	39.3%	19.6%	16.1%	3.6%	0.0%	2.41
MS&T	16.7%	30.6%	27.8%	40.0%	2.8%	2.8%	2.69

*Note: Community College $m = 2.69$; Public University $m = 2.57$

Scenario #9

“A 20-year-old female was caught defacing a statue of the college founder with red paint.”

	1 Least Serious	2	3	4	5	6 Most Serious	Mean CPS
STLCC	8.0%	16.0%	32.0%	22.0%	10.0%	12.0%	3.46
OTC	2.2%	28.3%	37.0%	10.9%	17.4%	4.3%	3.26
MACC	8.3%	25.0%	31.3%	22.9%	4.2%	8.3%	3.15
UMSL	8.0%	12.0%	24.0%	28.0%	20.0%	8.0%	3.64
MSU	5.4%	23.2%	26.8%	26.8%	14.3%	3.6%	3.32
MS&T	5.6%	27.8%	30.6%	22.2%	11.1%	2.8%	3.14

*Note: Community College $m = 3.29$; Public University $m = 3.31$

Scenario #10

“A 21-year-old male student is cited for having .32 caliber revolver concealed in his book bag in violation of state law. He claimed he was protecting himself from a bully.”

	1 Least Serious	2	3	4	5	6 Most Serious	Mean CPS
STLCC	4.0%	0.0%	8.0%	6.0%	30.0%	52.0%	5.14
OTC	0.0%	2.2%	10.9%	8.7%	43.5%	34.8%	4.98
MACC	4.2%	0.0%	10.4%	20.8%	22.9%	41.7%	4.83
UMSL	4.0%	0.0%	8.0%	20.0%	28.0%	40.0%	4.88
MSU	0.0%	7.1%	5.4%	28.6%	41.1%	17.9%	4.57
MS&T	2.8%	0.0%	16.7%	25.0%	36.1%	19.4%	4.5

*Note: Community College $m = 4.99$; Public University $m = 4.58$

Scenario #11

“A 19-year-old male student has sex with a 15-year-old juvenile female in the student’s apartment. There is no use of force or threat of force. The statutory age of consent is 16.”

	1 Least Serious	2	3	4	5	6 Most Serious	Mean CPS
STLCC	8.0%	12.0%	2.0%	22.0%	22.0%	32.0%	4.28
OTC	6.5%	15.2%	13.0%	28.3%	21.7%	15.2%	3.89
MACC	14.6%	6.3%	16.7%	14.6%	29.2%	18.8%	3.94
UMSL	8.0%	12.0%	4.0%	40.0%	8.0%	28.0%	4.12
MSU	5.4%	14.3%	33.9%	14.3%	23.2%	8.9%	3.63
MS&T	0.0%	25.0%	11.1%	25.0%	25.0%	13.9%	3.92

*Note: Community College $m = 4.04$; Public University $m = 3.79$

Scenario #12

“A non-student is shot and killed during an armed robbery on a sidewalk in front of a campus building.”

	1 Least Serious	2	3	4	5	6 Most Serious	Mean CPS
STLCC	2.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%	12.0%	84.0%	5.74
OTC	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.3%	15.2%	80.4%	5.76
MACC	0.0%	0.0%	2.1%	4.2%	10.4%	83.3%	5.75
UMSL	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.0%	8.0%	88.0%	5.84
MSU	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	7.1%	21.4%	71.4%	5.64
MS&T	0.0%	0.0%	5.6%	2.8%	16.7%	75.0%	5.61

*Note: Community College $m = 5.75$; Public University $m = 5.63$

Scenario #13

“A female student was forcibly raped by an unidentified male while jogging along a campus trail.”

	1 Least Serious	2	3	4	5	6 Most Serious	Mean CPS
STLCC	2.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	8.0%	90.0%	5.82
OTC	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	6.5%	93.5%	5.93
MACC	2.1%	0.0%	0.0%	2.1%	8.3%	87.5%	5.77
UMSL	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	8.0%	92.0%	5.92
MSU	1.8%	0.0%	0.0%	1.8%	8.9%	87.5%	5.79
MS&T	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	13.9%	86.1%	5.86

*Note: Community College $m = 5.84$; Public University $m = 5.79$