

FEAR OF CRIME AND PERCEIVED RISK OF VICTIMIZATION AMONG COLLEGE
STUDENTS

by

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ABSTRACT

Fear of crime is argued to be a social problem that may lead to restriction of activities, increased security costs, and avoidance behaviors. Findings from research indicate that there are many demographic influences on the fear of crime. Specifically, gender has been found to be one of the most consistent predictors of crime, that is, females significantly fear crime more than males. Additionally, research suggests that a person's fear of crime or perceived risk to crime may increase their engagement in precautionary behaviors, such as carrying a weapon for protection. The current study examined these relationships using data collected from 588 students at the University of Central Florida in the fall of 2006. The results indicated that females reported significantly higher mean scores on the fear scale for all crimes except property crimes, as well as higher mean scores for most crimes on the perceived risk of victimization scale. Females also reported feeling less safe from crime in their neighborhood and at home. Furthermore, females were more likely to engage in precautionary behaviors, but less likely to engage in risky behaviors. Fear of crime was not a significant predictor of the use of precautionary behaviors. However, respondents with greater perceived risk were more likely to use a greater number of precautionary behaviors. Additionally, respondents who had a perceived lack of safety were more likely to use precautionary behaviors and engage in them more often. Risky lifestyle behaviors were not significant predictors of either fear or guardianship activities. Exposure to the media was only shown to increase fear, perceived risk, and perceived lack of safety at the bivariate level. And finally previous victimization was not a significant predictor of fear or perceived risk. Overall, the results were fairly consistent with previous literature. Implications for future research and policy are discussed.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Stories of criminal victimization are an irrefutable aspect of society today. Individuals can become immersed in the depiction of violence and criminal victimization from crime news stories to crime-related television shows. Consequently, it is important to consider how society interprets crime and the risk of victimization among them. Specifically, it may be valuable to investigate those aspects and demographics that influence an individual's perception and fear of criminal victimization. There is considerable academic research regarding perceived risk and fear of crime in the general population (e.g. Smith & Hill, 1991; Ferraro, 1995, 1996; Rountree, 1998; Reid & Konrad, 2004; Warr, 1984). However, the knowledge of perceived risk and fear of victimization among college students is derived from a more limited number of studies (e.g. Fisher & Nasar, 1995; Fisher & Sloan, 2003; Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1997; Wilcox, Jordan, & Pritchard, 2006). Fear of crime may be influenced by a multitude of social, demographic, and lifestyle variables. And, it is argued that not only crime, but fear of crime, is a social problem as it may lead to decreased social integration, restriction of activities, increased security costs, and avoidance behaviors (Ferraro 1995; Madriz, 1997a, 1997b). Some even suggest that fear of crime may help to increase crime by reducing informal social control as nondeviant individuals may be afraid to intervene in threatening situations for fear of being injured (Madriz, 1997b). And, "like criminal victimization itself, the consequences of fear are real, measurable, and potentially severe, both at an individual and social level" (Warr, 1985, p. 238). Therefore, this study will seek to identify those most fearful of victimization among college students, and attempt to offer an explanation for their fear by examining the demographic characteristics, social influences, as well as the consequences of this fear in their lives.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Sociodemographic Influences on Fear of Crime

Several social and demographic characteristics have been found to affect fear of crime. Gender is generally found to be one of the most consistent predictors of fear of crime. Most often, females are more likely to fear crime than males (Ferraro, 1995, 1996; Fisher & Sloan, 2003; Haynie, 1998; Riger & Gordon, 1981; Rountree & Land, 1996a; Rountree 1998). Victimization rates for most crimes (except rape/sexual assault and stalking) are generally lower among women than among men (Catalano, 2005; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000); therefore, the higher levels of fear among women may seem perplexing. This contradiction between victimization rates and levels of fear among women is somewhat of a paradox. Some researchers imply that women's fear of crime is irrational because it is out of proportion to the probability of being victimized (Gordon et al., 1980; Madriz, 1997b; Pain, 1997b; Warr, 1984). Though some suggest that even though men are more frequently the victims of violence, women are more vulnerable to victimization; therefore, women should be more fearful of violence (Rountree, 1998). Others have argued that the explanation for the difference in fear of crime among men and women may lie with the type of crime (Ferraro, 1995, 1996; Reid & Konrad, 2004). For example, women and men did not significantly differ in their level of fear of burglary (Reid & Konrad, 2004; Schafer, Huebner, & Bynum, 2006). Yet, women have reported significantly higher fear of sexual assault than men (Ferraro, 1995, 1996; Fisher & Sloan, 2003; Reid & Konrad, 2004; Tulloch, 2000). And, more specifically, women report a higher fear of sexual assault by a stranger than an acquaintance (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1997; Mesch, 2000b; Pain, 1995; Wilcox et al., 2006). Yet, research finds that they are more likely to be sexually assaulted

by a nonstranger (Catalano, 2005; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). In addition some find that younger women (ages 18-24) express higher fear of sexual assault than older women (ages 65-74) (Ferraro, 1996; Tulloch, 2000; Warr, 1985). This proves to be interesting, as that age group (18-24) of women is precisely the category most likely to be victimized in some type of sexual assault (Catalano, 2005; Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000). Furthermore, in some cases, women fear rape more than murder (Ferraro 1995, 1996; Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1997). Overall, gender is the most constant predictor of fear of crime, but fear among all women or men is not the same and may be influenced by one's position in society or other sociodemographic factors (Stanko, 1993).

Age and race are two other sociodemographic characteristics discussed within the literature; however, these variables tend not to be as consistently predictive of fear as gender. With regard to age, some studies have shown that older respondents are less likely to report fear of victimization and feel at risk to crime (Rountree and Land 1996a, Rountree and Land 1996b, Rountree 1998; Tulloch, 2000; Ziegler & Mitchell, 2003). However, others have reported that younger people tend to have a higher level of fear of crime (Ferraro, 1995; Ferraro & LaGrange, 1992; Lane & Meeker, 2003; Parker, 2001). This may be because, although young people are less physically vulnerable to violence, they are more likely to have lifestyles or activity patterns that put them at risk of victimization (Rountree, 1998). Yet, other studies have shown that older adults have higher levels of fear of crime (Baker et al., 1983; Haynie, 1998; Riger & Gordon, 1981; Weinrath & Gartell, 1996). Whereas, some show a curvilinear relationship of fear of crime – highest among younger people, declines in adulthood, and slightly increases for oldest respondents (Ferraro, 1995). Similarly, race has been found to predict fear of victimization, but the results are also inconsistent. Some have found that non-Whites are actually less likely to feel

unsafe and at risk from crime (Rountree & Land, 1996a, 1996b), while other studies find that race does not significantly affect fear of crime (Rountree, 1998; Reid & Konrad, 2004). Still others find that non-Whites report a higher fear of crime than Whites (Haynie, 1998; Parker, 2001; Truman, 2005). And, more specifically, one study found that both Vietnamese and Latino respondents felt more at risk for victimization than non-Hispanic Whites (Lane & Meeker, 2004).

Prior Victimization and Fear of Crime

Victims of crime may perceive crime differently than non-victims, which may affect their fear of crime. Research indicates that previous victimization can be a key predictor of perceived risk or fear of crime (Myers & Chung, 1998; Smith & Hill, 1991; Rountree & Land, 1996a). In some studies, fear of crime varied with the type of victimization (Rountree, 1998). For instance, violent victimization increased fear of crime whereas; burglary victimization (nonviolent) had no significant effect (Rountree, 1998). However, another study showed that past victimization resulted in higher levels of fear of crime for burglary, sexual assault, and robbery (Reid & Konrad, 2004). One study found that experience of victimization lead to greater severity of threat of crime (Cates, Dian, & Schnepf, 2003). Overall, it has been shown that as the degree of victimization experience increases, so does the level of fear of crime (Smith & Hill, 1991). And, in addition to personal victimization, indirect victimization has also been found to be a predictor of fear of crime (Gordon & Riger, 1989/1991; Ferraro 1995, 1996).

The Media's Influence on Fear of Crime

Not only do sociodemographic variables affect fear of crime, but so do other social factors. One influencing factor discussed in the literature is the media. Television in particular

is thought to have a large influence on society's inclinations towards their ideologies, beliefs, and views of the world (Gerbner & Gross, 1976). The media in general readily provides a distorted view of crime and criminals (Dowler, 2003). And because of this, researchers are concerned that the media may affect the viewer's fear of crime (Dowler, 2003). With regard to television viewing, some research finds that heavy television viewers report a significantly higher perceived risk to crime (Heath & Petraitis, 1987). However, others find that the amount of hours of television viewing is not significantly associated with fear of crime (Dowler, 2003; Eschholz, Chiricos, & Gertz, 2003). Some research looks not only at the amount of hours, but also the type of television programming (e.g. Chiricos, Eschholz, & Gertz, 1997; Truman, 2005). And these studies find that increased television news viewing can lead to a heightened fear of crime (Chiricos, Eschholz, & Gertz, 1997; Truman, 2005). In addition to television viewing, newspaper readership may also have an effect on fear of crime. Some research finds that those who use the newspaper as a primary media source actually report a lower fear of crime (Lane & Meeker, 2003). Whereas, other studies find that those individuals who read newspapers, especially those with large crime coverage are more likely to report higher levels of fear of crime (Liska & Baccaglini, 1990). And still some show that newspaper readership has no relationship to fear of crime (Chiricos, Eschholz, & Gertz, 1997). In addition it is also important to consider demographic factors because the effect of media on fear of crime may also be mediated by gender, age, race, socioeconomic status, education, and victimization (Chiricos, Eschholz, & Gertz, 1997; Eschholz, Chiricos, & Gertz, 2003; Lane & Meeker, 2003). Furthermore, it is integral to explore reasons and theories related to why these factors affect fear of crime.

Gender and Fear of Crime: The Rationale behind the Paradoxical Nature of Women's Fear

Feminist Theory

Feminist theory suggests that societal norms of patriarchy allows for the development of specific gender roles and can lead to the oppression of women (MacKinnon, 1982, 1983, 1993). Through gender socialization, women learn their place and role in society (MacKinnon, 1982). Women are socialized to be passive and submissive (MacKinnon, 1983, 1993; Madriz, 1997b). Feminists argue that society feels it is the women's responsibility to avoid their own victimization by limiting their lives and behaviors (Madriz, 1997a, 1997b). As previously distinguished, fear of victimization is prevalent among women, and feminist scholars argue that this fear can be attributed to the gender inequality at the societal level (Meyer & Post, 2006). Theorists argue that women's fear is one of the most significant mechanisms in the control of women's lives as it works to reinforce gender hierarchies and maintain appropriate behavior for women (Gordon & Riger, 1989/1991; Madriz, 1997a, 1997b; Pain, 1997a; Riger & Gordon, 1981; Stanko, 1990, 1995, 1997). In essence, the creation of the culture of fear of victimization among women secures men's power and status over women (Gordon & Riger, 1989/1991; Riger & Gordon; Stanko, 1990, 1995). In addition, this culture of fear of victimization establishes the boundaries and roles of women within society.

The Role of Women in Society in Relation to Fear of Crime

Women and men tend to view safety in two very different ways. For women, safety is both sexual and physical; whereas, men think of their safety as physical (Stanko, 1990, 1993). And partially due to this and their fear of victimization, women typically incorporate precautionary tactics into their lives (Gordon & Riger, 1989/1991; Stanko, 1990, 1993; Wesley

& Gaarder, 2004). For example, some women may engage in specific precautionary behaviors (i.e. being wary of men one does not know or avoiding getting drunk at parties) in response to their fear of rape (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1997). This negotiation of physical and sexual safety is a part of women's everyday lives (Stanko, 1993, 1997). And women's use of safety rituals exemplifies their awareness of their own vulnerability (Stanko, 1990). Furthermore, learning how to fear and be safe is thought of as a continuous lesson regarding what it means to be female (Gordon & Riger, 1989/1991; Stanko, 1990, 1993). Women are told to "keep your legs together, keep your skirt down, and avoid talking to strange men because if you do not, something bad could happen to you" (Madriz, 1997b, p. 11). Or otherwise put, "good girls" follow the rules and stay out of trouble; whereas, "bad girls" do not follow the rules and get what they deserve (Madriz, 1997a, 1997b; Meyers, 1997). Also, women are typically told to be cautious of strangers; even though they are more likely to be victimized by someone they know (Stanko, 1990, 1993; Wesley & Gaarder, 2004). Fear of victimization perpetuates the image that women are weak and more vulnerable than men (Madriz, 1997b). And, even things like safety prevention handbooks and advice generally reinforce a women's vulnerability and their need to be aware of this (Stanko, 1990). Further, it has been suggested that "the fear of crime reinforces the subordinate role of women: if a women wants to be safe and protected, she had better be accompanied by a man" (Madriz, 1997b, p. 16). And this overall societal reinforcement works to teach a woman that she is the cause of men's actions (Stanko, 1990). If she is the victim of a crime, it is her behavior that is scrutinized for its "lure" to the physical or sexual violence; and she may be blamed for the violence against her (Gordon & Riger, 1989/1991; Stanko, 1990). Specifically, feminist theory argues that patriarchy carries the fear of rape "as support for persuading compliance," which results in the interpretation of consent; therefore, leaving the

blame on the women (MacKinnon, 1983, 1993). Furthermore, some argue that the fear of victimization limits and restricts the choices of activities and behaviors women have; therefore, giving credibility to the argument that the threat of criminal victimization controls women's lives and limits their freedom (Gordon & Riger, 1989/1991; Madriz, 1997a, 1997b; Pain, 1997a; Riger & Gordon, 1981). Although, too much fear could be incapacitating, it could be argued that "appropriate" fear may promote the use of precautionary behaviors, and may actually help protect some women, or at least keep them feeling safer (Gordon & Riger, 1989/1991; Madriz, 1997b). Overall, the fear of crime is a dominant force in the control of women's lives (Madriz, 1997a; 1997b).

The Shadow of Sexual Assault

As previously discussed, women see safety as both sexual and physical (Stanko, 1990). Women may also interpret fear of victimization in a different way. Some research has focused particularly on women's fear resulting from the fear of rape or sexual assault (Gordon & Riger, 1981, 1989/1991; Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1997; Ferraro, 1996; Fisher & Sloan, 2003). And this fear may be justified as women tend to have higher rape and sexual assault victimization rates than men (Catalano, 2005; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). Specifically, empirical evidence has shown that for women, the college years may be a period of elevated risk of rape and sexual assault (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000). Furthermore some suggest that, in a way, any victimization of women may involve the chance of sexual assault (Ferraro, 1995, 1996). And women may view victimization and offenses this way. For instance, Warr (1984, 1985) suggests that there are "perceptually contemporaneous offenses" or offenses which people may associate with another type of victimization. And it is proposed that rape would qualify as one of these

offenses to most, but it is particularly unique to the victimization of women (Ferraro, 1995, 1996; Warr, 1985). The fear of rape may contribute to the fear of other offenses (Warr, 1985). Ferraro (1995) further suggests that “sexual assault may ‘shadow’ other types of victimization among women” (p. 87). Women are more afraid of all types of crimes, but Ferraro (1995, 1996) proposes that this fear is mainly due to their fear of sexual assault. For women, sexual assault may be considered a “master offense;” and therefore, lead to elevated fear for all other offenses (Ferraro, 1995, p. 87). Ferraro developed these ideas into the “shadow thesis,” which finds that the “fear of rape influences other victimization fears, and the degree of the effect is associated with personal contact and seriousness of the offense” (Ferraro, 1996, p. 686). In fact, his study found a strong correlation between women’s fear of rape and other victimizations involving face-to-face contact (Ferraro 1995, 1996). And more specifically, a woman’s extensive fear of sexual assault was found to explain her fear of murder (Ferraro 1995, 1996). With regard to a woman’s fear of sexual assault, perceived risk was found to be the most important predictor (Ferraro, 1996). More recently, it has been suggested that it is fear of stranger perpetrated sexual assault which is most related to women’s other crime fears (Wilcox et al., 2006). Generally, it is argued that there is empirical support for Ferraro’s (1995, 1996) thesis of the “shadow of sexual assault” within the general population (Ferraro, 1995, 1996; Schafer et al., 2006) as well as among college students (Fisher & Sloan, 2003). Specifically, Ferraro (1995, 1996) found that when one uses fear of sexual assault as a predictor of nonsexual crime, the explained variance increases about 50 percent and the effect of gender disappears. Overall, support for the shadow thesis shows that models of fear of crime should include not only specific domain and temporal consideration, but also fear of rape and sexual assault when considering fear of other offenses involving face-to-face contact (Ferraro, 1995, 1996). Furthermore, the shadow of sexual assault

hypothesis suggests that fear of rape and sexual assault must be addressed in order to affect the general fear of crime among women (Ferraro, 1995, 1996; Fisher & Sloan, 2003).

Women in the Media

The media may also contribute to the prevalence of fear of crime, especially the female fear of crime as it teaches women to fear and continually reinforces this lesson through portrayals of violence against women (Gordon & Riger, 1989/1991). When Madriz (1997a, 1997b) interviewed women about their fears, those women who specifically mentioned fear of rape related the situations they were most afraid of to very stereotypical, media driven images. For instance, women felt they were afraid of strangers following them, breaking into their homes, and lurking in the dark (Madriz, 1997a, 1997b). The media typically portrays women as victims and men as perpetrators (Bullock & Cubert, 2002); and therefore, some suggest that women are represented as inherently vulnerable to men (Meyers, 1997). Overall, the frequency and types of crime against women that are reported by the media distort reality (Madriz, 1997b). For example, the media tends to present women as victims of strangers; whereas, they are more likely to be victims of crimes committed by someone they know (Madriz, 1997b). And these depictions of women as victims of strangers are part of the social control that fear of crime inflicts on women's lives (Madriz, 1997b). Typically, among female victims of male violence portrayed in the media there is the "good girl-bad girl" dichotomy that divides victims into innocent or culpable (Madriz, 1997a, 1997b; Meyers, 1997). One specific example of this is the biased coverage within the media of domestic violence. In general crime coverage, the perpetrator is allotted culpability (Gilliam et al., 1996). Whereas, in domestic violence cases, the media actually suggests either a motivation or an excuse for the perpetrator in order to exonerate

him/her of the crime (Bullock & Cubert, 2002). And in some cases, the victim may actually be blamed for his/her death or injury (Bullock & Cubert, 2002; Meyers, 1994). Furthermore, the victim may also be portrayed as deserving of his/her death or injury (Consalvo, 1998; Meyers, 1994; Meyers, 1997). In addition, the crime-as-deviance theory states that the media normally classifies the criminal as the deviant; yet in contrast, domestic violence in the media depicts the female victim as deviant (Meyers, 1997). Overall, women who are victims of male violence and that are not a child or elderly or assaulted by someone characterized as mentally ill may be represented as somehow responsible for her own victimization because she was on drugs, drunk, not properly dressed, stupid, or engaging in behavior outside the traditional role of women (Meyers, 1997). Overall, the images of crime, criminals, and victims produce a public consent about where the safe places for women to be are, the appropriate behaviors, and the proper roles (Madriz, 1997b). Although feminist perspectives seem to offer a substantial explanation for women's fear of crime, one may also need to consider further explanations for fear of crime among all demographics.

Routine Activity Theory

Routine activity theory suggests that criminal victimization occurs when there is a motivated offender, a suitable target, and incapable (or absent) guardian of persons or property (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Cohen, Kluegel, & Land, 1981). The likelihood of victimization may also be linked to five assumptions – increased exposure, proximity, attractiveness, decreased guardianship, and the properties of crimes (Cohen et al., 1981). Routine activity theory typically seeks to explain actual risk of victimization; however some researchers have attempted to use the theory to explain fear and perceived risk of victimization (e.g. Mesch, 2000a; Rountree, 1998;

Rountree & Land, 1996a). These researchers attempt to answer whether aspects that might predict actual victimization risk can predict fear or perceived risk of victimization.

Certain routine lifestyle activities may increase one's exposure to crime and increase one's target attractiveness (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Cohen et al., 1981). And it has been suggested that these same risky lifestyle behaviors that increase actual risk of victimization (via exposure and target attractiveness) may also increase fear of victimization (Mesch, 2000a; Rountree, 1998). The argument being that since these lifestyle activities may indicate criminal opportunity; they may also produce a rational fear (Rountree, 1998). Exposure to victimization may be indicated by risky activities, such as going out to bars or clubs, partying with friends or strangers, or going out alone at night (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Rountree, 1998; Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003). And research has found mixed relationships among these lifestyle variables and fear of crime (e.g. Mesch, 2000a; Rountree, 1998). For instance, Mesch (2000a) found that those who engaged in nighttime leisure activities were less likely to report fear of crime. Whereas, Rountree (1998) found that those who engaged in more dangerous activities (i.e. more exposure) were more likely to fear violence, which she argued is a reaction to their increased risk. In addition to lifestyle behaviors, the use of alcohol and other drugs may also potentially increase one's vulnerability to victimization (Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003). Individuals who are intoxicated may be perceived as more vulnerable than those who are not intoxicated (Abbey, 1987, 1991). And specifically, research has found that as women consume more alcohol, their risk of criminal victimization increases (Abbey, Ross, & McDuffie, 1996; Schwartz & Pitts, 1995). Another more indirect exposure to crime may be the media. The media may influence one's fear of crime. If one is exposed to crime via the multiple media outlets, one may have an increased fear of crime, perceived risk of victimization, and lack of perceived safety.

Furthermore, this exposure via lifestyle activities or the media may also influence how one might attempt to effectively prevent victimization through guardianship or the use of precautionary tactics. And, like lifestyle activities, self-protective behaviors (i.e. guardianship) may be related to fear of victimization as those who fear being victimized will use self-protective behaviors to prevent potential victimization. Generally, it is suggested that understanding how personal characteristics, lifestyles, and fear of crime relate to a person's use of self-protective measures is an important theoretical and practical issue (Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003).

Use of Guardianship or Precautionary Behaviors

Guardianship activities may vary across an individual's age, gender, race and ethnicity, income, victimization, and assessments of victimization risks (Rountree & Land, 1996a). Generally, precautionary or constrained behavior (i.e. guardianship activities) can be viewed in two strategies: avoidance behavior (i.e. avoiding unsafe areas during the night because of crime) and defensive behavior (i.e. keeping a weapon in one's home for protection) (Ferraro, 1995). And research has found that one of the most common behavioral adaptations is avoiding unsafe areas at night (Ferraro, 1995). With regard to demographic influences on the use of precautionary behaviors, research finds that women typically engage in more precautionary or constrained behavior (Gordon et al., 1980; Ferraro, 1995; Stanko, 1990), although some find that this may vary depending on the type of protective behavior (Warr, 1985). For instance, in one study, women and men did not differ in the use of physical security measures; but there were significantly large differences in the social and lifestyle precautions (women were more likely to take these precautions) (Warr, 1985). Not only do demographics influence the use of precautionary behaviors, so might one's actual and perceived victimization risk.

According to routine activity theory, those who engage in more guardianship activities are at less risk of criminal victimization (Cohen et al., 1981). Hence, it could be suggested that those who are well-guarded should be less fearful of victimization (Rountree, 1998). Generally, those who are more fearful of crime or those who perceive their surroundings to be unsafe are more likely to use precautionary behaviors (Ferraro, 1995). Further research reveals that the use of safety precautions increases fear of victimization (Rountree, 1998). In addition, persons who adopt a general pattern of precautionary behaviors or constrained behavior are more fearful of victimization than those who do not adopt these behaviors (Ferraro, 1996; Fisher & Sloan, 2003; Rountree, 1998). It may be that individuals are reacting rationally to the possibility of victimization in their lives by not only being fearful of violence, but also trying to guard against being victimized (Rountree, 1998). Although, some find that fear of crime is not strongly related to self-protective measures when actual proximity to victimization is taken into account (Rountree & Land, 1996; Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003). In fact, lifestyle behaviors that increase exposure to dangerous situations or potential offenders among college students have proven to be the most significant predictor of the use of guardianship behaviors, perhaps because these students recognize their exposure to these dangerous circumstances (Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003). In addition to fear's potential influence, some research has shown that as one's feeling of safety decreases, his/her safety precautions increase (Riger & Gordon, 1981; Rountree & Land, 1996a, Rountree & Land, 1996b). Furthermore, some find a relationship among multiple factors, that is, higher perceived risk is associated with greater use of constrained behaviors; and greater use of constrained behavior is associated with greater fear of crime (Ferraro, 1995, p. 63).

Measurement of Fear of Crime

The existing research on fear of crime contains inconsistencies regarding how and what influences fear of crime; and, this may be due in part to the fact that it lacks agreement on how to measure fear of crime. In other words, it lacks consensus on what “fear of crime” actually is (Ferraro & LaGrange, 1987). Perhaps, the varying results within fear of crime research body are the direct result of this disagreement (Farrall, Bannister, Ditton, & Gilchrist, 1997). Generally, fear of crime is considered to be “an emotional response of dread or anxiety to crime or symbols that a person associates with crime” (Ferraro, 1995, p. 4; Ferraro & LaGrange, 1987, p. 71). Emotional reactions to the possibility of victimization may range from panic to worry to fear to concern to anger (Madriz, 1997b). Fear of crime measures range from general, cognitive perceptions of safety to affective, personal emotional responses to the possibility of being victimized (Ferraro & LaGrange, 1987). Fear of crime measures have included questions regarding one’s personal safety and/or neighborhood safety (Ferraro, 1995; Ferraro & LaGrange, 1987; Rountree & Land, 1996b). Whereas other studies use general crime questions regarding crime rates and whether or not crime is a problem (Ferraro & LaGrange, 1987; Cates et al., 2003; Romer, Jamieson, & Aday, 2003). Other studies have used specific fear and/or possibility of victimization to specific crimes as questions (Ferraro 1995, 1996; Ferraro & LaGrange, 1987; Fisher & Sloan, 2003; Rountree & Land, 1996b; Tulloch, 2000). Ferraro (1995) suggests that generally studies do not differentiate between perceived risk and fear; and even though the concepts are related, they are not interchangeable. Therefore, it is important to study both fear and perceived risk of victimization questions, as research has shown that results will vary among a person’s fear of one crime compared to their perceived risk of the same crime (Ferraro, 1995, 1996; Fisher & Sloan, 2003; Rader, 2004; Rountree & Land, 1996b). Some further suggest that

research should concentrate on the general threat of victimization, which encompasses fear of crime (emotive indicator), perceived risk (cognitive indicator), and constrained behaviors (behavioral indicator), which all represent potential responses to the threat of victimization (Gabriel & Greve, 2003; Rader, 2004). Furthermore, it has been suggested that measures of fear of crime should draw on the emotional state of fear, explicitly reference types of crimes or victimizations, assess fear in the respondents' everyday lives, use a multiple range of victimizations, and create parallel items for perceived risk and fear (Ferraro, 1995; Ferraro & LaGrange, 1987).

Hypotheses

The present research builds on existing research by analyzing the correlations between sociodemographic characteristics, victimization, precautionary behavior, lifestyle activities, alcohol and drug use, media usage, and fear of crime and perceived risk among college students. This study will attempt to develop upon existing research by using a college sample, analyzing victim-offender relationships, and improving upon measurement by using both cognitive and emotional variables, as well as crime-specific fears. Based on prior research and theoretical foundations, the hypotheses are listed below.

- Gender will be related to fear of crime, perceived risk of victimization, safety perception, and use of precautionary behaviors.
 - Women will express a greater fear of crime, perceived risk, and perceived lack of safety.
 - Women will be more likely to engage in precautionary or constrained behaviors.

- The shadow of sexual assault thesis will be supported – that is women’s fear of crime will be “shadowed” by their fear of rape or sexual assault.
- Fear of crime, perceived risk, and perceived safety will affect one’s behaviors.
 - Respondents with greater fear of crime, perceived risk, and perceived lack of safety will be more likely to engage in precautionary or constrained behaviors.
- Routine activity theory will lend some explanation for fear of crime, perceived risk, safety perception, and use of precautionary behaviors.
 - Respondents who frequently engage in risky lifestyle behaviors will be more likely to have a greater level of fear of crime, perceived risk, and perceived lack of safety.
 - Increased exposure to the media will increase a person’s fear of crime, perceived risk, and perceived lack of safety.
 - Respondents who engage in risky lifestyle behaviors will be more likely to engage in precautionary behaviors.
- Victimization will be related to fear of crime and perceived risk.
 - Victims who experienced violent crimes will express a greater fear of crime and perceived risk.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Data

The data were collected through a convenience sample of students at the University of Central Florida during the fall 2006 semester. The present study was approved by the University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board. The survey was conducted online, using Survey Monkey, an online survey program. All data kept within and received by Survey Monkey was encrypted and secure. Surveys were collected by visiting sociology classes and asking students to voluntarily participate in the study by providing them with the URL of the online survey. In addition to visiting classes, surveys were also collected by contacting professors of online classes in the sociology, anthropology, criminal justice/legal studies, psychology, public administration, and various other departments to ask them to post the survey link within WebCT (the university's server for online classes) along with a message asking students to participate in the study. A total of 50 classes were contacted with a potential of about 4,100 students, although it is difficult to assess exactly how many students were exposed to the opportunity to participate. Of those students, 633 accessed the survey and of those, 588 were usable surveys for a survey response rate of 14.3%. Even though this is a low response rate, it is similar to what one might get with traditional mail-out surveys and typically researchers using online surveys have varying response rates (Glover & Bush, 2005; Kaye & Johnson, 1999; Koch & Emrey, 2001; Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006). Additionally, some suggest that it is near impossible to calculate a true response rate because one may not be able to know exactly how many people saw the survey or link but declined to participate (Kaye & Johnson, 1999). Kaye and Johnson (1999) suggest that one might use a "counter that keeps track of the number of times that a site has been accessed,"

which is similar to how the response rate for this survey was calculated, as Survey Monkey shows how many times the survey was accessed (p. 326). Yet, as it does not track duplicate visitors; the actual response rate estimate is still uncertain (Kaye & Johnson, 1999). The survey was anonymous. The students were not offered any incentive to participate in the study. The survey contained an informed consent page which the students must have agreed to before continuing on to the survey (please see Appendix A and B for the informed consent and survey).

The survey included sociodemographic questions about respondents' age, gender, race and ethnicity, type of housing they reside in, and university year. Respondents also answered questions about their media use, direct and indirect victimization, precautionary behaviors, lifestyle activities, and alcohol and drug consumption. Additionally, there were modified questions from the Fear of Crime in America Survey related to a respondents' safety and their fear and perceived risk of victimization (Ferraro, 1995; Ferraro & LaGrange, 1992).

Measures

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables are fear of crime, safety perception, perceived risk, and precautionary behaviors. Fear of crime was measured using a modified version of the Fear of Crime in America Survey, which includes crimes ranging from “being cheated, conned, or swindled out of money” to “being raped or sexually assaulted” (Ferraro, 1995; Ferraro & LaGrange, 1992). Three crimes were added into the scale – physical assault, domestic violence, and stalking. Research suggests that the fear of being a victim of domestic violence is not considered often within the research on fear of crime (Madriz, 1997b). In addition, the distinction between victimization by a stranger or nonstranger was made for three crimes (sexual

assault, physical assault, and stalking), as the victim-offender relationship has been suggested to be an important factor in fear of victimization (Fisher & Sloan, 2003; Pain, 1995; Wilcox et al., 2006). Respondents rated their fear of each crime from (1) not at all afraid to (10) very afraid. Additionally, an overall fear of victimization index was created using the fifteen specific fear variables previously mentioned with a theoretical and actual range of 15 to 150 with a higher score indicating a greater fear of crime. Furthermore, an overall fear of nonsexual victimization index was created to assess the sexual assault hypothesis (see Table 12 and 13) using thirteen of the specific fear variables (fear of stranger and acquaintance rape were left out) with a theoretical and actual range of 13 to 130 with a higher score indicating a greater fear of nonsexual victimization. And for the same model, the fear of stranger and acquaintance rape variables were added to create an overall fear of rape index with a theoretical and actual range of 2 to 20 with a higher score indicating a greater fear of rape.

Perceived risk of victimization of a specific crime was measured using the same scale as the fear of crime measure with responses ranging from (1) not at all likely to (10) it's very likely (Ferraro, 1995; Ferraro & LaGrange, 1992). And similar to fear, an overall perceived risk index was created using the fifteen crime specific variables with a theoretical range of 15 to 150 and an actual range of 15 to 139 with a higher score indicating a greater perceived risk of victimization. Furthermore, an overall perceived risk of nonsexual victimization index was created to assess the sexual assault hypothesis (see Table 12 and 13) using thirteen of the specific perceived risk variables (perceived risk of stranger and acquaintance rape were left out) with a theoretical range of 13 to 130 and actual range of 13 to 119 with a higher score indicating a greater perceived risk of nonsexual victimization. And for the same model, the perceived risk of stranger and acquaintance rape variables were added to create an overall perceived risk of rape index with a

theoretical and actual range of 2 to 20 with a higher score indicating a higher perceived risk of rape.

Safety was measured by asking respondents four questions taken from the Fear of Crime in America Survey (Ferraro, 1995; Ferraro & LaGrange, 1992). These questions asked how safe respondents feel alone in their neighborhood during the day and during the night, and how safe they feel alone in their home during the day and during the night, with responses ranging from (0) very safe to (3) very unsafe. An overall safety index was created using these variables with a theoretical and actual range of 0 to 12 and a higher score indicating greater perceived lack of safety. In addition, respondents indicated whether fear for their own safety is something they think about (0) never to (3) all or most of the time (taken from Gordon & Riger, 1989/1991).

Precautionary behaviors were measured using a scale taken from the Fear of Crime in America Survey (Ferraro, 1995; Ferraro & LaGrange, 1992) with some additions from the Fear of Rape Project (Gordon & Riger, 1989/1991). Respondents indicated whether they have engaged in any precautionary behaviors (i.e. installing extra locks) by answering (0) no or (1) yes. In addition, respondents indicated how often they engage in certain behaviors (i.e. go out with a friend as protection) to increase their safety from (3) all or most of the time to (0) never. Furthermore, two indices were created measuring both how many precautionary behaviors (16 variables total) respondents engaged and how often (7 variables total). The index measuring how many precautionary behaviors had a theoretical range of 0 to 16 and an actual range of 0 to 15 with a higher score indicating a greater number of precautionary behaviors employed. And the index measuring how often respondents engaged in precautionary behaviors had a theoretical range of 0 to 21 and an actual range of 1 to 21 with a higher score indicating a higher frequency of precautionary behaviors used.

Independent Variables

The independent variables are gender, age, race and ethnicity, type of residence, university year, leisure activities, drug and alcohol use, media usage, and victimization. Respondents indicated their gender as (0) male or (1) female. Race and ethnicity were identified as (0) white/Caucasian, (1) African American, (2) Hispanic/Latino, (3) Asian, (4) American Indian, or (5) other. Race was dummy coded for multivariate analysis as (1) white and (0) nonwhite. Type of residence was indicated as (0) on campus housing, (1) university affiliated off campus housing, (2) off campus apartment, (3) off campus house, or (4) live with parents. In addition, type of residence was dummy coded for multivariate analysis with “on campus housing” as the reference category. Respondents specified their university year as (0) freshman, (1) sophomore, (2) junior, (3) senior, (4) graduate student, or (5) other. This variable was further coded for multivariate analysis with “freshman” as the reference category. Respondents identified how often they frequent bars or clubs, socialize or party with friends, socialize or party with strangers, and go out alone at night from (0) never to (6) daily or almost daily (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Rountree, 1998; Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003). Respondents indicated how often, in the past year, they had enough alcohol to get drunk from (0) never to (6) daily or almost daily (modified from Fisher, Sloan, & Cullen, 1999). Respondents indicated how often, in the past year, they smoked marijuana or hashish and used other drugs (cocaine, crack, heroin, LSD, barbiturates, or amphetamines) from (0) never to (6) daily or almost daily (modified from Fisher et al., 1999). In addition, an overall risky behaviors index was created using the previous variables (7 variables total) to measure respondents overall engagement in risky behaviors, and this composite variable had a theoretical range of 0 to 42 and an actual range of 0 to 31 with a higher score indicating a higher frequency of engagement in risky behaviors. Respondents rated

their media usage of national television news, local television news, radio news programs, news magazines, daily local newspapers, national daily newspapers, and internet news-based websites from (0) never to (4) every day (Truman, 2005). To measure total media exposure, an overall media index was created using the previous seven variables indicated with a theoretical and actual range of 0 to 28 with a higher score indicating a higher frequency of media outlets used. Finally, respondents indicated whether they have been the victim of theft, nonsexual violence, or sexual violence by answering (0) no or (1) yes (Fisher et al., 2001; Fisher & Sloan, 2003). If respondents were a victim of any of those crimes, they indicated whether or not the victimization took place within the past year and whether or not the offender was known by answering (0) no or (1) yes. In addition, respondents indicated their indirect victimization specifying whether a close friend or relative has been the victim of a crime in the past year by answering (0) no or (1) yes. The three victimization variables (theft, nonsexual violence, and sexual violence) were added to form a new overall victimization variable with three categories – (0) not a victim, (1), nonviolence victim (yes to victim of theft question), and (2) violence victim (yes to either nonsexual violence or sexual violence or both). This was further recoded for multivariate analysis with “not a victim” as the reference category.

Analytic Strategy

Analyses of the respondents’ sociodemographic characteristics, fear of crime, safety perceptions, perceived risk, and precautionary behaviors are conducted at the univariate, bivariate, and multivariate levels. Frequency distributions are provided for respondents’ gender, age, race and ethnicity, types of residence, university year, drug and alcohol use, media usage, victimization, fear of crime, safety perceptions, perceived risk, and precautionary behaviors.

Independent samples t-tests are employed where appropriate to explore the associations between respondents' gender and fear of crime, perception of risk to crime, and safety perception.

Independent samples t-tests are further used to assess the associations between respondents' gender and use of precautionary behaviors and engagement in risky behaviors. Pearson correlation coefficients are conducted to evaluate the relationships among respondents' overall fear of victimization and perception of risk, overall safety perception, precautionary behaviors, risky lifestyle behaviors, and overall media usage. A one-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) was conducted to evaluate the relationship between victimization (non-victim, nonviolence victim, and violence victim) and overall fear and perceived risky of victimization. Finally, multiple linear regressions are employed to predict fear of crime, perceived risk of victimization, safety perception, and use of precautionary behaviors.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Univariate Analyses

Sociodemographic Characteristics

The sample includes 588 college students, with 19.1% (106) males and 80.9% (448) females. Due to this disparity in the gender distribution of the sample, the data were weighted for gender to better match the actual gender distribution in the student population at the university where the data was collected. The weight values were established using published data from the university in the fall of 2006. The actual weight values were 2.30 for males and 0.69 for females. These weight values reduce the impact of women and increase the impact of men. After applying the weight, SPSS is only capable of performing analysis on the respondents who indicated their gender; therefore, the sample size was reduced to 553 college students. All further analyses presented are weighted data.

Table 1 presents the weighted frequency distributions of male and female students' sociodemographic characteristics. Approximately 80% of male respondents and 73% of female respondents were Caucasian. The remaining respondents were relatively evenly distributed among racial and ethnic groups. The mean age of males was 23.6 and 25.3 for females. The majority of male and female participants lived off campus in an apartment or house (70% and 71% respectively). Most male and female respondents were seniors (41% and 50% respectively), with about 11% male and 5% female freshman, 8% male and 10% female sophomores, 29% male and 32% female juniors, 6% male and 2% female graduate students, and 6% male and 1% female students in the other category. The total media index ranged from a

score of 0 (never) to 28, with 28 meaning the respondent answered “every day” to all 7 media questions. Mean media usage was 13.3 or sometimes for males and 13.9 or sometimes for females. About 26% of male respondents and 44% of female respondents reported being victims of theft or property victimization. Among those respondents who were theft victims, about a third of the incidents occurred in the past year (27% and 32% respectively) and the offender of the crime was known to the victim about a third of the time (29% and 29% respectively). More males reported being victims of nonsexual violence (39%) than females (25%). Of those who were victims of nonsexual violence, 15% of males reported it occurred in the past year and 43% of offenders were known; whereas 22% of females reported it occurred in the past year and 86% of offenders were known. While only 3% of male students reported being a victim of sexual violence, 25% of female students reported being a victim of sexual violence. Among those who were victims of sexual violence, 33% of males reported past year victimization and 67% of offenders were known to the victim; whereas 8% of females reported it occurred in the past year and 87% of offenders were known. Approximately half of all males and females reported knowing a friend or relative who had been the victim of a crime within the past year (57% and 51% respectively).

Table 1: Frequency Distributions for Sociodemographic Characteristics

Variable	Total (N=553)	Male (N=244)	Female (N=309)
Race/Ethnicity			
White/Caucasian	76.2%	80.2%	73.1%
African American	5.4%	2.8%	7.4%
Hispanic	10.2%	7.5%	12.3%
Asian	3.6%	4.7%	2.7%
American Indian	0.9%	0.9%	0.9%
Other	3.7%	3.8%	3.6%
Mean Age (SD)	24.6 (7.0)	23.6 (5.7)	25.3 (7.9)
Residence			
On campus	6.5%	6.6%	6.5%
University affiliated off campus	4.7%	4.7%	4.7%
Off campus apartment	28.7%	26.4%	30.4%
Off campus house	41.9%	43.4%	40.7%
Live with parents	18.2%	18.9%	17.7%
University Year			
Freshman	7.5%	10.6%	5.0%
Sophomore	9.1%	7.7%	10.3%
Junior	30.6%	28.8%	32.0%
Senior	46.1%	41.3%	49.9%
Graduate student	3.6%	5.8%	1.8%
Other	3.1%	5.8%	0.9%
Mean Media Use (SD)	13.6 (5.0)	13.3 (5.0)	13.9 (5.0)
Victimization			
Theft or property victimization	36.0%	26.2%	43.8%
Within past year ^a	29.4%	26.7%	32.2%
Offender known ^b	29.3%	29.2%	29.5%
Nonsexual violence victimization	30.9%	38.5%	24.9%
Within past year ^c	18.3%	15.4%	21.6%
Offender known ^d	62.1%	42.5%	85.6%
Sexual violence victimization	15.4%	2.9%	25.2%
Within past year ^e	10.3%	33.3%	8.2%
Offender known ^f	85.3%	66.7%	87.0%
Indirect victimization	54.3%	57.0%	50.6%

Note: The data presented here are weighted by gender. Sample size varies slightly for select variables due to missing cases. ^a N=339 (Total); 173 (Male); 167 (Female); ^b N=292; 150; 143; ^c N=166; 90; 77; ^d N=169; 92; 77; ^e N=83; 7; 76; ^f N=81; 7; 75

Table 2 presents the weighted frequency distributions of male and female engagement in risky lifestyle behaviors. The modal category of going out to bars or clubs for males was once a month (29%) and less than once a month for females (22%). About a third of both males and females reported that they socialize or party with friends once or twice a week (33% and 31% respectively). The modal category of socializing or partying with strangers for males was less than once a month (26%) and never for females (48%). The modal category of going out alone at night for both males and females was never (21% and 37% respectively). About 19% of male respondents reported having enough alcohol to get drunk in the past year either never or less than once a month; whereas 29% of female respondents reported never being drunk in the past year. The majority of both males and females reported never using marijuana or hashish in the past year (65% and 72% respectively). And nearly all of both male and female respondents reported never using any other type of drugs in the past year (88% and 90%).

Table 2: Frequency Distributions for Risky Lifestyle Behaviors

Variable	Total (N=553)	Male (N=244)	Female (N=309)
Go out to bars or clubs			
Never	20.0%	19.4%	20.4%
Once in the last year	16.6%	13.6%	18.8%
Less than once a month	19.8%	16.5%	22.4%
Once a month	22.6%	29.1%	17.5%
Once or twice a week	16.7%	17.5%	16.1%
More than twice a week	3.4%	2.9%	3.8%
Daily or almost daily	0.9%	1.0%	0.9%
Socialize or party with friends			
Never	2.3%	---	4.0%
Once in the last year	5.4%	3.9%	6.5%
Less than once a month	17.5%	13.6%	20.6%
Once a month	20.3%	21.4%	19.5%
Once or twice a week	31.9%	33.0%	31.1%
More than twice a week	15.2%	17.5%	13.4%
Daily or almost daily	7.4%	10.7%	4.9%
Socialize or party with strangers			
Never	36.1%	20.8%	47.8%
Once in the last year	14.2%	12.9%	15.2%
Less than once a month	21.7%	25.7%	18.6%
Once a month	15.4%	22.8%	9.8%
Once or twice a week	9.9%	13.9%	6.8%
More than twice a week	1.9%	2.0%	1.8%
Daily or almost daily	0.9%	2.0%	---
Go out alone at night			
Never	29.7%	20.8%	36.6%
Once in the last year	6.3%	3.0%	8.9%
Less than once a month	15.9%	15.8%	15.9%
Once a month	12.8%	16.8%	9.8%
Once or twice a week	15.9%	12.9%	18.2%
More than twice a week	9.8%	15.8%	5.2%
Daily or almost daily	9.5%	14.9%	5.5%

Variable	Total (N=553)	Male (N=244)	Female (N=309)
Had enough alcohol to get drunk			
Never	24.8%	19.2%	29.1%
Once in the last year	15.7%	13.5%	17.4%
Less than once a month	19.2%	19.2%	19.2%
Once a month	16.8%	17.3%	16.5%
Once or twice a week	15.0%	18.3%	12.4%
More than twice a week	7.5%	11.5%	4.3%
Daily or almost daily	1.1%	1.0%	1.1%
Smoke marijuana or hashish			
Never	69.3%	65.3%	72.4%
Once in the last year	11.0%	12.2%	10.1%
Less than once a month	6.5%	8.2%	5.3%
Once a month	2.8%	2.0%	3.5%
Once or twice a week	2.2%	2.0%	2.3%
More than twice a week	1.9%	1.0%	2.5%
Daily or almost daily	6.2%	9.2%	3.9%
Used any other drugs			
Never	89.5%	87.9%	90.7%
Once in the last year	4.4%	5.1%	3.9%
Less than once a month	4.5%	6.1%	3.4%
Once a month	1.2%	1.0%	1.4%
Once or twice a week	0.1%	---	0.2%
More than twice a week	0.1%	---	0.2%
Daily or almost daily	0.1%	---	0.2%

Note: The data presented here are weighted by gender.
Sample size varies slightly for select variables due to missing cases.

Bivariate analyses

Gender and Fear of Victimization

To test the hypothesis that women will express a greater fear of crime than men, independent samples t-tests were conducted comparing the mean scores on the fear scales of males to the mean scores of females. The bivariate results of these analyses are presented in Table 3. Significant gender differences emerged for the following variables: fear of having

someone break in while away ($t(542)=-4.86, p=.000$) and while home ($t(550)=-9.12, p=.000$), being raped or sexual assaulted by a stranger ($t(543)=-19.09, p=.000$) and an acquaintance ($t(518)=-12.30, p=.000$), being physically assaulted by a stranger ($t(549)=-8.58, p=.000$) and an acquaintance ($t(533)=-9.22, p=.000$), being murdered ($t(541)=-6.58, p=.000$), being attacked by someone with a weapon ($t(540)=-5.91, p=.000$), being robbed or mugged ($t(551)=-6.12, p=.000$), being a victim of domestic violence ($t(532)=-6.43, p=.000$), being stalked by a stranger ($t(541)=-11.34, p=.000$) and an acquaintance ($t(531)=-8.63, p=.000$), and overall fear of victimization ($t(546)=-9.74, p=.000$). Females were significantly more fearful of having someone break in both while away (Mean=5.09, SD=2.34) and while home (Mean=6.06, SD=2.74) than males (Mean=4.17; 3.99, SD=2.09; 2.53). Females were also significantly more fearful of being raped or sexual assaulted by both a stranger and an acquaintance than males. Furthermore, females were significantly more fearful of being physically assaulted by a stranger and by an acquaintance than males. In addition, females were significantly more fearful of being murdered, being attacked by someone with a weapon, being robbed or mugged, and being a victim of domestic violence than males. Moreover, females were significantly more fearful of being stalked by a stranger and by an acquaintance than males. And finally, females had significantly greater overall fear of victimization than males. In summary, out of the sixteen fear variables in the analyses, gender differences were statistically significant for thirteen variables with women being more fearful than men. However, there were no significant differences between males' and females' mean fear of being cheated out of money, having one's car stolen, and having one's property damaged. Furthermore, these bivariate results presented in Table 3 reveal that both males and females report higher fear of stranger victimization than acquaintance

victimization; and females in particular are more fearful of rape by a stranger than by an acquaintance.

Table 3: Bivariate Results for T-Test of Fear by Gender

Variable	Total (N=553)	Male (N=244)	Female (N=309)
Fear of...			
Being cheated out of money	3.96	3.95	3.97
Having someone break in while away	4.68	4.17	5.09***
Having someone break in while home	5.15	3.99	6.06***
Being raped or sexual assaulted by stranger	4.47	2.25	6.24***
Being raped or sexually assaulted by acquaintance	3.35	1.87	4.52***
Being physically assaulted by stranger	4.85	3.82	5.65***
Being physically assaulted by acquaintance	3.29	2.21	4.15***
Being murdered	4.68	3.72	5.44***
Being attacked by someone with a weapon	5.05	4.32	5.63***
Having car stolen	4.32	4.22	4.40
Being robbed or mugged	4.60	3.88	5.17***
Having property damaged	4.47	4.54	4.42
Being a victim of domestic violence	2.81	2.08	3.40***
Being stalked by stranger	3.67	2.36	4.71***
Being stalked by acquaintance	2.99	2.03	3.76***
Overall fear of victimization ^a	62.28	49.39	72.57***

Note: The data presented here are weighted by gender.

a. Scores range from 15 to 150 (SD=30.79) with a higher score indicating greater fear of crime
Sample size varies slightly for select variables due to missing cases.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Gender and Perceived Risk of Victimization

To test the hypothesis that women will express a greater perceived risk of victimization than men, independent samples t-tests were conducted comparing the mean scores on the risk perception scales of males to the mean scores of females. The bivariate results of these analyses are presented in Table 4. Significant gender differences emerged for the following variables: perceived risk of having someone break in while away ($t(543)=-3.49, p=.001$) and while home ($t(540)=-4.41, p=.000$), being raped or sexually assaulted by a stranger ($t(526)=-9.95, p=.000$) and by an acquaintance ($t(526)=-6.94, p=.000$), being physically assaulted by an acquaintance ($t(550)=-3.04, p=.002$), being a victim of domestic violence ($t(551)=-3.50, p=.000$), being stalked by a stranger ($t(531)=-7.25, p=.000$) and by an acquaintance ($t(538)=-5.49, p=.000$), and overall perceived risk of victimization ($t(542)=-4.61, p=.000$). Females were significantly more likely to feel at risk of having someone break in while away (Mean=3.15, SD=1.92) and while home (Mean=2.79, SD=1.83) than males (Mean=2.62; 2.14, SD=1.65; 1.62). Also, females reported significantly greater perceived risk of being raped or sexually assaulted by a stranger and by an acquaintance than males. Likewise, females were significantly more likely to feel at risk of being physically assaulted by an acquaintance and being a victim of domestic violence than males. Females also had significantly greater perceived risk of being stalked by a stranger and by an acquaintance than males. And finally, females had significantly greater overall perceived risk of victimization than males. In summary, of the sixteen risk perception variables in the analyses, gender differences were statistically significant for nine variables with women having a greater perceived risk of victimization. However, there were no significant differences found among male and female respondents' mean perceived risk of being cheated out of money, being

physically assaulted by a stranger, being murdered, being attacked by someone with a weapon, having one's car stolen, being robbed or mugged and having property damaged.

Table 4: Bivariate Results for T-Test of Risk Perception by Gender

Variable	Total (N=553)	Male (N=244)	Female (N=309)
Likelihood of...			
Being cheated out of money	3.27	3.24	3.30
Having someone break in while away	2.92	2.62	3.15**
Having someone break in while home	2.51	2.14	2.79***
Being raped or sexual assaulted by stranger	2.27	1.52	2.86***
Being raped or sexually assaulted by acquaintance	1.92	1.42	2.32***
Being physically assaulted by stranger	2.83	2.70	2.93
Being physically assaulted by acquaintance	2.06	1.82	2.25**
Being murdered	2.17	2.06	2.26
Being attacked by someone with a weapon	2.85	2.80	2.89
Having car stolen	2.94	2.90	2.97
Being robbed or mugged	2.85	2.68	2.98
Having property damaged	3.35	3.30	3.38
Being a victim of domestic violence	1.79	1.54	1.99***
Being stalked by stranger	2.24	1.68	2.67***
Being stalked by acquaintance	1.94	1.55	2.25***
Overall perceived risk of victimization ^a	37.67	33.29	41.11***

Note: The data presented here are weighted by gender.

a. Scores range from 15 to 139 (SD=20.53) with a higher score indicating greater perceived risk of victimization

Sample size varies slightly for select variables due to missing cases.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Gender and Safety Perception

To test the hypothesis that women will express a greater perceived lack of safety than men, independent samples t-tests were conducted comparing the mean scores of safety perception of males to the mean scores of females. The bivariate results of these analyses are presented in Table 5. Significant gender differences emerged for all of the following safety variables: feeling safe alone in neighborhood during the day ($t(517)=-2.70, p=.007$) and during the night ($t(524)=-8.34, p=.000$), feeling safe from crime in home during the day ($t(536)=-5.72, p=.000$) and during the night ($t(547)=-7.74, p=.000$), overall safety in one's neighborhood and home ($t(541)=-8.27, p=.000$), and thinking about fear for one's own safety ($t(531)=-7.48, p=.000$). Females were significantly more likely to feel unsafe alone in their neighborhood both during the day (Mean=.46, SD=.61) and at night (Mean=1.45, SD=.82) than males (Mean=.31; .87, SD=.61; .80). Females were also significantly less likely to feel safe from crime inside their homes both during the day and at night than compared to males. Overall, females had a greater perceived lack of safety in both one's neighborhood and home than males. Lastly, females reported thinking about fear for one's own safety significantly more often than males. Significant genders differences were found among all safety perception variables.

Table 5: Bivariate Results for T-Test of Safety Perception by Gender

Variable	Total (N=553)	Male (N=244)	Female (N=309)
Safe alone in neighborhood during day	.39	.31	.46**
Safe alone in neighborhood during night	1.19	.87	1.45***
Safe from crime in home during day	.25	.12	.35***
Safe from crime in home during night	.75	.48	.96***
Overall safety ^a	2.57	1.78	3.21***
Think about fear for one's own safety	1.40	1.17	1.57***

Note: The data presented here are weighted by gender.

a. Scores ranged from 0 to 12 (SD=2.15) with a higher score indicating greater perceived lack of safety in one's neighborhood and home

Sample size varies slightly for select variables due to missing cases.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Gender and Precautionary and Risky Behaviors

To test the hypothesis that women will be more likely to engage in precautionary or constrained behaviors, independent samples t-tests were conducted comparing the mean scores of the use of precautionary behaviors of males to the mean scores of females. In addition, the frequency of engaging in risky behaviors was compared among genders using an independent t-test comparing the mean scores of males' risky behavior to the means scores of females. The bivariate results of these analyses are presented in Table 6. Significant gender differences emerged for the following variables: number of precautionary behaviors employed ($t(482) = -8.05, p = .000$), frequency of precautionary behaviors ($t(414) = -12.02, p = .000$), and engaging in risky behaviors ($t(486) = 5.76, p = .000$). Females used significantly more precautionary behaviors (Mean=6.22, SD=2.63) than males (Mean=4.32, SD=2.49). In addition, females employed

precautionary behaviors significantly more often (Mean=14.35, SD=3.08) than males (Mean=10.58, SD=3.86). However, males engaged in significantly more risky behaviors (Mean=14.47, SD=6.06) than females (Mean=11.18, SD=6.31). Overall, significant gender differences were found among both precautionary and risky behaviors variables. Females were significantly more likely than males to use a greater number of precautionary behaviors and to engage in them more often. And males were significantly more likely than females to engage in risky behaviors.

Table 6: Bivariate Results for T-Test of Precautionary and Risky Behaviors by Gender

Variable	Total (N=553)	Male (N=244)	Female (N=309)
Number of precautionary behaviors taken ^a	5.38	4.32	6.22 ^{***}
Frequency of precautionary behaviors ^b	12.73	10.58	14.35 ^{***}
Engaging in risky behavior ^c	12.54	14.47	11.18 ^{***}

Note: The data presented here are weighted by gender.

a. Scores ranged from 0 to 15 (SD=2.74) with a higher score indicating greater number of precautionary behaviors taken; b. Scores ranged from 1 to 21 (SD=3.91) with a higher score indicating higher frequency of precautionary behaviors employed; c. Scores ranged from 0 to 31 (SD=6.41) with higher scores indicating higher frequency of engagement in risky behavior
Sample size varies slightly for select variables due to missing cases.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Fear and Perceived Risk of Victimization, Safety Perception, Precautionary Behaviors, Risky Behaviors, and Overall Media Usage

To test the hypotheses that respondents who engage in risky lifestyle behaviors and who are exposed to media more often will have a greater level of fear of crime, perceived risk, and perceived lack of safety, Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated among risky lifestyle

behaviors, media usage, fear of crime, perceived risk of victimization, and overall safety perception. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 7. Low to moderate significant correlations were found among most variables. A weak negative correlation was found between engagement in risky behaviors and fear of crime ($r=-.10$, $p=.032$). People who engage in risky behaviors tend to fear victimization less. However, risky behaviors are not related to risk perception ($r=.00$, $p=.926$). A weak negative correlation was found between risky behaviors and safety perception ($r=-.16$, $p=.001$). Respondents who engaged in risky behaviors tend to feel safer in their neighborhood and at home. A weak positive correlation was found between media usage and fear of victimization ($r=.20$, $p=.000$), perceived risk of victimization ($r=.09$, $p=.045$), and overall safety perception ($r=.12$, $p=.006$). Those who are exposed to the media more often are more likely to have greater fear of crime, perceived risk of victimization, and perceived lack of safety.

To test the hypotheses that those respondents who have greater fear of crime, perceived risk of victimization, perceived lack of safety, and engage in risky lifestyle behaviors will be more likely to engage in precautionary behaviors, Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated among fear of crime, perceived risk, risky lifestyle behaviors, and precautionary behaviors. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 7. Positive correlations were found between number of precautionary behaviors employed and fear of crime ($r=.36$, $p=.000$) and perceived risk of victimization ($r=.32$, $p=.000$). In addition, positive correlations were found between frequency of precautionary behaviors and fear of crime ($r=.37$, $p=.000$) and perceived risk of victimization ($r=.27$, $p=.000$). Those who have greater fear and perceived risk of victimization are more likely to use precautionary behaviors and use them more often. Positive correlations were found between safety perception and number of precautionary behaviors

($r=.32$, $p=.000$) and frequency of precautionary behaviors ($r=.44$, $p=.000$). Those who feel less safe are more likely to use precautionary behaviors and use them more often. Negative correlations were found between risky behaviors and number of precautionary behaviors used ($r=-.20$, $p=.000$) and frequency of precautionary behaviors ($r=-.21$, $p=.000$). Those who engage in more risky behaviors are less likely to use precautionary behaviors and use them less often.

Additionally, the Pearson's correlations coefficients presented in Table 7 reveal a relationship among fear of crime and perceived risk of victimization. A moderate positive correlation was found between fear of crime and perceived risk of victimization ($r=.57$, $p=.000$). Those who have greater fear of crime are more likely to also have a greater perceived risk of victimization. To summarize, significant correlations were found between risky behavior and fear and safety perception, media usage and fear, perceived risk, and safety, fear of crime and perceived risk, and precautionary behaviors and fear, perceived risk, safety, and risky behaviors. No significant correlations were found between risky behaviors and perceived risk of victimization and media usage.

Table 7: Correlations among Fear of Victimization, Risk Perception, Overall Safety, Precautionary Behaviors, Risky Behaviors, and Overall Media Usage (N=549)

	Fear of victimization	Perceived risk of victimization	Overall safety	Number of precautionary behaviors taken	Frequency of precautionary behaviors	Risky behaviors
Fear of victimization ^a	---					
Perceived risk of victimization ^b	.57***	---				
Overall safety ^c	.40***	.28***	---			
Number of precautionary behaviors taken ^d	.36***	.32***	.32***	---		
Frequency of precautionary behaviors ^e	.37***	.27***	.44***	.52***	---	
Risky behaviors ^f	-.10*	.00	-.16**	-.20***	-.21***	---
Media use ^g	.20***	.09*	.12**	.21***	.13**	-.06

Note: The data presented here are weighted by gender.

a. Scores range from 15 to 150 (SD=30.79) with a higher score indicating greater fear of crime; b. Scores range from 15 to 139 (SD=20.53) with a higher score indicating greater perceived risk of victimization; c. Scores ranged from 0 to 12 (SD=2.15) with a higher score indicating greater perceived lack of safety in one’s neighborhood and home; d. Scores ranged from 0 to 15 (SD=2.74) with a higher score indicating greater number of precautionary behaviors taken; e. Scores ranged from 1 to 21 (SD=3.91) with a higher score indicating higher frequency of precautionary behaviors employed; f. Scores ranged from 0 to 31 (SD=6.41) with higher scores indicating higher frequency of engagement in risky behavior; g. Scores ranged from 0 to 28 with higher scores indicating higher frequency of media outlets used

Sample size varies slightly for select variables due to missing cases.

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

Fear and Perceived Risk of Victimization and Actual Victimization

To test the hypothesis that victims who experienced violent crimes will express a greater fear of crime and perceived risk, a one-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) was conducted to assess the relationships between students' victimization type and their fear of crime and perceived risk. Means for the victimization variable are displayed in Table 8. There were no significant relationships found among victimization type and fear of crime ($F(2, 526)=.93, p=.395$) or perceived risk of victimization ($F(2, 521)=2.51, p=.082$).

Table 8: One-way ANOVA Results for Fear and Perceived Risk of Victimization by Actual Victimization (N=529)

Variable	Overall fear of victimization ^a	Overall perceived risk of victimization ^b
Not a victim	64.14	36.65
Nonviolence victim	59.58	35.60
Violence victim	62.58	40.04
F	.93	2.51

Note: The data presented here are weighted by gender.

a. Scores range from 15 to 150 (SD=30.79) with a higher score indicating greater fear of crime;

b. Scores range from 15 to 139 (SD=20.53) with a higher score indicating greater perceived risk of victimization

Sample size varies slightly for select variables due to missing cases.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Multivariate Analyses

Multiple linear regressions were conducted to predict fear of crime, perceived risk of victimization, safety perception, and use of precautionary behaviors. Specifically, five multiple

linear regressions were estimated to determine the predictors for fear of crime, perceived risk of victimization, safety perception, and precautionary behaviors (2 models – number and frequency of precautionary behaviors used). In addition, multiple linear regression models were estimated to assess the shadow of sexual assault hypothesis. Tolerances for each model were examined to check for multicollinearity. The tolerance was a problem for only one model (Model 5, Table 13). Information about how this was handled is located in the section discussing the results for that table.

Predicting Fear of Crime

Table 9 presents the results of a multiple regression analysis predicting fear of crime. Specifically, the analysis was to test the hypotheses that women, those who engage in risky lifestyle behaviors, and those who are exposed to the media will have greater fear of crime. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 9. The regression equation was significant ($F(22, 318)=20.73, p=.000, R^2=.61$). Gender was a significant predictor of fear of crime ($\beta=.20, p=.000$). Females had a score on the fear of crime index that was 12.39 units higher than males. Neither risky behavior ($\beta=.00, p=.985$) nor media exposure ($\beta=.06, p=.129$) were significantly associated with fear of crime. Perceived risk was a significant predictor of fear of crime ($\beta=.46, p=.000$). A one unit increase in perceived risk is associated with a .69 unit increase in fear of crime. In addition, nonwhites ($\beta=.07, p=.049$), those who think about fear for one's own safety more often ($\beta=.23, p=.000$), and those who perceive to be less safe ($\beta=.13, p=.006$) had significantly higher fear of crime scores; while those students who live off campus in an apartment ($\beta=-.17, p=.024$) or off campus in a house ($\beta=-.27, p=.002$) had significantly lower fear of crime scores than those students who live on campus. This regression analysis provides

support for the hypothesis that women express a greater fear of crime than males. Furthermore, perceived risk is significantly associated with fear of crime. However, neither risky behavior nor media exposure was associated with the respondents' fear of crime.

Table 9: OLS Regression Coefficients for Predicting Fear of Crime

Variables	Fear of Crime
Gender (female)	12.39/.20 ^{***} (2.90)
Age	-.29/-.07 (.21)
Race (nonwhite)	5.39/.07 [*] (2.72)
Off campus university affiliated residence ^a	-9.94/-.07 (6.57)
Off campus apartment ^a	-11.73/-.17 [*] (5.17)
Off campus house ^a	-16.49/-.27 ^{**} (5.23)
With parents ^a	-10.85/-.14 [*] (5.24)
Sophomore ^b	2.19/.02 (5.82)
Junior ^b	5.04/.08 (5.16)
Senior ^b	3.98/.07 (5.219)
Graduate ^b	-.28/-.00 (7.17)
Other university class ^b	-2.45/-.01 (10.83)
Media use (overall)	.38/.06 (.25)
Risky behavior	.00/.00 (.20)
Number of precautionary behaviors	-.74/-.07 (.54)
Frequency of precautionary behaviors	.17/.02 (.40)
Nonviolence victim ^c	2.41/.04 (3.03)

Variables	Fear of Crime
Violence victim ^c	.89/.01 (2.99)
Indirect victimization	-.89/-.02 (2.40)
How often think of fear for own safety	10.15/.23 ^{***} (2.00)
Perceived risk	.69/.46 ^{***} (.06)
Safety (overall)	1.82/.13 ^{**} (.66)
Intercept	21.69
N	341
R ²	.61 ^{***}

Note: The data presented here are weighted by gender.

Cell entries are given as unstandardized regression coefficient/standardized (beta) coefficient with the standard error given in parentheses

a. compared to on campus residence; b. compared to freshman; c. compared to non-victims

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Predicting Perceived Risk of Crime

Table 10 provides the results of a multiple regression analysis conducted to test the hypotheses that women, those who engage in risky lifestyle behaviors, and those who are exposed to the media will have greater perceived risk of crime. The regression equation was significant ($F(22,318)=13.61$, $p=.000$, $R^2=.49$). Like the fear of crime model, gender was a significant predictor of perceived risk ($\beta=-.11$, $p=.040$). However the relationship was in the opposite direction, that is, females had a score on the perceived risk scale that was 4.65 units lower than males when controlling for all other variables in the model. Neither risky behavior ($\beta=.00$, $p=.996$) nor media exposure ($\beta=.04$, $p=.431$) were significantly associated with

perceived risk. Perceived risk was associated with fear of crime ($\beta=.60$, $p=.000$). A one unit increase in fear of crime is associated with a .40 increase in perceived risk. Additionally, those respondents who engaged in more precautionary behaviors ($\beta=.15$, $p=.007$) and those who knew a friend or relative who was a victim of a crime in the past year ($\beta=.13$, $p=.003$) were significantly more likely to have greater perceived risk of crime. Overall, this regression model does not offer support for the anticipated hypotheses – women, those who engage in risky behaviors, and those who were exposed to the media did not have significantly greater perceived risk. In fact, when controlling for the variables in the model, women were actually shown to have significantly less perceived risk than men.

Table 10: OLS Regression Coefficients for Predicting Perceived Risk of Crime

Variables	Perceived Risk
Gender (female)	-4.65/-.11* (2.26)
Age	-.03/-.01 (.16)
Race (nonwhite)	1.00/.02 (2.09)
Off campus university affiliated residence ^a	9.56/.11 (5.00)
Off campus apartment ^a	1.77/.04 (3.97)
Off campus house ^a	7.14/.17 (4.02)
With parents ^a	5.87/.11 (4.00)
Sophomore ^b	-.97/-.01 (4.43)
Junior ^b	-4.26/-.10 (3.93)
Senior ^b	-.12/-.00 (3.96)
Graduate ^b	-1.30/-.01 (5.46)
Other university class ^b	-5.53/-.03 (8.25)
Media use (overall)	.15/.04 (.19)
Risky behavior	.00/.00 (.15)
Number of precautionary behaviors	1.00/.15* (.41)
Frequency of precautionary behaviors	.01/.00 (.31)
Nonviolence victim ^c	-1.60/-.04 (2.31)

Variables	Perceived Risk
Violence victim ^c	1.57/.04 (2.27)
Indirect victimization	5.47/.13** (1.80)
How often think of fear for own safety	.92/.03 (1.58)
Safety (overall)	.09/.01 (.51)
Fear of crime	.40/.60*** (.04)
Intercept	-.26
N	341
R ²	.49***

Note: The data presented here are weighted by gender.

Cell entries are given as unstandardized regression coefficient/standardized (beta) coefficient with the standard error given in parentheses

a. compared to on campus residence; b. compared to freshman; c. compared to non-victims

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Predicting Overall Safety

A multiple regression model was estimated predicting perceived overall safety. This model was testing whether females, those who engaged in risky lifestyle behaviors, and those who were exposed to the media were more likely to express a perceived lack of safety. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 11. The regression equation was significant ($F(22,318)=11.77$, $p=.000$, $R^2=.45$). Gender was a significant predictor of perceived safety ($\beta=.17$, $p=.002$). Females are significantly more likely than males to report a greater perceived lack of safety. Risky behavior was also a significant predictor of perceived safety ($\beta=-.14$, $p=.006$). Those who engage in more risky behavior are more likely to feel safe. Media exposure

($\beta=.05$, $p=.271$) was not significantly associated with perceived safety. Older respondents ($\beta=-.11$, $p=.048$) and nonwhites ($\beta=-.11$, $p=.014$) were more likely to feel safe. Whereas, students who live off campus in an apartment, ($\beta=.18$, $p=.05$), respondents who engage in precautionary behaviors often ($\beta=.21$, $p=.000$), indirect victims (knew friend or relative) ($\beta=.09$, $p=.042$), respondents who thought about fear for their own safety often ($\beta=.13$, $p=.018$), and those who have higher fear of crime ($\beta=.18$, $p=.006$) were more likely to have a perceived lack of safety. These results support the hypothesis that women have a greater perceived lack of safety than men. However, the hypotheses regarding risky behavior and media exposure were not supported. In fact, when controlling for other variables in the model, an increase in engaging in risky behavior actually significantly reduces the perceived lack of safety.

Table 11: OLS Regression Coefficients for Predicting Overall Perceived Safety

Variables	Overall Safety
Gender (female)	.76/.17** (.25)
Age	-.03/-.11* (.02)
Race (nonwhite)	-.56/-.11* (.23)
Off campus university affiliated residence ^a	1.03/.11 (.55)
Off campus apartment ^a	.85/.18* (.43)
Off campus house ^a	.44/.10 (.44)
With parents ^a	.03/.01 (.44)
Sophomore ^b	-.19/-.03 (.49)
Junior ^b	-.67/-.14 (.43)
Senior ^b	-.76/-.18 (.43)
Graduate ^b	-.72/-.07 (.60)
Other university class ^b	.27/.01 (.91)
Media use (overall)	.02/.05 (.02)
Risky behavior	-.05/-.14** (.02)
Number of precautionary behaviors	.06/.08 (.05)
Frequency of precautionary behaviors	.12/.21*** (.03)
Nonviolence victim ^c	-.16/-.04 (.25)

Variables	Overall Safety
Violence victim ^c	-.07/-.02 (.25)
Indirect victimization	.41/.09* (.20)
How often think of fear for own safety	.41/.13* (.17)
Fear of crime	.01/.18** (.01)
Perceived risk	.00/.01 (.01)
Intercept	.05
N	341
R ²	.45***

Note: The data presented here are weighted by gender.

Cell entries are given as unstandardized regression coefficient/standardized (beta) coefficient with the standard error given in parentheses

a. compared to on campus residence; b. compared to freshman; c. compared to non-victims

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Predicting Fear of Nonsexual Crime: Shadow of Sexual Assault

A multiple regression model was estimated to assess whether or not females' fear of crime is shadowed by fear of sexual assault. In order to assess this relationship estimates are given with fear of all nonsexual crimes considered dependent. Also, the same set of control variables as the previous regression models were used. To test this specific hypothesis, comparisons were made using seven models. The first regression model contained all control variables with the exclusion of any fear or perceived risk of rape variables. It is suggested that not only fear indicators, but also perceived risk indicators must be added into the model (Ferraro, 1995). Therefore, the basic model (1) was compared to the next 6 models which added the

relevant variables – fear of overall rape, fear of stranger rape, fear of acquaintance rape, perceived risk of overall rape, perceived risk of stranger rape, and perceived risk of acquaintance rape. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 12. Model 1 ($F(22,319)=21.17$, $p=.000$, $R^2=.59$), model 2 ($F(23,317)=49.13$, $p=.000$, $R^2=.78$), model 3 ($F(23,317)=43.24$, $p=.000$, $R^2=.76$), model 4 ($F(23,318)=39.54$, $p=.000$, $R^2=.74$), model 5 ($F(23,318)=20.27$, $p=.000$, $R^2=.60$), model 6 ($F(23,318)=20.37$, $p=.000$, $R^2=.60$), and model 7 ($F(23,318)=20.19$, $p=.000$, $R^2=.59$) regression equations were significant. Gender was significant in all models except the model which has the fear of acquaintance rape variable added (model 4) into the analysis. In the other two models (2 and 3) with the fear of rape variables, even though gender is significant, the relationship is in the opposite direction, that is, females fear of nonsexual crimes is less than that of males when their fear of rape (overall and stranger) is added into the model. When added into the models, the three fear of rape (overall, stranger, and acquaintance) variables are all significant predictors of fear of nonsexual crime. In fact, when they are added into the model, those variables become the largest predictors of fear of nonsexual crime ($\beta= .66$, $.63$, and $.52$ respectively). Unlike the fear of rape variables, perceived risk of rape variables were not significant predictors of nonsexual crime. Additionally, living in an off campus apartment or house or with parents, thinking about fear for one's own safety, and perceived risk of nonsexual crime were all significant predictors of fear of nonsexual crimes. Exposure to the media was significant in model 4 and 7 only. And overall safety perception was significant in all models that did not have the fear of rape variables (models 1, 5, 6, and 7). Generally, these regression analyses provide strong support for the shadow of sexual assault hypothesis. When the fear of rape variables were added into the model, the explained variance increases to over 70% and the fear of rape variables produce the highest standardized coefficient values. In addition, it appears

that it is the actual fear of rape, rather than perceived risk of rape that shadows fear of all other nonsexual crime for women. Further, when one controls for fear of acquaintance rape gender is no longer significant (see model 4). Overall, among women, fear of rape (whether overall, stranger, or acquaintance) is the most significant determinant of fear of nonsexual crime. Correspondingly, women are more fearful of crime, but seemingly because they are afraid of rape.

Table 12: OLS Regression Coefficients for Predicting Fear of Nonsexual Crime

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7
Gender (female)	8.00/.16** (2.46)	-6.84/-.13** (2.03)	-7.00/-.14** (2.16)	-1.85/-.04 (2.10)	8.64/.17** (2.57)	8.96/.17** (2.57)	8.09/.16** (2.51)
Age	-.21/-.06 (.18)	-.01/-.00 (.13)	.01/.00 (.14)	-.09/-.03 (.14)	-.20/-.06 (.18)	-.20/-.06 (.18)	-.21/-.06 (.18)
Race (nonwhite)	3.60/.06 (2.29)	-1.86/-.03 (1.73)	-.79/-.01 (1.81)	-.85/.01 (1.86)	3.80/.06 (2.30)	3.80/.06 (2.29)	3.65/.06 (2.30)
Off campus university affiliated residence ^a	-8.25/-.07 (5.58)	-3.27/-.03 (4.12)	-2.78/-.03 (4.33)	-5.30/-.05 (4.47)	-8.26/-.07 (5.59)	-8.45/-.08 (5.58)	-8.22/-.07 (5.59)
Off campus apartment ^a	-11.13/-.20** (4.38)	-9.04/-.16** (3.23)	-8.78/-.15* (3.40)	-9.74/-.17** (3.50)	-11.16/-.20* (4.38)	-11.33/-.20* (4.38)	-11.11/-.20* (4.39)
Off campus house ^a	-15.39/-.30** (4.43)	-11.88/-.23*** (3.27)	-12.55/-.24*** (3.44)	-12.22/-.24** (3.54)	-15.42/-.30** (4.43)	-15.60/-.30*** (4.43)	-15.37/-.30** (4.44)
With parents ^a	-10.38/-.15* (4.45)	-9.30/-.14** (3.28)	-9.22/-.14* (3.44)	-9.65/-.14* (3.56)	-10.28/-.15* (4.45)	-10.57/-.16* (4.45)	-10.31/-.15* (4.47)
Sophomore ^b	2.04/.02 (4.90)	-.19/-.00 (3.64)	.86/.01 (3.82)	-.83/-.01 (3.93)	2.37/.03 (4.92)	2.40/.03 (4.91)	2.11/.02 (4.92)
Junior ^b	3.72/.07 (4.32)	-2.27/-.04 (3.25)	-.41/-.01 (3.40)	-2.51/-.05 (3.50)	4.10/.07 (4.34)	3.90/.07 (4.32)	3.84/.07 (4.37)
Senior ^b	3.55/.07 (4.34)	.49/.01 (3.25)	1.30/.03 (3.41)	.21/.00 (3.48)	3.83/.08 (4.35)	3.63/.07 (4.33)	3.64/.07 (4.37)
Graduate ^b	.74/.01 (6.04)	.36/.00 (4.59)	.41/.00 (4.71)	-.12/-.00 (4.83)	.96/.01 (6.05)	.85/.01 (6.03)	.80/.01 (6.06)
Other university class ^b	-1.83/-.01 (9.19)	-1.47/-.01 (6.77)	.63/.00 (7.12)	-3.83/-.02 (7.35)	-1.64/-.01 (9.19)	-1.79/-.01 (9.18)	-1.76/-.01 (9.21)

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7
Media use (overall)	.34/.07 (.21)	.23/.04 (.16)	.10/.02 (.16)	.39/.07* (.17)	.35/.07 (.21)	.37/.07 (.21)	.34/.07* (.21)
Risky behavior	.01/.00 (.17)	-.07/-.02 (.13)	-.11/-.03 (.13)	-.02/-.01 (.14)	.02/.01 (.17)	.03/.01 (.17)	.01/.00 (.17)
Number of precautionary behaviors	-.55/-.06 (.45)	.02/.00 (.34)	-.00/.00 (.35)	-.17/-.02 (.36)	-.57/-.06 (.45)	-.55/-.06 (.45)	-.56/-.06 (.46)
Frequency of precautionary behaviors	.22/.03 (.34)	.33/.05 (.25)	.14/.02 (.27)	.47/.07 (.27)	.24/.04 (.34)	.24/.04 (.34)	.23/.03 (.34)
Nonviolence victim	1.99/.04 (2.57)	1.89/.04 (1.89)	-1.11/.02 (1.99)	2.68/.05 (2.05)	1.74/.03 (2.59)	1.68/.03 (2.58)	1.95/.04 (2.58)
Violence victim	.60/.01 (2.53)	-.14/-.00 (1.87)	.33/.01 (1.96)	-.21/-.00 (2.05)	.64/.01 (2.53)	.53/.01 (2.53)	.63/.01 (2.54)
Indirect victimization	-1.01/-.02 (2.04)	-.78/-.02 (1.50)	-.68/-.01 (1.58)	-.87/-.02 (1.63)	-1.10/-.02 (2.04)	-1.12/-.02 (2.04)	-1.03/-.02 (2.04)
How often think of fear for own safety	9.20/.24*** (1.68)	6.36/.17*** (1.26)	5.04/.13*** (1.34)	8.30/.22*** (1.35)	9.20/.24*** (1.68)	9.29/.25*** (1.68)	9.18/.24*** (1.69)
Safety (overall)	1.44/.12* (.56)	.38/.03 (.42)	.57/.05 (.44)	.60/.05 (.45)	1.44/.12* (.56)	1.42/.12* (.56)	1.44/.12* (.56)
Perceived risk (nonsexual)	.67/.47*** (.06)	.35/.24*** (.05)	.42/.29*** (.05)	.38/.26*** (.05)	.75/.52*** (.10)	.76/.53*** (.09)	.69/.47*** (.09)
Overall fear of rape		2.85/.66*** (.17)					
Fear of stranger rape			4.99/.63*** (.34)				
Fear of acquaintance rape				4.49/.52*** (.33)			

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7
Overall perceived risk of rape					-.52/-.06 (.57)		
Perceived risk of stranger rape						-1.23/-.09 (.95)	
Perceived risk of acquaintance rape							-.20/-.01 (.97)
Intercept	19.09	18.09	20.22	16.92	17.62	17.32	18.81
N	342	341	341	342	342	342	342
R ²	.59 ^{***}	.78 ^{***}	.76 ^{***}	.74 ^{***}	.60 ^{***}	.60 ^{***}	.59 ^{***}

Note: The data presented here are weighted by gender.

Cell entries are given as unstandardized regression coefficient/standardized (beta) coefficient with the standard error given in parentheses
a. compared to on campus residence; b. compared to freshman; c. compared to non-victims

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

To further assess this shadowing effect, a multiple regression model was estimated using the subsample of women only (N=201). The results of these analyses are presented in Table 13. The analysis was completed in the same way as the previous regression model. Model 1 (F(20,178)=10.10, p=.000, R²=.53), model 2 (F(21,177)=31.81, p=.000, R²=.79), model 3 (F(21,177)=26.50, p=.000, R²=.76), model 4 (F(21,177)=22.66, p=.000, R²=.73), model 5 (F(20,180)=8.53, p=.000, R²=.49), model 6 (F(21,177)=9.66, p=.000, R²=.53), and model 7 (F(21,177)=9.57, p=.000, R²=.53) regression equations were significant. Tolerances for the independent variables were examined to ensure against multicollinearity. Low tolerances proved to be a problem in model 5 for two of the independent variables – overall perceived risk of nonsexual crimes (tol.=.173) and overall perceived risk of rape (tol.=.187). In order to address this issue, separate models were estimated (one with perceived risk of nonsexual crimes left out of analysis (model 5) and one with overall perceived risk of rape left out of analysis (model 1)). The tolerances were no longer low in these models; therefore these models are shown in Table 13. The results of these analyses were similar to the previous regressions testing the shadow hypothesis. When added into the models, the fear of rape (overall, stranger, and acquaintance) variables were all significant predictors of fear of nonsexual crime for women. And again, like the previous model, these variables had the largest standardized coefficients ($\beta = .66, .62, \text{ and } .55$ respectively). In addition, the perceived risk of stranger and acquaintance rape variables were not significant predictors of fear of nonsexual crime for women. However, unlike the previous models (Table 12) the overall perceived risk of rape variable was a significant predictor (model 5). Furthermore, nonwhite, living in an off campus university affiliated residence or apartment or house and media exposure were significant predictors in most models. Thinking about fear for one's own safety and perceived risk to nonsexual crime were significant predictors in all

models. And like the previous model, overall safety was a significant predictor in all models that did not contain fear of rape variables (models 1, 5, 6, and 7). This regression analysis provides further support for the shadow of sexual assault hypothesis. Among women, fear of rape, whether overall, stranger, or acquaintance, is the most important determinant of fear of nonsexual crime.

Table 13: OLS Regression Coefficients for Predicting Fear of Nonsexual Crime Among Female Respondents

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7
Age	-.07/-.02 (.25)	.10/.03 (.17)	.12/.04 (.18)	.02/.01 (.19)	-.02/-.00 (.25)	-.08/-.02 (.25)	-.07/-.02 (.25)
Race (nonwhite)	7.74/.14* (3.46)	.65/.01 (2.41)	2.45/.04 (2.57)	2.21/.04 (2.70)	9.78/.16** (3.61)	8.63/.14* (3.46)	8.78/.14* (3.47)
Off campus university affiliated residence ^a	-19.40/-.13* (9.85)	-8.79/-.06 (6.64)	-10.42/-.07 (7.13)	-10.96/-.07 (7.55)	-17.79/-.12 (10.28)	-20.04/-.14* (9.87)	-19.52/-.13* (9.88)
Off campus apartment ^a	-15.67/-.27* (6.90)	-8.94/-.15 (4.66)	-10.50/-.18* (5.00)	-9.64/-.17 (5.29)	-14.13/-.24 (7.20)	-16.24/-.28* (6.92)	-15.64/-.27* (6.92)
Off campus house ^a	-18.19/-.33* (7.10)	-10.32/-.19* (4.79)	-13.15/-.24* (5.12)	-10.44/-.19 (5.45)	-17.45/-.32* (7.38)	-18.61/-.34** (7.10)	-18.19/-.33* (7.10)
With parents ^a	-13.61/-.19 (7.12)	-8.01/-.11 (4.79)	-9.08/-.13 (5.14)	-8.91/-.12 (5.45)	-12.04/-.17 (7.41)	-14.13/-.20* (7.14)	-13.79/-.19 (7.16)
Sophomore ^b	4.53/.05 (8.78)	3.60/.04 (6.08)	4.19/.05 (6.53)	2.20/.03 (6.70)	5.79/.07 (9.11)	4.49/.05 (8.78)	4.47/.05 (8.80)
Junior ^b	3.80/.07 (8.07)	1.14/.02 (5.65)	4.55/.08 (6.06)	-2.07/-.04 (6.18)	-1.09/-.02 (8.38)	4.03/.07 (8.07)	3.37/.06 (8.18)
Senior ^b	2.25/.04 (7.97)	2.10/.04 (5.60)	3.34/.06 (6.01)	-.20/-.00 (6.08)	-.80/-.02 (8.31)	2.30/.04 (7.97)	1.90/.04 (8.05)
Graduate ^b	-6.56/-.03 (13.53)	3.06/.02 (9.26)	7.82/.04 (9.99)	-5.59/-.03 (10.33)	-10.73/-.05 (14.08)	-7.14/-.03 (13.55)	-6.97/-.03 (13.62)
Other university class ^{b,c}	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Media use (overall)	.65/.12* (.31)	.30/.06 (.21)	.22/.04 (.22)	.51/.10* (.23)	.74/.14* (.31)	.68/.13* (.31)	.66/.12* (.31)

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7
Risky behavior	.18/.04 (.25)	-.08/-.02 (.17)	-.10/-.02 (.18)	.02/.00 (.19)	.08/.02 (.26)	.19/.04 (.25)	.17/.04 (.26)
Number of precautionary behaviors	-.92/-.09 (.65)	-.23/-.02 (.44)	-.15/-.01 (.47)	-.58/-.06 (.49)	-.48/-.05 (.66)	-.90/-.09 (.65)	-.90/-.09 (.65)
Frequency of precautionary behaviors	.51/.06 (.58)	.49/.06 (.39)	.17/.02 (.42)	.78/.09 (.45)	.65/.07 (.60)	.51/.06 (.58)	.51/.06 (.59)
Nonviolence victim ^d	2.95/.05 (3.83)	1.73/.03 (2.57)	.05/.00 (2.77)	3.62/.06 (2.92)	2.49/.04 (3.96)	3.00/.05 (3.83)	2.96/.05 (3.84)
Violence victim ^d	.59/.01 (3.64)	-.69/-.01 (2.45)	-.33/-.01 (2.63)	-.40/-.01 (2.78)	-.01/-.00 (3.76)	.66/.01 (3.64)	.50/.01 (3.66)
Indirect victimization	-2.76/-.05 (3.11)	-.77/-.01 (2.10)	-.87/-.02 (2.25)	-1.21/-.02 (2.38)	-1.01/-.02 (3.21)	-2.83/-.05 (3.11)	-2.72/-.05 (3.12)
How often think of fear for own safety	10.42/.26 ^{***} (2.48)	5.42/.14 ^{**} (1.72)	4.12/.10 [*] (1.87)	8.00/.20 ^{***} (1.90)	11.03/.28 ^{***} (2.56)	10.65/.27 ^{***} (2.49)	10.48/.27 ^{***} (2.49)
Safety (overall)	1.75/.14 [*] (.78)	.40/.03 (.54)	.62/.05 (.58)	.74/.06 (.60)	1.79/.15 [*] (.81)	1.69/.14 [*] (.78)	1.73/.14 [*] (.78)
Perceived risk (nonsexual) ^e	.65/.45 ^{***} (.09)	.29/.20 ^{***} (.06)	.39/.27 ^{***} (.07)	.33/.23 ^{***} (.07)	----	.77/.54 ^{***} (.15)	.61/.43 ^{***} (.14)
Overall fear of rape		3.22/.66 ^{***} (.22)					
Fear of stranger rape			5.76/.62 ^{***} (.45)				
Fear of acquaintance rape				4.79/.55 ^{***} (.42)			

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7
Overall perceived risk of rape					2.88/.36 ^{***} (.49)		
Perceived risk of stranger rape						-1.43/-.10 (1.47)	
Perceived risk of acquaintance rape							.49/.03 (1.38)
Intercept	16.65	2.60	4.49	7.01	19.32	16.11	17.11
N	199	199	199	199	201	199	199
R ²	.53 ^{***}	.79 ^{***}	.76 ^{***}	.73 ^{***}	.49 ^{***}	.53 ^{***}	.53 ^{***}

Note: The data presented here are weighted by gender.

Cell entries are given as unstandardized regression coefficient/standardized (beta) coefficient with the standard error given in parentheses
a. compared to on campus residence; b. compared to freshman; c. the variable “other university class” contained no data for the female model;
d. compared to non-victims; e. variable left out of model 5 due to low tolerance value (see further notes within text)

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

Predicting Precautionary Behavior

Table 14 provides the results of the multiple regression model estimated to predict precautionary behavior. In particular, the analysis was conducted to test the hypotheses that those respondents with greater fear of crime, perceived risk, and perceived lack of safety, those who engage in risky lifestyle behaviors, and women will be more likely to engage in precautionary behaviors. Due to the fact that there were two measures for engaging in precautionary behaviors – an additive scale that measured how many precautionary behaviors were taken and an additive scale that measured how often precautionary behaviors were taken – there are two separate models presented in Table 14. The regression equation was significant for both model 1 ($F(21,333)=9.15, p=.000, R^2=.37$) and model 2 ($F(21,351)=12.99, p=.000, R^2=.44$). Neither fear of crime ($\beta=-.09, p=.185; \beta=.03, p=.656$) nor risky behaviors ($\beta=-.08, p=.143; \beta=-.09, p=.071$) were significant predictors of precautionary behavior in either model. Perceived risk was a significant predictor in model 1 ($\beta=.19, p=.002$), but not in model 2 ($\beta=.03, p=.534$). A one unit increase in perceived risk is associated with a .03 unit increase in the number of precautionary behaviors used. In addition, perceived safety was a significant predictor in both model 1 ($\beta=.20, p=.000$) and model 2 ($\beta=.23, p=.000$). Respondents who felt less safe used more precautionary behaviors and engaged in them more often. Gender was significant in both model 1 ($\beta=.20, p=.000$) and model 2 ($\beta=.27, p=.000$). Females both used more precautionary behaviors and engaged in them more often than males. Furthermore, those students who live off campus in a house used precautions less often than those who live on campus ($\beta=-.20, p=.037$). Media was a significant predictor in model 1 – as media exposure increased so did the use of precautionary behaviors ($\beta=.10, p=.04$). Lastly, respondents who think about fear for their own

safety more often ($\beta=.18$, $p=.001$; $\beta=.20$, $p=.000$) are both more likely to use precautionary behaviors and engage in them more often. This analysis provides some support for the hypotheses. Women were in fact more likely to use precautionary behaviors both overall and more frequently than males. Fear of crime and risky behaviors were not significant predictors of precautionary behaviors; however perceived risk and perceived safety were significant predictors of precautionary behaviors employed.

Table 14: OLS Regression Coefficients for Predicting Precautionary Behavior

Variables	Number of Precautionary Behaviors	Frequency of Precautionary Behaviors
Gender (female)	1.12/.20** (.31)	2.09/.27*** (.42)
Age	-.02/-.04 (.02)	-.01/-.02 (.03)
Race (nonwhite)	.27/.04 (.30)	.50/.05 (.40)
Off campus university affiliated residence ^a	-.29/-.02 (.74)	-.13/-.01 (.96)
Off campus apartment ^a	-.50/-.08 (.58)	-.97/-.11 (.74)
Off campus house ^a	.28/.05 (.59)	-1.58/-.20* (.75)
With parents ^a	.83/.12 (.59)	-.27/-.03 (.75)
Sophomore ^b	-.99/-.11 (.63)	.79/.06 (.84)
Junior ^b	-.16/-.03 (.57)	.93/.11 (.74)
Senior ^b	-.68/-.13 (.57)	1.32/.17 (.74)

Variables	Number of Precautionary Behaviors	Frequency of Precautionary Behaviors
Graduate ^b	-1.44/-.11* (.79)	1.96/.11 (1.05)
Other university class ^b	-1.35/-.07 (1.04)	-1.49/-.06 (1.23)
Media use (overall)	.06/.10* (.03)	.05/.07 (.04)
Risky behavior	-.03/-.08 (.02)	-.05/-.09 (.03)
Nonviolence victim ^c	.04/.01 (.33)	-.21/-.03 (.44)
Violence victim ^c	.65/.12 (.32)	.03/.00 (.42)
Indirect victimization	-.06/-.01 (.26)	-.58/-.07 (.34)
How often think of fear for own safety	.74/.18** (.23)	1.14/.20*** (.29)
Fear of Crime	-.01/-.09 (.01)	.00/.03 (.01)
Perceived risk	.03/.19** (.01)	.01/.03 (.01)
Safety (overall)	.26/.20** (.07)	.43/.23*** (.09)
Intercept	2.77	8.84
N	355	373
R ²	.37***	.44***

Note: The data presented here are weighted by gender.

Cell entries are given as unstandardized regression coefficient/standardized (beta) coefficient with the standard error given in parentheses

a. compared to on campus residence; b. compared to freshman; c. compared to non-victims

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of the present study was to explore the potential relationships among sociodemographic characteristics, victimization, precautionary behaviors, lifestyle activities, alcohol and drug use, media usage, fear of crime, perceived risk of victimization, and safety perception among college students. Based on previous research and theoretical explanations, it was expected that gender and routine activities would be related to fear of crime, perceived risk of victimization, safety perception, and use of precautionary behaviors. Additionally, it was hypothesized that fear of crime, perceived risk of victimization, and safety perception would affect respondent's behaviors. It was also hypothesized that victimization would be related to fear of crime and perceived risk. The bivariate and multivariate results provided some support for these expectations.

As hypothesized, gender was related to fear of crime, perceived risk, safety perception, and the use of precautionary behaviors. Gender differences are evident in the frequency distributions as well as the bivariate and multivariate analyses. As expected, females were more likely than males to fear overall victimization both at the bivariate and multivariate level. These results are consistent with previous literature that shows women tend to have greater fear of crime than males (Ferraro, 1995, 1996; Fisher & Sloan, 2003; Haynie, 1998; Riger & Gordon, 1981; Rountree & Land, 1996a; Rountree 1998). However, at the bivariate level, no gender differences were found among certain property crimes (i.e. being cheated out of money, having one's car stolen, and having one's property damaged). These results are not completely consistent with the previous research that shows women and men do not differ in their fear of burglary, but the results are consistent in the sense that there were no differences found among

property crimes (Reid & Konrad, 2004; Schafer, Huebner, & Bynum, 2006). Furthermore, as predicted, females were also more likely than males to feel less safe. Moreover, females were more likely than males to express a greater overall perceived risk of victimization at the bivariate level; however this reverses at the multivariate level. When all other variables are controlled for, females have significantly lower perceived risk of victimization than males. Even though these results are inconsistent with previous literature (e.g. Ferraro, 1995), the results here may not be completely comparable to other research as a college sample was used and more diverse control variables were estimated. In addition, fear of crime was included as a control variable predicting perceived risk. Perhaps, because gender so strongly predicts fear of crime, the inclusion of this variable and the other control variables partial out the gender effect on perceived risk of victimization. Overall, the fear and perceived risk by gender bivariate and multivariate results were similar, but produced significantly different results. More gender differences were found among the fear variables than the perceived risk variables, which may provide support for the idea that the two concepts are different and should be examined as such (Ferraro, 1995, 1996; Fisher & Sloan, 2003; Rader, 2004; Rountree & Land, 1996b). Furthermore, it was expected that the shadow of sexual assault thesis would be supported (Ferraro, 1995, 1996). Multivariate analysis provided support for this hypothesis. The regression models predicting fear of nonsexual crime revealed that when each fear of rape variable was added they became the largest predictor and the explained variance in each model increased to over 70 percent. Additionally, when fear of acquaintance rape is controlled for, gender is no longer a significant predictor. The perceived risk of rape variables were not significant predictors of fear of nonsexual crime. Moreover, the shadow effect was further estimated by predicting fear of nonsexual crime among females only. The fear of rape variables remained the largest predictors of fear of nonsexual

crime for women. Overall, these results are generally consistent with the literature that shows support for the shadow thesis (Ferraro, 1995, 1996; Fisher & Sloan, 2003; Schafer et al., 2006). Additionally, it was hypothesized that women would be more likely to use precautionary behaviors. Both the bivariate and multivariate analyses lend support for this hypothesis. Females were significantly more likely than males to use a greater number of precautionary behaviors and to engage in them more often. These results are consistent with previous literature that finds women typically engage in more precautionary or constrained behaviors than males (Gordon et al., 1980; Ferraro, 1995; Stanko, 1990). Overall, it appears from these findings that gender is a strong predictor of fear, perceived risk, safety perception, and use of precautionary behaviors.

It was also hypothesized that fear of crime, perceived risk, and perceived safety would affect one's behaviors. More specifically, it was expected that those with greater fear of crime, perceived risk of victimization, and perceived lack of safety would be more likely to engage in precautionary behaviors. The preceding analyses provide support for this hypothesis. Respondents who had greater fear and perceived risk were more likely to use precautionary behaviors and use them more often, which is consistent with previous research (Ferraro, 1996; Fisher & Sloan, 2003; Rountree, 1998). Additionally, respondents who reported feeling less safe in their neighborhoods and homes were more likely to use a greater number of precautionary behaviors and to engage in them more often, which is also consistent with previous literature (Riger & Gordon, 1981; Rountree & Land, 1996a, Rountree & Land, 1996b).

Initial hypotheses suggested that routine activity theory could lend some explanation for fear, perceived risk, safety perception, and use of precautionary behaviors. In particular, students who frequently engage in risky lifestyle behaviors were expected to have greater fear of crime,

perceived risk, and perceived lack of safety. This hypothesis was not supported at either the bivariate or the multivariate analyses. In fact, those who engage in risky lifestyle activities more often were less likely to fear victimization at the bivariate level, but this relationship does not persist at the multivariate level. Although, this finding is actually consistent with some previous research that found those who engaged in leisure activities were less likely to fear victimization (Mesch, 2000a). However, other research contradicts these findings (Rountree, 1998).

Additionally, those who engage in risky lifestyle behaviors more often were more likely to feel safe. Furthermore, those who were exposed to the media more often were expected to have greater fear, perceived risk, and perceived lack of safety. This hypothesis was supported at the bivariate level only. Respondents who were exposed to the media more often were more likely to have greater fear of crime, perceived risk of victimization, and perceived lack of safety; however, these relationships no longer exist when controlling for all other variables within the analysis. In addition, those who engaged in risky lifestyle activities were expected to be more likely to engage in precautionary behaviors. This hypothesis was not supported at either the bivariate or multivariate level. In fact, those who engage in more risky behaviors were less likely to use precautionary behaviors and use them less often; but these correlations were no longer significant when controlling for other variables in the model. This is also inconsistent with previous literature that found lifestyles which increase exposure are significant predictors of the use of guardianship behaviors (Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003). Overall, the results of this study do not support the assertion that routine activity theory may explain fear of victimization. This may be due to the type of measures used to assess routine activity variables; however, it may also be that gender is the largest and overshadowing predictor of fear of victimization.

Finally, it was expected that victimization would be related to fear of crime and perceived risk. In particular, victims who experienced violent crimes were expected to express a greater fear of crime and perceived risk of victimization. Neither the bivariate nor multivariate analyses provided support for this hypothesis. No significant relationships were found among victimization type and fear of crime or perceived risk of victimization. This is inconsistent with previous research that found that violent victimization increases fear (Rountree, 1998). These results may be a reflection of the way in which the victimization measures were combined or perhaps the predictive value of victimization related to fear is muted when multiple other variables are introduced into the analysis.

While it appears that these findings are important within the fear body of literature, the limitations of this study that may qualify these results are recognized. Even though this study sought to improve upon measures of previous studies, there are still shortcomings with the measures that were used. For example, when assessing the possible routine activity theory explanation for fear of crime, better and more diverse variables could have been used. One area which was not assessed was that of neighborhood incivilities or proximity measures, which may have affected the outcome of the variables predicting fear and perceived risk. In addition, the survey response rate was relatively low at 14.3%, but even so, this is a similar response rate that one might get with traditional mail-out surveys and as previously mentioned, researchers using online surveys have varying response rates (Glover & Bush, 2005; Kaye & Johnson, 1999; Koch & Emrey, 2001; Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006). Furthermore, it is difficult to assess how accurate this response rate actually is since it is almost impossible to know how many students actually were exposed to the survey and declined to participate. Even though a potential of 4,100 students were accessed, they were asked to participate in the study in two different manners –

one in class with a sheet of paper with the survey URL and another within the online class discussion postings with the survey URL there for the students to simply click. It certainly may be that most of the survey response came from those students who were in the online classes, rather than those in the in-class setting that would have had to physically type the survey address into a web browser at another time; however, this distinction was not able to be assessed. Moreover, there was no way to determine if respondents answered the survey twice, hence this may have further decreased the actual response rate. Interestingly, higher survey response was obtained from females compared to males; hence a weight was applied to better reflect the gender distribution in the population at the university where the data were collected. Even though a weight had to be applied to gender, the sample was relatively representative of the race/ethnicity distribution of the university. Additionally, the age and university class status of the sample was higher than one might expect with a college sample. Furthermore, the university at which the data were collected is a large metropolitan university and may arguably produce results more like the general population than that of a typical university setting. Also, because an online survey was used, a larger number and variety of students were able to be reached. Additionally, the use of an online survey offers further privacy and security for answering difficult questions, like those related to victimization, in an anonymous setting. Furthermore, even with these previous limitations, this study is still consistent with previous research. The present study sought to improve upon certain measures and in doing so was still consistent with national samples outcomes (e.g. Ferraro, 1995, 1996).

Future research should attempt to address the weaknesses of this project. For example, it appears that using an online survey may be beneficial in survey research; however, if used again, one might attempt to find a way to calculate an accurate response rate. It may also prove

interesting to identify which students – those contacted in class versus those contacted through an online class – would be more likely to participate in the survey. With relation to the use of routine activity theory to explain fear of crime, it appears that while this study may not offer complete support for this proposal, previous research has (e.g. Mesch, 2000a; Rountree, 1998), hence it may still prove to be a promising endeavor. Measures of lifestyle activities could be improved upon to expand the degree of exposure. In addition, future research should include measures of proximity, such as neighborhood incivilities. Moreover, measures of guardianship could also be combined into types of categories rather than overall to assess whether factors may affect the type of guardianship which is employed. Additionally, it might prove interesting to also consider whether fear may increase actual risk of victimization in addition to perceived risk.

This study contributes to the existing body of literature on fear of victimization among college students by analyzing the predictors of fear, perceived risk, perceived safety, and use guardianship activities, while using seemingly more comprehensive measures. With the knowledge from this and previous research, college administrators may work to develop and evaluate programs that aim to decrease fear of victimization. It has been suggested that college administrators should not only focus their attention on actual victimization, but also fear of victimization (Fisher & Sloan, 2003; Wilcox et al., 2006). It appears from this and previous research that gender proves to be the most significant predictor of fear of victimization. Perhaps, then programs could be specifically designed for college women. Although, it has also been suggested that college administrators should focus attention on potential offenders (i.e. college men) as well with relation to fear of sexual assault by using rape education and prevention programs to reduce the actual risk of women's victimization (Fisher & Sloan, 2003). This study provides further support for the shadow hypothesis. Hence, it seems fruitful that policies or

programs should be developed to not only address college women's actual victimization risk and fear of victimization from both strangers and acquaintances, but also the shadow of sexual assault. However, as previously suggested, simply educating women to use certain behaviors or resources to reduce the chance of victimization may not empower them, and may actually create more fear (Fisher & Sloan, 2003). Therefore it is suggested that colleges develop programs to assist women in risk assessment through educating them about their level as well as sources of risk of crime (Fisher & Sloan, 2003; Wilcox et al., 2006). Students, and in particular, females already appear to be engaging in guardianship or self-protective behaviors due to their fear or recognition of victimization risk; therefore, it may be of importance to identify why they employ certain tactics and to educate them regarding other actions that may be taken to reduce victimization risk. Overall, this study provides support that fear of victimization is prevalent within the college sample, especially among women; therefore, it remains important for colleges to address this issue while considering previous research.

APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Informed Consent

Fear of Crime Survey

Dear Participant,

My name is Jenna Truman and I am a graduate student in the Sociology Department here at UCF. As part of my coursework, I am conducting a survey, the purpose of which is to learn about how students perceive crime.

- The following questions ask about your perceptions of crime.
- This survey is completely voluntary. You may choose not to participate or not to answer any specific questions. You may skip any question you are not comfortable answering. You can decline to participate in this survey without affecting your grade or class standing. There are no anticipated risks.
- There is no proposed compensation and I cannot award you with extra credit in your class.
- The survey is anonymous and some of the questions are personal in nature. You can be assured that your responses will never be matched with your name, since IP addresses will be removed from the survey when it is submitted.
- Please answer questions honestly.
- The online survey will take approximately ten minutes to complete. If you choose to participate, you can complete the survey right now or anytime up until **11/24/2006**.
- The results of this study may be published. However, the data obtained from you will be combined with data from others in the publication. The published results will not include your name or any other information that would personally identify you in any way.

If you have any questions about this research project, please contact me at fearofcrimesurvey@yahoo.com or my faculty supervisor, Dr. Jana Jasinski at jjasinsk@mail.ucf.edu. Research at the University of Central Florida involving human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board (IRB). Questions or concerns about research participants' rights may be directed to the Institutional Review Board Office, IRB Coordinator, University of Central Florida, Office of Research & Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246. The telephone number is (407) 823-2901.

Thank you for taking the time and thought to complete this survey. I sincerely appreciate your participation.

Sincerely,

Jenna Truman

Resources:

UCF Victim Services
12201 Research Parkway, Suite 450
Orlando, FL 32826
(407) 823-2425
(407) 823-5555 (24/7 Advocate)

Victim Services – Orlando Office
135 West Central Blvd, Suite 1106
Orlando, FL 32801
(407) 999-5588

University Police Department
4000 Central Florida Blvd., Building #49
Orlando, FL 32816
(407) 823-5555

I am at least 18 years of age and completing this survey constitutes my informed consent.
Please click the accept button if you wish to participate.

- 1 Accept and continue on to survey <begin IRB approved survey>
- 2 Decline and end survey <go to end/thank you page>

APPENDIX B: SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Fear of Crime Survey

1. At one time or another, most of us have experienced fear about becoming the victim of crime. Some crimes probably frighten you more than others. I am interested in *how afraid* people are in everyday life of being a victim of different kinds of crime.

Please rate your fear on a scale of 1 to 10 where 1 means you are **not afraid at all** and 10 means you are **very afraid**.

How fearful are you of ...

- A. Being cheated, conned, or swindled out of your money _____
- B. Having someone break into your home while you are away _____
- C. Having someone break into your home while you are there _____
- D. Being raped or sexually assaulted by a stranger _____
- E. Being raped or sexually assaulted by an acquaintance _____
- F. Being physically assaulted by a stranger _____
- G. Being physically assaulted by an acquaintance _____
- H. Being murdered _____
- I. Being attacked by someone with a weapon _____
- J. Having your car stolen _____
- K. Being robbed or mugged on the street _____
- L. Having your property damaged by vandals _____
- M. Being a victim of domestic violence _____
- N. Being stalked by a stranger _____
- O. Being stalked by an acquaintance _____

2. How safe do you feel out alone in your neighborhood during the day? Do you feel...

- 0 Very safe
- 1 Somewhat safe
- 2 Somewhat unsafe
- 3 Very unsafe
- 9 Don't know

3. How safe do you feel out alone in your neighborhood at night? Do you feel...

- 0 Very safe
- 1 Somewhat safe
- 2 Somewhat unsafe
- 3 Very unsafe
- 9 Don't know

4. How safe from crime do you feel inside your home during the day?

- 0 Very safe
- 1 Somewhat safe
- 2 Somewhat unsafe
- 3 Very unsafe
- 9 Don't know

5. How safe from crime do you feel inside your home during the night?

- 0 Very safe
- 1 Somewhat safe
- 2 Somewhat unsafe
- 3 Very unsafe
- 9 Don't know

6. Is fear for your own safety something that you think about...

- 0 Never
- 1 Seldom
- 2 Fairly often or
- 3 All or most of the time
- 9 Don't know

7. You have already rated your fear of different kinds of crimes, now I want you to rate **the chance that a specific things will happen to you during the coming year.**

On a scale from 1 to 10 where 1 means it's **not at all likely** and 10 means **it's very likely**

How **likely** do you think it is that you will...

- A. Be cheated, conned, or swindled out of your money _____
- B. Have someone break into your home while you are away _____
- C. Have someone break into your home while you are there _____
- D. Be raped or sexually assaulted by a stranger _____
- E. Be raped or sexually assaulted by an acquaintance _____
- F. Be physically assaulted by a stranger _____

- G. Be physically assaulted by an acquaintance _____
- H. Be murdered _____
- I. Be attacked by someone with a weapon _____
- J. Have your car stolen _____
- K. Be robbed or mugged on the street _____
- L. Have your property damaged by vandals _____
- M. Be a victim of domestic violence _____
- N. Be stalked by a stranger _____
- O. Be stalked by an acquaintance _____

8. Have you ever been the victim of theft or some form of property crime?

- 0 No <skip to question 11>
- 1 Yes <continue to questions 9 & 10>
- 9 Don't know <skip to question 11>

9. Was this victimization in the past year?

- 0 No
- 1 Yes
- 9 Don't know

10. Was the offender of the above crime known to you?

- 0 No
- 1 Yes
- 9 Don't know

11. Have you ever been the victim of nonsexual violence (physical assault)?

- 0 No <skip to question 14>
- 1 Yes <continue to questions 12 & 13>
- 9 Don't know <skip to question 14>

12. Was this victimization in the past year?

- 0 No
- 1 Yes
- 9 Don't know

13. Was the offender of the above crime known to you?

- 0 No
- 1 Yes
- 9 Don't know

14. Have you ever been the victim of sexual violence (rape or sexual assault)?
- 0 No <skip to question 17>
 - 1 Yes <continue to questions 15 & 16>
 - 9 Don't know <skip to question 17>

15. Was this victimization in the past year?
- 0 No
 - 1 Yes
 - 9 Don't know

16. Was the offender of the above crime known to you?
- 0 No
 - 1 Yes
 - 9 Don't know

17. In the past year, has a close friend or relative of yours been the victim of a crime?
- 0 No
 - 1 Yes
 - 9 Don't know

18. Next, I will list some activities people do to reduce their risk to crime. For each one, please tell me if you have done it or continue to do so. Have you or do you...

	No	Yes	N.A	Don't know
A. Engraved ID numbers on your possessions?	0	1	9	99
B. Installed extra locks on windows or doors?	0	1	9	99
C. Install or make sure there was a security alarm?	0	1	9	99
D. Bought a watchdog?	0	1	9	99
E. Kept a weapon in your home for protection?	0	1	9	99
F. Added outside lighting?	0	1	9	99
G. Received an unlisted phone number?	0	1	9	99
H. Learned more about self-defense?	0	1	9	99
I. Attended a crime prevention or awareness seminar?	0	1	9	99
J. Started carrying something to defend yourself?	0	1	9	99
K. Carry a cell phone for protection?	0	1	9	99
L. Do you generally avoid unsafe areas during the day because of crime?	0	1	9	99

	No	Yes	N.A	Don't know
M. Do you generally avoid unsafe areas during the night because of crime?	0	1	9	99
N. Have you ever moved because of fear for your safety?	0	1	9	99
O. Do you avoid taking classes at night?	0	1	9	99
P. Within the past year, have you limited or changed your daily activities because of crime?	0	1	9	99

19. Some people report that they do certain things, or act in certain ways, in order to increase their safety. Please tell me if you do the following things *all or most of the time, fairly often, seldom, or never* because you are afraid of being victimized.

	All or most	Fairly often	Seldom	Never	Don't know
A. Lock the doors when you are home alone during the day	3	2	1	0	9
B. Lock the doors when you are home alone at night	3	2	1	0	9
C. Go out with a friend or two as protection	3	2	1	0	9
D. Carry some form of protection when out alone	3	2	1	0	9
E. Stay out of parts of town you think are dangerous	3	2	1	0	9
F. Restrict going out to only during the daytime	3	2	1	0	9
G. Get your house keys out before reaching your door	3	2	1	0	9

20. On average, how often to you go out to bars or clubs?

- 0 Never
- 1 Once in the last year
- 2 Less than once a month
- 3 Once a month
- 4 Once or twice a week
- 5 More than twice a week
- 6 Daily or almost daily
- 9 Don't know

21. On average, how often to you spend time socializing or partying with friends?

- 0 Never
- 1 Once in the last year
- 2 Less than once a month
- 3 Once a month
- 4 Once or twice a week
- 5 More than twice a week
- 6 Daily or almost daily
- 9 Don't know

22. On average, how often to you spend time socializing or partying with strangers?

- 0 Never
- 1 Once in the last year
- 2 Less than once a month
- 3 Once a month
- 4 Once or twice a week
- 5 More than twice a week
- 6 Daily or almost daily
- 9 Don't know

23. On average, how often do you go out alone at night?

- 0 Never
- 1 Once in the last year
- 2 Less than once a month
- 3 Once a month
- 4 Once or twice a week
- 5 More than twice a week
- 6 Daily or almost daily
- 9 Don't know

Now, I have a few questions about your alcohol and drug consumption. Please remember that your answers are strictly anonymous and only used for research purposes. How often, if ever, in the past year have you...

24. Had enough alcohol to get drunk

- 0 Never
- 1 Once in the last year
- 2 Less than once a month
- 3 Once a month
- 4 Once or twice a week
- 5 More than twice a week
- 6 Daily or almost daily
- 9 Don't know

25. Smoked marijuana or hashish

- 0 Never
- 1 Once in the last year
- 2 Less than once a month
- 3 Once a month
- 4 Once or twice a week
- 5 More than twice a week
- 6 Daily or almost daily
- 9 Don't know

26. Used any other drugs (such as cocaine, crack, heroin, LSD, barbiturates, or amphetamines)

- 0 Never
- 1 Once in the last year
- 2 Less than once a month
- 3 Once a month
- 4 Once or twice a week
- 5 More than twice a week
- 6 Daily or almost daily
- 9 Don't know

27. Please rate how frequently you use the following as a source of news:

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Every Day	Don't know
A. National television news	0	1	2	3	4	9
B. Local television news	0	1	2	3	4	9
C. Radio news program	0	1	2	3	4	9
D. News magazine	0	1	2	3	4	9
E. Daily local newspapers	0	1	2	3	4	9
F. National daily newspapers	0	1	2	3	4	9
G. Internet news-based websites	0	1	2	3	4	9

And to conclude, just a few questions for classification purposes.

28. What year were you born? _____

29. Are you male or female?

- 0 Male
- 1 Female

30. What racial/ethnic category do you identify with?

- 0 White/Caucasian
- 1 African America
- 2 Hispanic/Latino
- 3 Asian
- 4 American Indian OR
- 5 Other (please specify) _____

31. What type of housing do you reside in?

- 0 On campus housing
- 1 University affiliated off campus housing
- 2 Off campus apartment
- 3 Off campus house
- 4 Live with parents

32. Does the University of Central Florida presently classify you as a:

- 0 Freshman
- 1 Sophomore
- 2 Junior
- 3 Senior
- 4 Graduate student
- 5 Other (please specify) _____
- 9 Don't know

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete the survey. Have a great day!

APPENDIX C: IRB APPROVAL LETTER



Office of Research & Commercialization

October 17, 2006

Jennifer Truman
c/o Jana L. Jasinski, Ph.D.
University of Central Florida
Department of Sociology
PH 409F
Orlando, FL 32816-1360

Dear Ms. Truman:

The University of Central Florida's Institutional Review Board (IRB) received your protocol IRB #06-3891 entitled "**Fear of Crime Survey**". The IRB Chair reviewed the study on 10/16/2006 and did not have any concerns with the proposed project. The Chair has indicated that under federal regulations (Category #2, research involving the use of educational tests, survey or interview procedures, or the observation of public behavior, so long as confidentiality is maintained) this research is **exempt** from further review by our IRB, so an approval is not applicable and a renewal within one year is not required.

Please accept our best wishes for the success of your endeavors. Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call me at 407-823-2901.

Cordially,

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "Joanne Muratori".

Joanne Muratori
(FWA00000351 Exp. 5/13/07, IRB00001138)

Copies: IRB File
Jana L. Jasinski, Ph.D.

JM:jt

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