

PERCEPTIONS OF CAMPUS SECURITY AND SAFETY AT
HERZING UNIVERSITY CAMPUS, MINNESOTA

A Dissertation

Submitted to the
Faculty of Argosy University Twin Cities
College of Education

The Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

By

Matthew J. Stiehm

Argosy University Twin Cities

September, 2010

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Abstract

This study examined faculty and staff perceptions of safety at a for profit educational institute. The faculty and staff of higher education institutions are less transient than student populations at most colleges. The specific location of this study was Herzing University, located in Crystal, Minnesota, which is a second tier suburb of Minneapolis. The researcher used material that had been created and piloted by Robert Costello in his dissertation from Dowling University. Survey Monkey was used to administer a 16 question survey, and interviews were used to collect data from the five functional managers. Themes were developed using the interview data.

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DEDICATION

I would like to thank my wife Anna, my daughter Natalie, and my son Owen for their love and support on this long journey. I would also like to thank my parents Peter and Kathy Stiehm, older brother Andrew Stiehm M.D. and twin sister Molly Lindmeyer for putting up with me for the past few years. Finally I would like to thank all of Argosy's professors, staff and other graduate students for putting up with my unique way of thinking. Anna I did it. Natalie and Owen, I am done.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Purpose Statement

Statement Of Problem

Colleges and universities serve a large population of people: students, faculty, staff, and visitors. "University and college campuses are often seen as places of learning, scholarship, and training grounds for future leaders where campus crimes are usually attributed to pranks" (Vermillion, 2006, p. 30).

Between 1995 and 2002, there were approximately 479,000 victims of crimes of violence on college campuses (Carr, 2005). Considering all of these acts of violence, what is the perception of college faculty and staff as it relates to their personal safety and the security on campus? There is and there will always be violence in society, violence is found in just about every aspect of life. The National Association of Student Personnel Administration Task Force Group on Safety and Security as cited by Roark state

A safe campus environment is one in which students, faculty, and staff are free to conduct their daily affairs, both inside and outside the classroom, without fear of physical, emotional or psychological harm. Personal safety is a basic human need that must be preserved if the mission of the university is to be pursued. (1993, p. 4)

Violence on a college campus is present, and festers, because it is a subset of the regular population. College students are generally youthful, inexperienced and do irresponsible things which might contribute to crime (Roark, 1993).

Colleges and universities are a unique part of society because these institutions of higher education support free thinking, experimentation, and expression. The

general feeling of openness on campuses, as well as the lifestyles of students create potential problems of victimization (Roark, 1993).

“Since the first documented school shooting, 30 massacres have occurred” (Olson, 2007, para. 3). “It’s important to remember that statistically campuses remain safe environments” (Owen, 2007, p. 22), however, campuses are a prime target for crime and for individuals wishing to do harm (Blake, 2006).

Crime on college campuses is on the rise. According to a study that was conducted in the 1990’s, 2,400 college campuses were surveyed, and 30 of these had a homicide. “[T]he very occurrence of homicidal behavior on college campuses sends a frightening signal that society’s ills have spilled onto [higher education] campuses” (Nichols, 1995, para. 8). On those same 2,400 college campuses, there were a total of 7,500 other violent crimes committed during the same academic year (Nichols, 1995).

criminal activity occurred on campuses prior to the 1960s. Even dating back to the 1800s, there were riots, brawls, and an occasional arson. But clearly, within the past 30 years, crime and violence have escalated on the once-safe and secure bastions of higher learning, not only in frequency but also severity. (Nichols, 1995, para. 11)

Today’s society is getting more violent and we need to prepare for it (Stiehm, 2007). Each college and university has crime, whether it is a violent serious crime like the Virginia Tech mass murder or simple petty theft.

According to Rush (2007) colleges and universities live in a 24 hour operation that runs 7 days a week. Colleges and universities security departments’ focus shifted after the Virginia Tech incident from drinking to mental

health issues. The schools went into a proactive response and started to do some in depth preparedness for violent encounters (Rush, 2007).

Since the Virginia Tech shooting, school officials from around the United States have stated that campus security has been the number one question by prospective students and their parents. Parents want to know about policies and procedures to protect their children. Certainly after watching the Virginia Tech incident parents are more concerned with sending their child off to college. "But emotions tend to cloud the facts, and the truth is, the risk on campus of murder in general and mass murder in particular is so low that you almost need a course in college math to calibrate the odds" (Fox, 2007., para. 4).

Fox (2007) talked about recent events in security at colleges from 2001 to 2005. It was found that there were only 76 homicides reported in the United States to the Federal Bureau of Investigation. "Leaving aside cases involving faculty, staff or other non-students as victims, the count of undergrads and grad students murdered at school numbered in 43. That's fewer than 10 per year" (Fox, 2007, para. 5). Comparing this rate with any large metropolitan area, it is found to be a significantly smaller number. Fox (2007) believed real problem and danger are in the number of students who commit suicide or die as a result of alcohol related events.

Research Questions

How do employees of a Herzing University, (Minnesota) perceive safety on campus?

What role do demographics play in perceptions of campus safety?

Herzing University

Herzing History

Herzing University originated in 1965 as a computer training center in Milwaukee, Wisconsin. The computer training center changed its name to Herzing Institute, at which time the school started to acquire other for profit educational institutions. One of the first schools purchased was the Wisconsin School of Electronics in Madison. A second name change occurred in 1996 to Herzing College; at this point it consisted of ground campuses plus an online division. Finally graduate programs were added and the school had another name change to its current iteration of Herzing University. Herzing University currently has physical campuses in Akron, OH.; Atlanta, GA.; Birmingham, AL.; Kenosha, WI.; Madison, WI.; Minneapolis, MN.; New Orleans, LA.; Omaha, NE.; and Toledo, OH. The Atlanta campus operates a satellite site in Orlando (Herzing University Catalog, 2009).

History of Herzing University Minnesota Campus

The Minnesota branch campus of Herzing University was created from the purchase of two schools. The first school was the Minneapolis Drafting School Division which was acquired by Herzing College in June of 2000. The second school purchased by Herzing College was the Lakeland Medical-Dental Academy in May of 2002. Both had long histories with the Minneapolis Drafting

School Division originally established in 1961, while the Lakeland Medical-Dental Academy established in 1958 (Herzing University Catalog, 2009).

Organizational Structure

At the Minnesota Branch campus located in Crystal, Minnesota there are five managers. There is a local president, an academic dean, and directors of career services, financial aid, and admissions. There are a total of 23 instructors listed in the 2009-2010 school catalog (Herzing University Catalog, 2009). In a personal communication with the president of the school he indicated that there are approximately 55 employees (J. Slama, personal communication, 2009).

Physical Location

Herzing University is located at 5700 West Broadway, Crystal, Minnesota. Along the northwest property line of Herzing University is residential property. Across the street to the south and south east are retail businesses including a Buffalo Wild Wings, an El Loro Mexican Restaurant, and an Arby's Restaurant. There are also other businesses located around Herzing's campus. Two blocks to the north is a city park. Herzing is located on two major county roads, County Road 8 runs east to west, while County Road 10 runs north to south (Google Maps, 2010).

Description of College

The Minnesota Campus of Herzing University “occupies a 25,000 square foot building” which has classrooms, and labs for teaching dental and medical programs (Herzing University Catalog, 2009, p. 46). The school has administrative offices as well as the functioning dental clinic (Herzing University Catalog, 2009.). The school is located in an urban area, near outdoor shopping malls. The parking for students, faculty and staff located on ground level, and the building is vaulted two stories above this.

City of Crystal

Introduction

The school is located in the City of Crystal, which is a suburb of Minneapolis, MN. The City of Crystal’s population is approximately 23,000. “According to the 2000 Census, the median age of residents is 37 years, more than 22% of those living in the City are children under age 18, and 14% of the population is over age 65” (About Crystal, 2010). The City of Crystal is surrounded by the cities of Minneapolis, Robbinsdale, Golden Valley, Minnetonka, New Hope, Brooklyn Park, and Brooklyn Center (City of Crystal, 2010).

According to data retrieved from factfinder.census.gov, the City of Crystal has 16,136 residents who are over the age of 25. The average household income is \$59, 874. There are a total of 9,834 households, of those 7,236 are owner occupied, and the median value of a home is 199,900 dollars. The city

has a racial breakdown of 82.8% white, 5.8% black, 0.6% American Indian, 5.0% Asian and 5.9% other, Hawaiian or Pacific Islander (Fact Finder, 2010).

Definition of Terms

Assault

In criminal law and tort law, the threat of use of force on another that causes that person to have a reasonable apprehension of imminent harmful or offensive contact (Garner, 1996, p. 44).

Arson

Any willful, malicious burning, attempt to burn, with or without intent to defraud, a dwelling, house, public building, motor vehicle, aircraft, or the personal property of another (Champion, 1997. p. 9).

Burglary

Unlawful entry of a structure to commit a felony or theft (Champion, 1997. p. 17).

Crime

An act of omission that the law makes punishable (Garner, 1996, p. 157).

Crime Index

The total number of eight major offenses used to measure the extent, fluctuation and distribution of crime in a given geographical area. Classifications used in the crime index are: Murder, Forcible Rape, Robbery, Aggravated Assault, Burglary, Larceny, Motor Vehicle Theft, and Arson (Champion, 2009, p.170).

Crime Rate

The number of index offenses reported for each unit of population, generally per 100,000 persons. Crime rates are computed for the communities with varying populations by dividing the number of Index Crimes by population and multiplying the result by 100,000 (Champion, 2009, p. 170).

Crimes Against Persons

A category of criminal offenses in which the perpetrator uses or threatens to use force; examples include murder, rape aggravated assault and robbery (Garner, 1996, p.158)

Crimes Against Property

A category of criminal offenses in which the perpetrator seeks to derive an unlawful benefit from – or do damage- to another's property without the use or threat of force; examples include burglary, theft, and arson (even though arson may result in injury or death) (Garner, 1996, p. 158).

Criminal

Connected with the administration of penal justice; having character of a crime. (Garner, 1996, p. 158).

Domestic Violence

Any spousal altercation or interfamilial conflict of sufficient nature to justify law enforcement intervention; spousal abuse is most frequently cited example. May involve parent-child conflict either physical or psychological (Champion, 1997, p. 44).

Dormitory

A building or large room in which many persons sleep. (Morehead, 1995, p. 209).

Firearm

A weapon that propels a missile by explosion (Morehead, 1995, p. 266)

For-Profit School

Educational institutions that are run by private, profit seeking companies or organizations (For-profit school, 2009).

Homicide

The killing of one human being by another (Garner, 1996, p.292).

Larceny

Unlawful taking, carrying, leading or riding away of property from the possession or constructive possession of another; includes shoplifting, pick pockets, thefts from motor vehicles, and thefts of motor vehicle parts or accessories (Champion, 1997, p. 71).

National Crime Victim Survey (NCVS)

Published in cooperation with the United States Bureau of Census, a random survey of 60,000 households, including 127,000 persons 12 years of age or older and 50,000 businesses. Measures crime committed against specific

victims interviewed and not necessarily reported to law enforcement officers. In the 1991 survey became known as National Crime Victimization Survey to more accurately reflect the nature of the data collected (Champion, 1997, p. 83).

Order Maintenance

Police function of preventing behavior that disturbs or threatens to disturb the public peace or that involves face-to-face conflict between two or more persons. In such situations, police exercise discretion in deciding whether a law has been broken (Champion, 1997, p. 88).

Part I Offenses

The first of two main categories of crime classes composing a universal crime classification system established for crime reporting purposes. Part I offenses are by their nature more serious and occur most frequently. The monthly tabulation of Part I offenses provides a count of "offenses known" (Champion, 2009, p. 170).

Part II Offenses

The second of two main categories of crimes classes composing a universal crime classification system established for crime reporting purposes (Champion, 2009, p. 170).

Parricide

The murdering of one's father, mother, or near relative. One who commits such a murder (Answers.com, 2010).

Robbery

The taking or attempt to take anything of value from the care, custody or control of a person or persons by force or threat of force or violence and or put the victim in fear (Champion, 1997, p. 109).

Rape, rape forcible

Traditionally, the felony of sexual intercourse forced by a man upon a woman (not his wife) against her will by the violence or threat of violence. The stipulation that the woman not be the man's wife is omitted in modern statutes. Sexual intercourse or attempted sexual intercourse with persons against their will, by force or threat of force. (Champion, 1997, p. 104).

Sexual assault or sexual battery

In modern statutes, the unlawful oral, anal, or vaginal penetration by or union with the sexual organ of another. (Champion, 1997, p. 113).

Suicide

The act of taking one's own life. (Garner, 1996, p. 605)

Uniform Crime Report (UCR)

Annual publication by Federal Bureau of Investigation that describes crime from all reporting law enforcement agencies in the United States. New format in 1988 identifies incident-based reporting compared with other reporting schemes used in past years (Champion, 1997, p. 126).

Victim

A person harmed by a crime, tort, or other wrong. (Garner, 1996, p.655) or person who has either suffered death or serious physical or mental suffering or loss of property resulting from actual or attempting criminal actions committed by others (Champion, 1997, p. 127).

Victimless crime

A crime that is considered to have no direct victims usu. Because only consenting adults are involved; examples are possession of drugs, deviant sexual intercourse between consenting adults, and prostitution. (Garner, 1996, p. 157).

Theoretical Framework**Introduction**

This study analyzed faculty and staff perceptions of safety and security at the for-profit educational institution Herzing University. Campus safety was presented and interpreted most simply by the Clery Reports, which are present on almost all college websites. This does not adequately represent the true measures of safety and security on any college campus.

Kelling and Wilson

The Broken Windows theory came out of research that was conducted by James Q. Wilson and George L. Kelling in the 1970's. During the 1970's New Jersey announced a program called "Safety and Clean Neighborhoods Program," which was originally designed to "improve the quality of life in twenty-eight cities" (Kelling & Wilson, 1982, para. 1). New Jersey provided money to the police departments to take officers out of police cars and put them on foot patrol (Kelling & Wilson, 1982). A 5 year study found that foot patrol did not reduce crime. "Despite attacks from criminological, legal and academic left, 'broken windows' theory is a robust policy option in criminal justice practice and crime prevention" (Weisburd, 2006, p. 77). The basic theory stated that if you leave a broken window in disarray, it is a sign that no one in the area cares about the community. In effect causing more vandalism to homes (broken windows) and then higher incidence of low level crimes (prostitution, thefts) would be seen in the community. This in turn results in more higher order crimes (assaults, robberies) occurring in an area, leading to a sense of fear of crime in the surrounding community (Weisburd, 2006). "Broken windows argues that disorderly conditions and behaviors are linked both to citizen fear and to serious crime" (Weisburd, 2006, p. 83).

Communities in the foot patrol areas "seemed to feel more secure than persons in other areas, and tended to believe that crime had been reduced and seemed to take fewer steps to protect themselves from crime" (Kelling & Wilson, 1982, para. 3). The communities in the foot patrols have a more positive

relationship with law enforcement. “Foot patrol has no effect on crime; it merely fools the citizens into thinking that they are safer. But in our view, and in the view of the authors of the Police Foundation study . . . , the citizens of Newark were not fooled at all” (Kelling & Wilson, 1982, para. 4).

The question asked in the research is how can a “neighborhood be safer when the crimes rate has not gone down” (Kelling & Wilson, 1982, para 5). Generally the law enforcement community needs to understand what scares people. Many individuals are scared of crime, and specifically of violent crime; but what about the “nuisance” crimes like disorderly individuals. These criminals are not the violent type, but generally create more problems. Examples of these types of nuisance crimes include “panhandlers, drunks, addicts, rowdy teenagers, prostitutes, loiterers, [and] the mentally disturbed” (Kelling & Wilson, 1982, para. 5). These crimes tend to fall under what [law enforcement] consider as order maintenance offenses.

Kelling and Wilson (1982) found that neighborhoods have different rules for acceptable behavior. Each community interacted differently with the law enforcement officers. The officers tolerate certain lower level criminal behavior as opposed to more serious crimes, the officers also dealt with infractions of the law in more informal means. The ‘mores’ and culture of the neighborhood were enforced by the individuals living in that community. As Kelling and Wilson followed the Newark foot beat officer around, they observed that the officer interacted with “regulars” and “strangers” in different manners. The “regulars” were the individuals who lived in the neighborhood and set the tone of behavior.

If the “strangers” did anything that upset the balance of the area, the police officer would then take enforcement action. This controlled the area and the community dictated what they would and would not accept in criminal and social behaviors (Kelling & Wilson, 1982).

The base for the theory came from “[s]ocial psychologists and police officers tend to agree that if a window in a building is broken *and is left unrepaired* all of the rest of the windows will soon be broken. This is true in nice neighborhoods as well as in run-down ones” (Kelling & Wilson, 1982, para. 11). The significance of the window is that “one unrepaired broken window is a signal that no one cares, and so breaking more windows costs nothing” (Kelling & Wilson, 1982, para. 11). There have been follow up studies which have returned the same results. Information found on Wikipedia.org (2010), Kelling and Wilson’s study has been replicated in New York, NY, for the Transit Police, where vandalism and graffiti were a problem. The study has also been replicated in Albuquerque, NM, the Netherlands, and Lowell, MA with the same results as Kelling and Wilson’s original study.

“The Broken Windows thesis posits that something as simple as a building with a broken window signals abandonment, a lax attitude toward property and therefore an absence of respect for the law” (Adams, 2006, para. 2). The theory goes on to say that this is the first step in any community or neighborhood’s decline. Over time the evidence of decay will continue with a downward spiral. This type of change is relatively slow but can be seen over a longitudinal time frame. It starts with a broken window, next comes trash on the lawns, graffiti and

other petty crimes. The response to this decline by drug dealers and other criminals is to commit more criminal acts, which in turn creates more decay (Adams, 2006).

Broken Windows has been used in business communities and can easily apply to college campuses. According to Adams (2006), companies (colleges) that do not deal with minor policy infractions, such as arriving to work late, will have a slippery slope and there will be ethical and moral decay as it applies to employment practices. “A college or university is like a small city – or collection of small cities” (Nolan, 2007).

Educational Significance

“There are 4,200 communities in America that we call colleges and universities” (Blake, 2006, para. 1). With this many sub-communities it is important to understand individuals’ perception of safety and security. For this research, the researcher will be using a mixed methods approach involving interviews with key administrators from Herzing University, as well as a quantitative review of a 16 question survey. Results from this study should provide evidence that campuses are perceived safe, by qualifying quantitative data with interviews of the campus administrative team.

Employees from Herzing University will receive a 16 question survey. The survey will be created and administered using the online tool Survey Monkey. The first 12 questions will be on a Likert Scale of using strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree, the final four questions will be yes or no.

The survey should take approximately 10 minutes. There was some additional demographic information collected.

The five functional managers were interviewed following Robert Costello's original protocol. There were a total of 7 questions asked of the five managers.

"Crime on college and university campuses first captured media attention in the mid-1980s and brought the issue into the public view" (Dating Violence Resource Center, 1999, para. 1). Campuses across the United States are facing a current problem because society perceives an increase in violent crimes surrounding their campuses (Thompkins, 2007). The question remains with increased media attention: How is the campus security and safety measured? As noted by Vermillion (2006), students are generally safer on the physical campus than in and around the surrounding communities.

According to Siegel (1994), a majority of the suspects who commit crimes are likely to be under the influence of some illicit substance when they committed their specific crime. Siegel described campuses as different than the war zones the media has portrayed. Siegel reported that many of the violent crimes on campus are sexual assaults, and others are criminal assaults. In information recovered from a web-site dealing with campus dating violence, 32% of students report having been a victim of a crime with a previous dating partner. Up to 5% of women report that they were raped or were a victim of an attempted rape each year. It is a sad state of affairs when still only 20% of victims report to the criminal justice system (Campus Dating Violence Fact Sheet, 2005).

“Institutions of higher education dot the American landscape. As of 2006, the International Association of Campus Law Enforcement Administrators (IACLEA) estimated that there are approximately 4,000 title IV post-secondary education institutions in the United States” (Olson, 2007, para. 1). Colleges and universities that received federal funding are Title IV schools. Colleges and universities serve a large population of people: students, faculty, and staff.

Recently there have been the following incidents: Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1997, Michigan State riots of 1999, Virginia Tech shooting in 2007. These incidents on college campuses have encouraged institutions to develop, plan, and adopt new procedures on how to handle emergency situations (Hughes, 2008). The Massachusetts Institute of Technology incident dealt with an 18 year old freshman named Scott Krueger. Mr. Krueger was part of a fraternity and was pledging. Mr. Krueger was drinking heavily as part of the pledge process, Krueger passed out and vomited and subsequently died. The Michigan State Riots of 1999, came as Duke beat Michigan State in the Final Four Championship game. An estimated 10,000 people left the stadium and took to the streets. Students committed acts of violence including arson, overturning vehicles, and aggression toward police officers.

“Most colleges and universities struggle with the violence that has recently emerged, and historically, these institutions are struggling to develop comprehensive and redundant methods to communicate emergency warnings to their community” (Olson, 2007). Olson believed that colleges and universities are safe, despite the recent violent events. This study will demonstrate that

employees at Herzing University have a realistic view of campus safety. As other studies have focused on private non-profit institutions, this study will provide a standard that can be applied to similar for-profit educational institutions.

The problem with campus safety and security issues is that people and organizations define things differently. "The current issue of campus violence is being framed as a crisis response to suicidal, homicidal armed attackers. This is a very limited view of the issue and one that does not capture the realities;" college campuses generally do not have to deal with major violent crimes (Greene & Greene, 2008, p. 55).

Crime

Campus Crime Rates

Robert Wood (2001) conducted a research project in an attempt to determine the level of crimes on college campuses. With data from between 1995 and 1998, Wood used the Uniformed Crime Report (UCR) and the Chronicles of Higher Education to cross reference data. In looking at the total number of violent crimes (murder, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assaults), for the calendar years of 1995 thru 1998, campuses had a total of 10,415 crimes while the United States had a total of 6,644,055. As a specific example, over the 4 years there were a total of 34 murders while the entire United States had 76,346. The total crime average as calculated by using UCR was 55.10 per 100,000 while the nation was 565.49 per 100,000. For non-violent crime (theft, burglary, arson and motor vehicle theft) there was a total 413,479 for

campuses and the national crimes was 46,302,446. The total crime average for all property crimes was 2,187.87 per 100,000 while the national average was 4,345.77 per 100,000 (Wood, 2001). In Wood's review he found that for the reporting period, approximately 83% of all crime on campus was theft related (Wood, 2001).

In another study conducted by Carter (2002), it was related that the Department of Education released the following crime data for all reporting colleges in 2000. There were a total of 12,894 robberies, 3,982 forcible rapes, 395 murders, 18,761 aggravated assaults and 167,128 liquor law violations.

Minnesota Crime Rates

For the calendar year of 2009, the State of Minnesota had a total of 69 criminal homicides committed. Of these 69 homicides 81% were cleared. Thirty five of the victims were killed by someone that they knew, while 13 victims did not know their attackers (killers) and 17 were deemed to have an unknown relationship. Forty two of the 69 people were killed by a firearm and 18 were killed with personal weapons (hands or feet), and 15 were killed by knives or similar cutting weapons. Fifty five percent of the offenders were between the ages of 15-29 while 49% of the victims were in the same age range. There was only one homicide near Herzing University and it was committed in the City of Minnetonka (Champion, 2009, p.170).

There were a total of 2,109 rapes in Minnesota (UCR 43 per 100,000). Robbery was committed a total of 3,607 times (UCR 69 per 100,000). There was

a total of 7,131 aggravate assaults (UCR 137 per 100, 000). Minnesota had a total of 25,572 burglaries reported (UCR 482 per 100,000). There were 105,844 larceny crimes (UCR 1,986 per 100,000). Arson was reported 1,169 times (UCR 22 per 100,000) (Champion, 2009, p.170). Figure 1 demonstrates crime in the communities surrounding the City of Crystal.

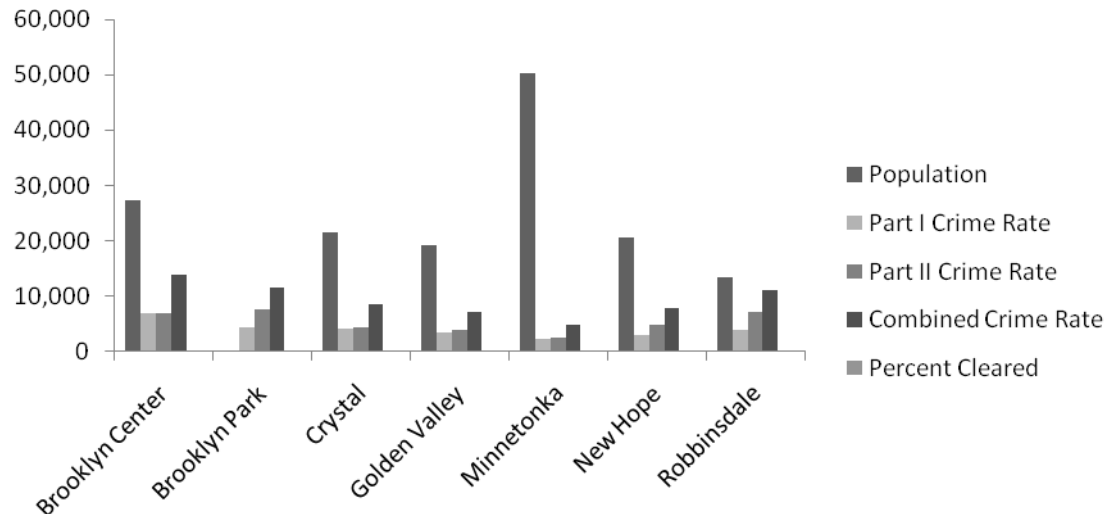


Figure 1. Crime rates and cleared crimes in Crystal and surrounding communities

Methodology

The most important factor in this project is to select an appropriate research design. While qualitative and quantitative research designs provide a unique picture, to completely understand this entire situation a mixed methods approach will be used. The reason is “[q]uantitative and qualitative research

approaches clearly differ in terms of how data are collected and analyzed;” quantitative research reduces human experiences to numbers to be dissected using data analysis, while the qualitative approach provides for a full picture of an event to better understand human behavior (Gelo, Braakman & Benetka, 2008, p. 268). One development in research designs is a mixed methods approach, “which aims to combine and to some extent integrate different methodological and research method perspectives” (Gelo et al., 2008, p. 268). To collect the information from this sample population, the researcher will use a mixed methods approach allowing for “the potential for deeper understanding of some education research questions that policymakers need answered” (Viadero, 2005, para.15).

The purpose of a mixed methods design “is to combine or integrate the traditional quantitative and qualitative research approaches in order to maximize the advantages and minimize the disadvantages connected to the single application of one of the two approaches” (Gelo et al., 2008, p. 287). It allows narrative to be combined with the numbers so that information can be explained at a variety of levels. The numbers can also provide statistical confirmation for the qualitative descriptions that are provided by the participants. It allows for a researcher to test grounded theory. Grounded theory, as defined by Christina Goulding (2002),

is a qualitative methodology, but while it retains many similarities with other qualitative techniques such as those outlined in this chapter, it has a set of distinct procedures, which if followed correctly force the researcher to aim at the level of abstract theorizing. (p.36)

Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss are credited with the creation of grounded theory. Grounded theory is used more in the health science and sociology research arenas. As mentioned by Goulding (2002):

Grounded theory, in contrast to theory obtained by logico-deductive methods, is theory grounded in data which have been systematically obtained through 'social' research. The development of grounded theory was an attempt to avoid highly abstract sociology and was part of an important growth in qualitative analysis in the 1960s and 1970s. The main thrust of this movement was to bridge the gap between theoretically 'uninformed' empirical research and empirically 'uninformed' theory by grounding theory in data. (p.41)

The theory is used as a methodology for using and collecting data that is grounded which is systemically gathered and reviewed. It is strongly suggested that the researcher must "work in the actual environments in which the actions take place, in natural situations" (Goulding, 2002, p. 42). The specific grounded theory that this research will be using originated with Kelling and Wilson's Broken Window's Theory which is derived from field work in New Jersey.

A more in-depth range of questions can be addressed because the researcher is not restricted to one design method for conducting the research. It also allows for triangulation of an incident; Fitzpatrick, Sanders, and Worthen (2004). described triangulation as a "term coined to refer to the process of using multiple methods to measure a construct validity" (p. 305). Construct validity generally refers to a way in which inferences can be legitimately understood in the operationalization of a study (Trochim, 2006). Furthermore Schwab (2004) stated that construct validity:

measures yield numerical values that accurately represent the characteristic. For example, if a score of 5 represents "very satisfied," then a measure of satisfaction should obtain scores of 5 for all individuals who are very satisfied; individuals who experience other levels of satisfaction should receive other numerical values. In short, construct valid measurement results in a close correspondence between the construct of interest and the scores provided by the measure. (p. 26)

Overall more knowledge, information and understanding can be garnered on the topic. Weaknesses of mixed methodology include that it is difficult for one researcher to effectively use both methods and can be more costly (Mixed Research, 2009).

Case Study

This research also used the case study method, as all material and data collected applied to one specific location. A case study as defined by Anderson (1998),

is a holistic research method that uses multiple sources of evidence to analyze or evaluate a specific phenomenon or instance. Most case study research is interpretive and seeks to bring to life a case. It often, but not exclusively, occurs in a natural setting and it may employ qualitative and/or quantitative methods and measures. (p. 161)

Specifically a case study is used because it is systematic and it looks at a specific case or incident. All the data that is collected is analyzed and then interpreted toward one location, event or situation (Anderson, 1998). "Case study research, ..., is highly data-based and strives for the same degree of reliability and validity as any good research" (Anderson, 1998, p. 161).

Limitations and Delimitations

Limitations

The most significant limitation to this study is it only includes one college. There is not a clear cross-section of students, faculty, and staff that would be present at a liberal arts college or a state college or university. The school does not have college dorms and is a commuter campus which eliminates a set of testable measures. Another limitation stems from this research only showing a snap shot in time. The sample size of the surveys from Herzing University was 18, while the population was 55. Only five of the interviews were completely transcribed, due to the researcher inadvertently erasing part of the fourth interview. The final limitation is one employee who was interviewed is no longer with Herzing University, so they were unable to review the accuracy of their information from the interview.

Delimitations

There are also crimes that are not collected and reported as part of the Clery Act, including crimes relating to stalking, minor theft, harassment and vandalism. Crimes that occur off campus or on adjacent property are even more difficult, as the victims are less likely to report, thus how reliable is the information? There are also general limits to the crime statistics that have been noted by numerous criminological theories relating to reporting of crime (Costello, 2003).

There is also a problem with interpreting statistics that are reported by colleges. An example is the crime of rape, as victims who seek medical attention are not required to report the crime. In general rape is only reported 40-50% of the time (Hoffman, Summers,& Schoenwald, 1998). Another problem with the crime data is colleges sometimes classify crimes differently. For example “University of Nevada Reno in 1993 reported 200 cases of disciplinary action for violations of their liquor policies, but reported no arrests” (Hoffman et al. 1998, p. 93). Finally crimes that occur adjacent to the property might not be reported “[b]ecause of the natural tendency of competing campuses to compare statistics, campuses are likely to underreport crime statistics” (Hoffman et al. 1998, p. 93). Policies implemented by institutions demonstrate a statistical increase in crime, while there was no real increase in crime just an increase in reporting. For example, the University of South Dakota created a rape crisis team and school year 1990-1991 there were zero rapes reported, however in school year 1991-1992 there were seven rapes reported (Hoffman et al., 1998).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

“Colleges are struggling with the issue of crime on their campuses.

Historically colleges were viewed as sanctuaries from crimes that were found in the general population” (Costello, 2003, p.1). There will always be violence on college campuses; it is how the people respond and perceive their own safety that is key to dealing with violence. Violence on college campuses has always been present. (Kerr, 2001).

School newspapers and the media reflected an increase in violence on college campuses; faculty and students are becoming more concerned with being victims of crime. Published studies have suggested that reports of violent criminal acts are low, while property crime is the most common type of crime on college campuses (Fisher, 1995). There is one positive side to campus violence and that is it can serve as a change agent for universities to increase people safety (Kessler, 1993).

General History

There are medieval records relating to individuals who attended universities that led lives that were not structured; there was general chaos and disorder at most institutions of higher learning. With a large influx of students entering university during medieval times, there was an inherent potential problem for violence and crime. The records reflect a statute to keep the peace at Oxford in 1432 that stated “[s]ince the unrestrained continuance in this

University of execrable dissensions, which increase vices and idleness, has almost blackened its charming manger, its famous learning its sweet reputation” (Lucas, 2006, p. 61). With this rule the school was empowered to deal with and enforce student transgressions (Lucas, 2006).

Students had their own complaints which lead to violence. Their complaints generally dealt with living conditions, food, and merchants who cheated them out of their money. The students also complained about relationships with the community in which they were living, and the community responded by dumping trash in the students’ common areas. It was even noted that when tensions got to a boiling point, towns people and the students clashed and it erupted violently and could be considered warfare. Each side would arm themselves with weapons and attack each other. There was an incident in 1200, in which Pope Gregory got involved. The violence started between a group of students and an inn keeper. The inn keeper called for assistance and the students were thrown out of the inn. The students returned the next day with more reinforcements and riots broke out. The local government sent in a mercenary force to deal with the students (Lucas, 2006).

There was another incident at Oxford University in 1354, in which a riot started out as a brawl at a local tavern; the fighting lasted for 2 days. Professors were dragged and beaten, students were tortured, the school was vandalized, and classrooms and offices were destroyed (Lucas, 2006).

Kerr (2001) noted a series of violence at college campuses. They include an incident at a New Haven college where a group of students fought fire fighters.

In Knoxville two men were robbed and personal property was taken. One of the victims of the robbery was treated for a head injury while the other reported no injuries. Kerr pointed out that both of these events have occurred over a 150 year span. One back in the 1800's while the other happened in the 1900's.

Smith (1988) mentions a history of violence that can be traced as far back 1800's at the University of Virginia. The violence at this campus lasted until the 1840's. Princeton had similar violent acts that occurred 1807 in which firearms were fired at tutors and schools buildings were also burned to the ground. In the 1820's, Harvard had a violent incident because on the night before graduation one half of the graduating class was thrown out of the school (Smith, 1988)

It should also be noted that there was campus violence during the 1960's and 70's during the Vietnam War and Civil Rights eras. The first incident of note is when individuals occupied and were charged with felonies at San Fernando Community College. The violence continued during this time frame and came to a head at Kent State University where the National Guard fired into a crowd of students. Ultimately killing four and injuring nine. Within a week of the Kent State event, at Jackson State College, law enforcement officials fired shots into college dorms killing two and wounding twelve students (Smith, 1988).

"Higher education press regularly reports such things as professors shot in their classrooms, arson in campus buildings, rapes in dormitories, [and] thefts", however, some colleges are plagued with crime while others are not (Smith, 1988, p. 13). The problem with crime statistics is the United States is that

campuses do not have a baseline from the past to draw comparisons with colleges (Smith, 1988).

Colleges have always had crime and violence, some worse than others. “According to the FBI, the 1968-1969 academic year had the most violent ever. There were 61 reports of arson and bombing and 4,000 arrests for student disturbances” (Hoffman et al., 1998, p. 91). In the seventies colleges faced threats by terrorists, in the 1980’s there were more sexually related crimes reported.

Crime Impact

There are some direct and indirect consequences of campus crime. Campus violence and crime impacts students, staff, and faculty. The direct impact can cause the victims to leave the school for short or long periods of time. The victim who remains at the school might have some problems adjusting to being a victim of crime without support. The victim may have trouble concentrating, working, studying, and attending classes. They may even fear running into the perpetrator again. Specifically, employees may be harassed and intimidated by students; those same students may disrupt classes or other normal functions (Carr, 2005).

Fisher, Hartman, Cullen, and Turner (2002) also suggested that there were significant events in the 1970’s and 1980’s to help bring college crime to the forefront of the general public. The first notable movement was that of rape law reform and the report published by Mary P. Koss on sexual assault. The

research by Koss suggested that a “sizable proportions of college women had experienced unwanted sexual contact, sexual coercion, and attempted and completed rape within the last year” (Fisher et al. 2002., p. 62). The second notable movement was families of crime victims filing civil lawsuits against institutions of higher education, claiming that the institutions had a duty to provide a safe and secure environment. Many courts ruled in favor of the families and felt that the college had to take reasonable steps to protect students. The final notable movement was that of an advocacy group Security on Campus Inc. This was founded by the parents of Jeanne Ann Clery, who was killed in her college dorm room in 1986 (Fisher et al., 2002).

Jeanne Clery, as mentioned by Fisher et al. was killed in her dorm room in 1986. She was a student at Leigh University and on April 5, 1986 she was brutally raped and then killed. After their daughter’s murder the Clery’s started to investigate crime information specifically about Leigh University. It was discovered that the college had had 38 different violent crime incidents in the 3 preceding years before Jeanne Clery’s death (Rikleen, 2007).

In addressing crime in general, according the Federal Bureau of Investigations which collects national crime data using the National Crime Victim Survey, UCR and the National Incident Reporting Base System stated, “ [f]or the third year in a row, our Preliminary Semiannual Uniform Crime Report shows that violent crime, property crime and arson have decreased” (Federal Bureau of Investigations, 2009, para 1). Specifically murder was down 10%, forcible rape

was down 3.3%, robbery was down 6.5%, aggravate assault was down 3.2% and burglary was down 2.5%.

Drysdale, Modzeleski, and Simons (2010) reported the following with regard to crime data for the years of 2005 to 2008 at colleges and universities;

Data were reported by public and private institutions ranging from four-year and above to less than two-year. Those institutions with multiple campuses reported data for each campus. Looking at all 235,599 crimes reported over this timeframe, 74.6 percent were burglaries and motor vehicle thefts, 9.2 percent were aggravated assaults, 8.4 percent were robberies, 5.9 percent were forcible sex offenses, 1.7 percent were arsons, and 0.1 percent were non-forcible sex offenses. The remaining 0.1 percent of reported crimes were murders and non-negligent manslaughter (0.07 percent, $n = 174$) and negligent manslaughter (0.02 percent, $n = 46$).¹⁹ Of the 174 murders and non-negligent manslaughters, 80 occurred on campus (13 of which took place in residence halls), 82 occurred on public property immediately adjacent to campuses, and 12 occurred at non-campus facilities. (p.7)

Campus Fear and Crime

“As institutions dedicated to higher order of human endeavor, colleges and universities once were presumed to be immune from the violence that permeates virtually every aspect of American life” (Nichols, 1995, para. 1).

According to Dolan (2006), “Most colleges and universities are poorly prepared to efficiently address and manage crises” (para. 1).

The mass shootings on April 16 at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University—the deadliest in U.S. history—has reopened arguments in higher ed about privacy laws that limit revelations about troubled students. It has also promoted reviews of security measures on campuses nationwide. (Angelo, 2007, para. 1)

Since the shootings on April 16, 2007, at Virginia Tech, most colleges and universities are taking a serious look at safety and security measures (Harward, 2007).

Violent acts that have been occurring too often within or adjacent to campus communities that compromise students and employee health and safety include campus shootings, murder-suicides, examination misconduct, hate crimes based on religion or ethnicity or sexual orientation, suicides, assaults, hazing or cultism, and arson. (Akinbiyi, 2006, para. 2)

“Students attend schools and universities to learn, but it’s hard to concentrate on studying in an environment where people are continually fretting about their personal safety” (Kennedy, 2006, para. 1). According to Kennedy, educators should be more concerned with the education they are providing than with the safety on campus. College and university officials need to go a little farther to help students feel safe on campus (Kennedy, 2006).

“Recent media accounts illuminate the extent to which crime and violence have found their way onto college and university campuses. Rarely does the topic of campus crime escape the nightly news, talk shows or newsmagazines shows on television” (Nichols, 1995, para. 2). In an article dealing with campus traffic enforcement surrounding driving while intoxicated crimes, Robert Mueck and Laura Dyer (2007) related “attitudes and behaviors can be changed, particularly when enforcement activities are publicized” (p. 19). Traffic enforcement demonstrates to the campus community that the police are concerned with their safety (Mueck & Dyer, 2007).

There was an article published in 1993, in the Chronicle of Higher Education, that included crime statistics for 774 higher education institutions. It showed there were a total of “17 murders, 914 rapes and sexual offenses, 1,353 robberies, and 21,478 burglaries reported” (Vermillion, 2006, p. 32).

With the world changes since September 11, 2001, college campuses have noted that students are more open to attack. Students attending colleges appear less concerned with their own personal safety (Vermillion, 2006). The Federal Emergency Management Administration (FEMA) has added more classes aimed toward large scale incident safety at college events. Classes are offered both in the traditional classrooms as well as within the online environment. There are no direct costs to the attendees for the training. These classes are intended to help colleges and university employees be prepared for all types of incidents that occur on the college property (personal communication, Robert Berg Minnesota Department of Public Emergency Management Homeland Security Department, 2009).

In a study conducted by the Carnegie Foundation in 1989, it was found that most college presidents were concerned with incidents of theft on their campuses. This perception was found across all types of higher education institutions. Another type of crime that created problems was vandalism and destruction of property. This trend appeared to be consistent at higher educational institutions in Canada and Australia (Fisher, 1995).

Gates and Rhoe stated “fear of crime is an experience linked to perceived personal risk of victimization” (1987, p. 427). Carmen, Polk, Segal, and Bing (2000) expanded on Gates and Rhoe’s definition by stating,

The fear of crime can also be predicated upon stereotypes. African Americans, for example, may introduce levels of fear for whites that feel vulnerable to attacks by African Americans. In the same vein, African Americans may fear apprehension by law enforcement. In both cases, there is the perception of a wrongdoing that brings about an emotional reaction based upon fear. The reader should be reminded that victimization is not the only measure of fear. Other measures include perceptions of risk, race, gender and age. (p. 22)

Communities

Costello (2003), made reference to Lee (2000), who stated that in communities where there are formal and informal relationships there is less likely to be crime. Because people feel like they should intervene and get involved. Also related by Costello (2003) was that Lee’s (2000) research has not been directly applied to any college campuses, but rather general criminal justice theory. Conclusions and inferences can be drawn that there are some correlations to a college community where people tend to be less transient.

Government Responses

Clery Act

In 1990 the Federal Government passed *The Student Right To Know and Campus Security Act*, more commonly known as the Clery Act. The basic elements of the act require all institutions of higher education that receive Title IV (federal) money, provide campus crime statistics to prospective students, parents,

employees and the public. The school must also provide sexual violence prevention programs, campus crimes logs, and timely warnings for incidents of campus violence (Costello, 2003).

Specifically, the act provides for a yearly report. The report must contain specific information:

(a) campus policies, procedures, and facilities for reporting crimes and other emergencies; (b) campus policies concerning the safety of access to resident halls and other facilities; (c) campus policies to encourage prompt reporting of crimes and authority of campus law enforcement to foster relationships with state and local police; (d) the types and frequency of programs designed to inform the campus community of security procedures and to encourage personal responsibility for one's safety; (e) campus crime prevention programs offered; (f) statistics concerning the occurrence of murder, robberies, sexual offenses, burglary, aggravated assault, and motor vehicle theft; (g) the institution's policy for monitoring and recoding criminal activity at off-campus sites of recognized student organizations; (h) statistics concerning arrests for violations of liquor, drug and weapons laws; and (i) campus policies regarding possession, use, and sale of alcoholic beverages and enforcement of state underage drinking laws and federal and state drug laws as well as substance abuse educational programs. (Costello, 2003, p. 33)

As of 2001, schools had to include crimes that occurred on property that was adjacent to the school as well as the physical school property. During the year that Jeanne Clery was killed (1986), 2% of colleges reported felony crime data to the Federal Bureau of Investigation (Kerr, 2001). The majority of students, parents, faculty and staff were in the dark about the amount or level of crime on their campus (Kerr, 2001).

One of the problems with this act was that it did not provide a clear picture of crime on the college campus. Are the numbers accurate? Do they provide for a clear or concise picture of crime on a college campus? Is the crime data reliable and valid (Costello, 2003)? This problem was also noted by Fisher

(1995) “the Campus Security Act requires reporting of only selected crimes known to the school authorities ignoring theft, which several studies have shown is the most prevalent crime on campus” (p.92). Fisher also asserted that there is a serious problem with the report because it focused on the frequency of the crimes and not by the crimes rates (UCR). Fisher believed that the raw data tells little, and leads to a false sense of security because there is crime that occurs adjacent to the campus that might not be reported or included in any official data (Fisher, 1995).

There are also crimes that are not collected and reported as part of the Clery Act, including crimes relating to stalking, minor theft, harassment, and vandalism. Crimes that occur off campus or on adjacent property are even more difficult, as the victims are less likely to report them, thus how reliable is the information? There are also general limits to the crime statistics that have been noted by numerous criminological theories relating to reporting of crime. The Clery Act and subsequent data should be used more as a guide for information related to crime on any campus (Costello, 2003).

Another problem with the Clery data can be seen in a USA Today article titled *Campus Security is a Crime*. College campuses tend to classify crimes differently. Specifically,

sexual assaults. Although the law requires colleges to report all sexual assaults, may colleges report only those investigated by the police. Most of these incidents, however are handled by college officials. Burglaries. If something is stolen from a resident hall campus security cannot determine who stole it, the law requires the incident be reported as a burglary—the result of illegal entry. Many colleges, however, classify the theft as a larceny, which doesn’t have to be reported. (para. 7-8)

Colleges do not accurately report the information because they are concerned about what the truth would cause them in a potential loss of students. Wilcox, Jordan and Pritchard (2007) articulated that crime reports are underreported in the post-Clery era because “jurisdictional confusion, organizational inefficiency, and concern with the student (offender) confidentiality [o]thers have suggested that the Clery mandated crime reports underrepresented campus crime because they measure only crimes reported to police” (p. 222). Wilcox et al. (2007) believed that crimes committed by strangers were more likely reported than those committed by other students. It was posited that the specific crime being measured had an impact on students’ perceptions and fear of crime. For example “fear of violence cannot be considered analogous to fear of property crimes, and within the category of property crime, fear of burglary may be quite different than fear of vandalism” (Wilcox et al. 2007, p. 224).

There was not much research on crime on college campus prior to 1972. In the 1970’s the Federal Bureau of Investigation started to collect data on crimes on college campuses, however reporting was not required and only about 20% of schools reported the data. In the 1980’s, colleges and universities reported approximately 2,500 crimes of personal violence and approximately 100,000 property crimes. There was a study conduct in 1977, by the University of Arizona, which found that colleges that had dorms and populations of more than 10,000 students, were where there was real concerns for safety, security, and crime (Kerr, 2001).

A study discussed by Kerr (2001), conducted by Volkwein, Szelest and Lizotte, was based on a quantitative review of crime statistics from 1974 through 1990, which found that colleges were safer than the communities in which the schools were located. That means that Herzing University should be a safer location than the City of Crystal. Another study conducted by Beeler, Ballandese and Wiggins in 1991 dealt with perceptions of crime.

They (Beeler, Ballandese and Wiggins) found that respondents from nearly every college and university, which represented a group of 701 colleges and universities, indicated that their respective campuses were reasonably or very safe. Yet, four-fifths also agreed that campus safety needs improvement and that an internal study of campus was underway. (Kerr, 2001, p.28)

The Federal Department of Education is starting to levee larger and more fines to institutions that violate provisions of the Clery Act. As noted in an article written by Sara Lipka (2008), “[i]n the largest penalty ever imposed under the Clery Act, the US Department of Education has fined Eastern Michigan University \$375,500 for failing to warn the campus of a student’s murder” (para. 1). In December of 2006 the college found the body of student Laura Dickinson. Investigators believed that she was a victim of a violent crime. Originally the school published information stating that she died, however did not disclose the nature or cause of how she was killed. A senior official stated that releasing the nature and manner of death would compromise the criminal investigation (Lipka, 2008a).

Eastern Michigan University was found to have violated the Clery Act at least 13 times. For a period between 2003-2005 they failed to publish accurate crime statistics. Tougher enforcement on colleges and universities is expected.

In the past decade the Education Department found a total of 12 colleges in violation of the Clery Act, however only cited and fined three institutions. The Education Department attempts to work with schools to resolve any problems without a fine (Lipka-a, 2008).

Crime Data

“The Uniform Crime Reports are not much help because of fuzzy boundaries and overlaps in reporting systems” (Fox & Hellman, 1985,). A study noted by Smith (1988), conducted by Fox and Hellman,

[C]ompared the campus crime figures at 175 colleges and universities with crime statistics for the cities and towns in which the campuses were located. Their conclusion was that on average, the campus crime rate was only about half that of the adjoining cities and towns. (p. 20)

Minnesota Responses

A January 15, 1999 report on post-secondary safety was completed with input from the Minnesota Chapter of IACLEA. The report’s purpose was to serve as a blue-print to help deal with security problems in Minnesota institutions of higher learning. The report made nine recommendations to reduce violence on college campuses (Minnesota State Office of Attorney General, 1999, p. 2).

The nine recommendations, Minnesota State Office of Attorney General (1999, p. 3-4) were:

- All post-secondary institutions should implement basic safety measures such as maintenance of campus grounds, regularly patrolled campus routes, escort service, security equipment and crime prevention classes.
- Campus safety officials should involve students in the development of crime prevention initiatives.
- Institutions should provide sexual assault awareness and prevention programs and make victim assistance services available and known to all campus personnel.
- Post-secondary institutions should recognize and address alcohol and drug abuse and its relationship to campus crime
- Crime reporting procedures should be improved throughout the state.
- Campus and community relations should be maintained and improved.
- The establishment of minimum professional standards of hiring and training of safety and security personnel should be explored by campus security directors, campus administrators and policy makers in Minnesota.
- Campus safety and security departments and local law enforcement agencies should develop and maintain a comprehensive communication protocol to ensure that relevant information regarding safety and security exchanged.
- Access to criminal, motor vehicle, and other applicable state and federal databases should be available to campus security directors free or low-cost and in an efficient manner so that campus security may respond to personnel, motor vehicle, and other threats in a timely fashion.

Also “whether you protect a college campus or a corporate facility, developing a holistic security strategy that takes a proactive stance is a solid bet” (Crenshaw, 2007, para. 1).

Virginia Tech Shooting

Background

The events surrounding Seung-Hui Cho’s attack and his preparation for the Virginia Tech shooting provided a glimpse of information to one of the most pivotal college security events. The specific timeline of events of that fateful day show confusion and chaos. The first shootings at the college dorm were at 7 am., while the attack at the engineering building was more than 2 ½ hours later.

This incident shows campus security experts that colleges are not prepared to deal with this or similar type of events on their respective campuses. As noted by Rikleen (2007),

The fact is that assessing and then acting upon potential dangers on campus are fraught with complex issues that go to the heart of what it means to be in an academic environment, particularly where federal law guards student privacy to an extent that excludes the real-world implications of that law. (para. 7)

Cho's behavior displayed some warning signs. He (Cho) had written violent essays for classes, these assignments dealt with stalking. Cho refused to communicate with individuals on campus. Even with these red flags Cho was still able to attend class and live in the dorm. One of the problems with the Virginia Tech shooting is school officials were not allowed to release information on students sometimes to other on campus organization. These laws are in place to protect students. Coupled with the nature of a litigious society, colleges and universities do not know what to do with student records (Rikleen, 2007).

As noted by Davies (2008), Cho blended into the college environment during the time between the first killings in the dorm and the second killing spree at the engineering building. Between the killings; Cho went to the United States Post Office and mailed a package to a media outlet. Cho sent another letter to a faculty member in the English Department. After 9 am Cho entered Norris Hall, chained the doors shut that accessed the second floor and started to shoot people. Cho was prepared with over 400 rounds of ammunition for two handguns and carried a hammer and a knife (Davies, 2008).

Officers arrived at the scene and entered Norris Hall in pursuit of unknown subject(s). Officers were unsure of the number of subjects because of the two distinct sounds of firearms being used. The police should be credited with saving countless lives, when Cho killed himself he still had 200 rounds of ammunition. A total of 33 people died in this violent attack and another 17 were injured. Twenty five of the victims were students and five were faculty (Davies, 2007).

Administrative Responses

“Most university administrators and campus law enforcement officials probably would cite alcohol abuse among organized groups living on or near campus as the most exasperating problem facing them” (Shanahan, 1995, para. 1). When there is intoxication there is bound to be some level of violent crime, which is similar to what happened in 1992 at the University of Washington, when two groups of adult males got into a violent confrontation (Shanahan, 1995).

Lyndsey Lewis (2007) reported on one drastic attempt to deal with security on higher education campuses. The Nevada Board of Regents was considering arming some of the faculty and staff in their institutions. The plan by the Regents would authorize trained faculty and staff at eight campuses to be reserve police officers. These employees would attend training for a total of 21 weeks to be able to hold the distinction and carry a gun.

“Almost every college says it has revamped security since the Virginia Tech rampage last spring but it isn’t easy to find out exactly how . . . although all colleges must file public security disclosures that deal with some of these issues”

(Murr, 2007, para. 3). Each college has different standards of security: some have armed officers, some have unarmed officers, and others use police officers from local jurisdictions to handle crimes on campus (Murr, 2007). The question remains, what does the average college student perceive as being safe on campus? It should be noted that according Murr (2007), most problems on campuses still surround sexual violence and alcohol abuse. These are not the type of large scale crimes on campuses which have acted as the catalyst for change. "Campus shootings are inevitable, and gun control alone isn't going to change that; but better monitoring and treatment of students with emotional problems and enhanced campus security procedures would seem to be in order" (Saad, 2007, para. 1). This leads to an interesting area of study to further research campus security and what can be done to ensure the safety of our young people.

According to an article published in *USA Today* (2007) colleges and universities are missing the warning signs and failing to protect people on their campuses. Additionally, poor campus safety has contributed to 2,500 rapes and 3,000 aggravated assaults on college campuses nationwide. Colleges also fail to tell students about potential threats (Frank, 2007). Frank also noted that "they cannot predict when a troubled student will turn violent" (Frank, 2007, para. 25).

Colleges and universities prepare and provide materials that deal with safety on campus (i.e. Clery Report, programs relating to violence prevention, and crime prevention programs) and this makes individuals aware of the

possibility to becoming a victim on the school grounds (Jennings, Gover, & Pudrzynska,. 2007).

Colleges are also using mass communication devices to relay information to students, employees and families. Research does suggest that such communication will not be effective in a time of crisis. Fox also suggests that things like mass communications tend to increase people's perception of crime and violence. "Choosing the right college may depend on balancing security and scholarship . . .for if safety becomes the top priority, then the only choice may be a degree online or no college at all" (Fox, 2007. para 12).

One solution that seems more appealing to law makers is allowing individuals to conceal weapons on college campuses. The article written by Lipka (2008) stated allowing students, faculty, and anyone to carry a gun on campus does not really resolve the problem. It actually may create more problems. As noted, law enforcement officers shooting skills will vary in a stressful and emergency situation. A distinct problem facing individuals who have concealed weapons on campus who are not trained is retaining the weapons. When police officers are responding to a scene and they see two people in "plain" clothes with guns which one is the suspect? , "[R]egardless of various state laws, guns are already on college campuses, administrators agreed" (Lipka, 2008, para. 16).

Privacy Laws

FERPA

The Family Education Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) is federal law that governs the release of student records at all levels of schooling. This legislation was originally signed into law under Gerald Ford in 1974 (Harlow, & Park-Fellow, 2007). The general purpose of FERPA was to prevent release of student records without consent of the students. The Department of Education can withhold funds from any institution if they do not comply with this federal legislation. Through an amendment to the law, campus crime records, however, are not records that need to be protected.

The general provisions of law allows that any student over the age of 18 may review their records to ensure accuracy of data contained in them. For students under the age of 18 parents or legal guardians can view the information. Educational records are defined as “those records, files, documents, and other materials which contain information directly related to a student; and are maintained by an educational agency or institution or by a person acting for such agency or institution” (Harlow, & Park-Fellow, 2007., p. 6). A campus law enforcement organization can only release records under four criteria: the agency must not have access to education records, all records must be maintained separately, it must keep records for the purpose of enforcing the laws, and must not release to any other agency other than to other law enforcement agencies (Harlow, & Park-Fellow, 2007). The interpretation of FERPA has created problems for institutions. This was also compounded by the

problem that a student receiving medical or counseling sessions at colleges is also protected by HIPPA (Harlow & Park-Fellow, 2007).

Related Research

Smith cites research from McPheters which indicated that there are only two independent variables that affect campus crimes, the first is a “higher proportion of students living in dormitories and, second, closer proximity to urban areas” (Smith, 1988, p. 21 & McPheters, 1978). McPheter’s study was followed by a Fox and Hellman study of 222 higher education campuses. Fox and Hellman (1985) found 38 different correlates that they believed affected crime rates on college campuses. They found two positive correlates: the first was campus size and the second was scholastic achievement. Fox and Hellman “theorized that scholastic quality might be a positive factor because of the higher-quality of education generally costs more, and thus the economic status of the students and value of campus assets is likely to be higher” (Smith 1988, p. 22).

Campus Location

Fox and Hellman (1985), conducted a research study in which they theorized,

that the location of a college campus does not have a significant effect on the campus crime rate may be accounted for, in part, the explanation that there are offsetting characteristics of urban schools and that urban schools protect themselves more, thereby reducing the impact of, or spillover from surrounding community. (p. 434)

Fox and Hellman believed that colleges were unique entities unto themselves. The crime was affected on the campus by external factors to include the economic status, social environment, size and accessibility of the campus by outsiders. Fox and Hellman concluded that colleges were not unlike other communities with similar characteristics. They believed that one of the “possible explanations for the surprising finding that location has not influence campus crimes rates may stem from McPheter’s risk trade-off notion” (Fox & Hellman, 1985, p. 439). McPheter’s notion stated in Fox & Hellman (1985) “rural campus crime rate reflect the large percentage of student who live on campus, while the urban campus crime rates reflect adverse urban influences” (p. 439). Fox and Hellman demonstrated in their research that no school was better than any other at protecting themselves against crime. They suggested further research into the law enforcement presence on campus, as well as other security technologies (Fox & Hellman, 1985).

Physical Security

A study conducted by Jennifer Wood and Clifford Shearing (1998) dealt with a university in Canada. The study examined and analyzed forms of college governance as they apply to general college safety. The major finding of this study was that policing on campuses is shaped by the location of the campus. Another study conducted by Tseng, Duane and Hadipriono (2004), dealt with security concerns in a parking structure at a college campus. This study was centered on the parking structures since there are certain environmental modifications that can easily be made to affect safety. This study did question

how and if the safety in the parking structures can be transferred to the entire campus. "Crime not only detracts from the mission of the university and deters prospective students; it undermines the fundamental quality of university life" (Tseng et al., p. 27).

Lighting and Safety

Lighting, specifically security lighting, can provide for a safer environment. Adequate lighting can prevent property crimes such as vandalism and does not allow suspects to hide in the shadows waiting for a potential victim. "[A]dministrators are becoming more aware of benefits of properly designed security lighting" (Fleming, 2000, para. 1). There are many things that an administration must think about when selecting and designing proper lighting on college campuses. "Achieving lighting quality is the combination of even distribution, good color, and visual comfort. Lighting should be uniform, without shadows or sharp contrast between light and dark, and should reduce glare" (Fleming, 2000, para. 2). Campus administrators believe that an increase of light in any area means that people are safe, however, too much light can cause a decrease of visibility. The increase in light might create problems with silhouettes and other distortions. It was also suggested that if a campus is using lighting in conjunction with surveillance equipment, the lighting must allow for a clean view of the suspects for identification purposes by the security professionals (Fleming, 2000).

Outdoor Lighting and Parking

On college campuses many of the school buildings are used after normal business hours. “The lighting should facilitate easy entry (whether on foot or by vehicle), provide security for the building and its’ occupants and enhance the building architectural features” (Fleming, 2000, para. 5). At egress points additional lighting should be used to prevent any possible crimes.

Proper placement and use of lights in parking areas is key to protecting colleges’ assets and individuals. There is recommended placement of lights to provide adequate coverage to ensure safety on campus. It was recommended that institutions protect their lighting as it might be a target of possible attack (Fleming, 2000).

As noted by Kennedy (2006),

Schools and universities are using a combination of strategies to make their facilities safer and discourage or eliminate unwanted activities. Equipment and physical changes to a facility or campus can deter crime or make it easier to apprehend lawbreakers; increased police presence can deter criminals and send a message that campus safety is a high priority; prevention programs can address potentially troublesome attitudes and feelings before they manifest themselves as antisocial behavior. (para. 8)

Campus

According to Fisher (1995) there was,

Research [that] suggests that the size of the student body, the proportion of students living in on campus dormitories, the proportion of males enrolled, the number of national fraternities and sororities on the campus, the cost of room and board, academic quality, the type of school (public or private), the setting (urban-rural continuum), the number of buildings on campus, and the number of acres composing the campus all relate to campus crime rates. (p.93)

Research that was conducted at Ohio State University found “that certain aspects of the build[ings] and/or natural environment were associated with student fear including ‘areas that were characterized by limited prospect, much concealment, and difficult escape’”(Wilcox et al., 2007, p. 226). Other studies suggested that spatial relations on a college campus effect individual perceptions of crime. Women on colleges tend to have higher levels of fear around specific areas on the college property, specifically jogging paths, parking lots, and libraries. Wilcox et al. also made mention that studies suggested that women who attend campus during the day have less perception of campus crime than female students at night (Wilcox et al., 2007).

To deal with perceptions of safety on campus 47% of women in the Wilcox et al. research carried some sort of personal defense weapon, the most common weapon carried by women was a chemical agent. Additionally, women tended to conduct other precautionary measures, including avoidance of the areas on campus that they perceived as not being safe (Wilcox et al., 2007).

Reactions to Crime

Gates and Rohe (1987) described three categories that people use to deal with crime. The three categories are avoidance reactions, protective reactions, and collective reactions. Avoidance reactions include people avoiding places that they perceive as having high levels of crimes, or places where they have the potential to be become a victim. Protective reactions deal with more of target hardening, or physical devices to protect people from becoming a victim.

Collective reactions can be broken down into two sub sets. The first is formal and the second is informal. The formal tends to deal with the creation of community programs to help deal with perceptions of crime. The informal deals with mutual activities that are not as structured or are more loosely planned such as parties (Gates & Rohe, 1987).

Student Perceptions

A 2000 study at the University of Texas, Arlington, found that there was a trend and fear of crime by students who went to the school at night versus during the day. It found that the students going to school at night had more security and safety concerns than those attending class during the day. The study also concluded that fear can be diminished by adding some physical security measures such as lighting and alarm boxes. This specific study found that these did not necessarily eliminate crime but there was a general perception of increased safety on the college campus. This study found that making a difference in perception of safety creates a safer learning environment (Keary, 2007).

Keary discussed in his conclusions that 85% of people (students) reporting felt safe on Kansas University campus (2007). Ninety six percent of the students felt safe walking alone on campus during the day compared to 46% of students walking alone at night. Keary also referenced a study in 2005 conducted at University of North Carolina that had similar results.

There has been more research in recent years on college campuses. In a 1994 study Brantingham and Brantingham, “emphasize[d] that people utilize the campus throughout various times during the day and night, and they argue that nighttime activity appears to convert natural fear into fear of crime” (p. 162).

Students as well as faculty have the perception of being a victim by insiders and outsiders. Generally, fear is a complex thing to study; there are a lot of variables that come into play when a researcher wants to study this phenomenon.

Studies focusing on public perceptions of crime have suggested that the public actually has a fairly accurate impression of the official crime rates, but people tend to overestimate the incidence of serious but relatively infrequent crime, and underestimate the occurrence of less serious but more prevalent crime. (Jennings et al., 2007, p.194)

Fear of crime comes from a range of contextual factors that deal with a variety of factors, including the likelihood of becoming a victim, lighting, clear sight lines, opportunities to escape, and parking structures (Jennings et al., 2007).

The data suggests little; it may tend to portray a false sense of security for individuals at colleges. A trend in this research suggests that the number of people who live on and off campus in the general area of the college are predictive of crime rates. Also, campuses closer to large urban areas with higher unemployment will have higher crimes rates (Fisher, 1995).

Victimization

“Claims of increased crime against college students have successfully converged to define on-campus student victimization as violence and as a widespread social problem” (Fisher, Hartman, Cullen,, & Chunmeng, 1998, p.

671). The media has portrayed a high increase in crime on college campuses nationwide. This has caused individuals to label colleges as dangerous places. It should be generally noted that “in some respects, the research into student victimization is still in the infancy stages of scholarly development” (Fisher et al., 1998, p. 672). The research that focused on student victimization is still anecdotal and narrowly focused. The studies generally do not provide any new insight into student victimization, and finally they lack standing in any theoretical foundation (Fisher et al., 1998).

There are a variety of theories that attempt to explain victimization of crime, they include “lifestyle-exposure, routine activities, criminal opportunity, and structural-choice” (Fisher et al., 1998, p. 673). These theories are predictive of who will be more likely to be crime victims. Generally, these theories support victimization; however, they do not necessarily explain the reasons why someone is selected as a victim of a crime. One of the notable factors of becoming a victim is age (Fisher et al., 1998).

There are many reasons that people are fearful of crime. There are new links to subgroups like the elderly and fear of crime that have taken on recent importance in research. Race and fear has always been discussed in the literature. African Americans have always had higher rates of fear of crime than their white counterparts. This tends to be brought out by certain lifestyle variables to included urban living and higher unemployment rates (Carmen et al., 2000).

With the emerging trends in technology (video games, Internet, cable, and interactive games) and media, individuals are confronted with disasters and other violent acts on a regular basis. Research suggests that the “media is responsible for some of the panic surrounding campus crime, making it seem worse than it is” (Carmen et al., 2000, p. 23). All of these technological trends can influence how someone perceives violence and crime in their community (Carmen et al., 2000).

“According to the existing literature, gender is a strong predictor of fear of crime” (Carmen et al., 2000, p. 23). Most research suggests that women have perceptions and real concerns over being raped. “This fear of rape among females also correlates with higher levels of fear of burglary, robbery, and obscene phone telephone calls” (Carmen et al., 2000, p. 23). It was suggested by Carmen et al. that females concerns are not validated since men are more frequently victimized than women.

The research of Carmen et al. (2000) found that approximately 38.3% of respondents avoided specific locations on campus because they were afraid of becoming a victim of a crime. Another 26.2% of respondents scheduled activities around campus because of the potential fear of becoming a crime victim. Finally 18.2% of individuals walked with an adult to their car. With specific regard to gender and race, Carmen et al. found that over 55% of females feared becoming a victim of a crime while only 14% of the males felt similarly. By race, 66.7% of Asian Americans felt that they were likely to be a victim of crime, while 27.6% of whites, 54.4% of African Americans and 36.2% of Hispanic feared becoming a victim of a crime (Carmen et al., 2000).

During the time frame covering the research by Carmen et al. (2000) a violent rape incident occurred on the college campus where the study was being conducted. An interesting event occurred, prior to the event 79% of students felt safe on the college campus before the incident and after the incident there was a slight increase to 80% of respondents felt safer after the incident. "In other words, the serious crime event had a minor impact on the perception that other students were responsible for campus crime" (Carmen et al., 2000, p. 28).

In Carmen et al. (2000) it was suggested that

Campus administrators must respond to actual crime statistics and official reports of crime locations and do all that is possible to deter crime. It would be prudent, however, to also be aware of fear of crime and how the fear variables differ from actual reported crime. Regardless of the difference, the administration should respond to students' fear concerns in an attempt to retain and establish a safe learning environment. (p. 29)

The research also suggested that there is difference in fear of crime during the day and night. Generally night students are on a campus that is not completely open and there are limited interactions with employees and other students.

To ensure that students feel safe increasing lighting, placement of emergency boxes, campus escorts, and access to police will make students feel safer on campus (Carmen et al., 2000). One final note that Carmen et al. believed was,

A research paradigm is being formed around this topic that will hopefully lead to a better understanding of factors that affect students' perceptions of their campus. Another area of concentration should be the perception among faculty members on their campus. Do they feel safe while working on campus? Despite the fact research has been conducted on workplace violence, little if any attention has been devoted to the study of college professors' fear of crime on campus. (p. 30)

Crime Perceptions

Lagrange and Ferraro conducted a study on crime perceptions and they found some noted differences between men and women. The first was women generally are more fearful of being a victim of a crime than men. When it comes to becoming a victim of a property crime men and women assess their potential of being a crime victim equally. Moreover women tend to “think they are more likely to be the victim of a personal crime (rape or assault)” (Lagrange & Ferraro, 1989, p. 706). It should be noted that men are more likely to be a direct victim of crime than women. Lagrange and Ferraro found no distinct correlation to age and the fear of becoming a victim of crime.

It was suggested that “knowledge about how people experience crime both objectively and subjectively is important information for those concerned with addressing crime and safety” (Wilcox et al., 2007, p. 220). Research for the past few decades has attempted to find some common ground and a comprehensive way to understand crime and personal safety. For example, women have a high level of perceptions of becoming victims but a relatively low likelihood of becoming a victim of a crime. Most of the violence that occurs against women is intimate partner based violence; however the culture persists with images of women being victims of stranger violence. It is important to note that college attending women are more likely to become victims of crime, as compared to their non-college attending counterparts.

Fear

Fear in a “neighborhood helps shape resident perceptions of their neighbors and attitudes about the desirability of their neighborhood as a place to live” (Gates & Rohe, 1987, p. 425). If there is a lot of crime in an area individuals living within the community will fear becoming a victim. If someone fears becoming a crime victim there is the tendency to withdraw, and isolate oneself.

To challenge the fear of victimization, residents can respond collectively. The community might demand more security measures, or provide their own internal controls such as increased surveillance of the area(s) that might be considered problem areas. These increased measures also create a sense of safety and confidence within the community. “Understanding the factors that influence fear and reactions to crime, therefore, can help in the design of the neighborhood [college community] conservation and revitalization programs” (Gates & Rohe, 1987, p. 427). Research also suggested that the perceived level of crime can be different than the actual level of crime and can act independently of the fear of crime (Gates and Rohe, 1987).

Reasons for Crime

There are generally four reasons why students are victims of crime: proximity to crime, exposure to crime, target attractiveness, and lack of capable guardianship (Fisher et al. 1998). These reasons provide an understanding of crime on college campuses.

Proximity

With regard to the proximity to crime, when people (victims and suspects) are converging on each other in the space of time. For example “scholars have long argued that spending time in an area plagued with crime increases the likelihood of frequent contact with potential offenders;” this increases the chance for someone to become a victim (Fisher et al. 1998, p. 676). There are certain factors that play a role in determining where a crime area is, however, it is generally defined as an area “where people live, work, or seek entertainment” (Fisher et al., 1998, p. 676). There is another situation in which people have the same routine that makes them vulnerable to being a victim of crime. This is very specific with the amount of people living within the confines of a college dorm or even housing near the school. Specifically noted by Fisher et al. (1998), “research results support the notion that type of housing influences the risk of personal and property victimization” (p. 675).

Students come into contact with a variety of different people at college housing, school buildings, and other college functions. Students should be considered close to crime when they are on a college campus (Fisher et al., 1998). Raymond, as cited by Fisher et al. (1998), “reported that close to 80% of victimization committed against students were by fellow students” (p. 676). There are large numbers of students living in college dorms. Additionally, reports of college violence in the dorms is unknown because it goes unreported, finally colleges have always had a higher than normal frequency of rape (Fisher et al., 1998).

Exposure

People have the most chance of being the victim of crimes when they are exposed to it. Certain lifestyles and routine activities tend to show a pattern in victims of crime on college campuses. Activities that occur recreationally and in the “pursuit of fun increase victimization” (Fisher et al., 1998, p. 677).

“Several studies have consistently found that the most vulnerable groups for violent victimization are those who engage in public activities at night, such as frequenting bars or going to movies” (Fisher et al., 1998, p. 678). If someone on a college property also were involved in deviant behavior (drugs, alcohol, or theft), it is predictive behavior of victimization of crime. Colleges students tend to “join school-sponsored groups, such as fraternities or sororities and athletic teams that engage in routine social activities. There is some evidence that belonging to these groups may be associated with greater risk of victimization” (Fisher et al., 1998, p. 678).

Finally, with exposure to crime it should be noted that college students tend to “experiment” with a variety of deviant and counter-culture behaviors. Specifically, studies have linked “binge” drinking and the amount students’ drink to becoming victimized. Those who attend large parties in which they become intoxicated are more likely to be involved in fights and sexual assaults (Fisher et al., 1998).

Target Attractiveness

There are a variety of things that make targets (individuals and locations) attractive to crime. These include the number of potential victims, and the relationship to the amount of cash in the till. Finally the amount of people anywhere; a college campus has a “large student body and the volume of property they bring with them provide an ample supply of suitable targets for would-be offenders. The number of targets also changes every term, especially in the fall” (Fisher et al., 1998, p. 679). Individuals typically go to college campuses with disposal income.

Capable Guardianship

This general concept involves “the ability of persons or objects to prevent the occurrence of crime by social (interpersonal) and or physical (target-hardening devices) means” (Fisher et al., 1998, p. 679). There are mixed results in the research with specific implications toward the social and physical guardianship on victimization. Researchers tend to find in their studies that “physical and social guardianship have differential effects on different types of crimes” (Fisher et al., 1998 p. 679). Specifically, robbery and burglary did not see a decrease in victimization rates, however there was a decrease in other property crimes (victimization Fisher et al., 1998).

With regard to college campus settings, students are “poor guardians of themselves and their property, despite the fact that many schools require freshman and transfer students to participate in general crime prevention

awareness or in a program devoted to a specific topic, such as rape awareness” (Fisher et al., 1998. p. 680). Students leave their dorm rooms unlocked, they leave primary entrances and exits open. “Research reveals that students, in general, routinely fail to engage in simple guardianship activities that could reduce their risk of becoming victims of theft” (Fisher et al., 1998. p. 680). Students regularly leave their property on campus unattended, making them potential victims of crime.

Fisher et al. (1998), also contended that if students have roommates they can help deter crime. Fisher et al. also believed that the roommate may be someone who is looking to prey on an unsuspecting roommate. There is no research on the effects of someone living alone on a college campus. “The unique lifestyle and routine activity characteristics of the students create an environment in which different types of victimization may frequently occur at different places on a campus or at the same place- ‘hot spots of crime’- at any hour of the day or the evening by a variety of perpetrators” (Fisher et al., 1998, p. 680).

“Research results suggest that victimization depends not only on the individual level demographics or lifestyle routine activities but also on where the activity takes place and the characteristics of that place” (Fisher et al., 1998, p. 681). This means that colleges and property around the college make attractive targets for possible attack by criminals.

Gender and Safety

The most detailed and recent study dealing with campus safety was conducted by April Woolnough, titled *Fear of Crime on Campus: Gender Differences in the Use of Self-Protective Behaviors at an Urban University* (2007). Ms. Woolnough's study was only conducted on one campus, and narrowly dealt with the use of self-protection and self protective behaviors. This research does not reflect rural colleges or universities, nor does it cover institutions that do not have dorms or what are traditionally considered community colleges or technical colleges (Woolnough, 2007).

Woolnough noted in her conclusion "[t]here were limitations on the quantity and breadth of questions concerning crime on campus because of the broader intent of the original survey" (Woolnough, 2007, p. 22). Additionally, this research was narrowly focused on gender differences as opposed to general perceptions of fear of crime or the reality of crime on college campuses. The most relevant information was:

how safe students perceive themselves to be while on campus, how fearful they are of criminal victimization while on campus and to what extent they engage in self-protective behaviors has important security implications that should be of interests to administrators, university police, faculty, residence hall staff, student organizations, and parents. University administrators should use these findings and conclusions to better address perceptions of campus crime that students may have through effective policies, programming and practical application of relevant research. (Woolnough, 2007, p. 23)

The author posited that Woolnough's conclusions on student perceptions of crime will have implications on staff and faculty perceptions of safety on for-profit college campuses. Women might be concerned about crime merely

because they are women. Studies have shown that women think more about personal safety than men. Specifically, men felt safer than women during the night. This fear represented a fear of crime which can also reflect to the reality of whether or not a college is a safe place or not (Jennings et al., 2007)

Generally women are more concerned with their safety. "Women who are elderly, poor, disabled, or members of an identifiable racial or ethnic minority feel most vulnerable" (Klodwasky, & Lundy, 1994, p. 129). Women have learned to deal with the safety and the possibility of become a victim and create defense mechanisms. One of the specific defense mechanisms was to avoid spaces that create a sense of fear. In the research conducted by Klodwasky and Lundy (1994) they found that

Almost two thirds of academic and student women restricted their movements, while less than one half of the support staff did so. This is probably due to the fact that staff usually work days and spend minimal amount of time off campus after dark. (p. 131)

Age appears to have been the single greatest factor amongst all women on campus when it comes to a sense of safety. This can be seen when a newer female faculty is generally assigned to evening courses while a more tenured female faculty teachers during the day (Klodwasky, & Lundy, 1994).

Women and Sexual Assault

To understand perceptions of crime one must first understand fear. Mark Warr (2000) stated,

Fear is a natural and commonplace emotion. Under many circumstance, it is a beneficial, even-lifesaving emotion. Under the wrong circumstances, it is an emotion that can unnecessarily constrain behavior, restrict freedom

and personal opportunity, and threaten the foundation of communities. (p. 482)

It was suggested that fear is often disconnected with an objective standard or risk level of potential victimization (Wilcox et al., 2007, p. 220). It is of importance to note that peoples' perceptions of fear are generally not proportionate to the reality of actually being a victim of crime or the actual likelihood of becoming a victim. There is a relationship to high anxiety and possible victimization which leads to self control and restricted behaviors. There is an inverse relationship with some people that do not have any fear who tend to believe that they cannot become a victim of a crime. "[K]nowledge about how people experience crime both objectively and subjectively is important information for those concerned with addressing crime and safety" (Wilcox et al., 2007 p. 220).

It is important to understand why women who have a relatively low level of victimization of crime have a relatively high anxiety or perception of becoming a crime victim. "Actual violence against women is largely intimate partner violence . . . and yet that acquaintance violence takes place in a culture that touts the dangers of random, stranger perpetrated violence" (Wilcox et al., 2007 p. 221).

College Experiences

Women on college campuses tend to feel more like they will be a victim of a crime than similar populations not attending college. There is also a link that women on campus are in an environment which traditionally hides or downplays crime. This was changed with the advent of the Campus Crime Disclosure Act of 1998, which in 2000 was later renamed the Clery Act. "However, campus crime

reporting in the post-Clery era has been criticized for continued underreporting of crime for a variety of reasons” (Wilcox et al., 2007, p. 222). There are suggested problems with the Clery report and its accuracy. The first tends to deal with the jurisdictional problems, the colleges bureaucracy and efficiency and concerns with student confidentiality. Another suggested problem with the Clery data is it is only information that is reported to the police. There is not a complete picture of all incidents that have occurred on a college campus because some victims do not report (Wilcox et al., 2007).

The perception of crime and victimization by women is subjective but it is compounded by the actual risks of being a victim on a college campus. Moreover it might depend on the type of crime and the specific relationship of the victim with the crime. The literature also suggested that women might perceive a crime committed by a non-college student differently than one committed by a student. There is generally a stronger relationship amongst women to reports of stranger or acquaintance crimes than to a known college student (Wilcox et al., 2007).

Rape on Campus

Evidence shows that women attending college will have a heightened risk of rape (sexual assault) during the time they are enrolled. Women not enrolled in colleges and who are in the same age range are not as likely to become victims of rape. Fisher noted that “one third of college men would rape a woman

if they knew they would not get caught” (Fisher, 2003, p. 636). This demonstrates that college aged women have a rationalized fear of rape.

Female College Employees

A study conducted by Fletcher and Bryden (2007) studied perceptions of safety that “female faculty and staff members have about safety on and around campus including concerns about safety, personal safety precautions and issues involving victimization” (para. 1). A sample population 229 female employees at a university in Canada was studied. Female employees listed taking precautions that include locking doors, planning escape routes, carrying keys as a weapon, and checking the backseat of their car for an intruder. Generally the female employees were not happy with the following at the college campus: lighting, signage, and access to emergency phones. The female group felt that females were victimized more on campus than any other group. It is of note that female faculty felt less safe and more of a victim than their staff counterparts. The female faculty reported more “unwanted sexual touching and various forms of harassment” (para. 1).

Fletcher and Bryden (2007) also point out that “women are more likely to be victims of sexual assault and stalking than men” (para. 3). Additionally, women confirm that they are more fearful of waiting alone at a bus station, and walking alone at night. “[F]emales are more fearful for their personal safety within the university-setting than their male-counterparts” (Fletcher & Bryden,

2007, para. 4). This fear appears to be more prevalent in male dominant professions like higher education.

The conclusion found by Fletcher and Bryden was that “[v]iolence exists on the campuses of institutions of higher learning” the college community needs to be prepared and aware of consequences of violence (para. 66). Their research illustrates that the females working in these university environments have compromised their security and safety needs.

Crime Prevention

Physical security and a survey of the institutions physical security is important in determining what risks face the institution. “Security surveys are a valuable and necessary component of any safety and security plan, they are by nature subjective assessments based on the prior experiences of the individual(s) performing the survey” (Hummer & Preston, 2006, p. 119). These surveys do not take into consideration the significant input from users of the location.

Colleges and universities do take into consideration crime prevention surveys when constructing new buildings or campus facilities. As noted by Hummer and Preston (2006) certain

subgroups use the space (college) in very different ways. For example, some students who commute to school may rarely be on campus after dark or on weekends, when the campus takes on a different atmosphere from that encountered by the resident students. (p. 119)

The average campus is comprised of many different groups: students, employees, and visitors, and each view the campus through different lenses.

Many colleges and universities tend to think that “criminal victimization is not likely, thus reflecting the relatively low crime figures reported . . . when compared with the larger municipalities abutting or containing the campuses” (Hummer & Preston, 2006, p. 120). It was stated that the risk of victimization is low, and violent crime is lower than non-violent crime. Colleges, cannot become stagnant when it comes to proactive work to protect students, employees, and visitors. “Perhaps as important as the actual student safety, is student perceptions of their safety and subsequent fear of victimization” (Hummer & Preston, 2006, p. 120). Research has suggested that women are more afraid of becoming a victim than their male counterparts. Female students are more afraid of rape than any other crime. They are also less afraid of intimate violence (domestic violence) than stranger violence, but in reality are more likely to a victim of domestic violence. Generally women who receive obscene phone calls are more likely to perceive more of a threat to personal safety than a female who has not received any calls (Hummer & Preston, 2006).

Beyond gender, other factors can contribute to fear of crime and victimization. There are two theories that cover this type of fear, the first is routine activities and the second is guardianship which is covered more by Fisher. There are also situational and environmental factors that contribute to a sense of crime on college campuses. Guardianship refers to the student’s ability to have access to some sort of personal defense weapons.

Beotig (2006) stated that,

The routine activity theory explains how changes in daily patterns or activities of social interaction, such as employment, recreation,

educational endeavors, and leisure activities, affect differences in crime rates. It examines crimes as events, occurring at "specific locations in space and time, involving specific persons and/or objects." (6) Three crucial components necessary for predatory crimes are motivated offenders, suitable targets, and the absence of capable guardians. (7) The lack of any one of these would prevent a predatory crime. As communities evolve, routine activities of the citizens also change. These societal adjustments cause the convergence of the three primary components to either increase or decrease in certain spaces and at particular times; therefore, changes in the crime rates occur independent of societal or behavioral conditions that motivate offenders. (p.12)

Recent research suggests that individuals are afraid on a college campus in areas where any suspects can hide. This includes areas around dorms where there is brush, or low walls, and even dark areas any place in which suspect activities can be concealed. There are also places for a suspect to attack a victim if there are easy escape routes. Individuals on campus are also generally concerned with not becoming a target of attack or victimization. Thus colleges and universities are working with crime prevention professionals to target harden their specific campus and potential "hot-spots" of crime on their campus (Hummer & Preston, 2006). In research conducted by Hummer and Preston (2006) they found that "[t]he most commonly reported threat to personal safety is possible assault in a campus parking facility, and ostensibly along pathways to these parking areas", additionally they found that 84% of respondents perceive the campus to be safer than the community which the campus is set in (p.132). "Fear of crime can adversely impact the culture of an institution (or large scale entity), but recognition of risks is a fundamental component of ensuring one's personal safety" (Hummer & Preston, 2006, p. 134).

Basic Theories

There are generally six theories of crime that are accepted. These theories attempt to provide an understanding of why people commit crimes. As cited in Collins, Ricks and Van Meter (2000) the basic theories are:

General Theory of Self Control- Many of the offenders appeared to have reached their frustration threshold and their typical self control was no longer sufficient to keep them from committing an act of violence.

Routine Activities Theory- Routine activities theory is relevant to the workplace victims in that the whereabouts of the victims were known by the offenders and the victims were going about their normal duties when the acts of violence occurred. This might also explain incidents of domestic violence occurred in the workplace. The offenders knew where their intended victim could be found and sought them out at the workplace.

Containment Theory- For those employees who use their position to gain the necessary information from which to commit robbery, the motivation appears to be greed. The lethal violence in such types of cases may result from a desire of the offender to protect himself or herself from detection or to keep from being apprehended at the scene.

Strain Theory- Most of the employees and all of the customers who commit workplace violence believe they have been mistreated by the organization and or specific members within.

Parricide Theory- Employee violence against those in the workplace has several similar characteristics to those found in studies of the parricide.

Domestic Violence Theory- Domestic-related offenders most often express a loss of control over the individual who has rejected their “love” or who appears to have “rebelled” against their authority. Committing the act of violence in the victim’s workplace gives the offender a substantial degree of control over the fate of their intended victim. (p. 219)

As can be seen with these six theories there are many reasons why people may commit crimes, but these theories all impact campus safety.

Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design

“Crime prevent though environmental design (CPTED) can lead to a safer campus without drawing attention to security measures that might detract from the campus climate” (Kennedy, 2007, para. 11). CPTED was created in 1974 by the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, because people working in all types of organizations were fearful of crime (Collins et al., 2000).

The principles of CPTED have been around for centuries and examples can be found throughout history. “For example, moats and fortress walls were built around medieval cities to reduce external threats;” moats and walls can now be seen as large grass fields and walls around complexes (Collins et al., 2000, p. 252). Lighting has also been used for long periods of time. There was a time in the seventeenth century in Paris when over 6,000 lanterns were scattered around the city to protect people (Collins et al., 2000).

The basis on which CPTED is founded is the interaction between people and the environment. There are things that are natural and created in the world. “The physical design of an environment can facilitate surveillance and access control of an area and can aid in creating a sense of property awareness” (Collins et al., 2000, p. 252). CPTED “seeks to deter and prevent crimes and attendant fears by careful design of the environment” (Collins et al., 2002, p. 252). Other techniques can be added to enhance CPTED.

One of the most notable benefits of CPTED is that it can be implemented within any budget. The principles use existing structures in different ways. For

example, adding a light at a rear door, or pruning some shrubs might be the simplest thing, but it provides for a sense of a safer environment (Walsh, 1999).

Elements

“CPTED’s strategies include natural access control, natural surveillance, territorial reinforcement and management/maintenance of the facility” (Crime prevention, 2001, para 2). Generally access control deals with the placement of entrances, exits, gates, and landscaping. Natural surveillance deals with using as much open and visible space of a public area, territorial reinforcement focuses on the use of physical barriers, and signage to demonstrate ownership of the property. Finally, management and maintenance deals with using the location for what it was designed and intended for.

Costello’s Research

Survey Data

Costello used a Likert scale with structured interview to measure “full time faculty members, administrators and students crime perceptions (fear of crime, victimization of crime, and crime as a campus problem) and perceptions for administrative interventions” (Costello, 2003, p. 48). Dr. Costello’s data collection was broken down into two phases. The first phase was a survey that was designed and used to measure an individual’s crime perceptions and administrative interventions. The survey was broken down further into two sub sections. The 40 questions measured crime perceptions and perceptions for

administrative interventions. The Likert scale used was “strongly disagree”, “disagree” “slightly agree” “agree” and “strongly agree.” The second sub-section dealt with basic demographic information (Costello, 2003).

This author has been granted permission to use, modify and publish Dr. Costello’s original survey¹ (Appendix F). Dr. Costello used a color coding system to differentiate replies between students, faculty, and administrators, however, this author will be using Survey Monkey as the primary delivery and collection method for the survey.

Interview Data

The second part of Costello’s research was to conduct interviews of college administrators, full time faculty and “students active in campus life” (Costello, 2003, p. 50). A total of five subjects were taken from each of the three different groups. Interviewees were invited to participate by a formal letter which provided for the logistics of the interview (Costello, 2003, p. 50). The author has been granted permission to use, modify and publish Dr. Costello’s original interview protocol (Appendix F)².

Validity

Costello established content validity for his survey “using a jury of professionals to evaluate the 40-items that comprise the instrument” (Costello,

¹ Costello, R. (2003). *Administrators, faculty and student perceptions of crime and implications*. (Doctoral dissertation, Dowling College). Adapted with permission.

² Costello, R. (2003). *Administrators, faculty and student perceptions of crime and implications*. (Doctoral dissertation, Dowling College). Adapted with permission.

2003, p. 50). The 'jury' was made up of eight people from the fields of criminology, sociology, psychology, and administration. The jury "was asked to read the definitions for each category of crime perceptions and administrative interventions and to place each item into a category using the definitions provided" (Costello, 2003, p. 50).

Question Creation

Each set of questions were set up to engage a variety of factors. Specifically questions 7, 17, 18, 39, and 22 were used to identify issues relating to fear on crime. Questions 9, 10, and 11 were used to identify victimization of crime, and finally questions 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 23, and 24 were created to identify if crime "was" a problem (Costello, 2003).

Also there were questions created to deal with administrative interventions of crime. For example, questions 19, 29, and 40 dealt with budgetary concerns; questions 13, 14, 15, and 35 dealt with security; questions 20, 21, 31, and 36 dealt with policies; questions 12, 27, 28, and 37 dealt with education initiatives; questions 25 and 30 dealt with safety, security and technology. Finally, questions 16, 32, 33, and 38 dealt with facilities changes (Costello, 2003).

Summary

This chapter demonstrates that there is clearly a problem with campus safety, but what is not so clear cut are faculty and staff perceptions. With research looking at females and student populations it appears that faculty and

safety are not as researched. Safety is very diverse, as it deals with perceptions of violence, perceptions of safety, responses to crime, statistical analysis of crime (Clery report), crime prevention, dealing with victimization and a myriad of other minute to enormous problems. This study answered with clear and convincing data the two research questions. By using quantitative and qualitative statistics to represent the data, this study will indentify “clean” and replicable tests for institutions to use in the future.

CHAPTER THREE; METHOD

Case Study

This research used the case study method, as all material and data collected was applied to one specific location. A case study, as defined by Anderson (1998),

“is a holistic research method that uses multiple sources of evidence to analyze or evaluate a specific phenomenon or instance. Most case study research is interpretive and seeks to bring to life a case. It often, but not exclusively, occurs in a natural setting and it may employ qualitative and/or quantitative methods and measures. (p. 161)

All the data that is collected is analyzed and then interpreted toward one location, event or situation. (Anderson, 1998) “Case study research, ..., is highly data-based and strives for the same degree of reliability and validity as any good research” (Anderson, 1998, p. 161).

Qualitative Method

“Qualitative research is a generic term for investigative methodologies. The interviewer is an integral part of the investigation; [t]his differs from quantitative research which attempts to gather data by objective methods” (Key, 1997, para 1). Qualitative research produces a more in-depth review of the selected topic; it utilizes “subject information and participant observation to describe the context, or natural setting, of the variables” (Key, 1997, para 1). One primary disadvantage of using this type of research is that it is subjective and it is difficult, to prevent researcher bias (Key, 1997).

According to Fitzpatrick et al. (2004), qualitative data is data that is not based in numbers and takes the form of a narrative, or verbal description.

Qualitative research has taken a dramatic shift, as noted by Devers and Frankel;

Qualitative research design has often been a 'black box' to researchers familiar with quantitative research design. Over the past several decades, however the craft of qualitative research has advanced significantly as researchers and methodologists have articulated the techniques and procedures used to move from the research question to the results. (2000, para. 1)

A research study using qualitative methods is the key instrument in the entire process. The purpose of the qualitative piece of this research is to demonstrate a "human" side of the numbers, specifically the perceptions of crime and the reality of crime. For example, Herzing University reported zero crime on their Clery report. This does not represent the perception of crime or the unreported "dark figure of crime." The researcher will attempt to establish themes in the interviews. "Theme identification is one of the most fundamental tasks in qualitative research. It is also one of the most mysterious" (Ryan & Bernard, 2010, para. 1). There are a variety of ways to analyze themes varying from using word counts, to line by line review of the material. "Some methods work well for short answers to open ended questions, while others are more appropriate for rich, complex narratives" so no one technique can do it all (Ryan & Bernard, 2010, para. 1). Themes are generally created by using the event or material being studied, or other professional agreed upon definitions by subject matter experts or researchers.

Ryan and Bernard (2010) identify four techniques including:

(1) an analysis of words (word repetitions, key-indigenous terms, and key-words-in contexts); (2) a careful reading of larger blocks of texts (compare and contrast, social science queries, and searching for missing information); (3) an intentional analysis of linguistic features (metaphors, transitions, connectors); and (4) the physical manipulation of texts (unmarked texts, pawing, and cut and sort procedures). (para. 5)

The protocol used by Costello, is an established interview process. The technique that will be used to code the data will be word repetitions. “Words that occur a lot are often seen as being salient in the minds of the respondents” (Ryan & Bernard, 2010, para.8). This is the most simple way to establish themes. “Word repetitions can be analyzed formally and informally. In the informal mode, investigators simply read the text and note words or synonyms that people use a lot” (Ryan & Bernard, 2010, para. 9). The repeated words or phrases would indicate that something is important to a specific individual. A more formal analysis can be done by using a computer program (Ryan & Bernard, 2010).

Design

“Qualitative research design can be thought of as a rough sketch to be filled in by the researcher as the study proceeds” (Devers & Frankel, 2000, para. 2). After selecting the specific questions that need to be answered a purposive sampling can take place; this type of sampling allows for a diverse cross section of individuals to be heard in the evaluation (Devers et al., 2000). This research will use purposeful sampling; “that is sampling for information-rich cases that hold greatest potential for generating insight about the phenomenon of interest.

‘Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research’” (Jones, Torres, & Arminio, 2006, p. 66). It is the role of the researcher to seek out environments which can provide the most information on the topic being studied. (Jones et al., 2006).

Quantitative Method

Quantitative methods differ from qualitative methods in a variety of ways. Both are systematic approaches, however, there are four key differences; quantitative data is objective, deductive, based on generalizations and based in numbers; while qualitative data is subjective, inductive, produces few generalizations and is based in narratives. Quantitative methods test theories while qualitative methods create theories. There are three accepted forms of quantitative research designs: descriptive, quasi-experimental, and experimental (Ross, 1999).

Statistics

Nonparametric

The nonparametric statistics are “inferential statistical techniques used for making inferences about a population itself or a sample of such a population when the data have been measured on a nominal or ordinal scale” (Quarterman, Pitts, Jackson, Kim & Kim, 2005, p. 230). A nonparametric test is generally used when the distribution of data is not normal. “[N]onparametric tests require less

restrictive assumptions about the data” (Psychological Statistics, 2010, para. 1).

The use of nonparametric statistics can be broken down into rank order, but there is no clear numerical interpretation, “such as when assessing preferences; in terms of levels of measurements, for data on an ordinal scale” (Non-parametric statistics, 2010, p 7). Nonparametric statistics can be used when a researcher wants to make fewer assumptions; another reason to use this type of statistic is that it is rather simple and can be quite robust (Non-parametric statistics, 2010).

Kruskal-Wallis Nonparametric Test

The Kruskal-Wallis is a statistical test that can be used as an alternative to Analysis of Variance. Both tests are used to analyze the impact of different variable levels on the recorded outcome. In this case, the nonparametric testing was used because Likert scales are not normally distributed and the sample size was too small to approximate a normal distribution (Karen Anderson, personal communication, July 25, 2010).

Mann-Whitney

The Mann Whitney test is used to compare two independent variables, when there is no distribution.

This test is an alternative to the independent group *t*-test, when the assumption of normality or equality of variance is not met. This, like many non-parametric tests, uses the ranks of the data rather than their raw values to calculate the statistic. Since this test does not make a distribution assumption, it is not as powerful as the *t*-test. (Statistics Software, 2010, para 3)

Pearson Chi-squared

The Pearson Chi Squared test is a non-parametric test that is used to determine how likely it is that the observed value occurred by chance alone when compared to its expected value. As mentioned in Statistics Solutions (2010),

In Chi-Square goodness of fit test, the term goodness of fit is used to compare the observed sample distribution with the expected probability distribution. Chi-Square goodness of fit test determines how well theoretical distribution (such as normal, binomial, or Poisson) fits the empirical distribution. (para. 1)

The chi-square statistic is the sum of the contributions from each of the individual cells. Every cell in a table contributes something to the overall chi-square statistic. If a given cell differs markedly from the expected frequency, then the contribution of that cell to the overall chi-square is large. If a cell is close to the expected frequency for that cell, then the contribution of that cell to the overall chi-square is low. A large chi-square statistic indicates that somewhere in the table, the observed frequencies differ markedly from the expected frequencies. It does not tell which cell (or cells) are causing the high chi-square.... only that they are there. When a chi-square is high, you must visually examine the table to determine which cell(s) are responsible. (Statpac, 2010, para. 4)

The Pearson Chi-squared will have a score or p-value of > 0.05 to be considered statistically significant for this research project.

Validity

“Validity is an important key to effective research. If a piece of research is invalid then it is worthless” (Cohen, 2007, p.133). Is important to know that validity and reliability are important in any research, with regard to qualitative research the “validity might be addressed through honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data archived” (Cohen, 2007, p. 133). Of course the use of

triangulation and an objective investigator is of vital importance, however “[i]t is impossible for (qualitative) research to be 100 per cent valid [sic]; that is the optimism of perfection” (Cohen, 2007, p. 133). Validity should be measured in degrees rather than in absolutes. There are many types of validity and “validity is the touchstone of all types of educational research” (Cohen, 2007, p. 134).

In qualitative research the investigator(s) need to be prepared and cautious not to have a personal agenda. Cohen suggested that validity should be replaced with authenticity in qualitative research. Cohen (2007) further stated that by the very nature of qualitative research and the personal responses of the participants, the data should be considered valid and reliable.

There are generally five types of validity in qualitative research; they are: 1. descriptive validity, 2. theoretical validity, 3. generalizability (or external validity), 4. evaluative validity and 5. interpretive validity (Cohen, 2007). This specific research will be satisfied by generalizability, as defined by Cohen (2007):

(the view that the theory generated may be useful in understanding other similar situations): generalizing here refers to generalizing within specific groups or communities, situations or circumstances validly and, beyond, to specific outsider communities, situations or circumstances (external validity); internal validity has greater significance here than external validity (135).

With regard to internal validity, it “seeks to demonstrate that the explanation of a particular event, issue or set of data which a piece of research provides can actually be sustained by the data” (Cohen, 2007, p. 135). The purpose of internal validity is to provide an accurate description of what is being studied (Cohen, 2007).

External validity also is important because it “refers to the degree which the results can be generalized to the wider population, cases or situations” (Cohen, 2007, p. 136). With regard to the instrumentation or survey it is important to demonstrate content validity. With the sample population used by Costello it should be considered valid.

With the researcher using an established instrument, which has already been used in another doctoral dissertation, there is validity with both the interview protocol and the survey questions. Costello had a total of 323 people respond to the surveys and 15 individuals were interviewed using his protocol.

Reliability

Reliability has different meanings in quantitative and qualitative research. “Reliability in quantitative research is essentially a synonym for dependability, consistency, and replicability over time, over instruments, and over groups of respondents” (Cohen, 2007, p. 146). In quantitative research, reliability is concerned with accuracy of the data. “For research to be reliable it must demonstrate that if it were to be carried out on a similar group of respondents in a similar context, then similar results would be found” (Cohen, 2007, p. 146).

Reliability in qualitative research generally is “regarded as a fit between the researchers’ record as data and what actually occurs in the natural setting” (Cohen, 2007, p. 149). One problem with qualitative research is that two researchers studying the same event might reach different interpretations of the

same data. Qualitative research “strives to record the multiple interpretations of, intention in, and meanings given to situations and events” (Cohen, 2007, p. 149).

Triangulation

Triangulation is generally defined as the “use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behavior” (Cohen, 2007, p. 141). “The use of triangular techniques it is argued, will help overcome the problem of ‘method-boundedness’, as it has been termed;. . . demonstrate the value of combining qualitative and quantitative methods” (Cohen, 2007, p. 142).

The researcher used triangulation of the interviews with the surveys in an attempt to answer each research question.

Mixed Methods

“When using mixed methods, the evaluator (researcher) should consider her purpose or purposes in using those mixed methods and select the design or approach most appropriate for achieving that purpose” (Fitzpatrick et al., 2004, p. 319). With the use of mixed methods, it allows for triangulation. As noted in Creswell (2009),

Mixed methods research is an approach to inquiry that combines or associates both qualitative and quantitative forms. It involves philosophical assumptions, the use of qualitative and quantitative approaches and mixing of both approaches in a study. Thus, it is more than simply collecting and analyzing both kinds of data: it also involves the use of both approaches in tandem so that the overall strength of a study is greater than either qualitative or quantitative research. (p. 3)

With this the researcher will be able to demonstrate a better understanding of the event that is being studied. If the researcher uses in-depth interviews to explain the survey results, a much richer picture will be provided. In this specific study, the researcher demonstrated more understanding of crime data, by using the interviews with the employees (Fitzpatrick et al., 2004). The use of a mixed method approach is best when qualitative or quantitative approaches cannot provide a clear picture of the research problem or question being studied (Creswell, 2009). To completely understand crime and victimization both quantitative and qualitative need to be used, because crime is very personal.

Data

The data for this study came from the approximately 55 full and part time faculty and staff at Herzing University. Additionally, a review of historical records was conducted using public documents from the Crystal Police Department, surrounding communities and crime data from the Clery records at Herzing University.

The primary data collection method for the 5 managers employed at Herzing University were structured interviews. The interviewer conducted one-on-one confidential interviews with the five managers. The remaining employees were sent, via email, the questions so they could have adequate time to reflect. There were no deviations from the questions sent via email. All employees had their interviews transcribed and sent back for review, where they were able to make notations of corrections and clarification statements.

Access Plan

The researcher sent an email to President John Slama at Herzing University. The email detailed the purpose of the study, benefits of the study to Herzing University, and the timeline of the study (Appendix C).

Once the researcher was granted approval from Herzing University, letters were sent to the intended participants via email. The researcher provided the questions for study, a statement relating to the voluntariness of the study, as well as contact information for the researcher.

Who

The individuals being interviewed at Herzing University were the supervisors and administrators at the institution. The number of individuals interviewed was five. Also all employees, part time and full time, were asked to take a survey. The survey was administered using Survey Monkey. An appropriate informed consent (Appendix D) form accompanied both the invitation and as well as an informed consent on the first questions on Survey Monkey. The survey took approximately 10-12 minutes to be completed

Permission

Permission for this study was granted from President John Slama of the Herzing Minnesota Campus (Appendix C). This permission was granted due to the expectation of positive outcomes that could help Herzing University.

Data Collection

A primary source of data came from the survey that was sent out to all faculty and staff using Survey Monkey. The secondary method of data collection was interviews with 5 individuals. Finally, historical records were reviewed. Specifically the records of Herzing University Clery Reports and the Crystal Police Department crime data from around the Herzing University campus.

Instrumentation

The research used a predetermined set of interview questions by Robert Costello for his dissertation and modified for this study. The researcher received permission to use, modify, and publish Dr. Robert Costello survey, and interview protocol (Appendix F). There was additional question in the survey added by the researcher that deals with degree level of respondents. Moreover, these questions dealt with length of employment at the school, race, age, degree, and if the subject has been a victim of a crime of violence or of a property crime.

Protection of Subjects

The researcher provided all employees that are part of the study a disclosure form, which outlined that participation in this study is completely voluntary and that they may withdraw. Additionally, the researcher outlined that all names or other possible indentifying indicators would be removed. The interviews were conducted and taped on an audio recorder. The researcher and

the transcriptionist were the only two people who had access to hear or review the original interviews. The transcriptionist signed a confidentiality agreement. Subjects had had a chance to accurately make corrections to their statements the audio recordings will be destroyed 5 years after publication. The researcher generated a contract with the transcriptionist to indicate that all work was given back to the researcher.

The data were displayed in aggregate form. Although Herzing University was aware of the participants they were not able to review the material. To protect the subjects' statements that were reviewed, they will be either (a) be hand delivered to the subject, or (b) emailed using a secure work email. The subjects of the study were provided an email address that is secure, and all material are to be stored on the researcher's personal computer and safety protocols were utilized to ensure protection of the confidentiality of the subjects and the data.

The subjects of the interview were provided an informed consent (Appendix E). The consent informs the subject that the survey is voluntary. All of the subjects were provided a detailed description of the purpose of the study, what the researcher intended doing with the data, how it was collected, as well as any possible affects to the subjects for participation in the study (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

The subjects of the data were given a copy of their statements once completely edited, additionally all subjects of the data and Herzing University received a PDF copy of the dissertation prior to the defense and publication to

ensure the statements and materials are correct and accurate. Once published the raw data will be kept secure for a period of 5 years and then destroyed to protect the subjects of the data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the perceptions of employee safety at Herzing University. Herzing University is a for profit institution. A mixed methods research approach was used. Specifically, a survey was sent out to 55 employees at Herzing University a total of 18 individuals responded to the Survey Monkey tool. Additionally, qualitative interviews were conducted of the five functional managers at Herzing University.

Research Questions

Question One

How do employees of a Herzing University, (Minnesota) perceive safety on campus?

Question Two

What role do demographics play in perceptions of campus safety?

Quantitative Data Analysis

Research Question One and Two

How do employees of higher education institutions perceive safety on campus? What role doe demographics play in perceptions of campus safety? The researcher reviewed a total of 16 questions against 6 demographic data sets to determine how employees perceived safety on Herzing University Minneapolis Campus. The population of Herzing is 55 employees while the sample for this

quantitative research was 18 which means that 37 individuals did not respond, with a response rate of 32.7%. The Likert Scale responses were converted to reflect number scores (strong disagree to 1, disagree to 2, neither agree nor disagree to 3, agree to 4 and strong agree to 5). The response rate was 32.7272%.

Questions

Eighteen individuals responded to survey question one: Is crime a problem facing Herzing University? 5.55% strongly disagreed, 72.22% disagreed, 11.11% neither agreed nor disagreed, while 11.11% agreed that crime was a problem facing Herzing. The Pearson-Chi-square test had a total value of 21.556, with 3 *df*, with a *p*-value of 0.000. This means that a 77.77% of the respondents felt that crime is not a problem on Herzing University campus. This information is presented in figure 1.

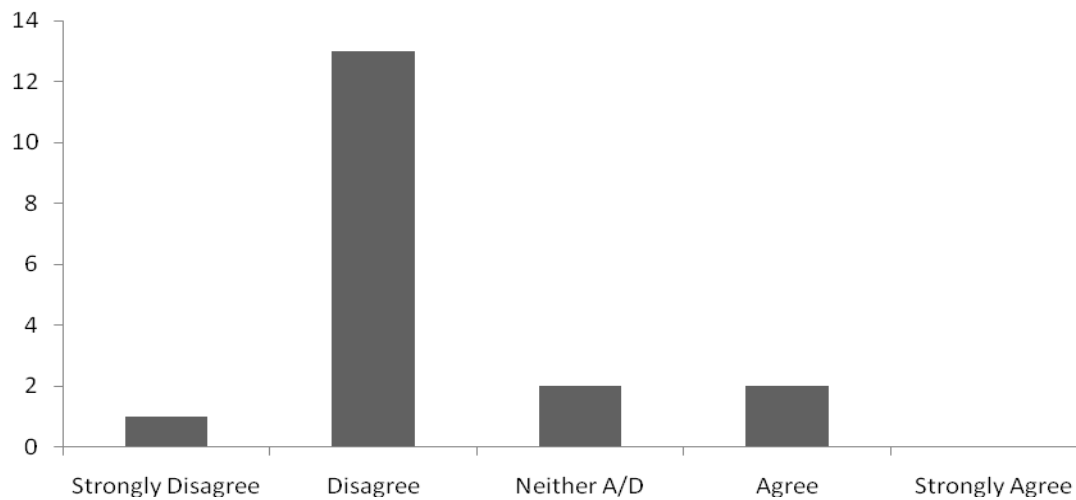


Figure 1: Responses to question one

Eighteen individuals responded to survey questions two: Is violent crime a problem at Herzing University? 55.55% strongly disagreed, 33.33% disagreed, 5.55% neither agreed nor disagreed, while 5.55% agreed that crime was a problem facing Herzing. The Pearson-Chi-square test had a total value of 12.667, with 3 *df*, with a *p*-value of 0.005 indicating that not all cells are equally likely. 88.889% of the respondents felt that violent crime was not a problem at Herzing. This information is presented in figure 2.

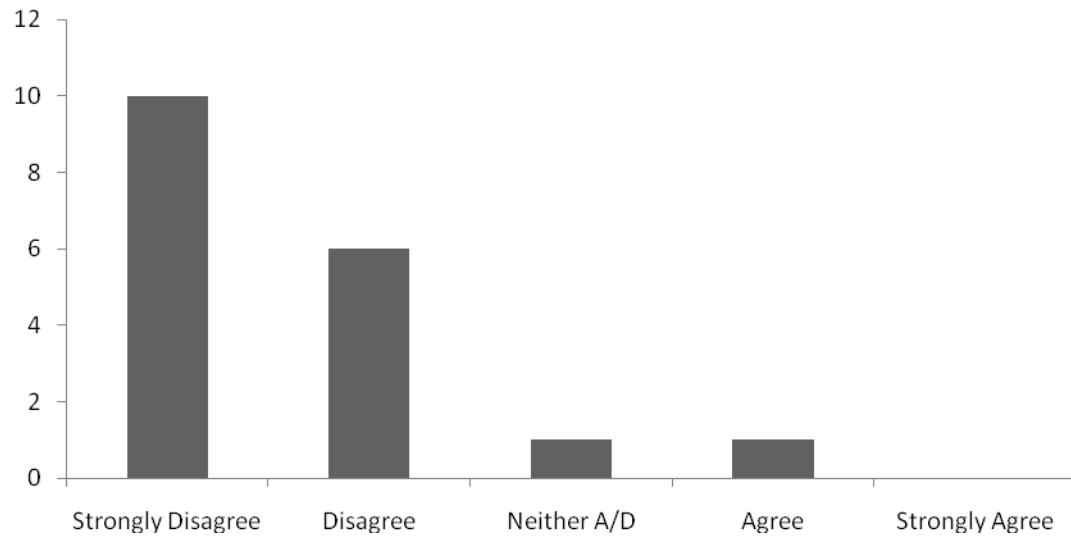


Figure 2: Responses to question two

Eighteen individuals responded to question three: Is property crime a problem at Herzing University? 44.44% disagreed, 33.33% neither agreed nor disagreed while 22.22% agreed. The Pearson Chi-square test had a total value of 1.333 with 2 *df*, and a *p*-value of 0.513, indicating that there was no significant difference between responses. The perception of property crime being an issue is divided. This information is presented in figure 3.

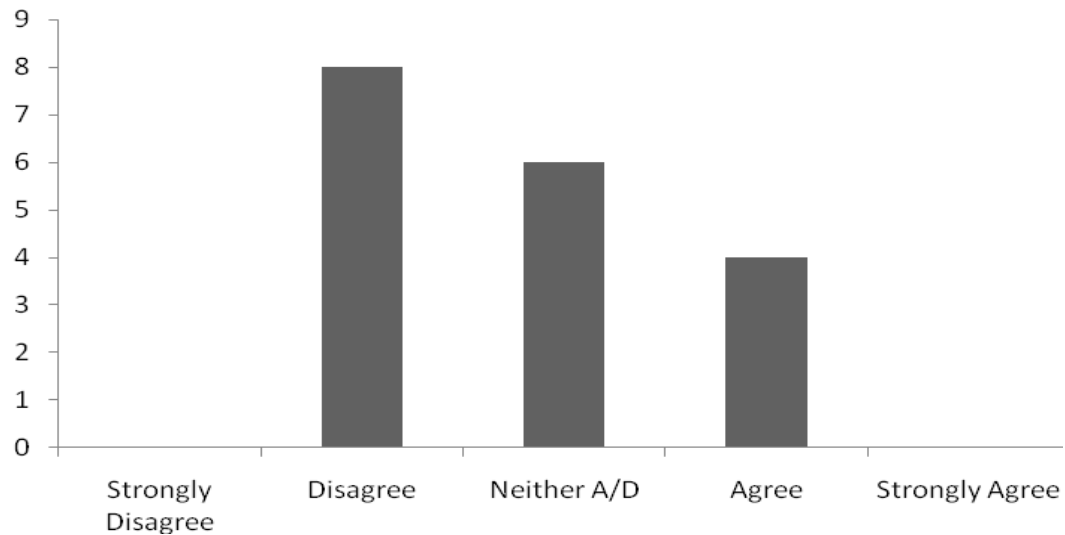


Figure 3. Responses to question three

Eighteen individuals responded to question four: Are drug violations a problem at Herzing University? 16.667% strongly disagreed, 61.111% disagreed and 22.22% neither agreed nor disagreed. The Pearson Chi-square test had a value of .6.333, with 2 degrees of freedom and a p-value of .042. This question demonstrates that Herzing employees felt that there were problems with narcotic abuse on the school property. This information is presented in figure 4.

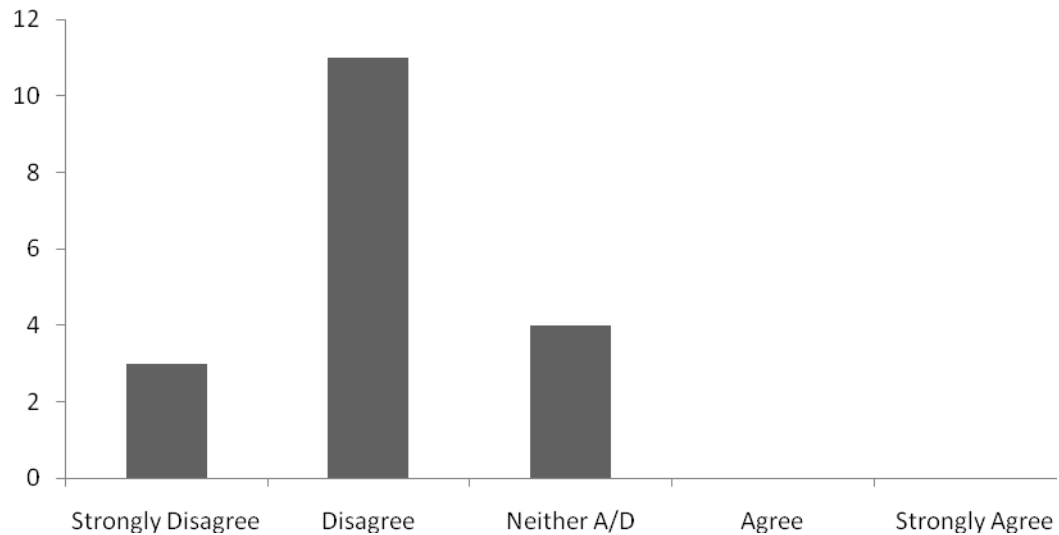


Figure 4. Responses to question number four

Seventeen individuals respond to question five: Are liquor law violations a problem at Herzing University? 23.52% strongly disagreed, 70.58% disagreed and 5.82% neither agreed nor disagreed. The Pearson Chi-square test had a value of 11.41, with 2 *df* and a *p*-value of .003. This is important and demonstrates that Herzing employee felt that there were not significant problems with liquor laws violations on the school property. This information is presented in figure 5.

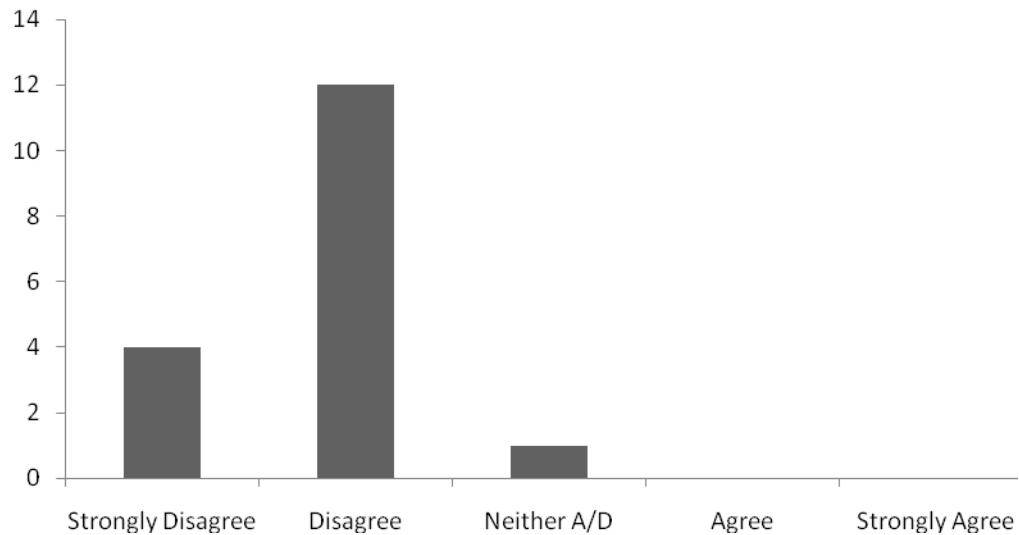


Figure 5. Responses to question number 5

Eighteen individuals responded to question six: Is the fear of crime prevalent at Herzing University? 27.77% strongly disagreed, 44.44% disagreed, 11.11% neither agreed or disagreed and 16.667 agreed. The Pearson Chi-square test had a value of 4.667, there were 3 *df* and the *p*-value was .198. The majority of the responses were in the strongly disagree or disagree responses (72%+). Meaning that there was no fear or little fear of crime. This information is presented in figure 6.

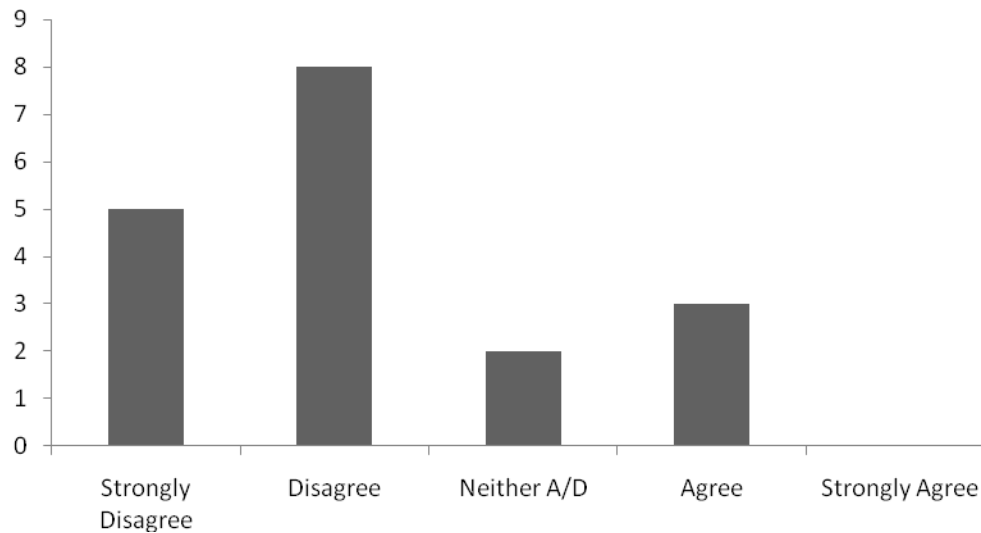


Figure 6. Responses to question number six

Eighteen individuals responded to question seven: Are people related to the campus committing the crimes at Herzing University? 11.11% strongly disagreed, 5.56% disagreed, 50.0% neither agreed or disagreed, 27.77% agreed and 5.56% strongly agreed. The Pearson Chi-square test had a value of 13.111, there were 4 *df* and the *p*-value was .011. There was significance to indicate the perception of outsiders may be ones who were the perpetrators of the criminal activity that has occurred on Herzing University property. This information is presented in figure 7.

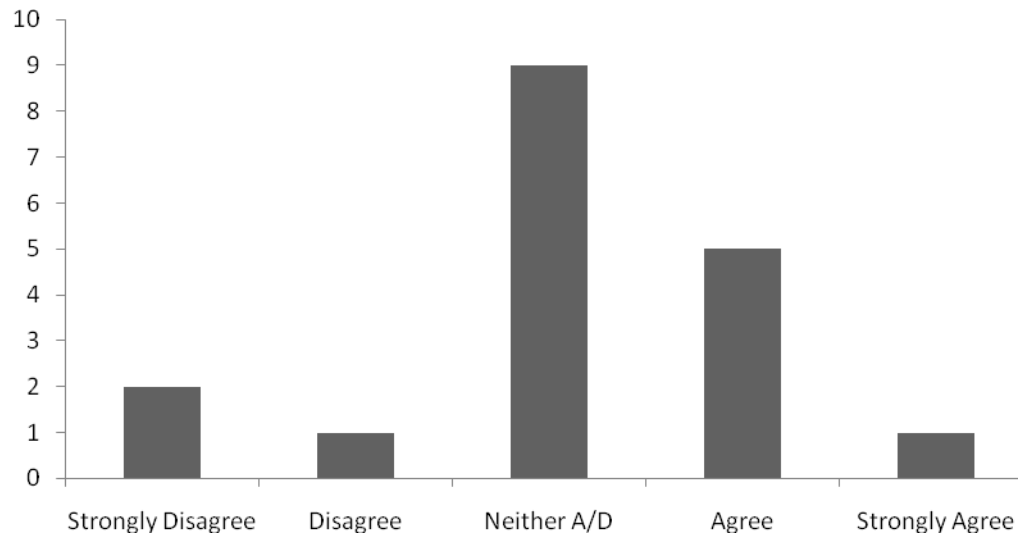


Figure 7. Responses to question number seven.

Eighteen individuals responded to question eight: Are weapons violations a problem at Herzing University? Fifty percent strongly disagreed and 50% disagreed. The Pearson Chi-square test had a value of 0.0 with 1 *df* and the *p*-value was 1.0. The response strongly indicated the perception that weapons violations are not a problem at Herzing University. This information is presented in figure 8.

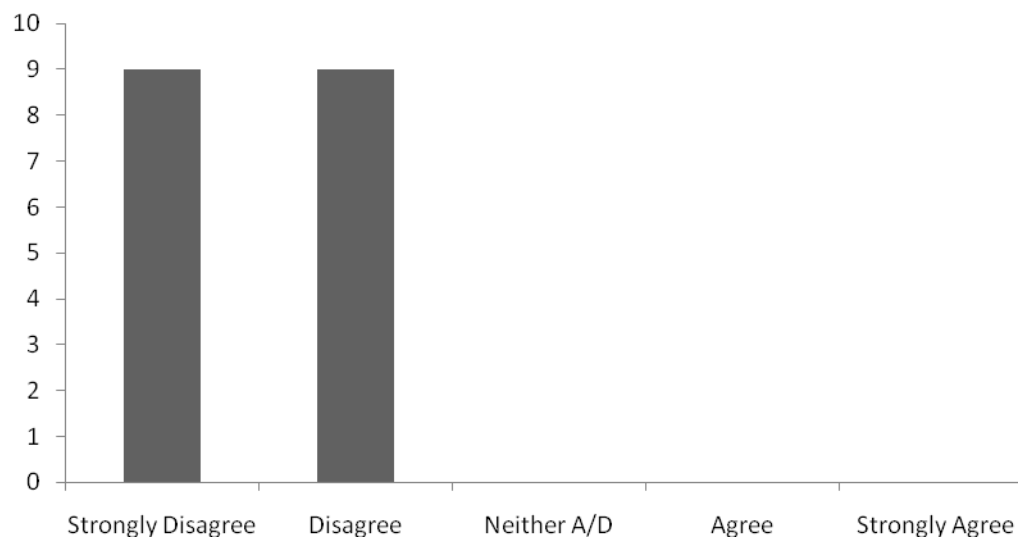


Figure 8. Responses to question number eight

Eighteen individuals responded to question nine: I know at least one person victimized by a crime at Herzing University? 22.22% strongly disagreed, 38.88% disagreed and 38.88% agreed. The Pearson Chi-square test had a value of 1.00 with 2 *df* and a *p*-value of 0.607 which indicated that while most people (61%) did not know a crime victim, there was still a significant awareness of people who has been victimized. This information is presented in figure 9.

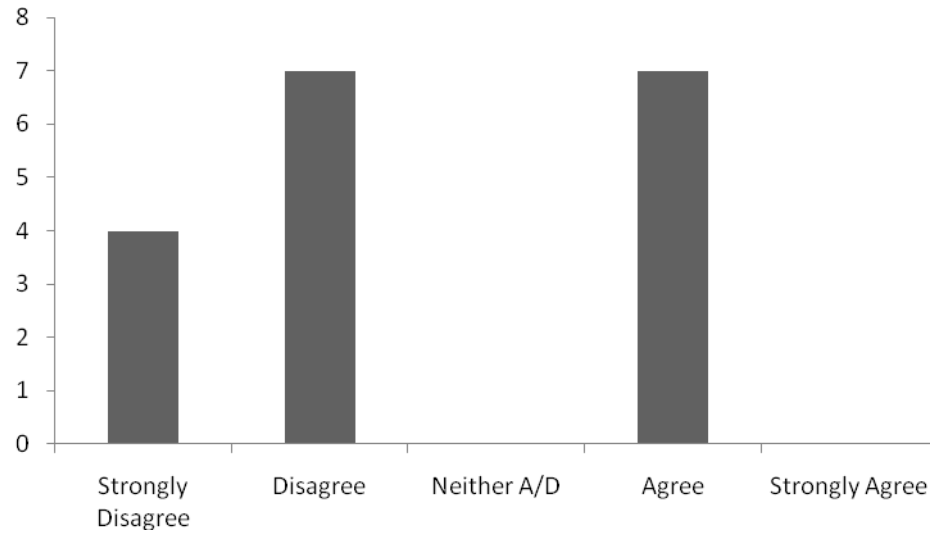


Figure 9. Responses to question number nine.

Eighteen individuals responded to question ten: I have confidence in the security at Herzing University? 11.11% strongly disagreed, 27.78% disagreed, 22.22% neither agreed nor disagreed, 27.78% agreed and 11.11% strongly agreed. The Pearson Chi-square test had a value of 2.556, with 4 *df*, and a *p*-value of .635, which indicated a mixed perception of security at Herzing University. This information is presented in figure 10.

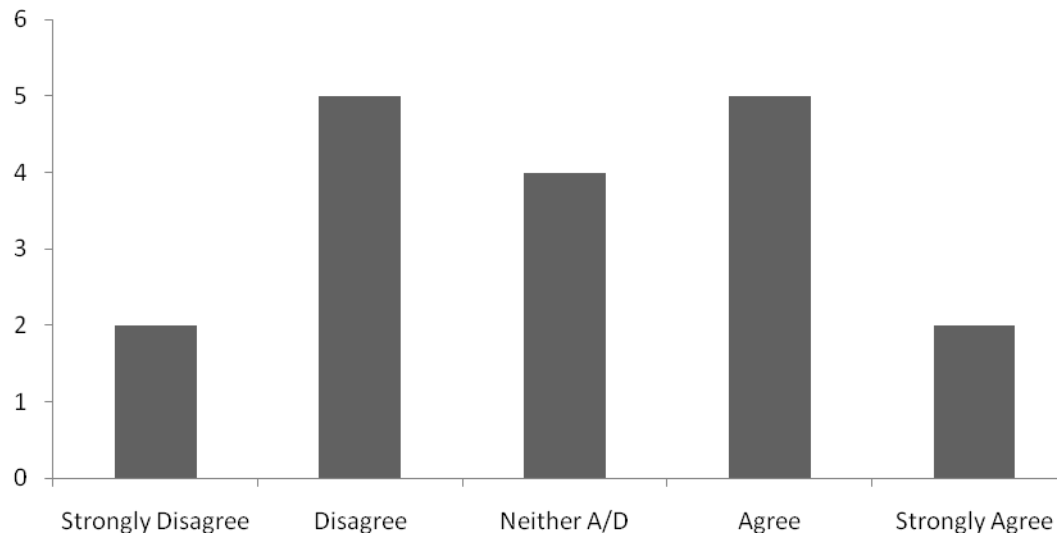


Figure 10. Responses to question number 10.

Eighteen individuals responded to question eleven: Is the building at Herzing University adequately secure? 5.55% strongly disagreed, 38.88% disagreed, 16.667% neither agreed nor disagreed, 33.33% agreed and 5.55% strongly agreed. The Pearson Chi-square test had a value of 8.667, with 4 *df*, and a *p*-value of .070 which indicated a fairly even split in perception. This information is presented in figure 11.

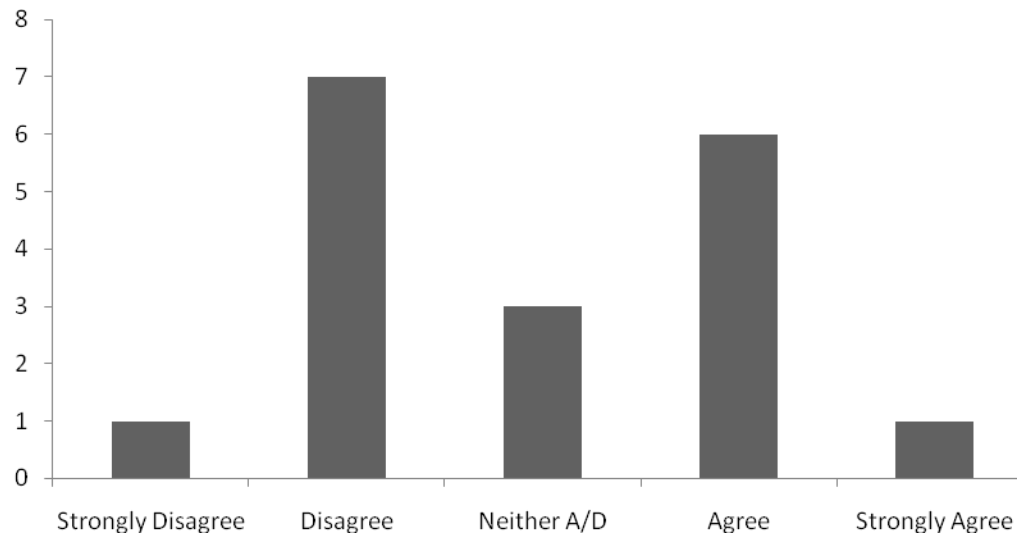


Figure 11. Responses to question number eleven.

Eighteen individuals responded to question twelve: I feel safe in Herzing University parking facilities? 5.55% strongly disagreed, 22.22% disagreed, 27.778% neither agreed nor disagreed, 38.88% agreed and 5.55% strongly agreed. The Pearson Chi-square test had a value of 7.556, with 4 df, and a *p*-value of .109 which indicated a mixed perception of safety in the parking lot. This information is presented in figure 12.

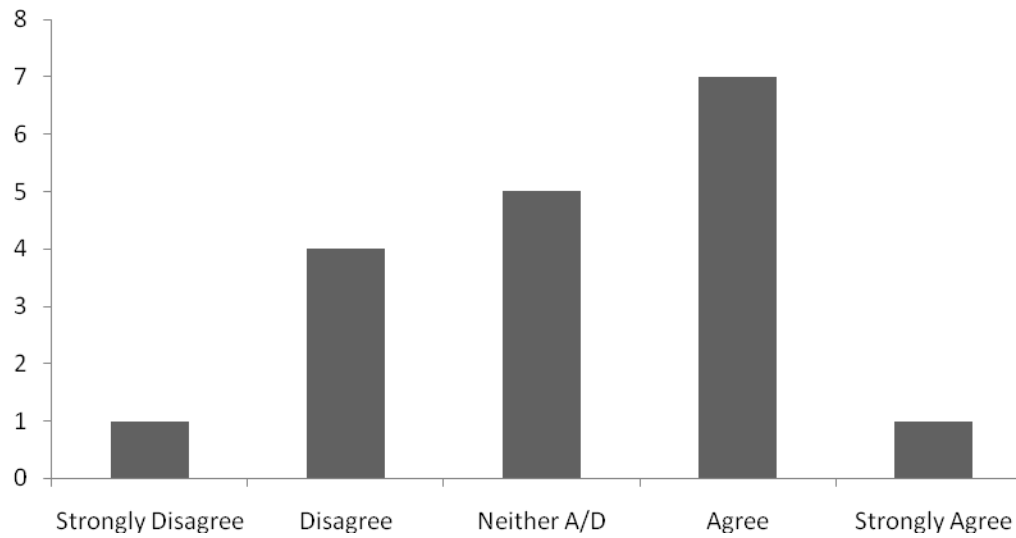


Figure 12. Responses to question number twelve.

Eighteen individuals responded to question thirteen: I am aware of a yearly public safety report published and distributed to all students, faculty, and administrators that is required by federal law. 77.77% were aware of the reports while 22.22% were not aware of the report. The Pearson Chi-square test had a value of 5.556 with 1 *df*, and a *p*-value of 0.018 which indicated a substantial number of people were aware of the report. This information is presented in figure 13.

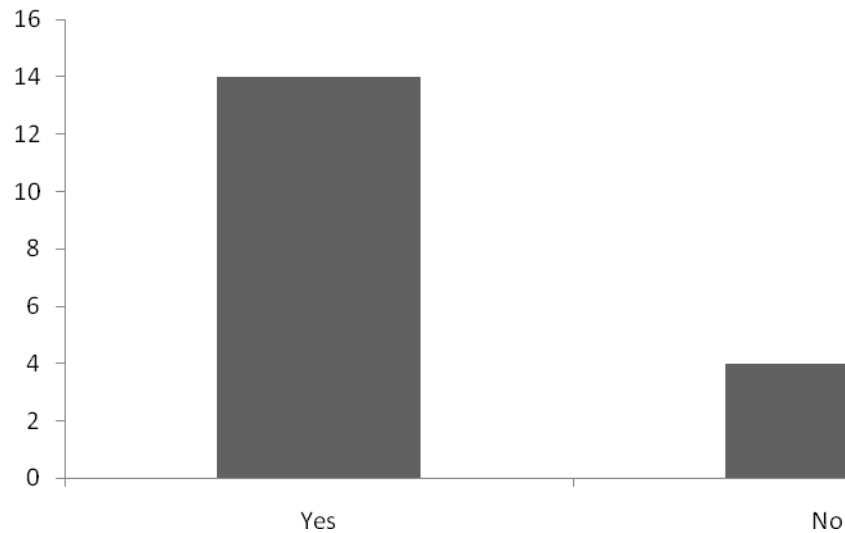


Figure 13. Responses to question thirteen.

Eighteen individuals responded to question fourteen: In the last 6 months I have been afraid of being a victim of a crime at Herzing University. 11.11% were aware of the Clery report(s) while 88.88% were not afraid of being a victim. The Pearson Chi-square test had a value of 10.889 with 1 *df*, and a *p*-value of 0.001, which indicated a very that there is a significant perception of being safe on campus. This information is presented in figure 14.

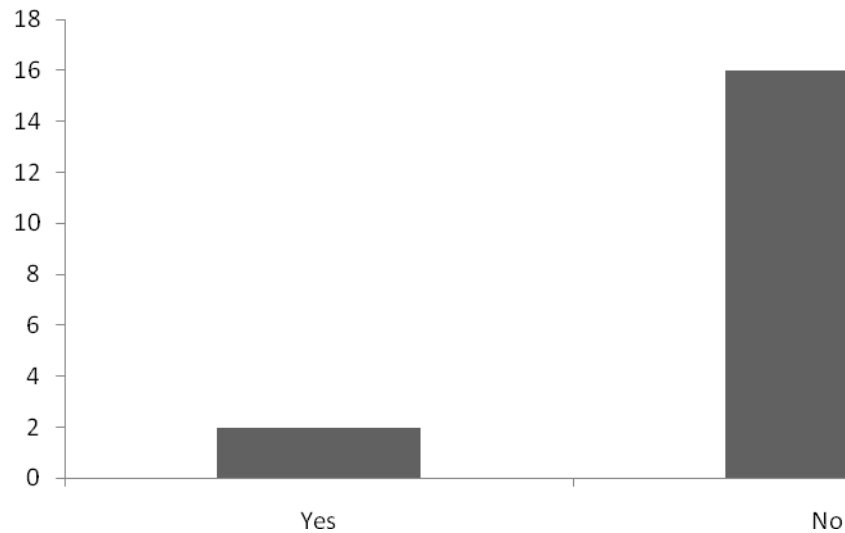


Figure 14. Responses to question fourteen.

Eighteen individuals responded to question fifteen: In the past month I have discussed with someone the crime at Herzing University. 11.11% were talking about crime while 88.88% had not discussed crime with anyone at Herzing University. The Pearson Chi-square test had a value of 10.889 with 1 *df*, and a *p*-value of 0.001, which indicated significance that crime is not a common topic of conversation Herzing University. This information is presented in figure 15.

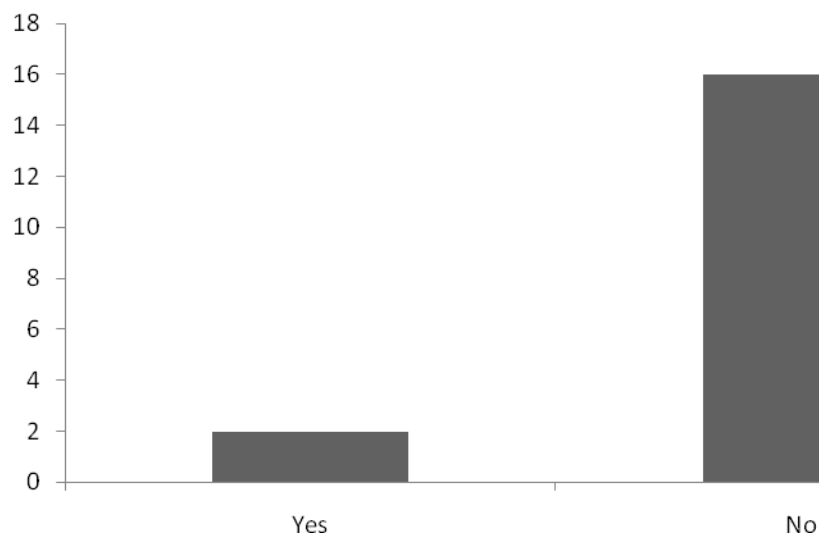


Figure 15. Responses to question fifteen

Eighteen individuals responded to question sixteen: I personally know of at least one person at this college who fears crime at Herzing University. 27.77% were aware of one person who fears crime while 72.22% were not aware of anyone that was fearful of crime. The Pearson Chi-square test had a value of 3.556 with 1 *df* , and a *p*-value of 0.059. Indicating that the campus was not aware of individuals on campus who were victims. This information is presented in figure 16.

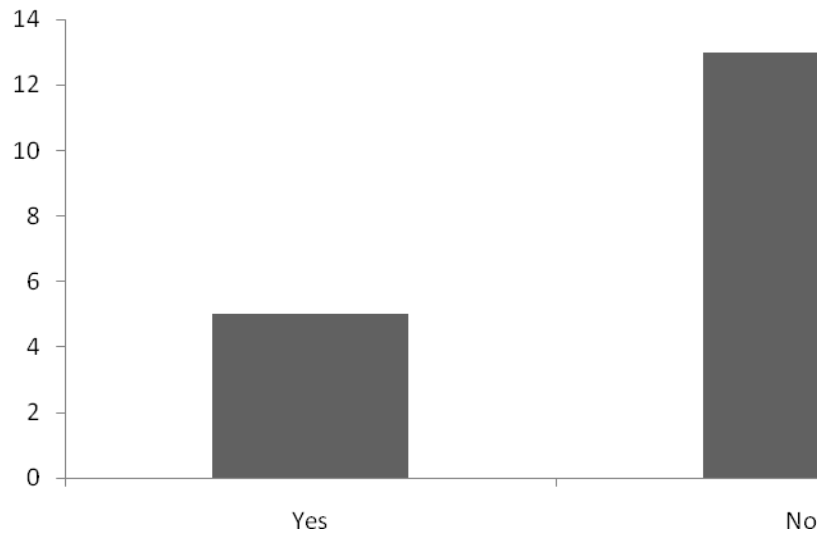


Figure 16. Responses to question sixteen.

Analysis of Question One

Research Question Two

What role do demographics play in perceptions of campus safety? The researcher used Survey Monkey to administer a 16 question survey. The researcher requested specific demographic information. The demographic breakup of information that the researcher requested was if the respondents were faculty or staff, hours worked (part time or full time), shift worked (day, evening and weekend), gender, highest degree completed (2 year, 4 year, masters, law or educational specialist, and doctorate), and finally age range (18-28, 29-39, 40-50, 51-61 and 61+). A total of 18 individuals responded to the survey. The only difference in response rate was question number 5, which only 17 people responded to, there were a total of 16 female and 2 males that responded to the survey.

In looking at demographics one of the easiest to identify is gender. At Herzing University 2 males completed the survey 16 females completed the survey. This information is presented in figure 17.

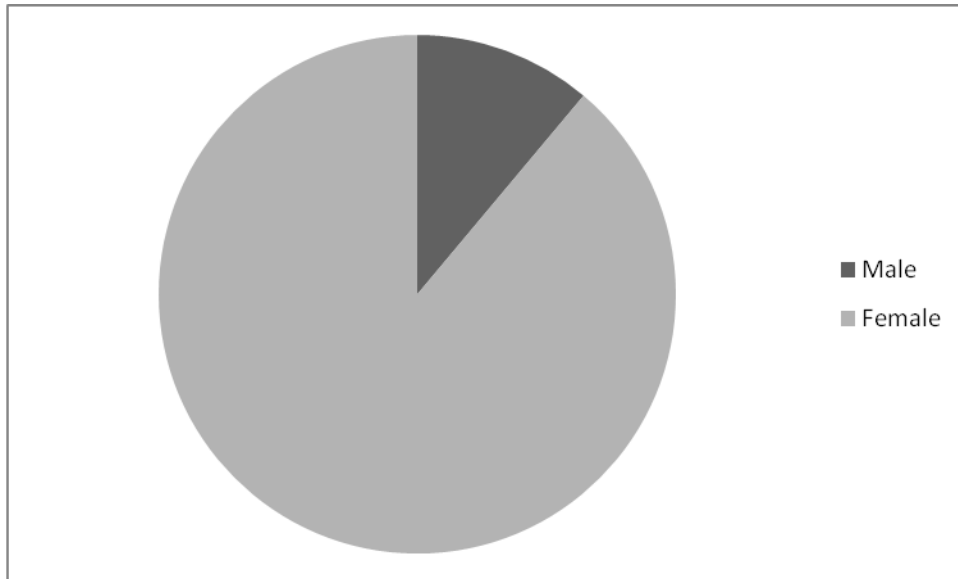


Figure 17. Breakdown of responses by gender.

To analyze the data as it relates to gender and the sixteen questions the Mann-Whitney U test, Chi-squared approximation and p-value were used. There was no statistical significance between males and females in how they responded to the sixteen questions. This information is presented in table 1.

Table 1

Responses and the Scores of the Tests.

Gender	Mann-Whitney	Chi-Square	p-value
Q1	13	0.285	0.593
Q2	16	0	1
Q3	13	0.205	0.651
Q4	15	0.26	0.872
Q5	9.5	0.147	0.701
Q6	21	0.556	0.456
Q7	13	0.208	0.648
Q8	16	0	1
Q9	7.5	1.631	0.202
Q10	28.5	3.259	0.071
Q11	26	2.188	0.139
Q12	25	1.754	0.185
Q13	21	0.949	0.33
Q14	18	0.266	0.606
Q15	18	0.266	0.606
Q16	21	0.817	0.366

The next demographic examined was that of the group variable was that of employment type (faculty or staff) at Herzing University. A total of 18 employees completed this survey question. Seven of the respondents were faculty and 11 were staff. This information is presented in figure 18.

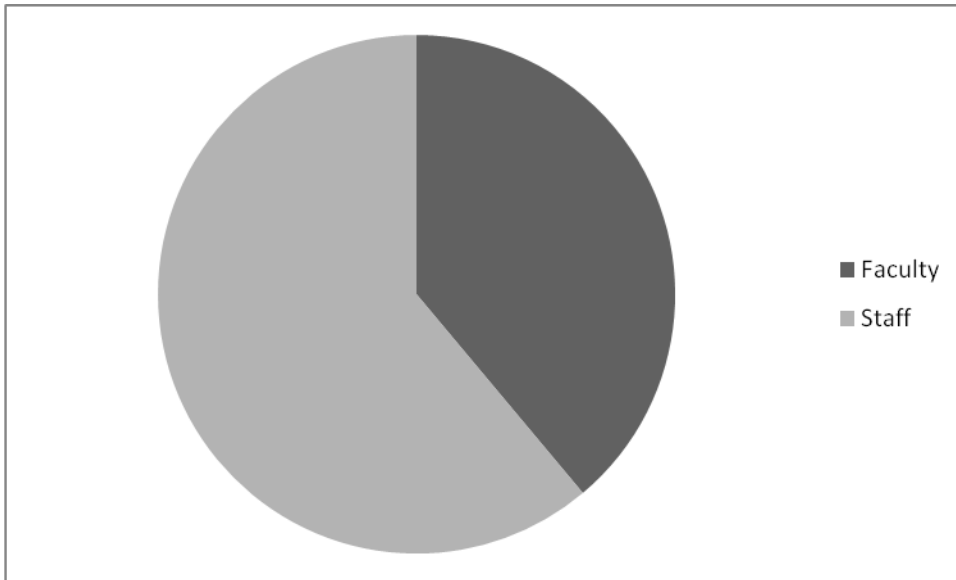


Figure 18. Breakdown of classification of employee

To analyze the data as it related to employment classification (faculty or staff) and the sixteen survey questions the Mann-Whitney U test, Chi-squared approximation and p-value were additionally degrees of freedom are mentioned. There was only one response that showed statistical significance and that was how the individuals responded to question eleven. Question eleven dealt with the security of the building at Herzing University. This information is presented in table 2.

Table 2

Responses and the Scores of the Tests.

Faculty or staff	Mann-Whitney	Chi-Square	p-value
Q1	28.5	1.318	0.251
Q2	42.5	0.165	0.684
Q3	29.5	0.766	0.381
Q4	43	0.219	0.64
Q5	34	0.016	0.9
Q6	52	1.684	0.194
Q7	34	0.194	0.659
Q8	43	0.221	0.638
Q9	31	0.528	0.468
Q10	46.5	0.555	0.456
Q11	63	5.459	0.019
Q12	47	0.65	0.42
Q13	51.5	2.665	0.0103
Q14	36.5	0.11	0.74
Q15	36.5	0.11	0.74
Q16	38	0.003	0.954

The third demographic analyzed was employment (full time or part time), a total of 18 employees completed the survey. Seventeen of the employees were full time, while only one was part time. This information is presented in figure 19.

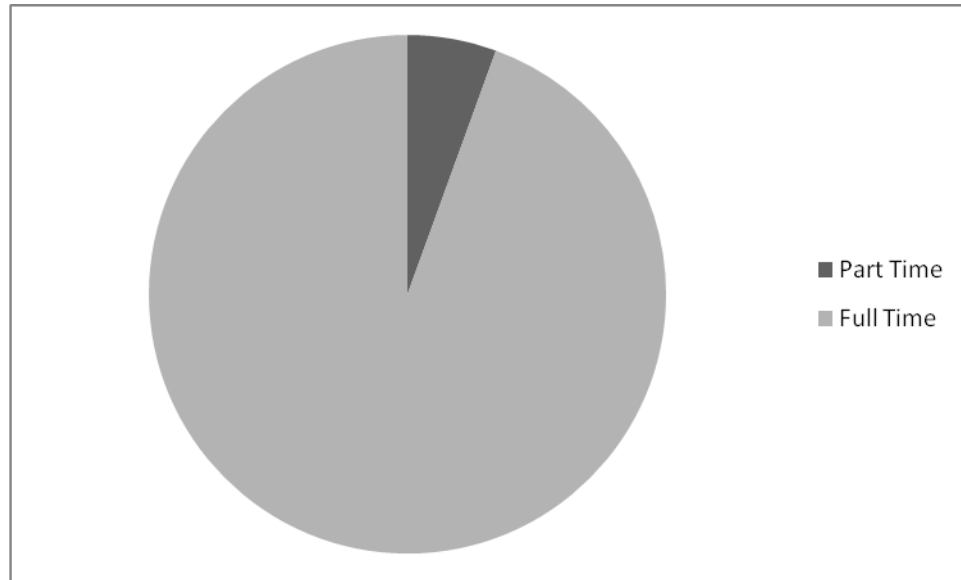


Figure 19. Breakdown of employment type

To analyze the data as it relates to employment type (part or full time) and the sixteen survey questions the Mann-Whitney U test, Chi-squared approximation and p-value were additionally degrees of freedom are mentioned. There was no statistical evidence to report. This information is presented in table 3.

Table 3

Responses and the Scores of the Tests

Hours	Mann-Whitney	Chi-Square	p-value
Q1	7	0.134	0.714
Q2	12.5	0.749	0.387
Q3	3.5	1.071	0.301
Q4	8	0.012	0.912
Q5	9.5	0.147	0.701
Q6	8.5	0	1
Q7	2	1.837	0.175
Q8	13	1	0.317
Q9	7	0.096	0.757
Q10	16.5	2.513	0.113
Q11	17	2.976	0.085
Q12	17	2.946	0.086
Q13	6.5	2.946	0.086
Q14	9.5	0.125	0.724
Q15	9.5	0.125	0.724
Q16	11	0.385	0.535

The fourth demographic analyzed was shift (days, evenings and weekends), a total of eighteen employees completed the survey. Seventeen employees worked 8:00 in the morning to 4:00 in the afternoon, while only one person worked from 4:00 in the afternoon until 10:00 at night. No employees stated that they worked on the weekend. This information is presented in figure 18.

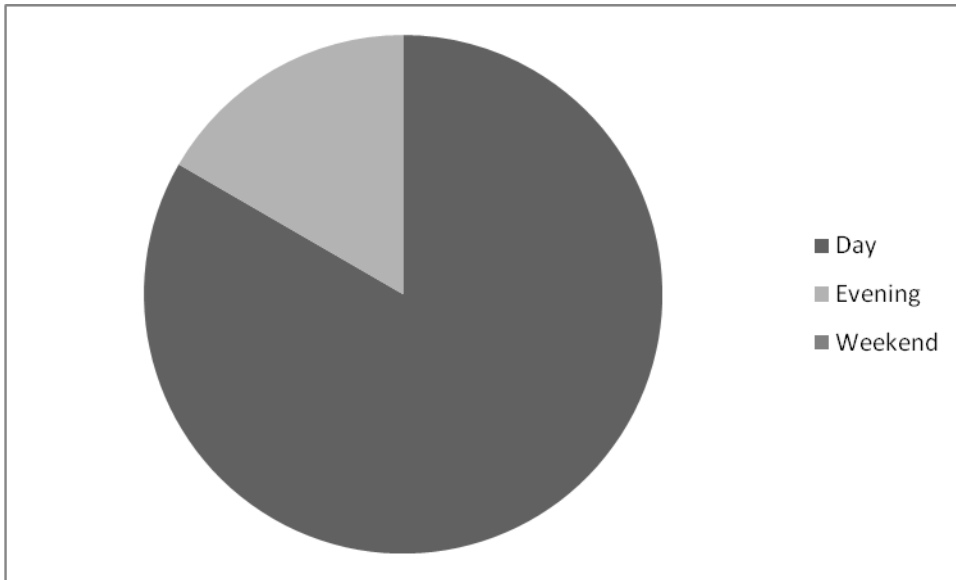


Figure 20. Breakdown of responses by shift worked

To analyze the data as it relates to shift worked (day and evening) and the sixteen survey questions the Mann-Whitney U test, Chi-squared approximation and p-value were additionally degrees of freedom are mentioned. There was statistical significance in the following questions, question number four: Are drug violations a problem at Herzing University? and question eleven: Is the building at Herzing University adequately secure? This information is presented in table 4.

Table 4

Responses and the Scores of the Tests

Shift	Mann-Whitney	Chi-Square	p-value
Q1	34	2.983	0.084
Q2	26.5	0.283	0.595
Q3	37.5	3.643	0.056
Q4	38	4.445	0.035
Q5	32.5	3.294	0.07
Q6	29	0.668	0.414
Q7	25	0.103	0.749
Q8	27	0.378	0.539
Q9	25.5	0.145	0.704
Q10	14.5	0.949	0.33
Q11	4	5.326	0.021
Q12	15.5	0.755	0.385
Q13	28.5	0.971	0.324
Q14	19.5	0.425	0.514
Q15	19.5	0.425	0.514
Q16	24	0.052	0.819

The fifth demographic that was analyzed was that of degree type. The researcher broke the degrees down into five groups (2 year, 4 year, masters, law or professional degree, and doctorate). A total of 18 people responded to the survey. Two people had a 2 year degree, eleven people had 4 year degrees, four people had masters and one person had a doctorate. As displayed most of the employees at Herzing University had a 4 year degree. This information is presented in figure 21.

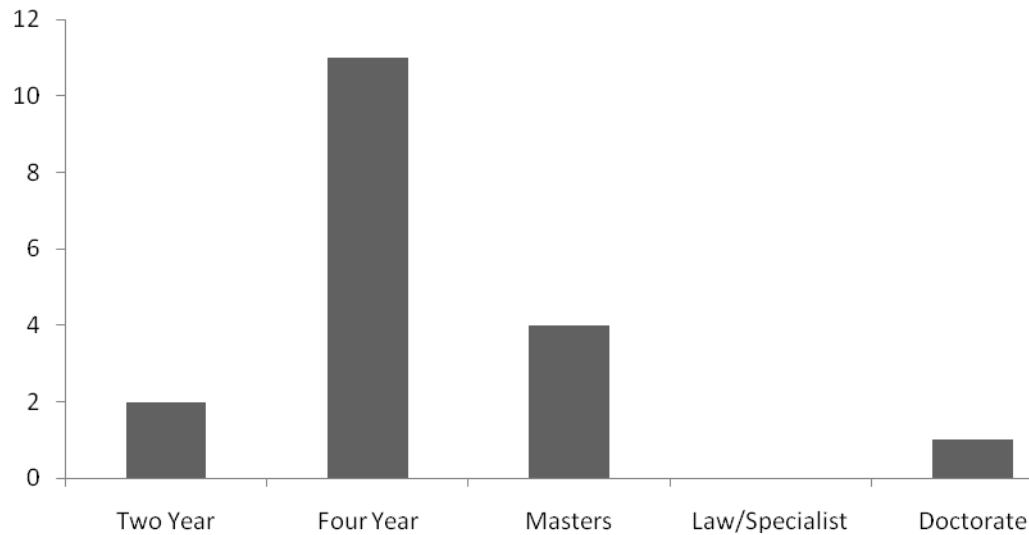


Figure 21. Breakdown of responses by educational degree

To analyze the data as it related to highest degree achieved and the sixteen survey questions the Kruskal Wallis test and the p-value were used to demonstrate statistical significance. There was only statistical significance in two questions. Question fourteen: In the past 6 months I have been afraid of being a victim of a crime at Herzing University. And Question fifteen: In the past month I have discussed with someone the crime at Herzing University. This information is presented in table 5.

Table 5

Responses and Scores and the Tests

HDC	Kruskal Wallis	p-value
Q1	1.831	0.608
Q2	1.912	0.591
Q3	2.847	0.416
Q4	3.228	0.358
Q5	3.704	0.295
Q6	3.082	0.379
Q7	4.889	0.179
Q8	2.919	0.404
Q9	3.295	0.348
Q10	1.928	0.587
Q11	1.471	0.689
Q12	2.109	0.55
Q13	6.568	0.087
Q14	8.307	0.04
Q15	8.307	0.04
Q16	3.198	0.362

The final demographic analyzed was age range. 18 employees completed the survey. There was one employee in the age range of 18-28, there were nine employees in the age range of 29-39, five employees in the 40-50 range, two in the 51-61 and one employee in the 61+ range. This information is presented in figure 22.

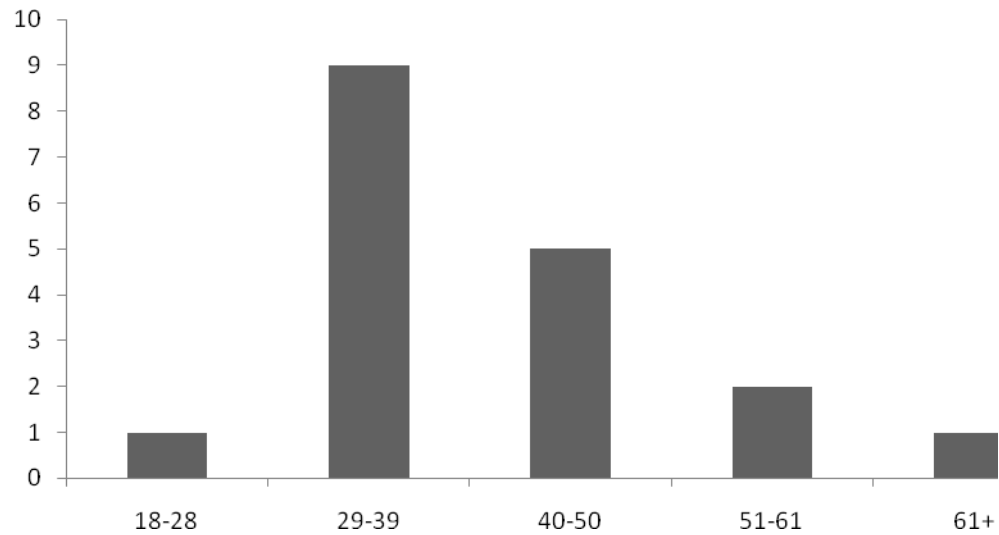


Figure 22. Break down of age by respondents

The Kruskal Wallis test and the and p-value were used to demonstrate the statistical significance. There was no statistical significance and age range and any 16 research questions. This information is presented in table 6.

Table 6

Responses and the Scores of the Tests

Age	Kruskal Wallis	p-value
Q1	1.741	0.783
Q2	4.914	0.296
Q3	3.747	0.441
Q4	4.087	0.394
Q5	5.147	0.273
Q6	2.858	0.582
Q7	0.518	0.972
Q8	2.183	0.702
Q9	2.36	0.67
Q10	0.901	0.924
Q11	2.222	0.695
Q12	2.395	0.664
Q13	5.768	0.217
Q14	2.125	0.713
Q15	0.85	0.932
Q16	1.935	0.748

Qualitative Data Analysis**Interviewees**

Five employees of Herzing University were approached to be interviewed. The five employees were the functional managers of the academic institution. All of the employees agreed to be taped and signed the document listed in Appendix D. The interviews were conducted using the standardized questions, originally used by Robert Costello, with no modifications. The researcher did take notes during the interviews to cross reference information. During the transcription process one of the interviews was inadvertently deleted. The

researcher has attempted to contact the interviewee for a follow-up interview, however there are some potential problems with conducting a second interview with the subject. For example, there was potential bias from reading and participating in the Survey Monkey survey that could create unexpected changes to the original answers.

Research Question

How do employees of a Herzing University, (Minnesota) perceive safety on campus? This question was answered using qualitative statistics to provide a clear picture of the quantitative data.

Qualitative Data Coding

The technique was used to code the data was word repetitions. “Words that occur a lot are often seen as being salient in the minds of the respondents” (Ryan and Bernard, 2010, para.8). This is the most convenient way to establish themes. “Word repetitions can be analyzed formally and informally. In the informal mode, investigators simply read the text and note words or synonyms that people use a lot” (Ryan & Bernard, 2010, para. 9). The repeated words or phrases would indicate that something is important to a specific individual. A more formal analysis can be completed by using a computer program (Ryan & Bernard, 2010).

Interview Protocol

Question Number One

What specific problems pertaining to crime are on campus? It should be noted that interviewee number four had information deleted during the transcription process and notes were referred for analysis. A total of five managers responded to this question, two of the managers were male and three were female.

Themes

In reviewing the transcribed interviews of the four managers at Herzing University the parking lot was a concern for a couple of reasons. The first reason was traffic accidents and individual safety. Second, people attending the school leave a variety of personal property in their cars, and finally the potential for vandalism in the parking lot. One of the individuals noted general crime within the school, however this was not noted by a majority of the other managers.

Question Number Two

What issues have campus members come to you with regarding crime? It should be noted that interviewee number four had information deleted during the transcription process and notes were referred for analysis. A total of five managers responded to this question, two of the managers were male and three were female.

Themes

The issues that came up for this question mirrored question one, as the interviewees had a tough time determining any other source of information. The parking lot was a primary concern additionally two individuals noted that perceptions of safety was important. Interviewee number two noted,

The biggest is at night, in the parking lot. Our clinic is open until 10:00, and then we can have (inaudible) as late as 11:00 so it's more about just in the dark parking lot, feeling safe, comfortable, so have somebody walk them to their car, that type of thing. It's really all I've had.

And interviewee number three noted,

[L]ate at night when students going all the way until 10:00, at night, especially in the summer time, when there is more vagrants walking around, that sort of thing. The concern is having someone out, a presence in the parking lot, like a security person who is *visible* who can walk them out to their car if they desire that, and just I know when that person was a part-time employee for us, when they aren't around they are **** manager, something like that. People do notice, and people do say something to me about it sometimes when that happens. So it's an expectation of our employees that students, even, whether they use the person or not, they like to know that the person is around. Paying attention to their safety.

Question Number Three

In your estimation, what more could be done by your college to address campus crime? A total of five managers responded to this question, two of the managers were male and three were female.

Themes

The themes that were mentioned in at least four of the interviews was that of a security officer or guard that has training and can deal with problems that present themselves at Herzing University. The second theme that ran through a

majority of the interviews was that of actual working security cameras in place at Herzing University. Specifically, Interviewee number two stated “I think, what we really could do is have someone who is a presence on campus, more than just a work-study student, in the evenings, at night, have somebody downstairs maybe or working cameras.” Interviewee number four said “I’d like to see maybe a camera installed where we could watch it at the front desk and maybe have a camera at the door or maybe in the hallways, we could start off maybe.”

The third theme that was present dealt with being proactive with security measures at Herzing University. This was evident by Interviewee number one and the discussion of the relationship with local law enforcement and Herzing University. Also, Interviewee number three stated “I think communication more with students just so they can minimize what I would call convenience crime” and interviewee number five mentioned looking into lighting to increase awareness at Herzing University.

Question Number Four

In your estimation do current policies effectively deal with campus crime?
A total of five managers responded to this question, two of the managers were male and three were female.

Themes

Four interviewees responded to this question generally by saying that they were aware of their policies and procedures and believed it dealt with safety and

security issues. Number one stated that “[it] does provide a sense of safety and security to the staff when it comes to whether someone’s trespassing or vandalizing things or (inaudible) good as it could be. I believe that it’s handled efficiently.” Interviewee number two felt that what they were involved with, the policies and procedures were adequate. The only dissenting opinion was that of interviewee number three who stated that they were unaware of current policies and practices.

Question Number Five

What factors on campus such as socioeconomic or cultural that result in crime? A total of five managers responded to this question, two of the managers were male and three were female.

Themes

In reviewing the interview responses three of the individuals responded that there were some socioeconomic factors present at Herzing University. It was noted by the presence of higher end automobiles in the Herzing University parking lot. Individuals who replied felt that this created an enticement for individuals to steal from the parking lot. Three of the individual who responded felt that students and their selected program could be a variable into potential crime at Herzing University

Question Number Six

Are there policies regarding campus crime that you would like enacted at your college? A total of five managers responded to this question, two of the managers were male and three were female.

Themes

There was no common theme present in the interviews. Interviewees generally used this question to reflect on other information that had been shared during the interviews.

Question Number Seven

Would like to add anything else? A total of five managers responded to this question, two of the managers were male and three were female. The respondents did not share common themes in replying to this question. Furthermore, only one interviewee provided additional information and that was that they wanted to utilize this research for the improvement of security measures at Herzing University.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION

Summary

Colleges and universities serve a large population of people: students, faculty, staff, and visitors. “University and college campuses are often seen as places of learning, scholarship, and training grounds for future leaders where campus crimes are usually attributed to pranks” (Vermillion, 2006, p. 30).

Between 1995 and 2002, there were approximately 479,000 victims of crimes of violence on college campuses (Carr, 2005). With all of the acts of violence in the media, what is the perception of college faculty and staff as it relates to their personal safety and the security on campus? There is and there will always be violence in society, violence is found in just about every aspects of life. The National Association of Student Personnel Administration Task Force Group on Safety and Security as cited by Roark (1993, p. 4) stated,

A safe campus environment is one in which students, faculty, and staff are free to conduct their daily affairs, both inside and outside the classroom, without fear of physical, emotional or psychological harm. Personal safety is a basic human need that must be preserved if the mission of the university it to be pursued.

Violence on college campuses is present and festers, because they are a subset of the regular population. College students are generally youthful, inexperienced and do irresponsible things which might contribute to the causes of crime (Roark, 1993).

“Since the first documented school shooting, 30 massacres have occurred” (Olson, 2007, para. 3). “It’s important to remember that statistically

campuses remain safe environments” (Owen, 2007, p. 22), however, campuses are a prime target for crime and for individuals wishing to do harm (Blake, 2006).

Crime on college campuses is on the rise. According to a study that was conducted in the 1990's, 2,400 college campuses were surveyed, and 30 of these had a homicide. “[T]he very occurrence of homicidal behavior on college campuses sends a frightening signal that society's ills have spilled onto [higher education] campuses” (Nichols, 1995, para. 8). On those same 2,400 college campuses, there were a total of 7,500 other violent crimes committed during the same academic year (Nichols, 1995).

Fox (2007) talked about recent events in security at colleges from 2001 to 2005. It was found that there were only 76 homicides reported in the United States to the Federal Bureau of Investigation. “Leaving aside cases involving faculty, staff or other non-students as victims, the count of undergrads and grad students murdered at school numbered 43. That's fewer than 10 per year” (Fox, 2007., para. 5). Comparing this rate with any large metropolitan area it is found to be a significantly smaller number. Fox (2007.) believed the real problem and danger are in the number of students who commit suicide or die as a result of alcohol related events. Clery data that was collected from Herzing University did not support any reportable crime on their campus. It should be noted that the report does not account for crimes not reported. Based on a test conducted on crime data of the City of Crystal, it demonstrated that there is no way for crime not to be present at Herzing University (K. Anderson, Personal Communication

July 25, 2010) To wit, the Clery report reflected accurately how the employees at Herzing University perceive crime on their campus.

Kelling and Wilson

The Broken Windows theory came out of research that was conducted by Wilson and Kelling in the 1970's. During the 1970's New Jersey announced a program called "Safety and Clean Neighborhoods Program," which was originally designed to "improve the quality of life in twenty-eight cities" (Kelling & Wilson, 1982, para. 1). New Jersey provided money to the police departments to take officers out of police cars and put them on foot patrol (Kelling & Wilson, 1982). A 5-year study found that foot patrol did not reduce crime. "Despite attacks from criminological, legal and academic left, 'broken windows' theory is a robust policy option in criminal justice practice and crime prevention" (Weisburd, 2006, p. 77). The basic theory stated that if you leave a broken window in disarray it is a sign that no one in the area cares about the community. In effect causing more vandalism to homes (broken windows) and then higher incidence of low level crimes (prostitution, thefts) began to be seen in the community. This in turn results in more higher order crimes (assaults, robberies) occurring in an area, leading to a sense of fear of crime in the surrounding community (Weisburd, 2006). "Broken windows argues that disorderly conditions and behaviors are linked both to citizen fear and to serious crime" (Weisburd, 2006, p. 83).

People in the foot patrol areas "seemed to feel more secure than persons in other areas, and tended to believe that crime had been reduced and seemed

to take fewer steps to protect themselves from crime” (Kelling & Wilson, 1982, para. 3). The data collected from Herzing University demonstrated that faculty and staff generally feel safe at Herzing University. Data collected from John Slama on Herzing University Clery report did reflect that there had not been any reports of “reportable” crime under the Clery definitions. As is demonstrated with the literature and the theory by Kelling and Wilson the employees were aware of their personal safety.

The question asked in the research was how can a “neighborhood be safer when the crimes rate has not gone down” (Kelling & Wilson, 1982, para 5). For this research, Herzing University should be considered the neighborhood. Generally, the law enforcement community needs to understand what scares people. Many individuals are scared of crime, and specifically of violent crime; but what about the “nuisance” crimes like disorderly individuals. These criminals are not the violent type, but generally create more problems. Examples of these types of nuisance crimes include “panhandlers, drunks, addicts, rowdy teenagers, prostitutes, loiterers, [and] the mentally disturbed” (Kelling & Wilson, 1982, para. 5). These crimes tend to fall under what [law enforcement] consider as order maintenance offenses. During the interviews with the five functional managers they all mentioned, at least in part, these nuisance crimes or instances of less than criminal behavior. These crimes created problems for the faculty and staff at Herzing University, although they may not be the direct or intended victim they were ancillary victims.

Research Questions

How do employees of a Herzing University, (Minnesota) perceive safety on campus?

The findings presented in this doctoral dissertation clearly demonstrated that faculty and staff at Herzing University are aware of safety as reflected by the Clery report. The functional managers were aware of “problem” areas where crimes or incidents occur. The managers however were not completely aware of the best practices when it comes to proactive measures to ensure the safety and security of all stakeholders that come to Herzing University.

What role do demographics play in perceptions of campus safety?

The researcher thought that there would be differences based on education, age, race and gender, however the data collected did not support this assumption. This may have been limited by the relatively small number of respondents within each subset.

The findings presented in this doctoral dissertation demonstrated that there were some significant differences between certain demographics at Herzing University. Those include highest degree and those employees working different shifts. Which demonstrated that people with different education levels perceive safety differently, as well as those individuals working different shifts may perceive safety and security differently. This means that individuals working the evening shift have different concerns due to the conditions that cause an increase in the fear of crime. These conditions include lower visibility, the

number of other individuals on campus, campus security (lack of presence) and the perceptions that crime is occurring on campus.

Implications

There are specific implications that can be applied to the Herzing University campus. Individuals at this campus at the very least “feel” safe, much like conditions mentioned by Kelling and Wilson’s theory of Broken Windows. The researcher posited that faculty and staff at similar institutions would generally feel the same and reply similarly, identifying problems areas and concerns during interviews, as well as replying similarly on the survey.

Discussions

In reviewing the practical applications of this research it should be noted that this data is a snap shot in time at Herzing University, Minnesota Campus. It can be applied and generalized at this campus, however it cannot be applied to any other Herzing campus, or other for-profit educational institutions. This research can be used by for- profit colleges and universities to understand some of the potential problem areas are on the campuses. At Herzing University Minnesota campus, this can be used as a marketing tool to demonstrate to incoming faculty, staff, and students that the perception of campus crime accurately matches the reported crime. It can also be used to demonstrate areas that were improved upon, (security cameras, security personnel, and other proactive measures) taken to address opportunities for improvement.

Furthermore, this research project can be used by other schools as it has piloted a shorter survey. This survey can be sent out quickly to faculty, staff, and students in an attempt to get a well rounded picture of campus safety and security. This study can also be replicated by other schools to view their own safety and security.

Recommendations

Recommendations from this study include reconciling the comparable data between Robert Costello's original research and then determine if there are any constant themes or findings between the two studies. Also, it is recommended that another Herzing University branch campus be studied to determine if these results are consistent. An additional recommendation for further research is to conduct a study at a for-profit educational institution that has dorms or living quarters that are directly connected to the institution. This would expand to include additional perceptions of safety since with living quarters, students are present 24 hours a day. Future research should also attempt to look at campuses of different corporate or *for profit* colleges, in an attempt to apply and generalize the data.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Survey Tool

Appendix A

The survey questions were originally used by Dr. Robert Costello in his Dissertation titled Administrators, faculty, and student perceptions of crime and implications for policy at a public community college. The research has been give permission to use and modify the material from Dr. Costello.

Questions 1-12 will be using a worded Likert Scale, questions 13-16 will be using Yes/No. There will also be an explanation on how the person should answer the questions.

In reviewing these questions please use your best judgment in answering how you feel about safety and security at Herzing University?

1. Is crime a problem facing Herzing University?
 - a. Strongly disagree
 - b. Disagree
 - c. Neither agree nor disagree
 - d. Agree
 - e. Strongly agree
2. Is violent crime a problem at Herzing University?
 - a. Strongly disagree
 - b. Disagree
 - c. Neither agree nor disagree
 - d. Agree
 - e. Strongly agree
3. Is property crime a problem at Herzing University?
 - a. Strongly disagree
 - b. Disagree
 - c. Neither agree nor disagree
 - d. Agree
 - e. Strongly agree
4. Are drug violations a problem at Herzing University?
 - a. Strongly disagree
 - b. Disagree
 - c. Neither agree nor disagree
 - d. Agree
 - e. Strongly agree
5. Are liquor law violations a problem at Herzing University?
 - a. Strongly disagree
 - b. Disagree
 - c. Neither agree nor disagree
 - d. Agree
 - e. Strongly agree
6. Is the fear of crime prevalent at Herzing University?

- a. Strongly disagree
 - b. Disagree
 - c. Neither agree nor disagree
 - d. Agree
 - e. Strongly agree
7. Are people not related to the campus committing the crimes at Herzing University?
- a. Strongly disagree
 - b. Disagree
 - c. Neither agree nor disagree
 - d. Agree
 - e. Strongly agree
8. Are weapons violations a problem at Herzing University?
- a. Strongly disagree
 - b. Disagree
 - c. Neither agree nor disagree
 - d. Agree
 - e. Strongly agree
9. I know at least one person victimized by a crime at Herzing University.
- a. Strongly disagree
 - b. Disagree
 - c. Neither agree nor disagree
 - d. Agree
 - e. Strongly agree
10. I have confidence in the security at Herzing University.
- a. Strongly disagree
 - b. Disagree
 - c. Neither agree nor disagree
 - d. Agree
 - e. Strongly agree
11. Is the building at Herzing University is adequately secure?
- a. Strongly disagree
 - b. Disagree
 - c. Neither agree nor disagree
 - d. Agree
 - e. Strongly agree
12. I feel safe in the Herzing University parking facilities.
- a. Strongly disagree
 - b. Disagree
 - c. Neither agree nor disagree
 - d. Agree
 - e. Strongly agree
13. I am aware of a yearly public safety report published and distributed to all students, faculty and administrators that is required by federal law.
- a. Yes

- b. No
- 14. In the last six months I have been afraid of being a victim of a crime at Herzing University.
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
- 15. In the past month I have discussed with someone the crime at Herzing University.
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
- 16. I personally know of at least one person at this college who fears crime at Herzing University.
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

This material will be presented in “radio dials” using the survey tool Survey Monkey.

Demographic Information

- Faculty
- Staff

Hours worked

- Part time
- Full time

Shift worked

- Day 0800-4pm
- Evening 4pm-10pm
- Weekend

Gender

- Male
- Female

Highest Degree completed:

- Two year degree
- Four year degree
- Masters
- Law/Education Specialist
- Doctorate (Ph.D/Ed.D/M.D)

Age Range

- 18-28
- 29-39
- 40-50
- 51-61
- 61+

Appendix B
Interview Protocol

Appendix B

Interview Protocol

The interview questions were originally used by Dr. Robert Costello in his Dissertation titled Administrators, faculty, and student perceptions of crime and implications for policy at a public community college. The research has been give permission to use and modify the material from Dr. Costello.

1. What specific problems pertaining to crime are on campus?
2. What issues have campus members come to you with regarding crime?
3. In your estimation what more can be done by your college to address campus crime?
4. In your experiences do current policies at your current polices effectively deal with campus crime?
5. What factors on campus such as social, economic or cultural that result in crime?
6. Are there policies regarding campus crime that you would like enacted at your college?
7. Would you like to add anything else?

Appendix C

Communication with John Slama

Appendix C

John,

Thanks for allowing me to conduct the research, I'll be sending up for some information that I'll need for the research.

I am free during 02-09-10 in the morning and can come up and talk to your team about the purpose and then collect some more of the data that I'll need for the research.

Would that work for you folks... I have copied my personal email as you might also get some material from that account regarding this research project.

And thanks again...

Matt Stiehm

From: Slama, John [mailto:jslama@mpl.herzing.edu]
Sent: Friday, January 22, 2010 1:34 PM
To: Matthew Stiehm at 027
Subject: RE: Research Help

Well I've given my management team here enough time respond to an e-mail regarding your interviews. One said yes, and the rest - silence (which I take as a yes), so we should be good to go here in supporting your research project Matt. Feel free to call me to discuss further details. A heads-up that our management team will be out of town Feb. 17-22, including myself through the 28th, for attendance at our Herzing annual meeting in Sarasota FL. (and a little vaca for my wife and I following the meeting).

Look forward to working with you Matt.

John

John Slama
Campus President
Herzing University, Minneapolis
Phone: 763.231.3151
jslama@mpl.herzing.edu
www.herzing.edu

From: Matthew Stiehm at 027 [mailto:MStiehm@itt-tech.edu]
Sent: Friday, January 15, 2010 10:59 AM
To: Slama, John
Subject: Research Help

Good Morning John,

I was wondering if you would be willing to act as my research site?

My research is specifically going to look at the perceptions of college employees on campus security issues, I have been given permission to use a survey and interview protocol. If allowed I would like to interview all the managers/supervisors at your school on their perceptions of campus safety and security. Additionally I would like to survey all of the employees using Survey Monkey. The survey is going to be approximately 20 questions and take approximately 10-12 minutes to complete.

I have attached a brief working draft, that covers the methodology, educational significance, theory, and a shorter literature review. What I think would be nice about conducting them at your schools, is I could get a good sample of faculty, and staff and the possibility to include a lot of diverse school locations.

If I am allowed to conduct my research at your school this process will be on a voluntary, confidential and anonymous basis. Finally I am going to doing a archival search of Clery Data at your campuses and compare safety/security issues.

If there is anything else that you would like to discussion please feel free to call me at my desk 952-914-5346 or on my cell phone 507-310-8844.

After the research is completed I will present your school with a comprehensive review of my findings.

Projected (hopeful) Timeline

01/10: Turn documents into the IRB for approval

01/10: Proposal defense

01/10-02/10: Collect and analyze data

02/10: Collect and analyze/formalize dissertation

03/10: Hopefully completed my research and defend dissertation

If you have any questions let me know.

Thanks,

Matt Stiehm
ITT Technical Institute
School of Criminal Justice
8911 Columbine Road
Eden Prairie, Minnesota 55347
952-914-5346

Appendix D

Instructions and Notification of Voluntary Participation for Interview

Appendix D

Instructions and Notification of Voluntary Participation for Interview

Title of Research: Perceptions of Campus Security and Safety at Herzing University a For-Profit College

Investigator: Matthew J. Stiehm

My name is Matthew J. Stiehm and I am an Ed.D. student in the Education Department at Argosy University Twin Cities. The data provided will be used to complete my dissertation. I have been given permission from Robert Costello to use, and modify his interview protocol in his dissertation at Dowling College, in Oakdale New York

I am writing seeking and inviting your participation in a study regarding the perceptions of crime and campus safety and security on your college campus. The purpose of this study is to measure faculty perceptions about campus safety and security. Only the five functional managers at Herzing University are going to be interviewed in this project. You were selected as you are part of the leadership team at Herzing University. I will also like to record the data so that I can ensure and capture your information and code it properly.

Specifically, I would like to interview you. Please know that this is confidential interview and all data that identifies you as an individual will not be used in any way. The interview should last about 20-30 minutes. I have attached the questions so you can review prior to the interview. Know that I will be on Herzing University campus to accommodate your needs. In the event that you do not want to be interviewed on the campus again please call me at 507-301-8844 and we can set up a meeting in a public place of your choosing.

The potential risks to those that participate in the interviews are extremely minimal. Specifically, the psychological and emotional trauma resulting from completing interview is anticipated to be very low. There are no known risks associated with this project greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life. If you desire to speak to a counseling professional as a result of information from this study, the following individuals serve in the Robbinsdale area for counseling services; 1) Katherine Haskin, MA, LMFT, PLLC at 612-807-0878 and or 2) Matthew Gundlach, Ph.D at 952-545-0110

The data collected will be kept in a secure location for a period of 5 years. Additionally you will have a chance to review a copy of your transcript once it is typed up for accuracy and to ensure that the research team (transcriptionist and I) did not misunderstand your comments. At anytime you can choose not to answer a question or withdraw from the process. If you object to the taping, I would still like to interview you, but I will take notes instead.

If you would like to see final results of this project, feel free to contact me at stiehm_solutions@yahoo.com or by phone at 507-301-8844. I will also provide you with a summary of the findings once the research has been completed.

Thanks,

Matthew J. Stiehm

Participant Signature _____ **Date** _____
Researcher Signature _____ **Date** _____

Consent to Tape

Participant Signature _____ **Date** _____
Research Signature _____ **Date** _____

Appendix E
Informed Consent

Appendix E

Informed Consent

Title of Research: Perceptions of Campus Security and Safety at Herzing University a For-Profit College

Investigator: Matthew J. Stiehm

My name is Matthew J. Stiehm and I am an Ed.D student in the Education Department at Argosy University Twin Cities. The data you provide will be used to complete my dissertation. I have been given permission by Robert Costello to use, or modify his survey tool that was used in his dissertation from Dowling College, in New York.

I am conducting a survey attempting to measure perceptions of crime on college campuses. There will be approximately 55 individuals asked to complete this survey. You are being asked to participate in a survey of Herzing University, employees concerning your perceptions of crime on this campus. If you agree to take part in the survey, completion of this survey will only take a few minutes (about 10 minutes).

The potential risks to those that respond to the survey are extremely minimal. Specifically, the psychological and emotional trauma resulting from completing the survey is anticipated to be very low. There are no known risks associated with this project greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life. If you desire to speak to a counseling professional as a result of information from this study, the following individuals serve in the Robbinsdale area for counseling services; 1) Katherine Haskin, MA, LMFT, PLLC at 612-807-0878 and or 2) Matthew Gundlach, Ph.D at 952-545-0110

By participating in this survey you will be helping the researcher illustrate what factors influence employee perceptions of campus crime, and security. These data will aid in advancing the sociological and criminological knowledge base concerning perceptions of campus safety and security at for profit academic institutions.

To protect the confidentiality of the respondents to the survey, the researcher will gather survey data using Survey Monkey an online tool to collect data. The researcher is requesting educational degree in an attempt to see if there is a correlation between education and perceptions of security on your campus. The collection of this data might provide information for the subject to be identified. This question is optional, however of vital importance to the research. The survey will be confidential. Any record will be kept in the researcher's home computer under a filename that does not identify the information and online at Survey Monkey where the researcher is the only one who has the password and username. Identifying information that could connect employee with particular responses is not present, thereby maintaining confidentiality of the respondents. If you would like to see final results of this project, feel free to contact me at stiehm_solutions@yahoo.com or by phone at 507-301-8844. You may also contact my research advisor Susan Huber at 651-846-3353 or shuber@argosy.edu.

For questions related to the IRB contact autcirb@argosy.edu or call Sandra Foderick at 651-846-3520

Thanks,

Matthew J. Stiehm

() By clicking here on this link I indicate that I have read all provided material and give consent to participate in this survey. I understand that I can refuse to answer any question or quit at any time

Appendix F

Communication with Robert Costello Ed.D

Appendix F

From: Robert Costello [mailto:Robert.Costello@ncc.edu]
Sent: Tuesday, December 08, 2009 3:00 PM
To: Matthew Stiehm at 027
Subject: Dissertation

Dear Matt:

Please permit this email to provide all the necessary permission needed for your dissertation regarding the use of the survey and interview questions from my dissertation.

1. This permission extends to modify questions of the written survey.
2. This permission extends to publish the survey in your dissertation.
3. No other person has used this survey.

Please feel free to contact me with any questions.

Best,
 Robert Costello

Bob Costello,
 Criminal Justice Department
 Nassau Community College
 Office: 516/572-7178

From: Robert Costello [mailto:Robert.Costello@ncc.edu]
 Sent: Monday, December 07, 2009 12:45 PM
 To: Matthew Stiehm at 027
 Subject: Re: Dissertation Help

Dear Matthew,

I hope this email finds you well.

Thank you for your email. I give you full authority to use the survey and interview questions for your dissertation research.

If I could have a copy or just a brief email once you receive your degree so I could add it to my HR file.

Good luck and feel free to contact me with questions.

Best,
Bob

Bob Costello,
Criminal Justice Department
Nassau Community College
Office: 516/572-7178

----- Original Message -----

From: Matthew Stiehm at 027 <MStiehm@itt-tech.edu>
Date: Monday, December 7, 2009 10:15 am
Subject: Dissertation Help
To: "Robert.Costello@ncc.edu" <Robert.Costello@ncc.edu>

Good Afternoon Dr. Costello,

My name is Matt Stiehm and I am currently enrolled in a doctoral program at Argosy University and I am reaching my dissertation phase. My dissertation is title : Perceptions of Campus Security and Safety at McNally Smith College of Music , in conducting my review of literature using Proquest I located a PDF copy of your dissertation. I reviewed your instruments (survey and interview protocol) and I was wondering if I could get your permission to your survey and your complete interview protocol. I would use a total of 26 questions of your survey.

McNally College Music of College is a for-profit music school located in Saint Paul, Minnesota. _

My dissertation committee is comprised of the following individuals,

Chair Dr. Susan Huber
Statistical/Research: Dr. Randall Peterson
Subject Matter: Dr. Richard Weinblatt

Matthew J. Stiehm M.S.
ITT Technical Institute
Chair
School of Criminal Justice
8911 Columbine Road
Eden Prairie, Minnesota 55347
952-914-5346