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Neighborhood Crime Problems and Fear of

Victimization

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I. INTRODUCTION

In an earlier paper, an attempt was made to identify the dimensions of fear by means of a factor analysis of 20 items originally designed to measure this concept (Baumer, 1976). The final solution resulted in the identification of three basic dimensions. The first involved items which measured the extent to which various nuisances or crimes were seen to be a neighborhood problem, and was tentatively termed "perceptions of the criminal environment" or "fear of area". The second was identified by items which measured "fear of personal attack". The final factor tapped "fear of loss of property" or "fear of burglary". These factors were found to be fairly robust, as they held up across two points in time and various rotational schemes

. For a more detailed discussion of the earlier analysis see Baumer (1976).

This paper will build on the earlier one by attempting to identify the correlates of factor scales constructed from the factors. It was our feeling that the conceptual clarification provided by the earlier paper might lead to findings somewhat different from those identified by other researchers.

This paper is divided into three main parts. In the first part, we discuss the nature and construction of factor scales. The second section is the bulk of the paper and is divided into two parts. The first treats the three fear scales as dependent variables while the second treats them as independent variables. Since the second section examines only bivariate relationships, the final section (Appendix A) presents several preliminary attempts at a multivarate analysis of the data. By and large, the findings are presented with no discussion or attempted explanations of the findings. We have left these to the reader's imagination.

II. CONSTRUCTION OF SCALES

Having decided that the proper terminal solution was obatined in the earlier paper, it was also decided to build composite scales to represent the dimensions associated with the three factors identified (see Baumer, 1976). When adequately built, such scales are not only a convenient way of reducing data; they also possess "...one feature that may not be shared by many other variables. They embody phenomena with a functional unity: the phenomena are highly interrelated in time or space" (Rummel, 1970:152).

Table 1-A presents the distribution of variables used in the factor analysis; Table 1-B presents the factor-score matrix of the final solution of the factor analysis (see Baumer, 1976). Throughout this report, the first factor scale will be referred to as "fear of area" or "area" (FAREA¹: fear or concern about neighborhood characteristics often found conducive or related to crime and about crimes in the neighborhood), the second scale as "fear of person" or "person" (FPERSON: fear of crimes where the victim is directly-physically involved), and the third scale as "fear of property" or "property" (FPRPRTY: fear of crimes against property, property crimes withtout direct physical involvement of the victim).

The decision to build composite scales also involved a further decision: how to construct the scale. According to Rummel (1970:435-6), a number of techniques have been developed to compute or estimate factor scores and many of them are aimed at reducing the labor involved in the computation. But, with the greater availability of computers, these labor-saving techniques have grown increasingly unnecessary. At the same time, "It has been customary to build factor scales employing only those variables that have substantial loadings on a given factor" (Kim and Kohout: 1975: 488). Against this honored tradition, it was decided to use "the complete estimational method" (Kim and Kohout, 1975: 488) or "exact

factor score approach" (Rummel,1970:436) which utilizes all the variables included in the factor analysis.

For this approach, each variable is weighted proportionally to its involvement in a factor; the more involved a variable, the higher the weight (Rummel, 1970:150). Table 1-B presents the weights (factor-scores) of each variable for the three factors. In other words, scales constructed by using the complete estimation technique include a term for each variable in the original analysis rather than just for those variables that have substantial loading on a given factor.

In the shorter method, variables not included in the scale are not "controlled" and they can affect it through their intercorrelations with variables included in the scale. With complete estimation, some variables are simply used as suppression variables to give the best estimate of the given factor (Kim and Kohout; 1975: 488).

Table 2 presents the three equations involved in the complete estimation technique to construct the scales. Every variable is involved in all three scales; each has different weight for each scale. Because the variables do not have either the same range (for example), V109 has its score ranging from 1 to 10 but V116 has its score ranging from 1 to 4) and/or the same distributional characterist ics (Table 1-A), they had to be standardized first before they were weighted for the scales. Unless standardized, variables with large scores (e.g., V109) would unduly influence the scores of the scales. The five-digit numbers in the first "column" of Table 2 are factor-scores presented in Table 1-B, i.e., the weight (amount of contribution) of each variable for the given factor. The remaining three "columns" are for the standardization of the variables: the second "column" contains variable names, the third, the mean of the variable.

Complete estimation, when used with standardized variables, produces scales with a mean of 0 (zero) and a standard deviation of 1(one) (Kim and Kohout, 1975: 489; Rummel, 1970: 441). Table 3 presents some distributional characteristics of the three scales created in the way shown in Table 2. All three means are virtually zero; the standard deviations are somewhat less than 1. But deviations from the expected mean and standard deviation could be expected mainly due to rounding errors. For example, the five digit weights (Table 1-B; Table 2) of the variables are rounded figures as are the means and standard deviations (Table 1-A) used for the standardization of variables.

The lowest and the highest scores and the median of the scales (Table 3) indicate the skew of their distributions. First, all three medians are located to the left of their means incating the majority of the sample has less than the mean fear on the three scales. As the lowest scores are within the two standard deviations below the mean, none of the respondents could have an unexpected low fear on all three scales. On the other hand, as the highest scores on area and person scales are located well beyond two SDs, a few respondents are too much fearful of crimes against persons and area crimes, as their fears are compared to the mean fears of the sample. Since both the lowest and the highest scores on property scales are within two SDs away from the mean, fear of crimes against property is normally distributed, with no one having too much or too little fear compared to the sample on the whole.

Because Ascales are standardized, it is not possible to compare the respondents scaores across scales. For example we cannot ask whether have more fear of the crimes against persons than crimes against property. Due to differential distribution of variables (Talbe 1-A), standardization was necessary; standardized variables do not retain information contained in

original variables.⁴ Also, for this same reason, identical scores on two scales may not mean that the person has the same <u>absolute</u> amount of fear, say of crimes against person and crime against property. Identical scores only imply that the person has the same relative amount of fear.

Table 4 reports correlations among the three scales and correlations between variables and scales. As expected correlations among scales are quite high: the correlation between property and area (.561) is the highest, that between property and person (.470) the second, and that between area and person (.384) the lowest. Also, as one might expect, variables (V115 through V129) with high loadings on the area factor are highly related with the area scale; variables (V107-V109) with high loadings on property factor with the property scale; and variables (V102-V112) with high loadings on person factor with the person scale.

III. BIVARIATE CORRELATES OF FEAR

the

Though, for many bivariate relationships of \(\) variables in the questionnaire, it is not simple to decide the direction of causal flow, the first
part of this section will treat the fear scale as a dependent variable,
while the second part will treat them as independent variables. Since
many relationships may be mutually reinforcing, a number of variables
appear in both parts of this section. 5

A. Fear as a Dependent Variable

Presently, all three types of fear of crimes are considered as an effect, or a consequence of the individual's demographic characteristics, life situation, perception and evaluation of neighborhood characteristics and of neighbors, perception and evaluation of police performance, life style, life experience, and assessment of the past and the future changes in the neighborhood and in crime rates.

Clearly, variables of a demographic nature are causally prior to fears of crime, at least, in terms of time dimension. On the other hand, certain types of life style would lead to fear and such an increase in fear of crimes can change one's life style. One's evaluation of police performance may also increase or decrease one's fear of crime; fear of crime in turn, can influence one's judgment of police performance. Therefore, for the purpose of this paper, the causal ordering of many variables is simply assumed.

Of the variables contained in the questionnaire, those that produced a significant F ratio (.05) are reported. Tables discussed in this section report sample sizes (marginal n) and the mean fears of response-categories (groups). As discussed above, because of standardization, the mean value of the entire sample (sum of response-categories) is 0. Therefore, a given mean of a group (e.g., high school graduates) is the distance the group deviates from the mean of the entire sample and the distance is the proportion of one standard deviation from the mean of the entire sample. The following table for the relation between sample area and fear illustrates interpretation of tables presented in this section.

Table A RELATION BETWEEN SAMPLE AREAS AND FEAR OF CRIME

#VAR	<u>Variable</u>	N	Area	Property	Person	* * *
2	Sample area					
	A	73	.287			
4 V.	C	138 115	.174 .085			
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	D • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	139	393			

First "#VAR" identifies the code by which the location of the variable is indicated for both the questionaire and the system file. In this case,

the area designator is found in variable "V2". Therefore, the reader can locate the exact wording of the question for examination and use the variable for further computer runs.

The first line under "Variable" identifies the variable who se influence being on the fear scales is \(\) examined; the remaining lines given the response-categories of the variable.

N's report the number of respondents for each response-categories (groups): 73 respondents live in Area A, etc. The remaining three columns are the mean fear of each group on the three scales of fear. In Table A, the last two columns are empty because the sample area made no difference for the fear of crimes against property and against person. The sample areas do show significant differences in the perceived extent of the crime problem there (neighborhood characteristics conducive and/or related to crime and actual crimes in the neighborhood).

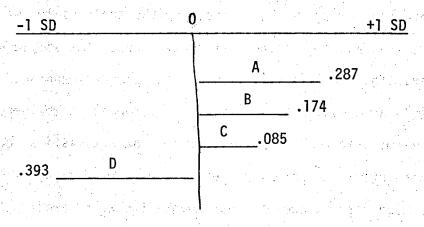
The mean fear of area of respondents living in Section A was .287; residents in this area were 28.7 percent of one standard devaiation above the average fear of people in Hartford in 1975. They were in general more fearful than others within Hartford in terms of fear of area. But, they were not different from others for their fear of crimes against property or person.

People who lived in area D were least fearful of their neighborhood; they were 39.3 percent (-.393) of one standard deviation below the mean fear of people in Hartford. But they are not different from residents of Areas A, B, or C for their fear of crimes against property and persons.

Scores of fear of area presented in Table A could be visualized as in Figure 2. The mean fear of the entire sample (zero) is the reference by

which the mean fear of respondents living in four different areas of Hartford are compared. The further away a given group mean is <u>above</u> (right side of) the reference, the more fear the group has in general. The further away the given group mean is <u>below</u> (<u>left</u> side of) the reference, the less fear the group has on the whole.

Figure 2 FEAR OF AREA BY SAMPLE AREA



Reference (mean of the entire sample)

In Table A, it may also be noted that while sample areas made an observable difference in their residents' fear of area, they made no significant difference in their residents' fear of crimes either against property or against person. Repeated for other variables, this finding makes it clear that fears of area, property, and person are distinct. As one type of fear (eg., fear of area) does not predice another type of fear (e.g., fear of property), using fear as an unitary concept makes little sense as a possible reaction to crime. The distinctiveness observed in Table A is "real" in the sense that it is not due to the way scales were constructed. The decision to use an oblique solution was based on assumed relations among factors (scales) to emerge. Table 4 showed high correlations among scales constructed from the oblique solu-

This detailed discussion of Table A as an example of data to be analyzed is hoped to facilitate an understanding of what follows. Due to time-limits, from this point on, analyses will be much more concise or rather cursory. Again, the report is only for those relations whose analyses of variance (one-way) produced an F ratio significant at the .05 level

1. Demographic Variables: Bio-social

Racial heterogeneity of a society is usually accompanied by variations of other non-racial matters. In the social sciences (also in common parlance), it has become a truism that <u>race</u> makes difference. But, when racial differences are accompanied by cultural and social differences and by structural differentiation-discrimination, it is uncertain exactly what it is about the global concept of "race" that makes the difference.

Despite the widely observed and publicized personal violence of minorities (especially blacks), Table 5-1 indicates no significant racial difference for fear of crimes against persons.

Two possible reasons may explain the no-difference. First, there may be no re/ationship between the rate of personal violence in a group and fear of crimes against persons. Second, items constituting "fear of person" factor (V105, V106, V110-112) are all questions that would probably exclude personal violence within intimate (family, friends, relatives) circles, and there is no racial difference for personal violence outside of intimate circles. 9

But, race does make a difference for fear of area and property: whites are less fearful of both compared to either blacks of Spanish. Between the two minority groups, Spanish have more fear of the area in which they live than do blacks, but the latter are more afraid of crimes against property than the Spanish. At the same time, those who spoke Spanish language for the interview are much more fearful of area and crimes against

person (Table 5-2).

Sex has been another major differentiating variable of the social sciences. Furthermore, who would question the established common sense knowledge that females are more fearful of almost everything? For fear of crime, it has been observed that "women fear crime more than men, even though rates of victimization for all crimes but rape are higher for men" (Conklin, 1975:8). Table 5-3 questions the validity of such a position, for it shows that sex makes a difference only for the fear of crimes against persons and not for fear of area or fear of property.

Table 5-4 indicates a low negative relation between \underline{age} and the amount of fear the individual has of area (r = -.195) and property (r = -.126), but no relationships for the fear of crimes against persons. On the other hand, table 5-5 shows $\underline{education}$ having no effect on fear of area and property but producing a significant effect on fear of crimes against person. High-school educated respondents tend to fear crimes against person more than either college educated or less than high school educated respondents. Though the difference was not significant, high school educated people had more fear of area and property also.

In summary, of the "bio-social" demographic variables race, language, on sex, age, and education all produced significant effects at least some of the fear scales. Race made a difference for the fears of area and property but not for person: whites had less fear for both area and property.

Spanish-speaking respondents were significantly more fearful of area and person. Female respondents expressed more fear of crimes against person but they were not different for the other two types of fear. Age produced a significant negative effect on the fears of area and property but no

effect on the fear of person. High school educated were most fearful of crimes against persons, while education made no difference for both area and property.

2. Demographic Variables: Marital and Household

In this section, the focus will be on marital status and the household composition--characteristics of the respondent. First, Table 5-6 shows no significant effect of <u>marital status</u> on both fears of area and property but a significant effect for the fear of crimes against person. Of crimes against persons, presently married are least fearful. Of those presently not married, those never married (single) are least fearful.

One of differentiating characteristics of presently married is the number of adults in the household and, according to Table 5-7, when there is more than one adult, the respondents tend to have less fear of crimes against person. Therefore, some of low fear of the presently married may be explained by the number of adults in the household. But still married respondents have much less fear (-.130) than expected because of having more than one adult in the household (-.098). Marriedness seems to reduce fear of crimes against persons beyond the effect of having another adult in the household.

Among the presently not married, the widowed might be older than others and separated and divorced older than those never married. Since age produced no significant difference for the fear of person, if age is the only variable determining the degree of fear the individuals have of crimes against persons, there should be no difference among the three groups of respondents. Marital status has an independent effect not accounted for by age difference among marital groups.

Why is it that the separated and divorced have more fear than either widowed or single people, while none of them has a greater chance than

others of living with another adult? At least, it is not because they live with children only for Table 5-8 shows that head living with children only produces higher fear for all three--area, property and person--not just for the fear of crimes against persons. Also, the separated and divorced have less fear (.270) than those respondents living with children only (.301). Neither is it that they live in small household as Table 5-9 shows that size of household makes a difference for fear of area and property but not for person. Moreover, respondents living in smaller households (1-3) tend to express less fear for both area (-.057) and property (-.069). Separated and divorced people may have children in the household and that fact may increase fear but Table 5-10 shows that the presence of children in the household produces more fear for both fear of area and property, but not for person.

Therefore, it may tentatively be concluded that marital status makes a significant difference for the fear of crimes against person and the difference is not due to its relation to age, number of adults in the household, living with children alone, size of household, or presence of children in the household.

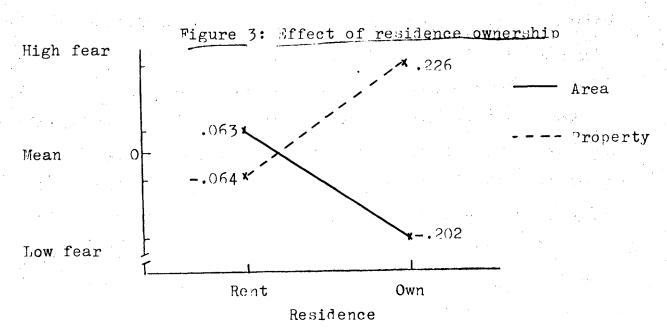
Thought it would seem that elderly people (65 +) are more vulnerable to crimes, especially crimes against persons, presence of elderly in the household seems to reduce fear of area and property significantly but not for persons as shown in Table 5-11. It may be that elderly in the households are not incapacitated and function as other adults do in the household. But on the other hand, we noted above that the presence of more than one adult in the household (Table 5-7) reduced fear for person but made no difference for area and property.

What type of household might have the least fear of crimes? A mar-

ried couple--one of whom is over 65 years of age--living by themselves without any children would have least fear of area and property because of their small (2) household size, absence of children in the household, and presence of an elderly in the household. Members of such household would also have the least amount of fear of crimes against persons because they are married and there is more than one adult in the household. A woman under 65 living with more than three children would have more fear than any other individual because female, her household is large (4), there are children in the household, there is no other adult (elderly or not) in the household, she is not presently married, and lives with children only as head of the household. Of course, these models of household characteristics would work only if those bivariate effects are real and additive. If those effects are spurious and/or interactive, model households can emerge only from multi variate analysis of data.

3. Demographic Variables: Residential

Table 5-12 indicates that <u>home ownership</u> makes a significant difference for both fear of area and property but not for persons. Those who own their own house are much less fearful of area than those who live in a rented dwelling; but the former are more fearful of property crimes than the latter. Figure 3 visualizes this point.



If the effect of home ownership as seen in Table 5-12 is not spurious, it typifies dilemmas involved in deciding what to do to reduce fear of crimes. One of the dilemmas is like the situation where an individual the has two different types of sickness and treatment to alleviate one sickness worsens the other sickness. On the basis of Table 5-12, one may decide to increase home ownership in an area in order to reduce fear of area but he thereby would increase the fear of property crimes in that area.

Table 5-12 also sharpens the need to distinguish different types of fears. If the three variables of area, property, and persons were put together into one variable, fear, the ownership of residence would not have made a significant difference as its effects on different components of fear would have cancelled each other out.

But, it is also quite probable that effects of residence ownership are spurious. First, people who rent their residence may tend to live in poor and crime-laden areaas and, therefore, have more fear of area than those homeowners living in much more safe areas. Second, within a given area, homeowners may tend to have more property than others either because they are richer or they are less mobile, and therefore, they are more fearful of crimes against property. If the first is the case, the effect of residence on area would disappear when place of residence is controlled; if the second is the case, the effect of residence on property would disappear when amount of property is controlled.

Whereas residence ownership made a significant difference for both the area and property scales, <u>length of residence</u> in the present address makes a difference for area and person but <u>mot</u> for property. Thought both area and person are significantly affected by the length of residence, Table 5-13 exhibits different patterns of influence. Roughtly, length of residence seems to produce a linear negative effect on area: the longer one

stays in the same residence, the less fear he will have of area. But residential stability seems to have curvilinear effect on fear of crimes against person: Both long-timers (10+ years) and new-comers (less than one year) have more fear than others.

A number of factors may be at work to produce such a negative linear effect of length of residence on area. First, Table 5-4 has shown a negative relation between fear of area and age. Therefore, the observed negative effect of length of residence may be due to age; newcomers would be younger and have more fear and old-timers may be older and have less fear. Second, older people may live in better areas while young are more mobile and live shortly in bad areas. Third, if "Fear of crime is fear of the stranger..." (Conklin, 1975: 7), newcomers in an area are living among strangers and must be more fearful than others who constitute their own area.

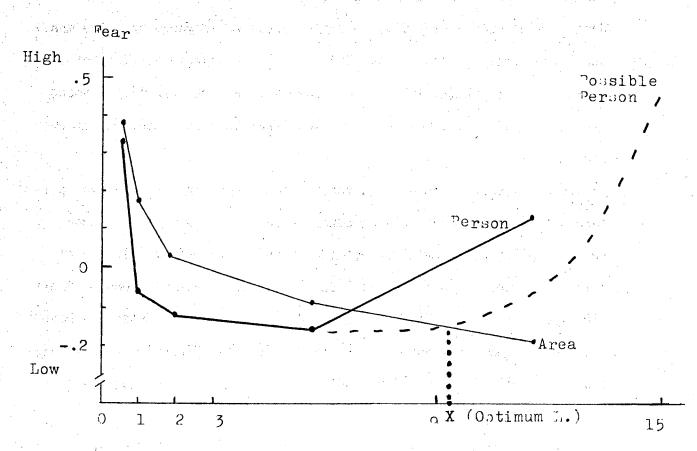
It may also be hypothesized that reasons producing the observed pattern of effect of length of residence on fear of area produce the observed similar but steeper effect on person for those whose length of rsidence is less than ten years. But, it is uncertain why longer-timers (10+ years) have more fear of crimes against person than those who have been in the same residence for one to nine years. Since age had no relation with fear of person (Table 5-4), it cannot be due to age of longer-timers.

Figure 4 "modifies" what Table 5-13 presented In the first two years in a given residence, both for the area and person scales fear decreases rapidly. From the third year on, the decrease is much slower for both area and person. Fear of area continues to decline even after nine years of residence in a given address but fear of person increases rapidly, probably, from about the tenth year.

As the mean fear of crimes against peson for those who have lived more

than nine years in the same address is .138, if changes in fear are gradual, the broken line might approximate the actual pattern of change. If so, the optimal (least fear) length of residence in a given address would be around ten years. From the optimal point on, although the fear of area decreases, the decrease is very small and there is a gradual increase in the fear of crimes against person.

Figure 4: Length of residence and fear



Length of residence(year)

4. <u>Life Style</u>

Table 5-15 points out the number of <u>days outside home</u>--"sitting on the porch or steps, working in the yard, or something like that"-- has a negative effect on fear of crimes against person but no effect for either area or property. Respondents who never go outside of their house express most

fear (.117) of attack while those who are outside of their house every day have least fear and those who are sometimes outside of their house fall in between the two extremes.

Also, when and how often one walks in the neighborhood makes some difference. Walking in neighborhood during the day (Table 5-16) makes a significant difference for fear of crimes against person and against property while walking in neighborhood at night makes a significant difference for fear of crimes against person only (Table 5-17).

Both Tables 5-16 and 5-17 exhibit a non-linear effect of walking in the neighborhood either during the day or at night. Respondents who never (0) walk either during the day or at night have the most fear. Of those who walk in their neighborhood in general, the less often one walks, the less fear one tends to have.

Those who walk <u>escorted</u> at night tend to fear more crimes against both property and person (Table 5-16), than not escorted. Those who <u>drive</u> to avoid walking at night are more fearful of crimes against property only (Table 5-19).

To protect oneself from victimization, one may take various <u>defensive</u> <u>measures</u>: have escrots when walking at night; drive to avoid working at night; have things (a weapon, a whistle, tear gas) for protection, special locks on doors, engrave valuables, arrange with neighbors to watch each other's house when someone is not home, do things to protect the home from being broken into, or do anything else about the crime. What is the effect of using such defensive measures?

First, Table 5-20 indicates that none of respondents uses all nine possible defensive measures and some use none at all. Most people have only one or two defensive measures being used. Second, clearly, those who do not use any defensive measure are least fearful of crimes against

property. Of those who use some defensive measures, the number of defensive measures used does not change the amount of fear in a consistent manner. Use of defensive measures does not affect fear of area or fear of person.

Though people who are fearful may tend to use defensive measures more than others do, the use of defensive measures also may increase fear. Having a special lock on the door sensitizes and reinforces fear whenever one passes the door. Having a special lock on the door also invites visitors to select conversation topics, probably more often, confirming and reinforcing the existing fear. Through both self and social confirmation and reinforcement, defensive measures might tend to increase fear. As fear increases, there may increase the demand for safety industry; as safety industry increases, there may also increase the demand for fear.

When Tables 5-15 through 5-20 are examined together, it is surprising to find that none of them reports a significant effect for the area scale. Though life style of residents in an area can affect fear through its effect on the nature of the area, life style measured by items presently used may be more an effect of fear than a determinant of fear.

5. Life experience: Victimization

Of life experiences, <u>victimization</u> experience would, at least, logically, lead to fear of crimes. On the whole, Table 21-30 indicate a significant effect of being victimized. But not all victimization experiences produce the same effect or an effect for all three types of fear. Only burglary, actual (Table 5-21) and attempted (Table 5-22), has a significant effect on area, property and person. Mailbox being broken into (Table 5-25) and property theft suffered (Table 5-27) have a significant effect on fear of area and property but not on person. Surprisingly, experience of assault (Table 5-28) has a significant effect only on the area scale. Experiences

of household theft (Table 5-23) and attempted auto stealing/úse (Table 5-26) affected fear of crimes against property but not the other two. Robbery suffered (Table 5-24) produces significant amount of fear of crimes against person.

Table 5-30 reports person correlation coefficients between the number of various victimizations and the three fear scales. The number of victimizations suffered is positively related with all three scales and the number of victimizations with a loss greater than \$50.00 is positively correlated with area and property but not with person. The number of crimes against property suffered is positively related with three scales but the number of crimes against person suffered is positively related only with area and person. The frequency of <u>informing police</u> for crimes suffered and the frequency of filling <u>formal reports</u> for crimes of which police are informed is also positively related with all three fear scales.

Therefore, it may be concluded that experience of victimization, either actual or attempted, seems to produce or increase fear on some or all of the scales. Also informing and reporting crimes to the police are positively related with fear.

6. Neighborhood Enclave

Whereas, according to Conklin (1975: 143), "A well-used street is a safe street, because the presence of people restrains deviant behavior..." fear of crime <u>increases</u> with the perceived level of street activity. As seen in tables 5-31 and 5-32, the perceived number of <u>people on the street</u> increases fear of crimes of area, property, and person both for the day and night. Also increasing traffic during the day (table 5-33) and at night (Table 5-34) is accompanied by increased fear for area and person but not for property. Whatever the actual crime rate may be, the perceived level of street activity for both people and traffic increases fear.

On the other hand, if the people seen on the street are thought to live in the neighborhood (Table 5-35), there is less fear. As the number of perceived outsiders increases, fear of area, property, and person also increases. At the same time, if the individual can recognize strangers in the neighborhood (Table 5-36), he also tends to have less fear of crimes against person, though such ability does not affect fear of area or fear of property crime. But, if one has seen suspicious strangers (Table 5-37) then, he would have more fear than those who did not. Those who feel part of the neighborhood (Table 5-38) do not differ in their fear of area and person but they are less likely to fear crimes against property.

Above all, those who feel <u>safe alone in the neighborhood</u> during the day (Table 5-39) and at night (Table 5-40) are least likely to have much fear. As one's feeling of safety increases, fear decreases consistently for area, property, and person. Likewise, those who consider <u>parks in the neighborhood</u> a place to go, express much less fear than others (Table 5-41).

People appear to have least fear if they live within a small enclosed enclave where no outsiders come and where they feel safe and part of this area. Would such enclaves be immune to crimes? Would it be that neighborhood characteristics conducive to low crime rate and conducive to low fear are mutually exclusive?

7. <u>Neighbors</u>:

Respondents who have arranged with their neighbors to <u>watch their homes</u> (Table 5-42) when they are away tend to have more fear of area but are not different from others for the fears of crimes against persons or against property. But if they <u>watch</u> each other's homes <u>all the time</u> (Table 5-43), they tend to have more fear of crimes against person.

If the respondent considers his <u>neighbors are concerned</u> (Table 5-44) about others, he tends to have less fear. The more he thinks his neighbors

would be willing to help with a group that was concerned with preventing crime in the area, the less fear he will have of area and person but no difference was found for fear of crimes against property (Table 5-45).

The estimated number of neighbors who would <u>help the police</u> (Table 5-46) and the number of neighbors thought to <u>report crime</u> (Table 5-47) are accompanied by decreasing fear on all three scales. Neighborhood cooperation may be essential for police performance; neighborhood cooperation is also conducive in reducing fear. Also, when groups are seen as <u>doing much good</u> (Table 5-48), fear tends to decrease, at least, for fear of area and property crimes.

8. Neighborhood Change

Evaluation of neighborhood changes of the past and the future and estimates of changes in crime rate in the neighborhood for the past and for the future all produce significant differences in fear of all three types. On the whole, those who see no changes in the past and for the future for the neighborhood and for crimes in the neighborhood tend to have less fear than those who see changes in any direction. Since common sense would suggest that when the residents of a neighborhood think it is improving, fear of crimes would decrease, the above observations are a bit strange. Essentially, perceived neighborhood stability rather than change seems to accompany significantly low degrees of fear.

Table 5-49 reports that respondents who think that their neighborhood has stayed the same for the last year are likely to have less fear for both area and person than those who think it has either improved or deteriorated. Only for the fear crimes against property, do those who consider their neighborhood as improving have less fear than others.

For the changes to come in the future of the neighborhood, without exception, those who see their neighborhood unchanging have less fear than those who see eitherbetter or worse for the future of their neighborhood

(Table 5-50). On the whole, those who see changes in the neighborhood for the better have less fear than those who see changes in the neighborhood for the worse, but still more than those who see no changes at all.

Evaluation of changes in crime in the neighborhood in the past one year also produce the same result as Table 5-51 shows. For fear of area and person, those who see no change in crime in the neighborhood are least fearful, those who see crime up are most fearful, and those who see crime down fall between the two extremes. For fear of crimes against property, however, those who see crime up are most fearful (.376) but those who see crime down (-.219) and those who see no change in crime (-.216) are virtually identical in their fear. On the other hand, respondents agreeing that "No matter what police or citizens do, crime in your neighborhood will keep going up" are more fearful than those disagreeing with the statement (Table 5-52).

Though Table 5-52 deviates from other results, on the whole, it is clear that perceived neighborhood stability is a consistent correlate of low fear. Indeed, perceived stability appears to be even better than positive changes. This is true even for crime in the neighborhood.

9. Police

Of evaluation of police performance, <u>perceived response-time</u> and <u>job</u>

<u>rating</u> are the only two items producing significant effect on all three

types of fear. Other variables have significant effects for only one or two
types of fear.

Rather than the simple perceived number of <u>police on foot</u>, whether or not they are seen at all, seems to make the difference for the fear of crimes against property but not for the other two. Those who see police on foot sometimes are less fearful of those who almost never see the police on foot (Table 5-53).

Seeing <u>police in a patrol car</u> produces significant effects on both area and property but the pattern of effect is not very clear and consistent (Table 5-54). In general, the fear of crimes against property tends to rise as the perceived number of patrol cars decreases. But, seeing police in cars less than every day is accompanied by least fear while almost never seeing them produces the most fear and seeing every day or several times a day produces a medium amount of fear. Thus, as it was in the case of home-ownership, seeing police in a car also produces a dilemma. In order to decrease fear of crimes against property, police might increase their visibility. To reduce fear of area, however, police need to be seen only about once a week or so rather than every day or several times a day.

The better police are seen to <u>treat blacks</u> (Table 5-55) and <u>Spanish</u> (Table 5-56), the less fear of area their would be. Those who think the police treat blacks badly have high fear of crimes against property. On the whole, those who believe <u>police treat people</u> well have less fear of area and property crimes although their fear of crimes against person does not differ significantly (Table 5-57).

If respondents think that <u>police do not understand</u> the people in their neighborhood, they have more fear of area than those who disagree with the statement but their fear of crimes against either property or person does not differ (Table 5-58). Also, people who say that <u>police work on the wrong problems</u> tend to have more fear of area and property but not of person (Table 5-59). If police are seen as working hard to <u>do their best</u>, the respondents are less fearful of area and property but not different for the fear of crimes against persons (Table 5-60). Tables 5-58, 5-59, and 5-60 indicate that, though 162 respondents thought the police did not understand people in their neighborhood and 154 see the police as working on wrong

problem, only 100 respondents disagree that police try to do the best.

Of those aware of police <u>response time</u>, perception of immediate response leads to low fear of area, property and person (Table 5-61). In general, those <u>rating police job performance</u> highly tend to have less fear of all three types (Table 5-62). Finally, those who consider <u>reporting to police</u> a waste of time have more fear of area but they are not different in their fear of crimes against property or against person (Table 5-63).

Thus far, fears of neighborhood characteristics either conducive and/ or related to crimes (area), property crimes (property) and crimes against person (person) were considered as dependent variables and demographic and neighborhood characteristics, life style, life experience, and evaluation of police were considered as independent variables for the three types of fears. In the following section, the fear scales are considered as independent variables and their correlates are considered as dependent variables.

B. Fear as an Independent Variable

It is no less possible or probable for fear to be a cause rather than an effect of the various characteristics of an individual or a group of individuals. A given life style can determine the amount of fear individuals would have as well as certain life style could be adapted because of fear. Fear and life style may also reinforce each other in either an escalating or diminishing direction. Without more refined analyses, the causal flow from fear to other characteristics is simply assumed.

Whereas one-way analysis of variance was the tool used for the effect of various correlates of fear on three types of fear, statistics for cross-tabulations (Gamma and Cramer's V) are the main tool for detecting the effect of fear on its correlates. Table 6 reports cross-tabulations whose

statistic (Gamma or Cramer's V) is equal to or larger than .1 in its absolute value. But, since a Gamma value of .2 in its absolute magnitude seems to be significant for the given sample size (400 or so), the <u>discussion</u> is limited to cross-tabulations whose statistic is equal to or larger than .2 in its absolute value. 11

While the Table 5 series (Fear as dependent variable) contained 63 subtables, Table 6 series (Fear as independent variable) contains only 34 subtables. Some of the variables examined as an independent variable 1 the previous section are omitted in this section either because they are clearly not dependent on fear (e.g., sex, race, age, etc.) or because fear as an independent variable does not make a significant difference for them. A few variables not included in the previous section are included in this section as they appeared to be "significantly" affected by fear. Variables in Table 6 series are ordered as in Table 5 series; since there is less than a complete overlap between the two table-series, the ordering is only approximate. But such ordering should facilitate comparison between results contained in Table 5 and results contained in Table 6.

1. Life style

Though some potential victims of crime would "...respond bitterly to the suggestion that they should have to make drastic changes in their behavior to defend themselves from victimization..." (Conklin, 1975: 108), others would certainly change their life style in order to reduce their vulnerability. It would not be a surprise to observe those more fearful of crimes have a different life style than that led by the less fearful.

Table 6-1 reports a negative effect of fear of crimes against person (Gamma = -.19) on the number of <u>days outside home</u>. Of those who have a high fear of personal crimes more than three-quarters of the entire sample

("4") do, 47 percent state that they never ("None") spend a day outside of their home, "...sitting on the porch or steps, working in the yard, or something like that." Of respondents having at least more fear than half of the sample but less than the most fearful, 50 percent does not spend even a day outside their home. Somehow, this second most fearful group ("3") is less likely to spend sometime outside home than the most fearful. Forty-five percent of less fearful ("2") also spend no time outside their home. But of those least fearful ("1"), less than one-third (30 percent) does not spend even a day outside their home. Thus, though the relationship is not completely linear, the effect of fear of crimes against persons on the number of days outside the home is quite clearly negative: the more fearful one is, the less likely to spend days outside home. Fear of area and fear of property do not make a difference for the number of days spent ouside the home.

Fear of crimes against property (.14) and person (.10) have some effect on whether or not the respondents walk in the meighborhood during the day (Table 6-2) while fear of area has no effect at all. Walking in the neighborhood at night is moderately affected by fear of crimes against person (.14) but significantly affected by fear of crimes against property (.22): while 44 percent of the least fearful ("1") and 48 percent of the less fearful ("2") walk in the neighborhood at night, only 29 percent of more fearful ("3") and 24 percent of most fearful ("4") do so (Table 6-3).

Having <u>escotts</u> for night walks is somewhat affected by fear of area (.12), property (.12) and person (.15) (Table 6-4). Though fear of crimes against person has some <u>effect</u> on <u>driving to avoid walking</u> (-.13), fear of property crimes produces a significant effect (-.22) on it. While 77 percent of the most fearful of property crimes drive to avoid walking, only 59 percent of the least fearful do so. Increasing fear is

accompanied by increasing number of those who drive to avoid walking (Table 6-5).

People who are fearful of area and property crimes tend to <u>carry</u> <u>something to protect themselves</u> (.19; .13) but fear of crimes against person does not affect protection-carrying (Table 6-6). More of those fearful of area rather than those fearful of property and person crimes tend to <u>engrave</u> valuables (-15) than others do (Table 6-7). Fear of crimes against person, though not consistent, seems to increase the tendency to have <u>homes attended in evenings</u>. At least, the most fearful are the most likely (68 percent) to have someone at home every evening (Table 6-8).

Though not all effects are strong, life-style characteristics are clearly affected by fear of crimes and different types of fear affect somewhat differently also. On the whole, fearful people are more likely not to spend some time outside but around their house, not to walk in the neighborhood even during the day as well as at night, to be escorted at night when they walk in the neighborhood, to drive to avoid walking, to carrying things to protect themselves, to engrave valuables, and never levae home unattended at night.

How is Aquality of life affected by life-style adjustment made because of fear of crime? Is there a choice to change or not to change one's hife style? At what point does the change become an imperative for self-protection? How do we make priority choice between self-protection and quality of life?

2. Neighborhood

While fear of area and property appear harmless, fear of crimes against person seems to desensitize the ability to <u>recognize strangers</u> in the neighborhood (.20). Non-differentiation between strangers and non-strangers

may be equivalent of having only strangers. Certain fear seems to lead to perceiving all as strangers, and, probably therefore, dangerous, if not potential criminals (Table 6-9).

Moreover, all three types of fear seem to increase the tendency to see <u>strangers as suspicious</u>. The effect of fear of area (-.51) is the largest, fear of property (-.36), the next, and fear of person (-.33) the lowest. But all effects are relatively high. The most fearful are, at least, two and half times as likely to have seen suspicious strangers in the neighborhood in the past year (Table 6- 10).

Not only do the fearful see suspicious strangers more than others do.

Of those having seen suspicious strangers, the most fearful are also

least likely to check or call police about the stranger they saw as suspicious and more likely to ignore the situation (Table 6-11.).

Of area, 50 percent of the most fearful and 57 percent of the more fearful said that they ignored the situation while only 41 percent of the less fearful and 33 percent of the least fearful did say so. The effect of fear of crimes against person is close to that of area. Of crimes against property, the most fearful (52 percent) and the least fearful (61 percent) are more likely to ignore strangers than are the less fearful (42 percent) and the more fearful (44 percent). The fearful are likely to judge strangers as suspicious but they are not likely to test the validity of their perceptual judgment.

3. <u>Neighbors</u>

Whereas fear of area and person produce no significant effect on considering whether or not neighbors would help each other, fear of property crime does show a small effect (.11). While 58 percent of the least fearful see their neighbors help each other, less than 50 percent of others think so (Table 6-12). Also, the more fear the respondents have of property

their home when a home is unoccupied (-.14) (Table 6-13). But the <u>frequency of homewatching</u> is not affected by fear of property crimes but by fear of area (-12) and fear of crimes against person (-.19) (Table 6-14).

The more fearful one is of area (-15), property (-10) and person (-.14), the less likely to think his neighbors are concerned much with prein venting crime from happening to others living/the neighborhood (Table 6-15).

Also, those more fearful of area are less likely to see many of their neighbors willing to help with a group that was concerned with preventing crime in the neighborhood (-.13) while fear of property and person has no observable effect on such thinking (Table 6-16).

All three types of fear seem to have a large effect on the perception of neighbors' relation with police. The most fearful are least likely to think that many of their neighbors would either help police to find criminal (Table 6-17) or report crimes to the police (Table 6-18). But, the most fearful of area are more likely to have attended meetings concerned with problems in the neighborhood (-.30). While 19 percent of those most fearful of area went to such meetings, only 9 percent of the least fearful, 11 percent of the less fearful, and 18 percent of the more fearful have done so (Table 6-19). Still, the less fearful one is, the more likely it will be that he think that crime groups do a lot of good (Table 6-20).

Also, those with less fear of crimes against property (.21) and person (.20) tend to acknowledge that they <u>feel part of the neighborhood</u> more than others do (Table 6-21). Those with less fear of area (.31), property (.18), and person (.27) consider parks in their neighborhood a good place to go while more fearful tend not to think so (Table 6-22).

Thought not uniform, fears of crimes affect the way people see and judge their neighbors and the way they feel toward the neighborhood. If

nothing else, fear would increase suspicion in the neighborhood and estrangement of the fearful from the neighborhood (e.g., Conklin, 1975:...). But, at the same time, fear also seems to lead to the formation of small (smaller than the neighborhood or area) clusters of households to protect themselves and others in the group.

To the question "Have you and any of your neighbors ever made an arrangement to watch one another's houses when you are not at home?", 60 percent of the most fearful say they did so (Table 6-13). But only 34 percent of the most fearful think that "...people in your area are concerned with preventing crime from happening to others living here" (Table 6-15). Therefore, it seems the most fearful people reduce the area of their neighborhood and contract the sphere of their interaction. Beyond that small zone of mutual assistance, there lies a hostile world.

4. Change

As fear increases, the number of people saying the neighborhood has become worse in the past year increases and the number of respondents perceiving neighborhood stability decreases (Table 6-23). The same effect of fear is also observed for the future changes in the neighborhood (Table 6-24).

A comparison of Table 6-23 and Table 6-24 reveals some interesting differences between the evaluation of the past changes and the assessment of the future changes. First, there are more people who say their neighborhood has stayed the same in the past than there are people who think their neighborhood will stay the same in the future. Second, there are more people who think that their neighborhood will change for the better than there are people who think it has changed for the better. Third, this tendency to hope for the better for their neighborhood is most prevalent amont the most fearful.

Table 6-24Ais obtained by subtracting Table 6-23 from Table 6-24. The score in the first cell of the first column in Table 6-24 A (12) is the difference between the score in the corresponding cell in Table 6-23 (12 percent) and the score in the same cell in Table 6-24 (24). As 12 percent of the least fearful of area consider the past change in the neighborhood as for the better, 24 percent see the future change for the better. Therefore, there is 12 percent difference in seeing changes for the better between the past and future. Both "better" and "worse" percentages increase while percentage for the "same" decreases. As there are fewer people predicting neighborhood stability for the future, there are more people who see future changes for the better and for the worse than there are people who see past changes as better or as worse.

Table 6-24 B reports proportional change between Table 6-23 and

Table 6-24. Scores in Table 6-24 B are obtained by dividing scores in and multplying by 100.

Table 6-24A by scores in Table 6-23 A For instance, there is a 100 percent of the low fear of area people, increase in the proportion of seeing the future as better (24 percent)

from the proportion of seeing the past as for the better (12 percent).

But there is only a 15 percent increase in those seeing for the worse.

Table 6-24 B makes it much clearer that there are proportionately more people who see the future of their neighborhood for the better than for the worse though both are increased in their absolute number and proportion.

Table 6-24 C--"better" divided by "worse" of Table 6-24 B--shows that proportionate increase in those who see their neighborhood's future for the better is much greater than the same increase in those who see the future of their neighborhood for the worse. The increase of "worse" is only among the less fearful (.9).

In Table 6-24 C, it is also noted that the increase for "better" is largest among the most fearful. Of the most fearful of area, the entire change between the past and the future is for "better". Of most fearful of property, the increase for "better" is 11.1 times of the increase for "worse". Of the fear of crimes against person, the most fearful are 24 times more likely to see future changes for the better than for the worse. On the whole, the most fearful are more likely to consider the future changes in their neighborhood for "better" compared to their evaluation of the past changes in their neighborhood. As they see past changes as worse, they may have a greater hope for the future.

As increasing fear of all three types increased the probability of seeing past changes of the neighborhood as worse (Table 6-23), the more fearful one is, the more likely for him to see <u>crime</u> in the neighborhood <u>has gone up</u> in the past (Table 6-25) and to believe that crime will always the go up (Table 6-26). While fearful are quite optimistic for the future of their neighborhood, they are not so for crime. Rather they appear to hope for the best when the question is general (changes in the neighborhood); they are quite pessimistic when the question is more specific. Vague wishful thinking seems not to protect the fearful from the dark future as they see them.

5. Police

As expected, fear affects perception and evaluation of police performance. The more fearful one is of crime against property, the more likely for him to report not seeing police on foot (.21). But if one is fearful of area, he is somewhat less likely (-.19) to report seeing police on foot (Table 6-27).

Fear of area increases seeing police on foot; fear of property crimes decreases seeing police on foot. Of course, it is uncertain whether the

observed association is due to differential perception or due to differential distribution of police. It may be that there are more police to be seen in areas characterized by high crime and crimogenic elements. In other areas where homeownership is high, and therefore, fear of property crimes is high (Table 5-12), there may be less police on foot for the residents to see.

Seeing police in car is affected only by fear of property crimes (.18). As in the case of seeing police on foot, the more fearful one is of property loss, the more likely for him to report not seeing police in car (Table 6-28). Again, in areas where there are many property owners and, therefore, where there is less street crime, there may be fewer police either on foot or in patrol cars for the residents to see. Because they have more property to lose and because there are fewer police, their fear of property crime may rise. As their fear rises, their tendency to see police may decrease as the present distribution of police force in the area is judged not sufficient for their need.

The evaluation of the way <u>police treat</u> people is also influenced by fear. The more fearful of area (.28), property (.24), and person (.12) one is, the more likely for him to say that police do not treat people well (Table 6-29). High fear of area (-.24) increases the tendency to see <u>police as not understanding</u> people while fear of crimes against person and property has no observable effect (Table 6-30). Fear of area significantly (-.22) and fear of property moderately (-.13) increase seeing <u>police</u> work on wrong problem (Table 6-31). The fearful also tend to disagree their that <u>police try to doNbest</u> (Table 6-32) and to believe that <u>reporting to police</u> is a waste of time (table 6-33).

Of those who have had a direct contact with police("call the Police Department for help or about a crime in the last year or so"), <u>satisfaction with police</u> performance decreases with increasing fear (Table 6-34.)

While 72 percent of the least fearful are satisfied with police for what of the most fearful they did when they were called, only 34 percent are satisfied with the service they received from police. Effects of both of fear of area (.29) and property (.34) are quite large while the effect of fear of crimes against person is moderate (.16). As the question was asked only to those who called police in the last year or so, the result observed must be more real (not spurious) than other results.

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APPENDIX A

Additional Analysis of the Scales

This section reports on a few attempts for further analysis of data beyond the simple bivariate analysis made thus far. What is presented is not a finished product but attempted explorations, only attempted and unfinished.

A. COMBINATION OF FEARS

Figures 8,9, and 10 present three bivariate scattergrams of the three fear scales and show the correlations are far less than perfect. If fears of three types were consistent, that is, high on one scale means high on the other two scales, all cases would have fallen in the cells of the main diagonal. As off-diagonal cells are not empty, there are cases for whom fear is more specific than general as in the cases falling in the diagonal cells. Cases in the cells adjacent to the main diagonal cells are more consistent than those in the farthest cells.

We might call the cases in the main diagonals as "generalized fear" ("consistent") for they fear everything and anything without discriminating the object of fear or situations involved. Cases of the off-diagonal cells are considered as "specified" (inconsistent or discriminating) because they do not fear all just because they fear certain objects or situations.

Table 7-1 presents the marginal distribution for the combination of the three types of fear. As the three scales are highly correlated, there are more cases of generalized fear than cases of specified fear. But the consistently high fear (12.5 percent) and the low(12.0 percent) are much more likely generalized than the medium fear (5.4 percent). People generally tend to be more consistent than inconsistent. If they have great (low) fear of crimes against person, they would also have great (low) fear of property crimes, not only because fear is genralized but also because

both types of crimes are frequently related and occur in similar environments.

Table 7-1 also shows that inconsistency occurs more frequently between the adjacent degrees of fear: would be more likely to have either high or medium rather than low degree of fear of crime against person. For instance, the combination of low area, high property, and medium person has the largest proportion of the more inconsistent cases, but it constitutes only 2.6 percent of the entire sample.

Though Table 7-1 is more refined than Table 7-2 where fear is dichotomized, the given sample would not be able to handle the number of cells involved in Table 7-1 where fear is trichotomized. According to Table 7-2 32.9 percent demonstrate a generalized low fear while 21.9 percent possesses a generalized high fear. Therefore, 45.2 percent of the sample has specified fear of discriminates among types of fear.

Table 7-3 is an example of waht could be done with either Table 7-1 or Table 7-2. As Cramer's V (.2088) indicates, Table 7-3 shows that there is some sex-difference in combinations of dichotomized fears.

First, 29.7 percent of female and 38.0 percent of male are low-fear generalized (low fear on all three scales); men are more likely to have a low degree of fear of area, property and person than women are. But, 21.0 percent of female and 23.5 percent of male are high generalized fear. Therefore, men are more consistent (generalized) than women are, contrary to popular belief of generalized fear of women. But as popular observation would tell, men tend to have high generalized fear (23.5 percent) than women (21.0) do.

Second, of the six non-consistent combinations, two (112 and 122) have proportionately more women than men and two others (211 and 221) have more men than women. The two combinations (112 and 122) that have more women

share low fear of area and high fear of person. The other two combinations (221 and 211) that have more men are characterized by low fear of person and high fear of area. Of those with this specified fear, men tend to have high fear of area and women high fear of crimes against person. High fear of property (121) seems not to differentiate sex difference.

On the whole, Table 7-3 showed that men are more likely to have generalized fear for both low (38 percent) and high(23.5 percent), men tend to have high area specified fear, and women have high person specified fear.

Table 7-4 presents Cramer's V for cross-tabulations of selected variables by combination of fear (Table 7-2). Race of the respondent (.164), age of the household head (.186), marital status of the household head (.137), sex and education of the respondents (.159), length of residence at the present address (.157), where he lived before (.111), believing groups do good (.181), neighbors are concerned (.183), and neighbors help each other (.191), feeling part of the neighborhood (.199), and cooperativeness for the interview (.135) are somewhat related with the combination of the degree of fear.

B. CRIME AND FEAR OF CRIME

Whereas human traffic may reduce crime by increasing informal social control (Conklin, 1975:143-145), the present report has shown that the same human traffic increases fears of crime. Whereas crime is committed by both outsiders and intimates, it has been also shown that in the present study, the perceived proportion of outsiders (people who do not live in the area) on the street had a significant effect on fears of crime. But, as the volume of human traffic and the proportion of outsiders would be highly correlated, the observed relation between both human traffic and the

proportion of outsiders with fear may be quite unstable when the other variable is controlled. An examination of such stability-instabilty is the focus of this section.

As expected, Table 8-1 shows a moderate positive relation between four measures of human traffic (busy-ness: people on the street during the day and at night and traffic during the day and at night) and the proportion of outsiders. The busier the streets are in the area, the more outsiders there will be, probably in reality as well as in perception.

Table 8-2 reports Gamma coefficients between fear scales and the proportion of outsiders (zero-order) and their conditional and partial Gammas controlling for busy-ness measures (V56, V58-60).

First, compare zero-order Gammas with partials and note that partials of area are about .05 less than their zero-order coefficients and partials of person are about .10 less than their zero-order coefficients. In other words, a large proportion of the observed bivariate relation between outsiders and fears of area and person is pure, independent of the volume of human traffic, busy-ness, and the remaining small proportion of the zero-order relation is spurious, due to busy-ness. On the other hand, all partials of propoerty are larger than their zero-order coefficients indicating suppresent effect of busy-ness upon the relation between fear of crimes against property and the proportion of outsiders. While the effect of outsiders on fear of area and person was inflated somewhat, the same effect on fear of property crime was suppressed somewhat. Whereas the zero-order effect of outsiders was weakest for the property crime, of the partials, the fear of crimes against person is least affected by the proportion of outsiders present on the streets.

Second, observing the conditionals, we can see that of the 54 conditional Gammas, eight (15 percent) have decreased to less than .1. The remaining 85 percent also change somewhat but not much. Though there is

some interaction effect, on the whole, the effect of outsiders on fear is linear.

Therefore, on the basis of Table 8-2, it must be concluded that the effect of outsiders on fear is largely independent of busy-ness. Human traffic may have a negative effect on the volume of crime but it also certainly has a positive effect on the fear of crime. In general, the busier the streets are, the more fear there will be.

How stable is the effect of busy-ness on fear? Table 8-3 shows that, not only is the effect of busy-ness smaller than the effect of outsiders, it is also a bit less stable than the effect of outsiders. Of 36 conditional Gammas, 7 (19 percent) become less than .1 when the proportion of outsiders is controlled. There is some increase in the partial Gamma of the fear of property crime but a small decrease in the partial Gamma of fear of area and person.

Thus, on the whole, Tables 8-1, 8-2 and 8-3 lead to the conclusion that there is a moderate positive relation between the perception of how busy the streets are for both pedestrians and traffic during the day and at night and the estimation of the proportion of outsiders on the streets, whatever the actual crime may be, fear of crime is more affected by busyness than by outsiders, and, at the same time, both busy-ness and outsiders are quite independent of each other in their effect on fear of crime.

On the other hand, it may be recalled that, according to Conklin, rising human traffic is thought to reduce crime through increasing informal social control of crime. Table 8-2 showed increasing human traffic (busyness) associated with increasing fear. For Conklin, fear of crime is fear of strangers; Table 8-3 shows that fear of crime is affected by outsiders but more so by human traffic (Table 8-2).

C. PATH MODEL FOR FEARS OF CRIME

At its best, bivariate analysis of data is only a stepping stone for further examination of the data. In this section, a path model for prediction of fears will be presented. For practical purposes, it may be stated that, if there exists only one system of variables for all three types of fear, the question becomes how to manipulate (modify) variables in the system. But, if there is a different system of variables for different fears (one system of variables works only for one type of fear), the problem becomes much more complex. As human affairs are what they are, it may be that reduction of one type of fear by manipulating certain variables may mean a rise in another type of fear. In such a case, the search should become a search for an alternative 'optimal' model. A model will be optimal if it identifies a state in which fear reaches it lowest point without raising another type of fear.

Table 9-1 presents variables to be included in the model. The first two variables are dumm y variables constructed from "the neighborhood change" (V47) variable. As they are constructed, the reference category (the omitted response-category) is "the neighborhood stayed the same" or "the neighborhood did not change" (Kim and Kohout, 1975: 374). As it turns out to be, for all three types of fear, fear was increased if the neighborhood becomes worse (Worse) and there was no significant different in fear when the neighborhood became either better or stayed the same.

The second variable in Table 9-1 is an additive scale of busy-ness variables (V56, V58-60) and its score ranges from 0 (least busy) to 4.5 (most busy). Since the sum of scores on each busy-ness variable is divided by the number of times validly answered, the score is not affected by the number of questions answered, and the score is the "mean" busy-ness in terms of both pedestrian and auto traffic during the day and at night.

On the other hand, even if "there is no one-to-one relationship between actual risk and anxiety about crime" and "...factors other than objective risk play an important part in determining level of anxiety about crime" (Conklin, 1975: 8), the experience of victimization raises fears of all three types. When the neighborhood has changed and the change seems to be for the worse, there is also more fear than when the neighborhood did not change or changed for the better.

Figure 12 visualizes how the model works for fear of area. Of all prior variables, the direct effect of busy-ness is the largest (B = .259) and that of crime (experience of victimization) is the second (B = .217) largest. Both outsider (B = .128) and neighborhood becoming worse (B = .142) have moderate effect on the fear of area.

reports direct, indirect, and total effect (transmittance) of each prior variable on fear of area. The effect of both outsider and busy-ness on fear of area is mainly direct. Outsider has a large direct effect (.128) and a moderate indirect effect through busy-ness (.094) and small indirect effects through both crime (.026) and neighborhood change (.20). The main effect of busy-ness is direct (.259) and busy-ness also raises fear of area through increasing the experience of victimization (crime) (.033) and worsening of the neighborhood (.029). The total effect of crime is direct because it has no effect on the neighborhood change and the total effect of worsening neighborhood is direct because the model does not have an intervening variable between neighborhood change and fear of area. On the whole the total effect of busy-ness (.321) is largest followed by outsider (.268), crime (.217), and worse (.142) in that order. In order to reduce the fear of area, the first task would seem to be to make the area less busy, reduce the incoming outsiders, reduce crime, and make no change or change for the better in the neighborhood.

V57 is the perceived proportion of outsiders among people on the streets. V145 is another dummy variable constructed from V145 (number of victimization). ¹² The three remaining variables are the three fear scales and they are the dependent variables for the model.

Table 9-2 presents the distribution of variables in the model (A), correlation coefficients among busy-ness variables and correlation coefficients between the busy-ness scale and the items included in the scale (B), and correlation coefficients among all variables in the model.

Figure 11 presents the proposed model to be tested. Basic information on how the model works for each fear scale is presented in Table 9-3. First, though the number of outlying residuals (less than 5 percent) seems to indicate good fit for the model, the amount of variance explained by the model is quite low for fear of property crime ($R^2 = 8.9$ percent), relatively low for fear of crimes against person ($R^2 = 16$ percent), and somewhat high for fear of area ($R^2 = 23.6$ percent). Certainly, fear of property crime is affected by variables other than those included in the model.

In Table 9-3, it should be noted that whereas human traffic should reduce crime by increasing informal social control (Conklin, 1975), busy-ness has an independent effect on crime (victimization) net of outsider (B = .150). Whereas crime is committed both by outsiders and intimates, the experience of victimization (V145) is greater if there are perceived more outsiders (r = .162) and the effect of outsider (B = .121) is quite independent of of busy-ness. The neighborhood is considered wosre than before if there are more outsiders regardless of busy-ness (B = .143) and if it is seen busy regardless of outsiders (B = .202). For both victimization and assessment of neighborhood change, street traffic is seen as worse than outsiders though the two are moderately (.293) related. But experience of victimization does not affect the assessment of the neighborhood change.

Figure 13 shows how the model works (or does not work) for the fear of property crime. First, both outsider and busy-ness affect fear of property crime only indirectly by raising crime and worsening the neighborhood. Only crime and neighborhood change toward worse have direct positive effect on fear of property crime.

Table 9-4 B presents direct, indirect and total effects of prior variables on fear of crimes against property. The total effect of outsider (.064) and of busy-ness (.060) through various routes is very small compared to the total effect of crime (208) and worse (.144). Because there are only two direct paths, the total variance explained is also very low as seen already.

Figure 14 shows how the model works for the fear of crime against person. Both busy-ness and worsening neighborhood have a high direct effect (.184). The direct effect of outsider on person (.146) is moderate while the effect of crime (.095) is quite low though all are significant.

Table 9-4 presents, again, direct, indirect, and total effect of variables on the fear of crimes against persons. Above all, outsider has the largest (.248) total effect, followed by busy-ness (.235), worse (.84) and crime (.095).

Finally, on the whole, it may be recalled that fear of area is largely affected by busy-ness (.321) and outsider (.268), fear of property crime by crime (.208) and worsening of the neighborhood (.144) and fear of person by outsider (.248) and busy-ness (.235). Second, the model works more effectively for fear of area but less so for fear of crimes against person and least so for fear of property crimes. But, at least, no sign of path coefficients changes from one fear to another, and therefore, there is no problem of reducing one fear, only to increase another type of fear. Third, as stated repeatedly, some of the findings of the present study do not conform to the findings of Conklin.

FOOTNOTES

- 1. The three scales are saved in the project system file for "HART75" for future use. Variable name "FAREA" stands for "fear of crimes in the neighborhood area", "FPERSON" for "fear of crimes against persons", and "FPRPRTY" for "fear of crimes against property". There are also two, three and four category collapsed versions of these variables.
- 2. Though there is supposed to be an "automatic" way of constructing factor scales is (Kim and Kohout, 1975: 496), Mr. Bob Lebaily told me that it is not active yet at the university computing center. Therefore, scales are "hand" constructed.
- 3. Mr. E. Cohen, the statistical consultant at the computing center, said that the results (mean and standard deviation) are exceptionally good. Very few efforts produce a mean and a standard deviation closer to the expected than results reported here.
- 4. One way of eliminating this problem would be to have the same scores (response categories) for all variables; for secondary analysis, there is little choice. Therefore, if these scales are to be replicated, it is suggested to consider this point.
- 5. By doing this, I relegate to the reader my responsibility of deciding the causal direction of undirectional relations.
- 6. SPSS does not estimate the significant level of Gamma (Cramer's V).
 The following "Significance of Gamma: An example" shows one way of estimating the significance of a given Gamma. In the example, the Gamma (-.11582) was not significant. Roughly, a Gamma greater than -.188 would be needed for the relationship between income and fear of crimes against person to be significant.

Though the significance of a Gamma depends not only on its magnitude but also on sample size, marginal distribution, and cell frequencies, a Gamma of .2 or greater in its absolute value will be presented as significant rather than calculating the exact significance estimation for each table. The given example should indicate labor involved in hand-calculating the significance of a Gamma.

Significance of Gamma: An Example 1

	Fear of Crimes Against Person ²					
INCOME	Lowest Quartile	Low	High	High Quartile 30 37 (23.6) (29.1) 42 37 (29.6) (26.1) 26 17 (16.8) 16 9 (14.5)	Total	
Under \$5,000	31 (24.4)	29 (22.8)			127 (99.9)	
\$5,000 - \$9,999	35 (24.6)	28 (19.7)			142 (100)	
\$10,000 - \$15,000	29 (28.7)	29 (28.7)			101 (99.9)	
Over \$15,000	15 (24.2)	22 (35.5)	16 (25.8)		62 (100)	
Total	110	108	114	100	432	

Non Response = 124

1. Formula:
$$Z_G = \frac{G - r_0}{(Max \hat{\sigma}_G^2)} **1/2$$

Max
$$\sigma_{G}^{2} = \frac{2n}{n^{2}} - \frac{(1-G^{2})}{f+}$$

$$f_{t} = \sum_{j=1}^{k} j^{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{r} n_{i}^{2} - \sum_{j=1}^{k} \sum_{i=1}^{r} f_{ij}^{2}$$

where G =the sample gamma $r_0 =$ the population gamma

where n_j = a column marginal total n_i = a row marginal total f_{ij} = a cell frequency

k = the number of columns

r = the number of rows

Source: Perry E. Jacobson

1976 Introduction to Statistical Measures for the Social and Behavioral Sciences. Hinsdale: The Dryden Press. pp. 410-411.

2. Frequencies and row percents.

 $^{^{3}}$ Gamma = -.11582

$$Z_{G} = \frac{G - r_{O}}{\sqrt{\text{Max } \sigma_{G}^{2}}} = \frac{-.11582 - o}{\sqrt{.00922}} = \frac{-.11582}{.09605} = -1.20625$$

Therefore, we cannot reject the null hypothesis (Ho: ro = o) that there is no significant ($P \ge .05$) relation between income of the household and fear of crimes against persons. In order to reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level the standard value of gamma (Z_G) must be equal to or greater than 1.96.

 Z_G for fear of crimes against property and fear of criminal environment will be smaller than Z_G for fear of crimes against persons.

What gamma would be significant?

Therefore, if Gamma were equal to or greater than .18826 (or less than -.18826), we would have rejected the null hypothesis ($r_0 = 0$) and concluded that there is a significant relations between income and fear of crimes against persons.

But we should note that $\frac{X}{.09605} = 1.96$ is only a rough estimation. A more precise and more complicated estimate could also be calculated (see Jacobson 1976: 412-414).

Takin kitan Tampin na Kasapun sa Kulong Takin katin basa basa

- 7. Greeley (1975: 159) uses standardized scores extensively and states, "In this chapter we will make substantial use of the 'Z' or 'standard' scores. A standardized score is created by constructing a scale so that its mean becomes zero and the standard deviation becomes 100. The score itself represents the percentage of a standard deviation above or below the mean, where the average member of a given subgroup is to be located. Catholics with more than ten years of Catholic education in 1963 were 49 percent of a standard deviation above the mean on the Catholic activism scale."
- 8. Greely and McCready AJS ______(?) for standard score use with figures.
- 9. Though "In fact, significant proportions of the most-feared crimes are committed by people with whom the victims are already acquainted-spouses, relatives, friends and lovers" (Conklin, 1975:7), it seems that Harford (1975) questionnaire has little interest in crimes committed within intimate circles of individuals (e.g., family members, relatives, friends). Neither does Hartford study include any question on the reaction to white collar crimes.
- 10.It may be noted that "fear of person" factor has no rape item and, therefore, sex difference is not due to actual or assumed vulnerability of women for such crimes.
- 11. See footnote 6 for significance test of Gamma.
- 12.Because V145 does not code the exact number of victimization, it was necessary to make the variable into a dummy.

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Table 1
DISTRIBUTION OF ITEMS AND FACTOR SCORE COEFFICIENTS

A. Distribution of Items

		Standard	e de la companya de l
Variable	Mean	Deviation	Cases
V109	4.7591	3.5855	465
V110	4.2796	3.6132	465
V111	3.7570	3.4955	465
V112	3.3054	3.4481	465
V115	1.7591	.8318	465
V116	1.8043	.8216	465
V117	1.8559	.8476	465
V118	1.6000	.7845	465
V119	1.6215	.7843	465
V120	1.4624	.7 451	465
V125	1.7054	.8156	465
V126	1.9935	.7726	465
V127	1.6946	.7 805	465
V128	1.6688	.8081	465
V129	1.5656	.7603	465
V105	1.7054	.9942	465
V106	2.5677	1.1690	465
V107	2.2968	1.1625	465
V108	2.4151	1.2042	465

B. Factor Score Coefficients

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Variable	Area*	Person*	Property*
V109	.00790	.02241	.09596
V110	01295	.23654	.00020
V111	01260	.33506	04411
V112	00650	.19854	.00630
V115	.17853	02378	.02531
V116	.15969	05325	.01474
V117	.09552	02360	.03946
V118	.15010	01962	.05293
V119	.12343	01167	00636
V120	.08825	.00093	04416
V125	.05314	.01649	.00439
V126	.05970	.01471	.07000
V127	.13753	.10331	14001
V128	.09416	.03327	 04563
V129	.12361	.08256	10638
V105	.00571	.09746	.00772
V106	.00158	•09460	.02022
V107	.01976	.03521	.45442
V108	.01280	.02316	.46191

^{*} Names given to the factors.

```
Scales
                                                                  Equation
  Crimes in the neighborhood = .00790 * (V109 - 4.7591) / 3.5855
                                    - .01295 * (V110 - 4.2796) / 3.6132
                                    - .01260 * (V111 - 3.7570) / 3.4955
                                      .00650 * (V112 - 3.3054) / 3.4481
                                    + .17853 * (V115 - 1.7591) /
+ .15969 * (V116 - 1.8043) /
                                                                       .8216
                                      .09552 * (V117 - 1.8559) /
                                      .15010 * (V118 - 1.6000) /
                                                                       .7845
                                      .12343 * (V119 - 1.6215) /
                                                                       .7843
                                                 (V120 - 1.4624) /
                                    + .08825 *
                                                                       .7451
                                    + .05314 *
                                                 (V125 - 1.7054) /
                                                                       .8156
                                    + .05970 * (V126 - 1.9935) /
+ .13753 * (V127 - 1.6946) /
                                                                       .7726
                                                                       .7805
                                    + .09416 * (V128 - 1.6688) /
                                    + .12361 * (V129 - 1.5656) /
                                    + .00571 * (V105 - 1.7054) /
                                    + .00158 * (V106 - 2.5677) / 1.1690
                                   + .01976 * (V107 - 2.2968) / 1.1625
                                    + .01280 * (V108 - 2.4151) / 1.2042
                                   = .09596 * (V109 - 4.7591) / 3.5855
+ .00020 * (V110 - 4.2796) / 3.6132
    Crimes against property
                                     .04411 * (V111 - 3.7570) / 3.4955
                                    + .00630 * (V112 - 3.3054) / 3.4481
                                   + .02531 * (V115 - 1.7591) /
                                    + .01474 * (V116 - 1.8043) / .8216
                                    + .03946 * (V117 - 1.8559) /
                                      .05293 * (V118 - 1.6000) /
                                                                       .7845
                                      .00636 * (V119 - 1.6215) /
                                      .04416 * (V120 - 1.4624) /
                                                                       .7451
                                    + .00439 * (V125 - 1.7054) /
                                                                       .8156
                                   + .07000 * (V126 - 1.9935) /
                                                                       .7726
                                     .14001 * (V127 - 1.6946) /
                                      .04563 * (V128 - 1.6688) /
                                                                       .8081
                                      .10638 * (V129 - 1.5656) / .00772 * (V105 - 1.7054) /
                                                                       .7603
                                   + .02022 * (V106 - 2.5677) / 1.1690
                                   + .45442 * (V107 - 2.2968) / 1.1625
+ .46191 * (V108 - 2.4151) / 1.2042
    Crimes against person
                                   = .02241 * (V109 - 4.7591) / 3.5855
                                   + .23654 * (V110 - 4.2796) / 3.6132
+ .33506 * (V111 - 3.7570) / 3.4955
                                      .19854 * (V112 - 3.3054) / 3.4481
                                      .02378 *
                                                (V115 - 1.7591) /
                                                (V116 - 1.8043) / .8216
(V117 - 1.8559) / .8476
                                      .05325 *
                                      .02360 *
                                    - .01962 * (V118 - 1.6000) /
                                   - .01167 * (V119 - 1.6215) /
                                                                       .7843
                                                     continued
```


Table 3
DISTRIBUTION OF SCALES

,	Scales					
	Area	Property	Person			
Lowest Value	-1.117	-1.956	-1.459			
Median Value	227	079	184			
Mean Value ¹	000	000	000			
Highest Value	2.128	1.929	2.258			
Standard Deviation ²	.962	.917	.955			

¹ Expected mean is 0.

² Expected standard deviation is 1.

Table 4
CORRELATION AMONG SCALES AND CORRELATION BETWEEN SCALES AND ITEMS

	Scales*				
Scales/Items	Area	Property	Person		
Area		.561	.384		
V115: selling drugs in the N.	.924	.402	.446		
V116: using drugs in the N.	.916	.373	.387		
V117: teenagers in the N.	.809	.490	.442		
V118: groups of men in the N.	.914	.483	.498		
V119: drunken men in the N.	.868	.384	.447		
V120: prostitution in the N.	.856	.335	.517		
V125: stealing cars in the N.	.644	.356	.412		
V126: burglary in the N.	.693	.560	.500		
V127: robbery in the N.	.850	.307	.722		
V128: hold up and rob in small stores	.783	.354	.597		
V129: people beaten up in the N.	.835	.278	.681		
Property	.561		.470		
V107: worry breaking in, daytime	.479	.975	.587		
V108: worry breaking in, night	.443	.975	.586		
V109: possible, breaking in	.400	.599	.569		
Person	.384	.470			
V105: worry hold up, daytime	.460	.531	.738		
V106: worry hold up, night	.343	.443	.667		
V110: possible, purse snatch	.429	.388	.880		
V111: possible something taken by force V112: possible, beaten up	.457	.386	.923		

^{* 1.} Pearson correlation coefficients for scales and V109-V112.

^{2.} Gamma for all others. For Gamma, scales were categorized into four groups, 25 percent of respondents for each group. Given few (3, 4) response-categories, Gamma was judged more appropriate than other coefficient measures.

Table 5
FEAR AS A DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Subtable	. ,	Variable/Response			Mean	
Number	#VAR	Category	N	Area	Property	Person
5-1	158	Race:				
		White	239	190	113	
		Black	170	.164	.143	
+1		Spanish	51	.425	.075	
5-2	165	Interview Language:				
		Spanish	26	.328		.290
		Other	439	.013		.015
	_		100			
5-3	24	Sex:				
		Female	286			.111
		Male	179			- .177
5 - 4	23	Age		195 ¹	126 ¹	•
5-5	155	Education ² :				
. 5-5	133	0-8 years	111			008
		9-12 years	215			.102
	•	13+ years	134			158
4		23. 3022				
5-6	25	Marital Status:				
		Married	180			130
		Widowed	54		• • •	.089
		Separated/Divroce				.270
		Single	140			049
5-7	18	Number of Adults in Ho		<u>l</u> :		110
		One	211			.118
		More than one	254			098
5-8	20	Household Composition:				
5- 0	20	Head lives with				
		children only	81	.333	.306	.301
		Other	383	069	 063	061
		o circ i	303	•005		.001
5-9	15	Size of Household ⁴ :				
		1-3 persons	355	057	069	
	•	4-10 persons	110	.184	.224	
5-10	16	Children in the Househ	101d ⁵ :			
		Absent	282	120	130	
		Present	183	.185	.200	

¹ Pearson correlation coefficients.

² Respondents with 9-12 years of education also have highest scores for Area and Property.

³ There is little difference between the two groups. Higher than others on Area and Property but no significant difference.

⁴ Actual number does not make significant difference.

⁵ Seventeen years of age or less. Actual number does not make difference.

Table 5 (continued)
FEAR AS A DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Subtable		Variable/Response	. 1		Mean	
Number	#VAR	Category	N	Area	Property	Person
5-11	19	Number of Elderly (65+)	•		······································	
		Absent	380	.076	.055	
		Present	79	324	239	
		11000111	,,	.52-	.237	
5-12	31	Resident:				
		Rent	356	.063	064	
		Own	104	202	.226	
F 10	00					•
5-13	30	Length of Residence:	4.0	000		
		Less than one year		.388		.331
		One year	76	.171		067
	•	Two years	83	.021		101
		3-9 years	148	087		111
		10+ years	113	161		.138
5-14	33	Prior Residence:		A.		
		Hartford City	248	• •		.088
		Connecticut	112			.027
		USA	72			233
		Outside of USA ⁶	21			 368
		outside of oba	21		•	500
5-15	61	Days outside Home:				
		None	199			.117
		1-6 days	160			066
		Daily	102			 139
F 16						
5 - 16	66	Walk in Neighborhood Dur		Daytime:	~~-	
2. · · · · · · ·		Every day	279		067	039
		Less than once a				
		week	100		 051	135
		Never	86		.276	.283
5-17	67	Walk in Neighborhood at	Nicht	• •		
J -:		Every day	30	= •		073
		Few times a week	54			 198
		Once a week	26			 467
		Less often	58			407 305
		Never	296			.147
		Hevel	290			.147
5-18	68	Escorted when Walk at N	ight:	<i>‡</i>		•
		Yes escorted	48		057	170
		No escorted	119		195	295
•		No walk	298		.087	.145
F 10	60			• .		
5-19	69	Drive to Avoid Walking a		gnt:	100	
		Yes	303		.102	
		No	151		176	

⁶ They are also least fearful for Area (-.145) and for Property (-.139).

Table 5 (continued)

Subtable		Variable/Response			Mean	
Number	#VAR	Category	N	Area	Property	Persor
5-20		Individual Defense M	leasures7:			
		0	61		346	
		1	151		007	
		2	178		.102	
	: '	3	58		.039	
		4	15		.110	
		5	2		023	
	100					
5-21	132	Number of Burglary S		04.0	070	05/
		None	419	048	078	054
		Once	35	.548	.664	.579
		Twice	6	.079	.711	.338
	•	Three times	4	.158	.913	059
		Five times	1	027	1.561	.377
5-22	133	Attempted Burglary S	uffered:			
J 22	133	Yes	35	.453	.604	.514
		No	429	040	050	043
			723	- •U+U	050	.043
5-23	134	Household Theft Suff	ered:			
		Yes	15		.574	
		No	449		019	
5-24	136	Robbery Suffered:				
		Yes	19			.656
		No	446			028
	100	n	• 11			
5-25	138	Breaking into the Ma		005	750	
		Yes	12	.935	.750	
		No	452	024	017	
5-26	140	Attempted Auto Theft	:/Use:			
:	****	Yes	20		.522	
		No	444		026	
er ja iv						
5-27	141	Property Theft Suffe	red:			
		Yes	65	.226	.333	
		No	399	034	053	
.		1 0 00				
5-28	142	Assault Suffered:		F/ 0		
		Yes	13	.540		
		No.	452	015		
5-29	144	Vandalism Suffered:			٠.	
J-27	Tree	Yes	46	.345	.465	
		No	464	 040	050	

⁷ Sum of "Yes" to V68 (Escort at night), V69 (Drive to avoid walking at night), V70 (have anything for protection), V71 (as V70), V75 (Special locks on doors), V76 (Valuables engraved), V77 (Arrange with neighbors to watch when not home), V79 (Do anything to protect home from being broken into), and V112 (Do anything about the problem).

Table 5 (continued)
FEAR AS A DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Subtable		Variable/Response			Mean	
Number	#VAR	Category	N	Area	Property	Person
5-30		Number of Victimization		.2638	•303 ⁸	.1848
		Number of Victimization \$50+		.1718	.1848	
	•	Number of property crim suffered		.2478	•335 ⁸	.1528
		Number of crimes agains	t	8		
	1	person suffered		$.129_{0}^{8}$	•	.1498
		Number of informing pol		.2218	.2268	.1698
		Number of reporting for	mally	.2008	.1918	.175 ⁸
5-31	56	People on the Street, D	ay:			
		A lot	148	.335	.178	.194
		Some	85	.100	055	.072
		A few	157	204	127	074
		None	57	353	.021	297
5-32	58	People on the Street, N	lioht•			
5 3-		A lot	84	.707	.268	.427
•.		Some	74	.160	.110	.158
•		A Few	147	049	.025	021
		None	152	 386	177	÷.278
		None	1,32	500	1//	G.270
5-33	59	Street Traffic During t				
		Very busy	126	.193		.195
		Busy	115	.130		.048
		Moderate	125	 072		011
		Light	61	 280		 200
		Very light	34	307		 452
5-34	60	Street Traffic at Night	:			
		Very busy	65	.518		.437
		Busy	89	.121	•	.066
•		Moderate	121	.014	• •	.063
•		Light	117	241		141
		Very light	71	267		374
E 25	E 7	Desidence of Decidence				
5-35	5 7	Residence of People see			110	000
		Most here	274	229	113	232
		Half and half	128	.234	.121	.209
		Most from outside	72	.405	.166	.361
5-36	40	Recognize strangers in	Neighb	orhood:		
		Yes	194			131
		No	267		•	.101
5-37	41	Seen Suspicious Strange	rs:			
		Yes	156	.465	.284	.312
*		No	308	233	140	155
		410	300	• 233	140	J

⁸ Pearson correlation coefficient.

Table 5 (continued)
FEAR AS A DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Subtable		Variable/Response			Mean		
Number	#VAR	Category	N	Area	Property	Person	
5-38	46	Feel part of Neighborh					
		Yes	198		 153		
		No	262		.115		
5-39	113	Safe Alone in Neighborh	nood D	977			
3 33		Very safe	183	424	342	572	
		Reasonably safe	201	.110	.109	.119	
		Somewhat unsafe	45	.516	.492	. 45	
		Very unsafe	32	1.013	.569	1.310	
5-40	114	Safe Alone in Neighborh	nood. N	ight:			
		Very safe	64	 333	588	600	
		Reasonably safe	121	275	156	468	
t system of		Somewhat unsafe	131	.039	.060		
•						.021	
		Very unsafe	146	.360	.335	.637	
5-41	63	Park, a Place you like	to go:				
		Yes	132	221	097	247	
		No	159	.215	.147	.110	
5-42	77	Neighbors Watch Home wh			·		
			241	.105			
		No	224	113			
5-43	78	Watch Home How often:					
		All the time	151			.131	
		Special occasions	90			106	
		bpeciai occasions	70			100	
5 - 44	86	Neighbors Concerned abo			a Salah kacamatan kalendari		
		A lot	158	117	 063	038	
		Some	194	024	001	063	
	- 1 - 1	Not much	91	.404	.217	.336	
5-45	84	Nedahbana Taba Tasal O					
J=45	04	Neighbors Join Local Gr		0.60			
4 1 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4		All of them	47	263	4.	100	
		Most	84	080		100	
		Some	160	.044		.024	
		A few	109	.075		.020	
		None	27	.816		.717	
5-46	83	Neighbors Help Police:					
J-40	O.S		70	202	100	056	
		All of them	7 0	303	196	- .256	
		Most	128	269	154	201	
		Some	118	.129	.102	.147	
		A Few	82	.487	.163	.347	
		None	47	.329	.341	.154	
5-47	82	Would Neighbors Report	Crime.				
- 11	. 02	All of them	119	108	112	122	
		Most	141	240	082	110	
		Some	96	.270	.099		
						.107	
		A few	50	.231	.062	.154	
		None	36	.644	.617	.598	

Table 5 (continued)
FEAR AS A DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Sub tab le		Variable/Response			Mean	······································
Number	#VAR	Category	N	Area	Property	Person
5 - 48	55	Groups do any Good:				
		A lot	51	134	251	
1		Some	66	.123	014	
		Not much	25	.442	.401	*
. 4				• 2	•401	
5-49	47	Neighborhood Became:				:
		Better	54	037	240	156
		Worse	172	.343	.254	.344
		Same	239	239	129	213
			237	.237	- • 127	413
5-50	50	Neighborhood will Becom	ne:		•	
1.	•	Better	97	.041	076	030
		Worse	208	.203	.193	.223
	200	Same	133	323	204	310
					• 0 -	•510
5-51	131	Crime in the Neighborho				
		Up	166	.522	.376	.493
		Down	54	146	219	243
		About the same	235	327	216	294
5 52	150	Contain mart 1 Alama and Tr			•	
5-52	153	Crime will Always go Up			000	/10
State of		Agree	181	.412	.229	.413
		Disagree	270	 250	128	267
5-53	87	See Police on Foot:				
		Several times/day	19		455	
		Every day	29		 069	
		Few a week	34			
	1000				015	
		Once a week	7		851	
A.		Few a month	18		 413	
		Almost never	353		.078	
5-54	88	See Police in Car:				
:		Several times/day	19/	.011	078	
		Every day	118	.015	126	
		Few a week	59	246		
					.065	
		Once a week	15	251	•455	
		Few a month	27	096	.295	
		Almost never	44	.408	.393	
5-55	103	Police Treatment of Bla	cks ⁹ .			
3 33	100	Very poorly (0)	25	.285	52/	
	-	• POOLITY (0)	۷2	. 203	.534	
•		•				
		5	89	.237	158	
		•		,	,,,,,	
		•				
		Extremely well (0)	76	241	077	

Table 5 (continued)
FEAR AS A DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Subtable		Variable/Response			Mean	
Number	#VAR	Category	N	AArea	Property	Person
5-56	104	Police Treat Spanish				
	•	Very poorly (0)	24	.289		
		•				·
		, •				
		5	77	.229		
		•				
		Extremely well (1	n) 79	160		
			0, .5			
5-57	101	Police Treat People:	* *			
$\frac{2^{k_1}-1}{2^{k_2}} = \frac{k_1}{k_2} = \frac{1}{2^{k_2}}$		Good	359	042	038	
		Not good	66	.390	.238	
		_				
5-58	148	Police do not Understa	<u>nd</u> :		•	
		Agree	162	.203		
		Disagree	267	108		
.						
5-59	150	Police Work on Wrong P		-		
		Agree	154	.202	.160	. •
		Disagree	257	 045	033	
5-60	149	Police Try to do Best:				
3-00	147	Agree	347	095	055	
		Disagree	100	3.54	 055	
		Disagree	100	3.94	.212	
5 -6 1	89	Police Respond Quickly	:			
		Right away	284	072	~. 085	023
		Take a while	82	.560	.495	.309
		Do not know	88	339	255	221
5-62	100	Date Dalder T.I. C. 1				
J-02	100	Rate Police Job in the			0.57	. 101
		Very good Good enough	130 198	 176	254	131
•		Not so good	79	.006 .310	.043	.001
		Not good at all	37	.260	.219 .473	.197
		not good at all	51	.200	•4/3	.297
5-63	152	Reporting to Police a V	Naste:o	f Time:		
		Agree	138	.198		
		Disagree	323	075		
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,						

Table 6
FEAR AS AN INDEPENDENT VARIABLE

									C o 1	u m	n %	1						
Subtable Number	#Var	Variable/Response Category	G/C ²	1	Are	ea - 3	4	G/C	Pr 1	roper 2	-	4	G/c	7	Pers	son 3	4	
6-1	61	Days outside home 4 None Some											19 ⁵	30			47	
6-2	66	Walk in n. day Sometimes Never						.14	74	48	67	62	.10	74	78	61	64	
6-3	67	Walk in n. night Sometimes						.14	39	46	33	28	.22	44	48	29	24	
6-4	68	Escorted Yes No Not walk at night	.12	8 18 74	10 32 57	10 33 57	12 19 68	.12	7 31 62	16 29 54	9 25 66	10 17 73	.15	12 31 57	12 35 53	9 20 70	8 15 77	
· ·	;	Marginal N ⁶		117	116	119	114		117	116	116	116		118	116	118	113	

¹ Each column sums to 100%. Round-up errors are expected.

- 1: Least fearful
- 2: Less fearful
- 3: More fearful
- 4: Most fearful

² Depending on the level of measurement, either Gamma (ordinal and higher) or Cramer' V (nominal) is used.

^{3 &}quot;l" indicated the lowest 25% of scores on the scale, "2" next 25%, "3" next 25%, and "4" the highest 25%. In other words, "l" is low fear while "4" is high fear.

⁴ Numeric value of each response category is in the order of numbers, i.e., for V61 none (1), some (2).

⁵ Values greater than 1 (.1) or less than -1 (-.1) are reported.

⁶ Total N is around 450 for most of the tables; it is almost equally divided into four groups. Therefore, marginal Ns are not reported hereafter. Items from screened questions have less total N; in such a case, see Tables 5 for the exact N.

Table 6 (continued)
FEAR AS AN INDEPENDENT VARIABLE

Subtable		Variable/Response			Are	a		-	Со	l u r Prop		%		Р	erso	n		
Number	#Var	Category	G/C	1	2	3	4	G/C	1	2	3	4	G/C	1	2	3	4	
6-5	69	Drive to avoid w. Yes	7					22	5	9 63	68	77	13	61	62	75	68	
6-6	70	Carry protection No Yes	.19	93	92	92	86	.13		2 92	90	89						
6-7	76	Valuable engraved Yes No	15	9	19	23	18			•								
6-8	74	None home evenings Never Sometimes	_								•		13	57	48	53	68	
6-9	40	Recognize stranger Yes No	<u>^s</u>										.20	55	43	33	38	

When response category is dichotomous, only one distribution is reported. Substraction from 100 will give the distribution of the not-reported category.

Table 6 (continued)
FEAR AS AN INDEPENDENT VARIABLE

Subtable Number	#Var	Variable/Response Category	G/C	1	Are		4	G/(0 1 1	u m Prope 2		% 4	G/C	P€ 1	rson 2	3	4	
6-10	41	Seen suspicious stranger Yes No	51	14	23	43	54	30	5	20	28	36	50	33	20	33	33	50	
6-11	43	Do anything about stranger Check Call police Ignore 8 Marginal N.	.14	27 40 33 15	18 37 41 27	20 23 57 51	14 35 50 62	.1!	5	13 26 61 15	9 48 42 21	22 32 44 41	22 26 52 58	.13	23 36 41 22	18 42 37 38	15 26 59 39	18 29 54 56	
6-12	45	N. help each other Yes No						.11	I	58	47	41	48						
6-13	77	Neighbors watch hom Yes No	<u>ie</u>					14	1	47	48	52	60			• .			
6-14	78	Watch how often All the time Special occasion	12	57	63	60	69							19	57	61	.55	77	
6-15	86	Neighbors concerned Not much Some A lot	<u>l</u> 15	15 41 29	20 47 33	15 47 38	31 40 29	10	0	19 40 40	15 49 39	19 48 33	29 37 34	14	17 43 40	14 54 32	16 42 41	34 37 29	

⁸ Includes only those having reported seeing a suspicious stranger

Table 6 (continued)
FEAR AS AN INDEPENDENT VARIABLE

Subtable		Variable/Response			۸			-	C		u m						~ ~		
Number	#Var	Category	G/C	1	Are 2		4	G/C			oper 2	ty 3	4	G/C	P6	ersor 2) . 3	4	•
6-16	84	Neighbors join l.g. None Few Most	13	35 50 18	27 63 10	30 62 8	38 53 8												
6-17	83	Neighbors help p. None Few Most	34	18 51 30	22 68 11	27 59 14	48 42 10	20)	26 52 22	20 61 19	28 64 9	41 45 14	23	24 50 25	22 65 14	28 60 12	41 47 12	
6-18	82	Neighbors report c. None A few Most	17	12 58 30	18 51 31	14 59 26	32 46 21	17		18 50 32	13 57 30	16 60 23	31 46 23	17	14 53 33	15 60 25	19 56 26	30 46 24	* · ·
6-19	51	Attend n. meetings Yes No	30	9	17	18	19	t				· ·			•				\$
6-20	55	Groups do good A lot Some/Not much	.28	50	37	40	18	.26		43	41	36	23	.14	41	39	39	24	
6-21	46	Feel part of N-hood Yes No						.21		56	43	36	38	.20	58	39	36	39	
6-22	63	Park, a place to go Yes No	.31	63	43	45	31	.18		55	46	42	38	.27	55	56	36	34	
6-23	47	Neighborhood became Better Worse Same	.20	12 26 62	9 28 63	15 37 48	10 58 32	.17		19 24 57	8 29 63	10 47 43	9 48 42	.19	12 24 64	15 28 57	10 40 50	10 57 34	

Table 6 (continued)
FEAR AS AN INDEPENDENT VARIABLE

									C o 1	u m	n %	<u>′</u>						
Subtable Number	#Var	Variable/Response Category	G/C	1	Area 2	3	4	G/C		oper 2	ty 3	4	G/C	Ре 1	rson 2	3	4	•
6-24	50	N-hood will become Better Worse Same	.19	24 30 46	15 49 36	25 53 22	25 58 17	.18	31 31 38	16 45 39	18 57 25	24 55 20	.19	24 34 43	21 38 40	22 57 20	60	
6-24A	3 ¹	24 minus 23 Better Worse Same		12 4 -16	6 21 -27	10 16 -26	15 0 -15		12 7 -19	8 16 -24	8 10 -18	15 7 -22		12 10 -23	6 10 -17	17	12 3 -16	
6-24B		24A ÷ 23 Better Worse		100 15	67 75	67 43	150 0		63 29	100 55		167 15		100 42	40 36	120 43	120 5	
6-24C		Better (24B) Worse (24B)		6.7	.9	1.6	0 I		2.1	1.8	3.8	3 11.1		2.4	1.1	2.8	3 24	
6-25	131	Crime in the	.37					.40					.43		•			1.1
		neighborhood Down The same Up	e 1	10 72 19	12 67 23	18 42 40	7 29 64		17 66 17	12 65 23	9 43 48	10 33 57		.16 70 14	10 61 29	13 49 38	8 26 65	
6-26	154		41					30	•				51					
		always go Up		27	30	38	65		28	35	41	55		20	26	52	62	
6-27	87	See police on foot Sometimes	1 19	14	20	35	24	.21	33	25	17	18						• .

⁹ Due to rounding errors

¹⁰ Infinite

¹¹ Statistics are from original response categories - variable is collapsed here for space.

Table 6 (continued)
FEAR AS AN INDEPENDENT VARIABLE

Subtable Number	#Var	Variable/Response Category	G/C	1	Are 2	a 3	4	G/		Prop		<u>%</u> 4	_ G/C	1	Pers	on 3	4
6-28	88	See police in car ¹² Sometimes Almost never	2					.18	95	92	93	82					
6-29	101	Police treat people Good Not good	<u>-</u> .28	89	85	90	73	.24	89	86	84	78	.12	86	85	89	78
6-30	148	Police do not understand Agree Disagree	24	32	29	37	52										
6-31	150	Police work on w.p. Agree Disagree	22	30	33	36	49	13	29	40	36	43		•			
6-32	149	Police try to do best Agree Disagree	.34	84	83	82	61	.19		77	79	70	.12	79	79	82	70
6-33	152	Reporting to p. Waste of time Not waste of time	16	28	23	28	40	14	27	27	28	38					
6-34	93	Satisfied with p. Very much Somewhat Not too much Not at all	.29	72 12 12 4	55 15 12 17	41 31 15 13	34 28 9 28	.34	75 25 -//	40 32 19 8	46 20 16 18	37 21 10 32	.16	53 24 16 8	51 17 17 15	49 26 8 18	37 29 9 26

¹² Statistics are from original response categories - variable is collapsed here for space.

¹¹ No case.

Table 7-1 COMBINATION OF SCALES*

	Scales				
Area	Property	Person		Percent*	k
Н	H	Н		12.5	
L	L	L		12.0	
H	M	H		5.4	
L	M	L		5.4	
M	M	M		5.4	
••	**			J.4	
M	H	H		5.2	
M	Ĺ	M		4.9	
M	M	L	•	4.7	
H	H	M		4.5	
M	H	M		4.1	
F1	11	rı		4.1	
L	L	M		3.9	
M	L	M		3.7	
H	M	M		3.7	
L	M	M		3.4	
L	H	M		2.6	
ш.	п	M		2.0	
M	М	Н		2.4	
H	L	M		1.9	
L	L	Н		1.7	
L				1.7	
H	H M	H L		1.7	
н	M	L		1.5	
L	M	Н		1.3	
L	H				
		L		1.3	
M	L	H		1.3	
M	H	L	•	1.3	
H	L	L		1.3	
Н	H	L		.8	
		Total	Percent:	100.0	
		Total		465	

^{* &}quot;H"--high fear (top 33 percent)
"M"--medium fear (middle 34 percent)
"L"--low fear (low 33 percent)

^{**} Proportion of respondents with the given combination of scores.

Table 7-2 COMBINATION OF SCALES*

	Scales		
Area Pi	coperty	Person	Percent**
L	L	L	32.9
H	Н	Н	21.9
L	Н	L	10.3
L	Н	Н	9.5
L H	L L	H H	6.5 6.5
H H	L H	L L	6.2 6.2
		Total Percent: Total N:	100.0 465

^{* &}quot;L" indicates low fear on the given scale. "H" indicates high fear on the given scale.

A score on a scale is low if it is below the mean and high if it is above the mean.

^{**} Proportion of respondents with given combination of scores on the three scales. For instance, 32.9 percent of the respondents express low fear on all three scales.

Table 7-3
COMBINATION OF FEAR AND SEX OF RESPONDENT

			Cor	nbinatio	n of Fe	ear*				
Sex	N	111**	112	121	122	211	212	221	222	Total
Female	286	29.7	8.4	10.5	12.9	5.9	7.0	4.5	21.0	99.9
Male	179	38.0	3.4	10.1	3.9	6.7	5.6	8.9	23.5	100.1

Missing observations = 91 Cramer's V = .2088

- * Possible combination of dichotomies of fear of crimes against persons, property and area.
 - 1: low fear, i.e., below the mean of the scale
 - 2: high fear, i.e., above the mean of the scale

For example:

- 111 = respondents with low fear on three scales
- 112 = respondents with low fear of area and property but with high fear of crimes against persons
- 222 = respondents with high fear on three scales

** XYZ: X = fear of area

Y = fear of crimes against property

Z = fear of crimes against person

Therefore, for example, "212" indicates high fear (above the mean) on area, low fear (below the mean) on property, and high fear (above the mean) on person.

Note: Further subdivisions of scales would give more refined types. But, such types would be too numerous to be useful for the given sample size.

Table 7-4
CRAMER'S V BETWEEN SELECTED VARIABLES AND FEAR-TYPES

#VAR	Selected Variable	Cramer's V
158	Race	.164
26	Age of the household head*	.186
28	Marital status (HH)	.137
24	Sex	.208
155	Education*	.159
30	Length of residency*	.157
33	Where lived before*	.111
55	Groups do good	.181
86	Neighbors concerned	.183
45	Neighbors help each other	.191
46	Feel part of neighborhood	.199
166	Cooperative (for interview)	.135

^{*} Recoded: V26--(1) 18-29 years; (2) 30-49; (3) 50+

V155--(1) less than H.S.; (2) H.S.;

(3) more than H.S.

V30--(0) less than a year; (1) one year;

(2) 2 years

V33--(4) Hartford; (22) Connecticut; (69) USA; (81) Non-USA

Table 8-1 OUTSIDER BY BUSY-NESS

(GAMMA)

Busy-ness	<u>V57:</u>	Outsider
V56: People on street day V58: People on street night V59: Traffic, day V60: Traffic, night		.262 .237 .302 .206

V56, V58, V59, V60: (1) none (4) (5) a lot V57 : (1) no outsiders (3) most outsiders

Table 8-2 PERCEPTION OF OUTSIDERS BY FEAR CONTROLLING FOR BUSY-NESS (Gamma)

		V57 By							
Controlling		Area		Property			Person		
for N	c ²	z^3	P ⁴	С	Z	P .	С	Ż	Р
V56 (People, day)		.381	.316		.179	.287		.338	.251
A lot 56 Some 151 A few 83 None 145	.279 .376 .369 .254			.092 .123 .301 .069			.003 .384 .538 .242		
V58 (People, night)	2.1	.376	.326		.192	.265		.353	.258
A lot 143 Some 145 A few 72 None 81	.334 .415 .051 .303		·	.167 .182 038 .214			.338 .366 .081 .324		
V59 (Traffic, day)		.384	.327		.190	.253		.351	.264
Very busy 32 Busy 60 Moderate 121 Light 111 Very light 119	.728 .457 .361 .306 .284			.385 .182 .153 .232 .146			.292 .092 .280 .423		
V60 (Traffic, night)		.383	.333		.191	.242		.352	.267
Very busy 69 Busy 113 Moderate 117 Light 84 Very light 63	.633 .198 .432 .329 .225			.307 .021 .125 .279 .203			.411 .120 .402 .365 .317		

Response categories of V56, V58, V59, and V60 are reversed to change signs of Gamma, e.g., V56:

Questionnaire	Recode for Gamma
1. A 1ot	1. None
2. Some	2. A few
3. A few	3. Some
4. None	4. A lot

² C = Conditional Gamma

³ Z = Zero-order Gamma

⁴ P = First-order partial Gamma

Table 8-3
BUSY-NESS BY FEAR CONTROLLING FOR OUTSIDER (Gamma)

		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		Contro	olling :	for V57				
		Area	 		Property			Person		
N	C	Z	P	С	Z	P	С	Z	P	
V56 (People, day)		.311	.255		.116	.142		.194	.180	
Most live here 239 About half 124 Most outsider 72	.250 .273 .258			.045 .155 .032			.079 .203 .114			
V58 (People, night)	}	.394	.196		.193	.196		.278	.204	
Most live here 243 About half 127 Most outsider 71	.371 .254 .439			.160 .168 .161			.232 .240 .224			
V59 (Traffic, day)		.227	.195		.045	.162		.192	.184	
Most live here 246 About half 125 Most outsider 72	.231 .003 .183	÷		.001 .007 014			.114 .103 .181			
V60 (Traffic, night)	•	.259	.171		.144	.166		.242	.173	
Most live here 246 About half 128 Most outsider 72	.271 .120 .268			.076 .116 .270			.183 .207 .276			

Table 9-1 VARIABLES IN PATH MODELS

Name A47	Source	<u>Meaning</u>	<u>Value</u>
A47	V47	Neighborhood change	 became better other
B47	V47	Neighborhood change	 became worse other
BUSY		Degree of busy-ness	O. not busy at all
		Construction: (V56+V58+V59+V60)/N where N is the number of questions validly answered	 4.5 very busy
	V56* V58*	Number of people, day Number of people, night	l. almost none
			4. a lot
	V59* V60*	Traffic, day Traffic, night	<pre>1. very light</pre>
			5. very busy
V57	V57	Perceived residence of people on the street	 most live here half and half most from outside
V14 5	V145	Victim of crime	0. no 1. yes
FAREA	+	Fear of problematic elements in the neighborhood <u>area</u>	-2. very low fear
FPRPRTY	+	Fear of crimes against property	•••
FPERSON	+	<u>F</u> ear of crimes against <u>person</u>	2. very high fear

No change in the reference category.

^{*} Reverse of the original codes of the questionnaire

⁺ Factor scales

Table 9-2 DISTRIBUTION OF VARIABLES IN THE PATH MODELS

Α.	Distributions

77 1 - 1 - 1		Standard	e de la companya de l
Variable	Mean	Deviation	Cases
Busy	2.8425	.8619	427
V56	2.7354	1.0605	427
V58	2.2178	1.0928	427
V59	3.5059	1.2302	427
V60	2.9110	1.2806	427
V57	1.6183	.7549	427
V145	.4356	.4964	427
A47	.1171	.3219	427
B47	.3653	.4821	427
FAREA	.0278	.9670	427
FPRPRTY	.0214	.9190	427
FPERSON	.0125	.9617	427

B. Inter-Item and "Busy" Scale Correlation

Variable	Busy	V56	V58	V59
V56	.66888			
V58	.68011	.44483	· · .	
V59	.77211	.31696	.23389	
V60	.81617	.28856	.38458	.65594

C. Correlation among Variables

Variable Busy	V5 7	V145	A47	B47	FAREA	FPRPRTY
	•					
V57 .29341						
V145 .18540	.16288					
A4701164	09576	04083				•
B47 .26026	.21640	.14759	27631			
FAREA .37377	.27011	.30707	01316	.26963	•	
FPRPRTY .15612	.12515	.24871	 09244	.20111	.36835	
FPERSON .29290	.25599	.18069	08190	.27775	.56423	.46402

Table 9-3
BETA WEIGHTS AND MULTIPLE R

Independent	Dependent Variables							
Variables	Busy	Crime	Worse	Area	Property	Person		
Outsider	.293	.121	.143	.128	III 62 64	.146		
Busy		.150	.202	.259		.184		
Victimized			*	.217	.208	.095		
Worse				.142	.144	.184		
Multiple R	.293	.219	.299	.486	.299	.400		
Multiple \mathbb{R}^2	.086	.048	.089	.236	.089	.160		
% outliers**			. 4.	4.5	1.6	3.5		

^{* &}quot;---" insignificant beta weight. A given Beta weight (standardized partial-regression coefficient) is significant when its F ratio is significant at the .05 level.

^{**} Residual outliers (i.e., greater than abs (2SD)).

Table 9-4
TRANSMITTANCE OF VARIABLES

Variabl e	Outsider	Busy	Crime	Worse
A. Area				
Simple R	.270	.374	.310	.270
Beta weight	.128	.259	.217	.142
Via: Worse Crime Busy	.020 .026 .094	.029		•
Transmittance	.268	.321	.217	.142
B. Property				
Simple R	.125	.156	.249	.201
Beta Weight			.208	.144
Via: Worse Crime Busy	.021 .025 .018	.029		
Transmittance	.064	.060	.208	.144
C. <u>Person</u>				
Simple R	.256	.293	.181	.278
Beta Weight	.146	.184	.095	.184
Via: Worse Crime Busy	.022 .011 .069	.037		
Transmittance	.248	.235	.095	.184

FIGURE 8

SCATTERGRAM OF FEAR OF AREA AND FEAR OF PERSON

07/20/76 (CREATION DATE = 06/02/76)
(DOWN) FAREA FEAR OF NEIGHBORHOOD CRIMES HART75 SCATTERGRAM OF (DOWN) FAREA (ACROSS) FPERSON FEAR OF PERSON CRIME -.90173 -.52999 .21350 .58525 1.32874 1.70048 2.1279 2.1279 1.8001 1.8001 1,4723 1,4723 1.1445 1.1445 .8166 .8166 **.**4888 •4888 .1610 .1610 -.1668 -.1668 -.4947 -.4947 -.8225 -.8225 -1.1503 -1.1503 •02763 -1.45935 -1.08761 -.34412 . 39938 1.14287 1.51461 1.88636 2.25810

					07/20/76	PAGE	17
;	STATISTICS		•				
۵.	CORRELATION (R)-	•56080	R SQUARED -	•31450	SIGNIFICANCE R		.00001
	STD ERR OF EST -	.79712	INTERCEPT (A) -	•00002	STD ERROR OF A -		.03697
La.	SIGNIFICANCE A -	•49984	SLOPE (B) -	.56451	STD ERROR OF B -	. ,	. 03873
-	SIGNIFICANCE B -	•00001					
	PLOTTED VALUES -	465	EXCLUDED VALUES-	0	MISSING VALUES -		91
		•					

****** IS PRINTED IF A COEFFICIENT CANNOT BE COMPUTED.

FIGURE 9

SCATTERGRAM OF FEAR PERSON AND FEAR OF PROPERTY

E HART75 ATTERGRAM C	75 (CREATION DATE = 06/02/76) CF (DOWN) FPERSON FEAR OF PERSON CRIME (ACROSS) FPRPRTY FEAR	OF PROPERTY CRIME	• •
•	-1.76156 -1.37313984695962520781 .18063 .56906 .95750 1	1.73438	•
2.2581 ·			2.258
101 I 1,08864 +	1		1.886
1.5146			1.514
1.1429 +		* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	1.142
.7711 + I	I	* I ! + I	•771
.3994 + .1 .1	1	* I	•399
.0276		* 5* I	•02:
-,3441 •	I * * I * * * I 2 * * * I 2 * * * I 2 * * * I 2 * * * *	**	~. 344
7159 +	I	1 1 + 1	715
-1.0876	1	* I	-1.08
1 I -1.4594 •	I 5538 2 * * * * * * I I	I I I	-1.45

1				07/20/76 PAGE	21
* +: f . *	6 (** X) ×	San Marian Control	•		1.
STATISTICS			2.		
CORRELATION (R)-	•47039	R SQUARED -	•22127	SIGNIFICANCE R +	.00001
STD ERR OF EST -	. 84403	INTERCEPT (A) =	•77044E-05	STD EPROR OF A -	.03914
SIGNIFICANCE A -	•49992	SLOPE (B) -	•49021	STD EPROR OF B .	.04274
SIGNIFICANCE B -	•00001		•		
PLOTTED VALUES -	465	EXCLUDED VALUES-	o	MISSING VALUES -	91
	9		: ·	*	
1 A	1 .				

SCATTERGRAM OF FEAR OF AREA AND FEAR OF PROPERTY

	-1.76156 -1.373		GHBORHOOD CRIMES 59625 20781	_		AR OF PROPERTY CRIME 1.34594 1.73438	<u>.</u>
79			1 - 120101	********	.56906 ; .95750	1.34594 1.73438	9 1970
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I 668 +#		* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	1	****	I 4 4	• • • I	~ ₀1666
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I	• •	** * *	* *! ** ** **	*.	1 **	**	
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I		, *23 * * * 233*	1 4 4 3 4 4	•	I 3 2	* 1	!
503 +		* 780244 **	5 [* ** * *	*	1+5		-1.150

ISTICS	V VV		1, 1	07/20/76	PAGE 19
RELATION (R)-	•38356	R SQUARED '-	•14712	SIGNIFICANCE R -	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
) ERR OF EST -	.88912	INTERCEPT (A) -	•00002	STD ERROR OF A -	.04123
INIFICANCE A -	.49979 .00001	SLOPE (B) -	•40236	STD ERROR OF 8 -	•04502
TTED VALUES -	465	EXCLUDED VALUES-	0	MISSING VALUES -	91

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FIGURE II

A MODEL OF FEAR

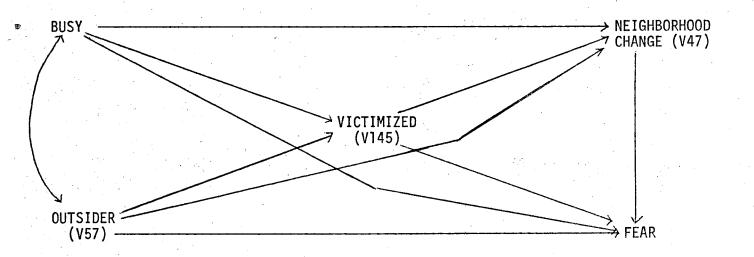
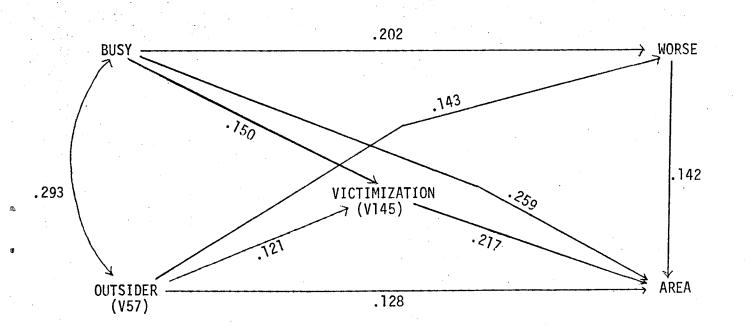


FIGURE 12

FEAR OF AREA



FEAR OF PROPERTY CRIME

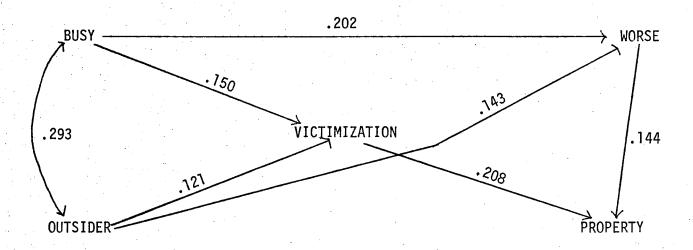


FIGURE 14

FEAR OF CRIMES AGAINST PERSON

