

103056



U.S. Department of Justice
National Institute of Justice

This document has been reproduced exactly as received from the person or organization originating it. Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the National Institute of Justice.

Permission to reproduce this copyrighted material has been granted by

Public Domain/NIJ

~~U.S. Department of Justice~~

to the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS).

Further reproduction outside of the NCJRS system requires permission of the copyright owner.

CRIME STOPPERS: A NATIONAL EVALUATION
OF PROGRAM OPERATIONS AND EFFECTS

(Executive Summary)

Prepared by

Dennis P. Rosenbaum, Ph.D.
Principal Investigator

Arthur J. Lurigio, Ph.D.
Project Manager

and

Paul J. Lavrakas, Ph.D.
Co-Principal Investigator

May 5, 1986

Center for Urban Affairs and Policy Research
Northwestern University
Evanston, IL 60201

This report was prepared under Cooperative Agreement #NIJ-83-IJ-CX-K050 between Northwestern University and the National Institute of Justice, U.S. Department of Justice. Any opinions expressed are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the official position of the National Institute of Justice or Northwestern University. We wish to thank Dr. Richard Rau, our Project Monitor, for his thoughtful advice and helpful feedback throughout the project.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	i
SUMMARY.....	iii
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
A. Background.....	1
B. Scope of the National Evaluation.....	3
II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	6
A. Literature Review.....	6
B. Telephone Screening Surveys.....	7
C. The National Mail Questionnaire.....	7
D. Case Studies and Site Visits.....	9
III. A SUMMARY OF THE RELEVANT LITERATURE.....	11
A. The Use of Informants.....	11
B. Bystander Intervention and Victim's Crime Reporting Behavior.....	13
C. Rewards, Anonymity, and Crime Reporting.....	14
D. The Participation of Mass Media in Crime Prevention...	18
IV. WHAT WERE SOME OF THE MAJOR FINDINGS?.....	21
A. How Does Crime Stoppers Work?.....	21
B. What Are the Advantages and Disadvantages?.....	32
V. WHAT ARE THE CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS?.....	51

NOTES

REMARKS

RECOMMENDATIONS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We commence our acknowledgements with the hope that we have properly cited all the persons who lent support and encouragement to our endeavor. First, we are grateful to a cadre of nationally-recognized Crime Stoppers practitioners, who were available throughout the project to meticulously review and comment upon drafts of instruments and reports, and to offer sage advice on the execution of our research plans. Among these individuals, we extend special thanks to Greg MacAleese, Ron Hauri, Chuck Jackson, Coleman Tily and Larry Weida.

Second, considerable gratitude is due to the participants in the project's two specialized case studies. Their conscientious attention to detail and their sincere commitment to the research in spirit and practice guaranteed that the investigations were completed in strict accordance with timetables and procedures. This group includes Waukegan Police Chief Ron Hauri, Mike Holiday, and Corporal Jerry Pankauskas of Lake County, Illinois, and Lieutenant Moore and Deputy Chief Joseph Shelton of Indianapolis, Indiana.

Third, there were those who graciously accepted us into the confines of their programs and communities for indepth site visits. Their hospitality, friendliness, and cooperation exceeded far beyond our expectations. We are indebted to Sergeant C.T. Smith of Denver, Colorado, Sam McKeeman of Wilmington, Delaware, Investigator Susan Moore of Tuscon, Arizona, Detective Peter Geidl of Portland, Oregon, Lieutenant Tim Kline and Ray Duran of Albuquerque, New Mexico, Officer John Kopensparger of Alexandria, Virginia, and Officer Gary Schiedecker of Bozeman, Montana. A special thanks goes out to the Chairpersons, Police Investigators and Media representatives within these cities who took time away from busy schedules to elaborate on the origins and operations of their programs. We also extend our gratitude to Sergeant Gary Shelton of Mt. Airy, North Carolina who sent us a wealth of material about his program.

Fourth, we wish to express our appreciation to those who volunteered in the arduous process of collecting data. Dr. Roy Soloff, Greg MacAleese, Coleman Tily,

Chuck Jackson, Tex Martin, Sam Walsh, Susan Moore, George Ludington, Larry Wieda, Beverly Richardson and others cajoled, coerced, and wheedled Coordinators and Chairpersons to complete mail questionnaires, which no doubt have left a substantial number of them with a lifelong disdain "for academics and their damn surveys." Nonetheless, we are indebted to the survey respondents in law enforcement, the media, and the board of directors who took this research seriously and made this project possible by completing lengthy questionnaires.

Fifth, we acknowledge the support and assistance of our national advisory board comprised of Paul Berry, Program Director, WJLA in Washington, D.C., Dr. Lee Brown, Chief of Police, Houston, Texas, Joseph Koziol, Chief of Police, Portsmouth, Virginia, Greg MacAleese (again), Founder of Crime Stoppers and Program Coordinator, Texas Crime Stoppers Advisory Council, William Swadley, Former Chair of the Board of Directors, Rockford Illinois Crime Stoppers and Charles Jackson, President, Crime Stoppers International. We are especially grateful for their conscientious technical critique of our work from which this report greatly profited.

Finally, we are indebted to many people in the U.S. Department of Justice who made this evaluation possible. Lois Herrington, Assistant Attorney General and James Stewart, Director of the National Institute of Justice each demonstrated strong support for this project and actively participated in our national advisory board meeting. Dr. Fred Heinzelmenn was continually involved in the project, serving as "the voice of reason" and offering many good suggestions. We reserve our last and certainly our highest kudos for Dr. Richard Rau, the Crime Stoppers project monitor. Dick was with us each and every step of the way, providing invaluable recommendations, exhortations and guidance. He was truly instrumental in inaugurating and bringing this project to fruition.

DPR
AJL
PAL

SUMMARY

The National Evaluation of Crime Stoppers Programs was a two-year research project designed to examine, for the first time, how Crime Stoppers works, to identify the primary advantages and disadvantages of the program to local communities and law enforcement, and to discuss the policy implications of these findings.

A variety of methodologies and data sources were employed to collect information about Crime Stoppers Programs. In addition to reviewing and synthesizing the literature in the field, several national surveys were conducted, including a telephone screening survey of all known programs, and separate mail questionnaires to Program Coordinators, Chairpersons of the Board of Directors, and executives from participating media outlets. Also, two sites were selected as experimental case studies to examine the impact of current Crime Stoppers practices. Seven other sites were selected for in-person visits to collect additional information about program operations.

Key Findings

The following are some of the main empirical observations to emerge from this national assessment:

Program Description

- o Crime Stoppers is a highly standardized program. Although programs may differ in their degree of success, virtually all Crime Stoppers programs are comprised of the same actors -- a program coordinator (usually within the police department), detectives who investigate the cases, a board of directors representing the community, one or more media outlets, and citizen callers who provide tips. Furthermore, virtually all programs offer rewards and anonymity to callers, even though the reward amounts and criteria sometimes vary.

- o A major distinguishing feature is the type of service area. Many programs serve primarily rural, suburban, or urban areas, and the nature of the program varies accordingly. For example, urban programs place great emphasis on the use of televised crime reenactments, whereas rural programs rely on weekly newspapers to bring cases to the attention of local citizens. About half of the programs serve a mixture of urban, suburban, and/or rural areas, and the available resources/needs generally dictate the configuration of the program.
- o The number of Crime Stoppers programs is growing at a rapid pace, from only 48 known programs in 1980 to an estimated 600 programs by the end of 1985.
- o Program "networking" has developed at the local, state, regional, national, and international levels. In their initial stages of operation, two-thirds of the programs surveyed received a substantial amount of help and advice from existing programs. Moreover, there is a widespread practice of sharing services and resources via multi-jurisdictional programs.

Perceptions and Attitudes About Crime Stoppers

- o Crime Stoppers was found to be highly visible and well received by a national random sample of media executives. Ninety (90) percent of the media executives surveyed were aware of the concept, even though a large majority was not participating in Crime Stoppers at the time. Furthermore, nearly two-thirds of the respondents reported that their organization would be "very likely" to participate if a local program were to start.
- o Local and national surveys indicate that Crime Stoppers is looked upon very favorably by persons involved with the program. The enthusiasm for the program is very strong among police coordinators, the board of directors, and participating media executives, and each group views the program as quite successful.
- o Although most interested parties have expressed favorable attitudes toward this relatively new strategy of crime control, a small number of critics, including journalists, defense attorneys, and legal scholars, have expressed misgivings about Crime Stoppers. Given the program's focus on anonymous callers and sizeable reward payments, a variety of concerns have been registered, ranging from questions about civil rights and privacy, to complaints about undermining citizens' "civic duty" to report crime without pay. Survey results in one major city revealed that the public

shares some of these reservations. Yet many feel that Crime Stoppers can be an effective tool for leading to the arrest of criminals.

Effectiveness of Crime Stoppers

- o In terms of their ability to "stop" crime, these programs can report a number of impressive statistics in their short history. Collectively, they have solved 92 thousand felony crimes, recovered 562 million dollars in stolen property and narcotics, and convicted more than 20,000 criminals. However, there is little reason to believe that Crime Stoppers programs will immediately or substantially reduce the overall crime rate in most communities. While numerous crimes are cleared through these programs, their successes amount to only a small fraction of the total volume of serious crimes committed each year in most communities.
- o Crime Stoppers can be viewed as a cost-effective program by taxpayers. Funding for most programs is provided by private contributions. For every crime solved, Crime Stoppers recovers, on the average, more than 6,000 dollars in stolen property and narcotics. Nationally, a felony case was solved for every 73 dollars spent in caller reward money. However, this figure is difficult to interpret without comparable data on other crime control strategies.
- o The available anecdotal evidence suggests that Crime Stoppers programs are able to solve certain felony cases that are unlikely to be solved through traditional criminal investigations or by devoting a "reasonable" amount of law enforcement resources. The program was specifically developed to handle "dead-ends" cases, and indeed, Crime Stoppers has repeatedly "cracked" cases that have remained unsolved after a substantial investment of investigative time. The difference in effectiveness in these cases is believed to be the result of wide-spread media coverage, the promise of anonymity, and/or the opportunity for a sizeable reward.

The Impact of Citizen Attitudes and Participation

- o Crime Stoppers is intended to stimulate citizen participation in the fight against crime both in the private and public sectors. In addition to a regular commitment from media companies, the program has been able to generate citizen involvement as callers, contributors, and active members of the board of directors. The thousands of calls received from anonymous callers and the millions of dollars in paid rewards are clearly indicative of community support and

citizen participation. Nevertheless, as with many crime control programs, the base of community involvement appears to be concentrated in certain subgroups of the population who have the needed resources. Specifically, financial support comes primarily from the business community (although telethons and other broad community appeals are increasingly used as fund-raising techniques). Moreover, the majority of anonymous tips -- especially those that are perceived as useful -- come from either the criminals themselves or "fringe players" (i.e. persons who associate with the criminal element).

- o The results of a special impact study conducted in Indianapolis, Indiana suggest that a new urban Crime Stoppers program, with strong media cooperation, can quickly and dramatically increase people's awareness of this new opportunity for citizen participation in anti-crime activities. However, the findings also demonstrate that one should not expect residents, police officers, or business persons to change their attitudes and behaviors about crime prevention or Crime Stoppers within a relatively short period of time (in this case, six months).
- o A caller's level of satisfaction and willingness to continue using Crime Stoppers is widely believed to be influenced by the size of the reward given after a case has been solved. However, a controlled experiment in Lake County, Illinois, challenges this notion, showing that variations in reward size had virtually no effect on the caller's satisfaction and intentions to participate in the future.

Factors Associated with Program Productivity

Program productivity was measured by the number of calls received (per 100,000 population), the quality of calls (as indicated by the number of cases forwarded to investigators), the number of suspects arrested (per 1,000 Part I crimes), and the number of cases cleared or solved (per 1,000 Part I crimes).

- o With regard to the law enforcement component, the best predictors of program productivity at the national level were the program coordinator's level of effort and job satisfaction. Coordinators who work more hours, make more public speaking engagements, and report more job satisfaction were involved in more productive Crime Stoppers than those reporting less activity and satisfaction. However, if a causal

relationship exists, it is unclear whether the coordinator's effort or perceptions affect program productivity, or the influence works in the reverse direction.

- o The number of media outlets that participate in a Crime Stoppers program did not affect the level of program performance. However, programs that received more special coverage (e.g. front page or news time coverage) and those who reported more cooperative relationships with the media enjoyed greater success. The importance of establishing a consistently cooperative relationship with the media in the early phases of program development was emphasized by program coordinators as a means of preventing problems and maximizing success.
- o The level of effort exhibited by the board of directors seems to be the predominant factor in determining its level of success. The more time and energy invested by board members, the more success the program experienced with its primary task of fundraising.
- o When program components were compared, ratings of media cooperativeness were consistently more important for predicting program success than were ratings of the police coordinator or the board of directors.
- o Productivity was highest in communities with the lowest crime rates and communities with medium-sized populations (i.e., 100 to 250 thousand).

Record Keeping and Measurement Issues

- o Accurately documenting the performance of Crime Stoppers programs is presently a very difficult task because of measurement problems. There are several identifiable limitations of current record keeping practices: (a) most Crime Stoppers programs do not maintain a full range of basic statistics on productivity and effectiveness; (b) there has been limited standardization of measurement across programs because of definitional problems; and (c) the commonly employed measures of "cases solved" and "property recovered" are biased in favor of large programs (i.e., those serving populations of 250 thousand or more) and programs with a high volume of narcotics cases. In essence, there is a shortage of valid and reliable measures of program activities and effects in this field.

Conclusions and Policy Recommendations

A wide range of conclusions and policy recommendations are offered in the final section of this report. Many of these recommendations are tailored for law enforcement, the board of directors, and the media. Others focus on general issues and concerns facing all Crime Stoppers programs.

In general, these empirically-based suggestions are intended to be of practical significance for individuals seeking to improve existing programs and policies, or persons contemplating the startup of Crime Stoppers in their community.

This national study is, to our knowledge, the first and only social scientific inquiry directed at Crime Stoppers programs. Stated simply, there has been no previous research on this relatively new strategy of crime control. While the present research constitutes an important first step toward understanding the nature and effects of this program, our knowledge is still very limited. Many of the conclusions reached here are tentative and require further substantiation through controlled research.

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background

One of the most rapidly expanding and visible crime control programs in the United States is "Crime Stoppers". Variouslly known as "Crime Solvers," "Secret Witness," and "Crime Line," these self-sustaining programs utilize the mass media, the community, and law enforcement in an unprecedented way to involve private citizens in the fight against serious crime. Based on the premise that many individuals are unwilling to provide information to the police about criminal activity, either because of apathy or fear of retaliation, Crime Stoppers provides cash rewards as an incentive (typically ranging from \$100.00 to \$1000.00), and offers anonymity to persons who come forth with details that lead to the arrest and/or indictment of suspected criminals.

Solving crimes is a difficult job that constantly challenges the law enforcement community. There are many factors that limit the effectiveness of police performance. Of paramount importance is the ability of witnesses and callers to provide reliable information about the identity of suspects. Without this basic information from people who know about the crime incident, the probability of solving any particular offense is drastically reduced (cf. Skogan & Antunes, 1979).

Recognizing the critical role of the private citizen in solving crime, Greg MacAleese, a police officer in Albuquerque, New Mexico, started the first Crime Stoppers program in 1976. Although the Albuquerque program was preceded by other programs in the early 1970s that used cash rewards and anonymity as their primary incentives (see

Bickman & Lavrakas, 1976), Officer MacAleese was the first to feature the media in a central role. Since 1976, Crime Stoppers programs have rapidly appeared across the United States and have been touted as one of the nation's most cost-effective anti-crime measures. A number of programs have recently started in Canada, and adoption is also being considered in European countries.

The proper functioning of Crime Stoppers hinges upon the joint cooperation and concerted efforts of its various elements, which include representatives of the community, the media, and the police department. Each program's board of directors -- reflecting one aspect of the community's contribution to the program -- is responsible for setting policy, coordinating fund raising activities aimed at public and private contributors, and formulating a system of reward allocation. The media play a major role in disseminating basic facts about the program's objectives, general operations, and achievements. Moreover, they serve to regularly publicize the details of unsolved offenses by presenting a reenactment or narrative description of a selected "Crime of the Week". Finally, it is the task of law enforcement personnel to receive and process reported crime information and to direct it to detectives for further investigation. The police coordinator also functions in a variety of other capacities, which entail such tasks as selecting the "Crime of the Week," drafting press releases and radio feeds, consulting in the production of televised crime portrayals, keeping records and statistics on programs performance, and serving as a liaison with the board of directors and the media.

The precipitous growth of Crime Stoppers programs in the past few years is obvious from the statistics. In 1978, there were only 5 Crime Stoppers programs in the United States. Today there are an estimated 600 programs accepting calls, and new programs are emerging on a weekly basis. In addition, national statistics compiled by Crime Stoppers International indicate that the total number of felony crimes reportedly solved by Crime Stoppers programs has increased from 4,683 in 1980 to 92,339 at the end of 1985.

B. The Scope of the National Evaluation

The National Institute of Justice, interested in the possibility that Crime Stoppers might be an effective new strategy for controlling crime and enhancing citizen participation, elected to fund a national evaluation of these programs. If Crime Stoppers is a sound program with benefits for the communities involved, then other communities without this program should be informed about its existence and advised regarding some of the factors that contribute to a successful program.

Given that Crime Stoppers programs had never been evaluated or researched by social scientists, the unanswered questions were numerous. Three general questions were proposed as a guiding framework for this national evaluation. First, How does Crime Stoppers work in both theory and practice? What operations and procedures are involved in making the program function as it should? One major objective of the national evaluation was to better understand the respective roles and functions of the media, the community, and law enforcement as they contribute to the Crime Stoppers program. How do these components operate and interact to achieve such program objectives as effective

media coverage, successful fund raising, and the proper disposition of information supplied by callers? Another objective of the national evaluation was to examine differences that exist as a function of the size and type of populations served by Crime Stoppers. For example, how does the operation of the program differ for large versus small population areas?

A second guiding question was -- What are the advantages and disadvantages of Crime Stoppers programs to law enforcement agencies and the community? Does Crime Stoppers really stop crime? Is it an effective tool for obtaining important suspect-relevant information? How do people feel about Crime Stoppers? What factors are associated with high program productivity? These questions were addressed under this evaluation by examining a number of issues and outcomes associated with Crime Stoppers programs. A variety of performance measures were analyzed, ranging from program productivity to community perceptions. The evaluation also tested a number of hypotheses about the possible impact of Crime Stoppers on the police, the citizenry, the business sector, and callers. At the national level, the primary research agenda was to explore the relationship between measured input variables (e.g. the performance ratings and behaviors of the law enforcement, board, and media components) and measured outcome variables (e.g., performance statistics such as calls received and cases solved).

The final guiding question for the evaluation of Crime Stoppers was -- What are the policy implications of this research for existing or new programs? Specifically, what has been learned from studying these programs that could improve current practices and/or aid in the

development of new programs? One approach to policy analysis focused on operational issues, beginning with the knowledge of which configurations of activities and processes were the most likely to yield high program productivity. After significant relationships between input/process and outcome variables were identified, these findings provided the foundation for selected policy analyses. The main predictor variables were examined in three broad categories: (a) law enforcement and the police coordinator's role, (b) the board of directors, and (c) the media. Special attention was given to the level of cooperation, skill, and resources supplied in each of these critical domains. In addition, techniques of fundraising were carefully examined to evaluate their relative cost-effectiveness. Finally, the payment of rewards is sufficiently important to the Crime Stoppers program that a special randomized experiment was designed to explore the effects of varying reward sizes on callers' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors.

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The National Evaluation of Crime Stoppers Programs was a multi-stage, multi-method research endeavor. A variety of data collection strategies were applied, including literature reviews, telephone and in-person interviews, self-report questionnaires, archival data analyses, case studies, and site visits. This broad and systematic approach was designed to yield a rich knowledge base about the essential aspects of program operations, procedures, and outcomes. The data collection plans were designed to address the three basic questions outlined earlier. Both descriptive and evaluative findings were useful to our policy analysis. The following summarizes the major research activities:

A. Literature Review

Apart from two or three articles describing the origin and operations of Crime Stoppers, there was essentially no scholarly literature to review. A computerized search of more than 70,000 documents kept at the National Criminal Justice Reference Services uncovered less than a dozen that even mentioned the words "Crime Stoppers." Hence, we widened our search to encompass any social science and criminal justice research or expositions that were germane to the fundamental principles and procedures of Crime Stoppers. The literature review encompassed four major topic areas: (a) the use of callers; (b) bystander intervention and victims' reporting of crime; (c) the effects of rewards and anonymity; and (d) the participation of the mass media in public crime prevention efforts.

B. Telephone Screening Surveys

The first stage of the National Evaluation of Crime Stoppers Programs involved a telephone screening interview of known programs whose names, addresses and phone numbers were furnished largely by Crime Stoppers International. The content of the survey consisted of items relating to program length and scope of operations, media coverage, record keeping practices, problems in implementation, and measures of success. The fundamental purpose of the telephone survey was to ascertain the number, status (e.g., operational, discontinued, or planned), type (e.g., city-wide, community-wide, etc.), size (i.e., population served), and location of all existing programs, and to elicit information that would be helpful in constructing detailed data collection instruments for subsequent studies. More than 600 telephone interviews were conducted in February and March of 1984.

A number of state-wide programs were also screened by conducting telephone surveys with the directors of the programs. These surveys explored the development, status, purpose, and day-to-day operations of state-wide programs, as well as their relationships with local programs and their future plans and goals.

C. The National Mail Questionnaires

The completion of the telephone screening survey paved the way for the second stage of the evaluation during which we administered two comprehensive mail questionnaires: a Police Coordinator Survey and a Chairperson of the Board of Directors Survey. In addition to the national surveys of Crime Stoppers programs, we conducted a national study of the media's involvement with, and assessment of, Crime Stoppers.

1. Police Coordinator Survey. In May of 1984, Crime Stoppers' police coordinators across the United States and Canada were mailed a 42-page questionnaire which encompassed the law enforcement, media, and community aspects of the programs. Of the 443 operational programs which were sent the instruments, 203 or 46% of the coordinators completed the questionnaire. The survey was designed to yield a thorough exploration of such topic domains as the police coordinator's background and experience, program development and support, day-to-day operations and procedures, program records and statistics, reward setting and distribution, and program relations with the media, law enforcement, and the board. The police coordinator survey served as the primary data base for our descriptive and inferential analyses of program processes and outcome measures.

2. Board of Directors Survey. In May of 1984, the Board of Directors mail questionnaire was completed by 37% of the Chairpersons, who represented 164 separate programs. This survey examined all basic aspects of the board's functions and responsibilities. Similar to the Police Coordinator questionnaire, the Board of Directors survey comprised a wide gamut of inquiries and issues including the membership and performance of the Board, fundraising strategies, and ratings of the program.

3. Media Executive Survey. Based on a series of unstructured telephone interviews with eight media executives, a detailed structured questionnaire was devised for mailing to executives in two samples of media organizations. The first was a representative sample of media organizations listed by Crime Stoppers Coordinators as participating in their program. This sample was comprised of

newspapers, radio stations, and television stations. The second sample was a random sample of daily newspapers, radio stations, television stations, and cable television companies. This random sample was drawn from annual industry yearbooks listing all operating media organizations in the United States for a given year. The objective of the survey was to gather independent information regarding the media's perception of, and participation in, Crime Stoppers. We were particularly interested in comparing the responses of nonparticipating media outlets with those participating in Crime Stoppers. The media questionnaires were completed in June 1985. A total of 136 or 25% of the surveys were returned by media participating in Crime Stoppers, while 99 or 13% of the surveys were completed by those in the random sample.

D. Case Studies and Site Visits

The third stage of our national evaluation consisted of an in-depth exploration of a number of programs via case studies and extensive site visits. Two programs were chosen for specialized case studies. First, Indianapolis, Indiana was selected as the site to conduct an "Impact Study" examining the effects of introducing a new Crime Stoppers program on community residents, businesses, and police personnel. A pretest-posttest panel design allowed us to examine changes in perceptions, attitudes, and behavior by collecting data before and 6 months following program implementation. Second, Lake County Crime Stoppers in Waukegan, Illinois was selected as the site for a Reward Experiment designed to assess the effects of different reward amounts on the perceptions and behavioral intentions of program callers. A randomized experimental design was employed.

During the final months of the project, seven specially selected Crime Stoppers programs were studied through site visits, while one program was examined by means of telephone interviews and written documents. This phase of our evaluation was structured to elicit insights into program procedures, operations, and problems which were not as likely to emerge from statistical analyses of quantitative survey data. In essence, site visits were conducted to provide a rich understanding of how the program functions across different settings and circumstances and to identify the key issues and concerns facing program participants.

III. A SUMMARY OF THE RELEVANT LITERATURE

As discussed earlier, we reviewed four bodies of literature which are pertinent to the basic principles and procedures of Crime Stoppers programs. Summaries of each of these areas, and the implications of this research for program policy are presented below.

A. The Use of Informants

Despite the widespread disdain with which criminal informants are generally regarded, they are a necessary and integral component of the criminal justice system in America. Evidence offered by informants is frequently instrumental in the apprehension of perpetrators and the solving of serious crimes. Informants, whose motivations for reporting to the police cover a broad spectrum, may be categorized as criminals, criminal accomplices, police informants, fringe players (i.e., persons who are not actively engaging in crimes but are privy to information about criminal activity) and citizen-complainants. Some informants are often valuable to the police because they have criminal contacts and, therefore, information about criminal activities. However, their affiliation with the so-called "criminal element" is often problematic, and requires police agencies to develop clear policies guiding the use of informants to forestall legal and constitutional difficulties. Such policies, if complete, explicate which members of the agency are authorized to bargain with informants, how and when they are compensated, appropriate responses to their law-breaking behavior, and the protection of their identity (Eck, 1983).

The mechanics for developing and paying police informants have been firmly entrenched in most urban police departments for decades.

Conventional wisdom and empirical evidence suggest that police informants are the most useful category of persons who provide information to the police regarding criminal activities (Moore, 1977). However, it does not appear that police informants, as a rule, are involved in the daily operations of most Crime Stoppers programs. Our observations have shown that the law enforcement agencies which house such programs have formulated implicit rules governing transactions with police informants. These rules include prohibiting police informants from "double-dipping," i.e., receiving a financial reward for information from both the police officer/investigator working the case and the Crime Stoppers program. Further, some programs actively prohibit the payment of rewards to known police informants out of a serious concern that their participation in Crime Stoppers would generate adverse publicity and would lend credence to the notion that the program provides a legitimized means for "common criminals to earn a living." More importantly, regular police informants are discouraged from participating in the program to avoid interfering with the crucial relationship these individuals maintain with department detectives.

While many investigators would maintain that the "bottom line" is to solve cases irrespective of the source of information, there is also a consensus that Crime Stoppers should foster the more favorable public image of enlisting law-abiding citizens in the fight against crime, as opposed to drawing the interest of criminals to "rat against" their compatriots. From the perspective of the police informant, contacting one's regular officer/investigator rather than Crime Stoppers is essential to maintaining the "quid pro quo" aspect

of that relationship. Indeed, some informants may regard calling the program as stepping outside the boundaries of the relationship, and depriving their contacts of the first opportunity to make an arrest. Nonetheless, it should be noted that many investigators openly condone the involvement of police informants in Crime Stoppers -- especially in circumstances in which the department's "reward kitty" is diminishing or depleted.

B. Bystander Intervention and Victim's Crime Reporting Behavior

Social psychological research on bystander intervention has uncovered a number of variables that have been shown to inhibit or facilitate peoples' involvement in emergency situations. This literature highlights some of the factors that may affect an individual's decision to report criminal information to the police, and hence, has implications for Crime Stoppers. Whether a person who witnesses a crime incident or is knowledgeable regarding the details of an offense will contact authorities is a function of various situational determinants, as well as the personal characteristics and traits of the prospective caller. Studies suggest that a situation is conducive to the reporting of a crime when: (a) the caller is or believes him/herself to be the sole witness to the crime (Latane & Nida, 1981); (b) it is clear that a crime has actually occurred i.e., the situation is low in ambiguity (Shotland and Stebbins, 1980); (c) others are present to encourage the potential caller to call (Bickman and Rosenbaum, 1977); (d) the caller feels some responsibility to report the crime (Moriarity, 1975); and (e) the costs of reporting are minimal relative to the benefits (Piliavan and Piliavan, 1969). Other studies, which have examined personality variables (e.g. Wilson,

1976), discuss findings that are mixed and limited in their applicability to the circumstances involving crime reporting via Crime Stoppers.

The basic philosophical and operational tenets of Crime Stoppers are quite consistent with empirical findings. For example, portraying the specific details of a criminal incident through the media should reduce ambiguity surrounding an observed event which witnesses may have misinterpreted as a non-criminal occurrence. Also, Crime Stoppers programs are designed to lower the "costs" of crime reporting by offering anonymity and paying caller rewards. Finally, through its advertisements and broadcasted successes, Crime Stoppers intends to disabuse citizens of the notion that crime reporting is "a waste of time" or that "nothing can or will be done," as citizens often relate when asked why they did not report a criminal incident to the police.

C. Rewards, Anonymity, and Crime Reporting

Intrinsic Motivation Research

In recent years, psychologists have conducted extensive research on the impact of rewards on intrinsic motivation i.e., examining whether presenting people with external incentives (e.g. money) to engage in tasks affects the inner satisfaction they derive from the activity or their judgments of its inherent worth. Research in this area can be categorized on the basis of the four types of expected external rewards which have been the focus of study (Ryan, et al., 1983): (a) task-non-contingent rewards, i.e., rewards are given for engaging in a task, regardless of what the person does. Thus, task completion or quality of work is irrelevant; (b) task-contingent rewards, i.e., rewards are given for completing a task, regardless of

quality; (c) performance-contingent rewards, i.e., rewards are given for a certain level of performance. Thus, the individual must reach a specific criterion, norm, or competence level before a reward is given; and (d) competitively-contingent rewards, i.e., rewards are given when people compete directly against one another for a scarce number of rewards. (Findings relating to competitively-contingent rewards will not be discussed inasmuch as they have no clear relevance to Crime Stoppers.)

Although there have been only a few task-non-contingent reward experiments, the available literature suggests that such rewards do not decrease intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1972; Pinder, 1976). However, studies of task-contingent rewards show rather consistent undermining effects. That is, when subjects are told that the reward is contingent upon merely completing the task, their intrinsic motivation for the task declines (e.g., Calder & Staw, 1975; Deci, 1971, 1972; Pittman, Cooper, & Smith, 1977; Weiner & Mander, 1978).

Research on the effects of performance-contingent rewards is more equivocal. Some researchers have found that this type of reward undermines intrinsic motivation (e.g., Harackiewicz, 1979), whereas others have found no effect (e.g., Karniol & Ross, 1977), and still others have shown that it enhances intrinsic motivation (e.g., Enzle & Ross, 1978). Essentially, Ryan, et al. (1983) argue that performance-contingent rewards can either decrease or enhance intrinsic motivation depending on whether the reward is administered (and perceived) as informational or controlling. If the rewards are administered in a controlling way (i.e., indicating that the subject

is doing what he/she "should" be doing), they tend to decrease intrinsic motivation for the activity. However, if the rewards are administered in an informational way (i.e., providing feedback to the subject that he/she is competent or giving information about how to become competent in the context of self-determination), they tend to enhance intrinsic motivation.

Crime Stoppers reward system is structured to be task-performance contingent. Not only do callers have to call the police, but they must supply "good" information before they become eligible to receive a reward. Most programs require the arrest of a suspect as a prerequisite for reward, and many even require indictment. It may also be concluded that Crime Stoppers rewards are essentially controlling, by virtue of the fact that citizens know in advance what is needed to obtain a reward. If this interpretation is correct, then there is some potential for rewards administered through Crime Stoppers to undermine an individual's internal motivation to report crime without financial compensation. Nevertheless, many questions could be raised about the applicability of these experiments to the urban setting of Crime Stoppers programs.

Research on Rewards and Moral Behavior. The small literature on the effects of rewards on moral behavior is more directly relevant to Crime Stoppers than reward-contingency studies. Kunda and Schwartz (1983) reviewed the available studies and concluded that the results do not show the "undermining effect" on moral behavior. For example, Clevenger (1980) found that students who were payed to engage in an activity supporting an environmental protection law did not report a reduction in their moral obligation to support such a law in

comparison to students who were not paid. Other studies on altruism and helping behavior produced ambiguous findings. (e.g., Batson, et al., 1978; Thomas, Batson, & Coke, 1981).

One could argue that the reward aspect of Crime Stoppers is intended for a particular segment of society that clearly feels no moral obligation (i.e., intrinsic motivation) to get involved with the criminal justice system. For these individuals -- especially the criminal element -- money is the only way to bring them forward. Although monetary incentives may be the best strategy for motivating these individuals, there is a larger issue regarding the impact of the program on "good citizens". Whether widespread media coverage of Crime Stoppers rewards will adversely affect the moral responsibility of the general public to report crime remains to be seen.

The effects of anonymity

Caller anonymity is purported to be one of the basic ingredients contributing to Crime Stoppers' success and effectiveness. Although a small percentage of persons refrain from reporting crime because of a fear of retaliation, there is some evidence to suggest that for particular witnesses to crime, the guarantee of anonymity may be the critical impetus for volunteering criminal information. However, some social psychological research suggests that Crime Stoppers' promise of caller anonymity may encourage certain individuals to act in socially destructive ways (e.g. Watson, 1973; Zimbardo, 1970). For example, the knowledge that their identities will remain unrevealed, may encourage individuals to intrude on their neighbor's privacy for the sole purpose of detecting unlawful activities, and to report any and

all observed infractions out of a desire for unscrupulous and selfish gain.

While recognizing that anonymity may create some potential for abuse, it is also important to be aware that Crime Stoppers has built-in safeguards against "snitching" and "surveillance". Most programs adhere to the policy of publicizing and providing rewards for only felony offenses, thus providing no incentive for citizens to pursue less serious law-breaking behavior. Further, there is no solid evidence that protecting the anonymity of callers has ever resulted in deleterious effects for either the operations of the program or the rights of law-abiding citizens.

D. The Participation of Mass Media in Crime Prevention

Data on the effectiveness of media crime prevention campaigns are limited to a small number of studies. The most substantial evaluation was funded by the National Institute of Justice to assess the impact of the Advertising Council's "Take a Bite Out of Crime" national campaign, sponsored by the National Crime Prevention Coalition (see O'Keefe, 1986). The campaign, initiated in October, 1979, focused on encouraging citizen involvement in crime prevention, primarily in the form of increased burglary prevention and collective neighborhood action. O'Keefe and his colleagues found that "McGruff" did in fact influence the American public regarding crime prevention. The public service advertisements were able to reach over half of the nation, and for persons exposed to them, there were effects on a number of dimensions. In a panel sample of 426 respondents reinterviewed after two years, persons exposed to the campaign reported increases in their knowledge of crime prevention, more positive attitudes about the

efficacy of citizen crime prevention activities, greater feelings of competence in protecting themselves from crime, and increases in various crime prevention behaviors (O'Keefe, 1986).

Others have assumed a more conservative and cautious view of McGruff's impact. As Tyler (1984) reminds us, only 13 percent of the national sample reported any attitude change and only 4 percent reported any changes in behavior. Looking at other studies, the evidence is somewhat mixed about the effects of mass media and crime prevention campaigns on citizen reactions to crime. On the whole, there is some consistent evidence of positive changes in crime prevention knowledge and societal-level judgments and attitudes, but little empirical support for the hypothesis that media campaigns will modify the behaviors of potential victims or offenders (see Riley & Mayhew, 1980; Tyler & Cook, 1984; Tyler & Lavrakas, 1985).

Although the impact of the mass media remains uncertain, Tyler (1984) has sought to explain what he sees as the absence of any compelling effects. According to Tyler's analysis, media reports have a limited influence on personal crime-related responses because (a) citizens do not find the reports informative, and (b) they do not find them arousing or upsetting. As we have noted previously (Lavrakas, et al., 1983), informativeness is a problem because most media coverage does not refer to local crime, but rather covers a large geographic area (cf. Heath, 1984). Moreover, media crime communications are often uninformative because they offer little in the way of suggesting effective strategies for avoiding crime. With regard to arousal properties, Tyler (1978) found that media reports of crime were viewed

as less emotionally arousing than either informally communicated reports or personal experiences.

The problems of information and arousal should be less of a concern in the case of Crime Stoppers. The appropriate course of action is very clear -- citizens should call the phone number boldly displayed. Also, the issue of failure to arouse is less likely to be a problem with Crime Stoppers media coverage. In the case of television, most reenactments of the "Crime of the Week" -- regardless of their production quality -- are quite dramatic.

To conclude, we know virtually nothing about the impact of Crime Stoppers' media coverage on citizen attitudes and behaviors. Some stations claim to have documented changes in television ratings after introducing the Crime Stoppers program. While such results may suggest viewer interest in the Crime Stoppers segment (even though rating changes cannot be confidently attributed to the program), they tell us very little about possible changes in public attitudes or behaviors.

IV. WHAT WERE THE MAJOR FINDINGS?

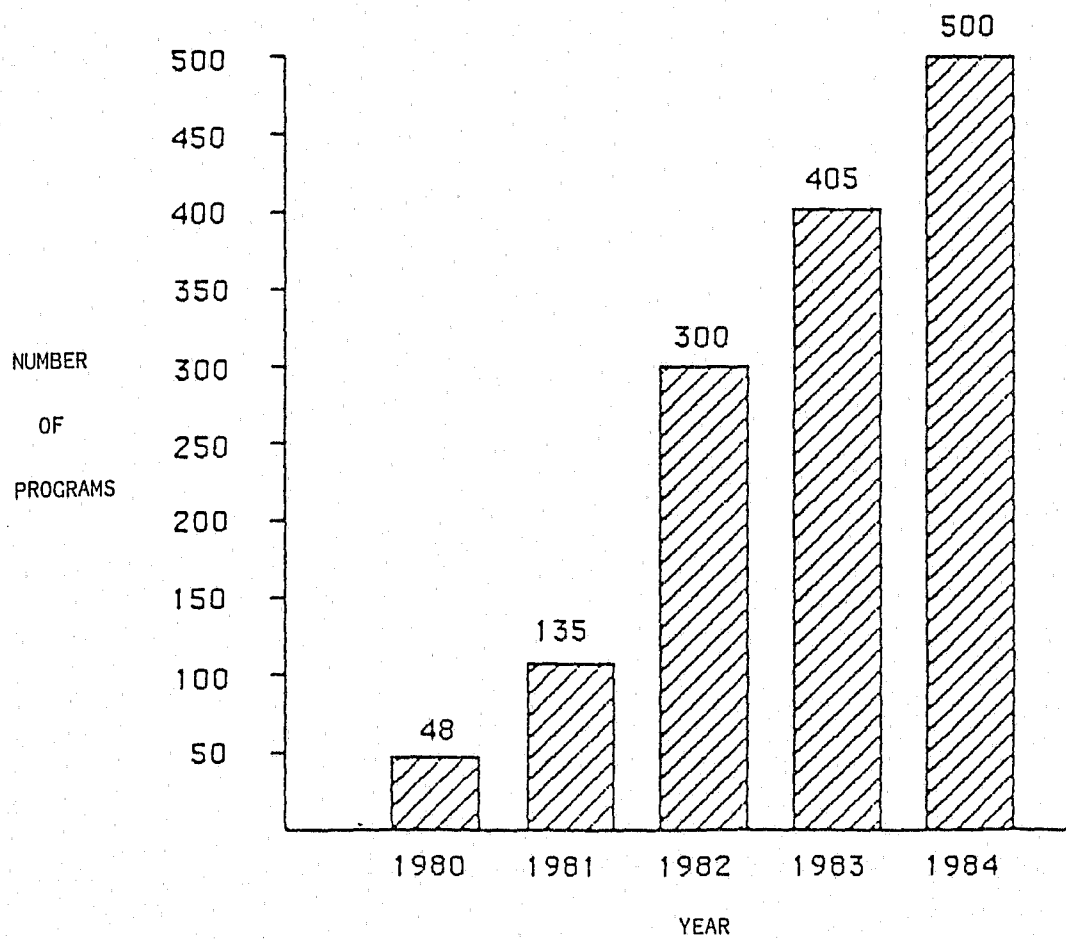
A. How Does Crime Stoppers Work?

The first basic question addressed in this study was - - "What is a Crime Stoppers program and how does it work in both theory and practice?" This is an important question, especially for persons who are unfamiliar with the operations of the program. Findings regarding the growth, type, and specific operations of Crime Stoppers programs are reported below:

The Growth of Programs

- o Since its inception in 1976, Crime Stoppers programs have rapidly appeared across the United States. Three-fourths of the programs existing in 1984 had been in operation for 4 years or less. Figure 1 shows that between 1980 and 1984, the total number of programs had multiplied ten-fold from 48 to nearly 500 programs in 38 states. Furthermore, 70 additional communities were planning implementation during 1984. Therefore, it was estimated that more than 600 programs would be operational through 1985.
- o The "typical" Crime Stoppers program is not located in a large urban center. The majority of programs serve populations of less than 100,000, and one-third serve populations of less than 50,000. Three-fourths work with law enforcement agencies having less than 200 officers, and one-fourth work with agencies having less than 25 officers.
- o Crime Stoppers is a network of "programs helping programs." When getting started, two-thirds of the programs surveyed received a substantial amount of help and advice from existing programs.
- o Networking occurs at the local, state, regional, national, and international levels. At the local level, half of the programs surveyed are involved in a multi-jurisdictional program where they share a phone line, coordinator, media outlet, and/or board of directors with a separate community. At the state and regional levels, a number of statewide programs and associations have emerged to provide technical and financial assistance to new and existing programs. At the national and international level, Crime Stoppers USA (founded in 1979) grew into Crime Stoppers

FIGURE 1
NUMBER OF CRIME STOPPERS
PROGRAMS BY YEAR



International in 1984, with membership in the United States, Canada, and Europe.

Media Awareness and Participation

- o The amount and type of media participation in Crime Stoppers differs as a function of the size of the population being served by the program. As shown in Table 1, programs serving small areas rely most heavily upon radio and weekly newspapers to publicize Crime Stoppers, whereas larger programs are most likely to utilize VHF/UHF television as their primary media outlet. However, programs serving larger areas tend to capitalize on all forms of media available to them, including daily newspapers, weekly newspapers, radio, and cable television.
- o More than one-fourth (28%) of the programs reported that enlisting some form of media participation had been a major problem in becoming fully operational. Crime Stoppers programs serving small population areas reported this as a major obstacle less frequently (i.e., only 1 in 5 said it was a major obstacle) than Crime Stoppers programs in larger population areas. Specifically, half of all programs in areas with over 50,000 population noted that getting the initial cooperation of the local media was either the greatest or second greatest obstacle they had to overcome; only a third of the Crime Stoppers programs in areas serving less than 50,000 experienced a severe start-up problem due to the lack of initial cooperation from their local media.
- o After any start-up problems have been resolved, most program coordinators find that participating media are quite cooperative. However, media cooperativeness is not the same across all types of media, as shown in Table 2. Weekly newspapers are viewed as the most cooperative, whereas daily newspapers are seen as the least cooperative according to program coordinators. Other data suggest that weekly newspapers are the most likely media outlet to express reservations about the concept of Crime Stoppers, and voice their need to remain the detached "watch dog" over law enforcement. Across the board, Crime Stoppers programs serving medium to large population areas (i.e., 100-250 thousand people) reported more cooperation from the media than did the smaller or larger programs.
- o Nearly half of all program coordinators reported that their Crime Stoppers program currently did not have any major problems in soliciting an adequate amount of cooperation from the local media. Of those that did list some current problem, the most frequently

Table 1
Size of Population Served
by Type of Media Participation in 1984

Size of Population	Type of Media										N ^a
	Daily Newspaper		Weekly Newspaper		Radio		VHF/UHF Television		Cable Television		
	% with	Ave. #	% with	Ave. #	% with	Ave. #	% with	Ave. #	% with	Ave. #	
Less than 50,000	51	.75	59	1.25	73	1.83	15	.22	35	.41	61
50,000 to 99,999	73	1.11	59	1.52	75	3.48	52	.86	23	.39	47
100,000 to 249,999	86	1.44	58	1.50	86	4.75	69	1.19	36	.44	38
250,000 or larger	75	3.34	61	3.18	80	7.50	89	2.68	36	.55	46

^a Average sample size.

Table 2
Cooperativeness of Local Media at Present Time

Media Type	Ratings ^a		
	Cooperative	Neutral	Uncooperative
Daily Newspapers	68.3	22.7	9.0
Weekly Newspapers	85.8	11.5	2.7
Radio Stations	81.8	10.9	7.3
VHF/UHF TV Stations	73.5	15.0	11.5
Cable TV Companies	78.1	12.3	9.6

^aRatings of cooperativeness were made on a 0-10 scale by program coordinators. Ratings of 0-3 were grouped as "Uncooperative", 4-6 were grouped as "Neutral", and 7-10 were grouped as "Cooperative." Numbers indicate percentage of respondents in each rating group. N varies by type of media.

mentioned were the sometimes troublesome deadlines that the media set, and the media's desire to include information that law enforcement was often not willing to give out, e.g., the victim's name. More programs in small areas reported such current problems than did programs in large population areas.

- o Crime Stoppers was found to have very high national visibility, with 90 percent of the media aware of the concept.
- o Executives with a Crime Stoppers program in their community were asked to rate the success of the program and to describe their perception of public opinion towards the program. Overall, the average rating given to local programs was that they were "quite successful" and that the opinion of the public was "positive". Newspaper executives, though, rated the success of their local program as significantly lower than did radio and television stations.
- o Of all media organizations that currently participate in Crime Stoppers, slightly over half (54%) indicated that their organization helped start Crime Stoppers in their community. None of the three media types were any more likely than the others to have helped start their local Crime Stoppers program.
- o Only seven percent of the media responding to the national survey stated that their organization has an "exclusive arrangement" with Crime Stoppers, whereby their organization is the only medium of its type that participates in the local program. This arrangement differed significantly by media type, with only two percent of radio stations and 8 percent of newspapers indicating they had exclusivity. In contrast, 29 percent of the participating television stations had an exclusive arrangement with Crime Stoppers.
- o Three-fourths of all the media executives surveyed reported that they do not currently participate in Crime Stoppers, although most are not opposed to participation (as reported later).
- o Coordinators indicated that radio is the most frequently used media outlet with about 90 percent of the programs using it. About 80 percent use daily newspapers. Television was used by about 60 percent of the Crime Stoppers programs, but these were concentrated primarily in large population areas.
- o Crime Stoppers programs in areas with less than 100,000 population were significantly more likely to share media outlets with other programs than was the case in larger areas: whereas 50 percent of all programs in

small and medium sized population areas share media outlets, only one third of those in medium-large and large sized areas do. Of the programs that share media, only one in ten expressed any dissatisfaction with this arrangement.

- o When asked what the most successful type of medium was for creating public interest in their program, nearly six out of ten programs operating in smaller population areas said it was newspapers, whereas seven in ten programs from larger areas reported that it was television. Open-ended questions revealed that the media most preferred by coordinators was whichever one they felt was reaching the largest local audience. In other words, there appears to be no consistent preference for either print or broadcast media.
- o In contrast to the conflicting opinions about the relative effectiveness of different media channels in reaching the general public, data collected from a random sample of Indianapolis residents before and after program implementation paints a more one-sided picture. As shown in Table 3, residents in Indianapolis were much more likely to have been exposed to Crime Stoppers via network television than by listening to the radio or reading the newspaper, even though the program was publicized through all major types of media.
- o The "Crime of the Week" is a feature for about 80 percent of all programs.

Law Enforcement and the Coordinator

- o There are sizeable differences among the programs on a number of dimensions, including the amount of time that coordinators are able to devote to managing the program, the level of support received from law enforcement administrators, the level of training provided to police officers and investigators, and the procedures for handling calls.
- o Program operations and procedures are uniformly guided by the Crime Stoppers Manual prepared by Greg MacAleese, founder of Crime Stoppers and coordinator of the first program in Albuquerque, and Coleman Tily, board member of the Albuquerque program and organizer of Crime Stoppers International. Although 1 in 10 program coordinators had not read the Manual, 3 out of 4 respondents indicated that they followed "all" or "most" of the procedural and policy recommendations articulated in the Manual.

Table 3
Before-After Changes in Citizen Awareness
of Crime Stoppers in Indianapolis

Awareness Measures	Percent Aware ^a		
	Pretest	Posttest	Change
1. Heard about Crime Stoppers	38.0	92.9	54.9 (+)
2. Saw TV Reenactments	34.8	70.8	36.0 (+)
3. Read Newspaper Coverage	40.6	52.6	12.0 (+)
4. Heard on the Radio	23.2	25.3	2.1 (+)

^a N=184 panel respondents.

- o The types of callers available and the quality of the information they supply are important to the success of the criminal investigation process. According to police coordinator estimates, the most frequent callers are "fringe players" (41%), followed by "good citizens" (35%) and "criminals" (25%). Coordinators estimate that nearly half of the tips received are "good tips" that could be helpful to investigators, and fringe players are viewed as the best callers in this respect (i.e., they provide the most useful information).
- o The usefulness of most tips received by programs varied by size of the population served. According to the survey, the larger the program, the smaller the percentage of tips that were judged useful (e.g., 39% for large programs vs. 49% for small programs).
- o Most programs have backup systems for handling calls when the regular staff are not available, but many coordinators are not satisfied with the arrangement of forwarding calls to the communication center because oftentimes the interviewers are not properly trained to handle anonymous callers. In addition, nearly 1-in-5 programs uses an answering machine at certain times to receive calls.
- o The majority of coordinators felt that the present number of staff was "somewhat" or "very" sufficient given the current demands of the program. Furthermore, a commitment to Crime Stoppers by Police administrators is clearly reflected in 1 out of 3 programs in which the number of staff and/or percentage of time committed to Crime Stoppers has increased since the program was originally implemented. However, substantial variation exists in response to these questions, and more than 1 in 3 coordinators felt that the current number of staff assigned by the police department was "somewhat" or "very" insufficient.
- o Programs differ considerably in the extent to which the program staff (as opposed to investigators) screen calls to determine the accuracy of the information supplied by the caller. In 36 percent of the programs, the staff screens all of the calls, whereas in another 23 percent of the programs the calls go directly to investigators without any staff screening (the remaining 41 percent fall somewhere in between). These differences are not related to program size, as one might expect.
- o As indicated in Table 4, narcotics calls are an important component of many Crime Stoppers programs. Coordinators estimate that narcotics account for about

Table 4

Types of Crime-Related Calls Received by Crime Stoppers
(Coordinators' Estimates)

Type of Crime	Percent Breakdown ^a
Crimes Against Business	17
Narcotics	32
Personal Crimes (homicides, rape, robbery, assault)	16
Property Crimes (burglary, theft)	33
Other Crimes	11

^a Percentages represent an averaging of participants' responses for each category and therefore do not sum to 100 percent.

one-third of all the crime-related calls received on the Crime Stopper's phone.

- o Keeping track of Crime Stoppers cases within the investigative process has been difficult for some programs. One-in-four programs does not have a follow-up form for investigators to use, and the large majority of programs have neither a "tickler" file to remind them to follow up nor departmental policies that require feedback to the program.
- o There is considerable awareness and support of Crime Stoppers programs among both investigators and patrol officers. As one might expect, according to the coordinator, investigators are (a) more likely than patrol officers to have a complete understanding of how the program works, (b) less skeptical about the benefits of Crime Stoppers, and (c) more likely to cooperate with the program.
- o Most coordinators (73%) feel that investigators spend the same amount of time on both program cases and non-program cases. The remainder were split, with 12 per cent arguing that Crime Stoppers cases receive proportionately "more" investigative time and 15 percent arguing that they receive proportionately "less" investigative time than other cases. However, Crime Stoppers investigations certainly receive "high priority" in terms of case assignments. Compared to other cases that need to be investigated, Crime Stoppers cases are given "high" or "very high" priority in 55% of the departments surveyed.

Board of Directors

- o Most programs (80%) have an active board of directors that meets once a month. However, less than half have established an executive committee to handle specific business, and less than one-third have created other types of special committees.
- o Clearly, fundraising is the major issue facing the board of directors in most communities. There are nearly as many fundraising techniques being used as there are programs. These techniques vary in cost-effectiveness, and must be evaluated on several dimensions. For example, in-person solicitations (relative to mail solicitations), require a large investment of person hours, but produce the most funds. For some fundraising techniques, the high cost and small amount of money raised may be offset by the public relations benefits (e.g. booths or sales).

- o One of the most promising fund-raising techniques is court restitution. Although only a few programs were involved, this strategy yielded the highest cost-effectiveness score of any technique mentioned. Essentially, this approach involves encouraging judges to require offenders to contribute to Crime Stoppers as a condition of probation. Once this agreement has been established, the cost of enforcing it is very minimal (e.g., follow-up letters). Houston Crime Stoppers is one example of how this restitution program can be successfully implemented. However, judges must be careful to avoid using this disposition as a standard policy without considering the circumstances of each individual case. They must also refrain from violating their canon of ethics by engaging in organized fund-raising.
- o Reward systems for paying callers are quite different from one program to the next, both in terms of eligibility requirements and criteria for determining reward size. There are considerable differences of opinion about whether the recovery of property/narcotics or indictments are sufficient by themselves to justify eligibility for a reward, but almost half of the programs felt that arrest of a suspect is "always" sufficient.
- o Table 5 illustrates that reward amounts vary substantially depending on whether the incident is the Crime of the Week, a personal crime, a narcotics crime, or a property crime. Also, it can be seen in Table 5 that larger programs tend to offer larger rewards. Aside from the severity of the crime, there was little agreement across programs on the criteria that should be used to determine the size of the reward. Most boards handle reward decisions on a case-by-case basis and use a variety of criteria that can sometimes come into conflict with one another.

B. What Are the Advantages and Disadvantages?

Unlike the descriptive findings reported above in section A, this section is primarily evaluative in nature. The results summarized below assess (a) the possible benefits of Crime Stoppers in terms of crime control and citizen participation, (b) how various groups feel about Crime Stoppers, (c) the effects of a new program on law enforcement, businesspersons, and the community, (d) factors associated with program productivity among law enforcement, the media, the board of

Table 5

Average Reward Size (in dollars)
by Type of Crime and Size of Population Served
January - December, 1983

Size of Population	Type of Crime				N ^c
	Personal ^a Crimes	Narcotics	Property ^b Crimes	Crime of Week	
Less than 50,000	289	177	171	165	61
50,000 to 99,999	406	146	139	344	47
100,000 to 249,999	394	271	203	676	38
250,000 or larger	400	253	178	774	46
OVERALL AVERAGE	379	207	171	505	192

^a Includes homicide, rape, robbery, and assault.

^b Includes burglary, theft and auto theft.

^c Average sample size.

directors, and the local environment, (e) the effects of rewards on callers, and (f) measurement issues and problems in this topic area.

Crime Stoppers as a Crime Control Program

Does Crime Stoppers really help law enforcement and the community in their fight against serious crime? Does it enhance criminal investigations and encourage citizen participation?

Crime Reduction

- o In their short history, Crime Stoppers programs have accumulated some impressive performance statistics, having solved more than 92 thousand felony crimes, recovered more than half a billion dollars in stolen property and narcotics, and convicted more than 20,000 criminals (see Table 6). With a property recovery rate averaging more than 6,000 dollars per incident, and with program funding provided largely by private contributions, Crime Stoppers can be viewed as a cost-effective program by the taxpayer.
- o Nearly half of the program coordinators felt that Crime Stoppers had reduced the overall crime rate in their community. However, there is little reason to assume that the program would have such widespread impact. While numerous crimes are solved through Crime Stoppers, these successes amount to only a small fraction of the total volume of serious crimes committed in a given community each year. Available statistics suggest that Crime Stoppers programs, on the average, clear only 6.5 percent of all the crimes cleared by the cooperating law enforcement agency. Furthermore, the total number of cases cleared by law enforcement is only about one-fifth of the crimes reported, which in turn, is only one-third of the felony crimes that occur in any given community. Thus, we should not expect the overall crime rate to be immediately or substantially reduced by the introduction of this type of crime control program.

Enhancing Criminal Investigations

- o The available anecdotal evidence suggests that Crime Stoppers programs are solving many felony cases that are unlikely to be solved through regular criminal investigations or by devoting a "reasonable" amount of law enforcement resources. The program was designed to handle "dead-end" cases where investigators have exhausted their leads. With the help of widespread media coverage, the promise of anonymity, and the

Table 6
International Crime Stoppers Statistics

Felony Crimes Solved	92,339
Stolen Property and Narcotics Recovered	\$562,219,371
Average Amount Recovered per Case	\$6,089
Defendants Tried	21,959
Defendants Convicted	20,992
Conviction Rate	95.5%
Rewards Paid	\$6,728,392

Source: The Caller, January 1986. (Published by Crime Stoppers International). Based on statistics reported by 380 programs through the end of 1985.

opportunity for a sizeable reward, Crime Stoppers has repeatedly "cracked" cases that have remained unsolved after a substantial investment of investigative time.

- o The effectiveness of Crime Stoppers seems to vary by type of crime. Although the program has documented some success stories with all major crimes, it appears to be especially effective in solving cases involving fugitives, bank robberies, and narcotics. The widespread media coverage of the suspect's photograph or composite seems to be the key ingredient in catching fugitives and bank robberies, while the promise of anonymity is believed to play an important role in the narcotics area.

Enhancing Citizen Participation

- o Citizens become involved in Crime Stoppers as callers, financial contributors, and board members. In each of these areas, the program has documented its successes. The large volume of calls received over the anonymous tip lines and the amount of money raised, are good indicators of community support. However, the base of community support is concentrated primarily in the business community (and those who are financially able to support the program) and in the criminal element (where people have the opportunity to witness or have knowledge of felony crime with some regularity). Nevertheless, the general public is certainly encouraged to participate as callers, and "good citizens" have come through in many cases. Recently some programs have sought to expand the pool of participants by directing attention at the youth population in school, and attempting to change social norms about "snitching".

Perceptions and Attitudes About Crime Stoppers

How do participants and nonparticipants feel about Crime Stoppers? Do they view the program as effective in fighting crime? Do they envision any problems or disadvantages to the community?

Participants' Views

- o National and local surveys of persons involved in Crime Stoppers indicate that the program is very well received on all fronts. The enthusiasm for Crime Stoppers is very strong among police coordinators, the board of directors, and participating media executives. The

majority in each group views the program as quite successful.

Nonparticipants' Views

- o Attitudes toward Crime Stoppers among nonparticipants are mixed. Public opinion in Indianapolis indicates that the majority of residents were concerned about encouraging undesirable informing on neighbors, but yet one-fourth felt that Crime Stoppers would be "very effective" in leading to the arrest of criminals. In our national survey of media, three-fourths of the executives from participating media rated public opinion about the program as "very positive" or "positive". However, a group of critics comprised of journalists, defense attorneys, legal scholars, and others have expressed a variety of misgivings about the program, ranging from concerns about civil rights to undermining citizens' civil responsibility to report crime without pay.
- o Our national survey of media revealed that nonparticipating media were quite positive about the concept of Crime Stoppers. Nearly two-thirds of the sample reported that their organization would be "very likely" to participate if a local program were to start. The attitudes of nonparticipating media in communities that already have Crime Stoppers programs were less positive.

Effectiveness in Changing Awareness, Attitudes, and Behavior

In the national survey of police coordinators, "public apathy and lack of awareness" was listed most frequently as the number one obstacle they had to overcome to become a fully operational program. However, the results of the Impact Study in Indianapolis reveal that awareness of a new Crime Stoppers program can be dramatically increased in only six months, even though the effects on attitudes and behavior are limited. Surveys were administered to the same police, business persons, and community residents three months before and six months after citywide program implementation i.e., 3 months before and 6 months after the program began accepting calls. The Indianapolis program was implemented very successfully. The following results are noteworthy:

Police Officers and Investigators

- o Virtually all of the law enforcement respondents (100%) contacted after program implementation reported awareness of the program -- an increase of 55 percentage points when compared to the number of officers who reported awareness of Crime Stoppers before the program was implemented.
- o The effects of Crime Stoppers on the police are reported in Table 7. Using before-after comparisons, officers' ratings of Crime Stoppers as an effective program for making arrests and preventing crime were significantly more positive at the posttest. Although there was no change in officers' expressed willingness to accept an assignment in Crime Stoppers, they did report being significantly more inclined toward volunteering their time beyond regular police duties to work with the program. The greater their exposure to the program, the greater their willingness to get involved.

The Business Community

- o The business community's awareness of Crime Stoppers rose dramatically after the program had been in effect for six months. Awareness reached 96 percent -- an increase of 53 percentage points.
- o As displayed in Table 8, satisfaction with the quality of police services in the business community showed no change during the course of the study, but respondents indicated being quite satisfied on both the pretest and posttest surveys. Similarly, businesspersons' ratings of the police on a number of performance dimensions also showed no before-after changes (ratings on both occasions were generally in a positive direction). The results of bivariate statistical analysis did demonstrate a significant positive change in ratings of the effectiveness of Crime Stoppers in leading to the arrest of criminals, in preventing crime, and in diminishing the likelihood that businesses would be victimized by crime. However, it can be seen in Table 8 that multivariate analyses show no differences as a result of one's level of exposure to the program.

Community Residents

- o The results of the citywide community survey indicate that the Indianapolis Crime Stoppers program reached the homes of most city residents. Thirty-eight (38) percent of the panel sample reported some exposure to the Crime Stoppers program before the "kick off" date, while 93 percent reported that they had read about, heard, or saw the program within the six-month period after the

Table 7

The Effects of Exposure to Crime Stoppers on the Police
(Multiple Regression Analysis)

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables					
	Ratings of CS Effectiveness ^a	Ratings of Residents on Crime Prevention ^b	Ratings of Investigators ^c	Ratings of Residents' Perceptions of Safety ^d	Willingness to Accept CS Assignment ^e	Willingness to volunteer time to CS ^f
(standardized regression coefficients)						
<u>Covariates</u>						
Length of time with Department	-.20	.07	.05	-.12	-.03	.07
Assignment	.16	-.24	.09	.20	-.01	.07
Satisfaction with ^g Police Work	-.23*	.24	.07	-.01	.37**	-.01
Marital Status	.11	-.03	-.01	-.02	-.26*	.05
Sex ^h	-.04	.01	.13	-.12	.007	.03
Education	-.09	.23	.10	-.06	.06	.03
Race (dummy) ⁱ						
White	-.71*	.02	.55	.57	.65*	-.17
Other	-.79*	.25	.51	.50	.73*	-.12
Pretest	.41***	.01	.46***	.46***	.22	.59***
<u>Treatment</u>						
Officers' Level of ^j Exposure to Crime Stoppers	.18*	-.24	-.01	.14	-.05	-.25**
Proportion of Variance Explained (R ²)	.40	.24	.33	.43	.50	.54
* p .05	^a 4-point scale (4=very effective, 1=not at all effective)			^g 4-point scale (1=very satisfied, 4=very dissatisfied)		
** p .01	^b 5-point scale (1=excellent, 5=poor)			^h 1=female 0=male		
*** p .001	^c 4-point scale (4=very excellent, 1=not at all effective)			ⁱ 1=white 0=nonwhite		
	^d 3-point scale (3=more safe, 1=less safe than other citizens)			^j saw TV reenactments, read about program in newspaper, or heard program broadcasts on radio (1=yes, 0=No)		
	^e 4-point scale (4=very unwilling, 1=very willing)					
	^f 4-point scale (4=very unwilling, 1=very willing)					

Table 8

The Effects of Exposure to Crime Stoppers on the Business Community
(Multiples regression analyses)

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables							
	Likely to Call CS ^a	Contribute to CS ^b	Participate on Board ^c	Satisfaction with Police ^d	Ratings of Performance ^e	Ratings of Effectiveness ^f	Perceptions of Safety from Crime	Effects of Crime on Business
(standardized regression coefficients)								
<u>Covariates</u>								
Age	.08	.03	.08	-.14	.16	-.21	.03	.01
Education	.14	.02	-.10	.12	-.26	-.05	.17	.03
Prior Victimization	.04	-.01	-.01	.13	-.28	-.14	-.37 [*]	.28 [*]
Size of Business	-.09	.16	-.04	-.19	.33	.26	-.24	.15
Satisfaction with Indianapolis as a place to do business	.07	-.24	.05	-.03	-.33 [*]	-.28	.16	.20
Pretest	.52 ^{**}	.59 ^{***}	.53 ^{**}	.54 ^{**}	.44 ^{**}	.48 ^{**}	.49 ^{**}	.57 ^{**}
<u>Treatment</u>								
Awareness of Crime Stoppers ^g	-.19	-.04	.07	.07	-.08	-.05	-.08	-.11
Proportion of Variance Explained (R ²)	.33	.59	.37	.32	.54	.35	.39	.48
[*] p < .05 ^a 4-point scale (4=definitely call, 1=definitely not call) ^e 5-point scale (1=excellent, 5=poor) ^{**} p < .01 ^b 4-point scale (4=very willing, 1=very unwilling) ^f 4-point scale (4=very effective, 1=not at all effective) ^{***} p < .001 ^c 4-point scale (4=very willing, 1=very unwilling) ^g Heard about Crime Stoppers in Indianapolis (1=yes, 0=no) ^d 4-point scale (4=very satisfied, 1=very dissatisfied)								

program "kick-off" -- an increase of 55 percentage points.

- o Pretest-posttest analyses showed that citizens were more likely (at the posttest) to believe that Crime Stoppers is an effective program for arresting criminals. Also, citizens were inclined to change their attitudes about the acceptability of paying people to report crime. While only 3° percent felt this was a "good practice" on the pretest, 54 percent thought it was a good idea on the posttest.
- o More controlled multivariate analyses were performed to assess whether levels of exposure to the program affected citizen responses. Whether "exposure" was defined as knowledge of Crime Stoppers through all major media or only television, exposure was unrelated to more than a dozen outcome measures. These results cast doubt on whether the few observed pretest-posttest changes were due to the Crime Stoppers intervention (see Table 9).
- o The general lack of impact on citizen's attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors does not detract from the observation that citizens appear to like the program. At least in the televised media, the viewing audience has responded favorably according to news executives. Thus, residents enjoy their exposure to the program even though it apparently did not exert a strong influence on them during the limited time period of the study.

Factors Associated with Program Productivity

Data from three national surveys were analyzed to identify key program characteristics that are associated with variation in program productivity. That is, what factors determine whether a Crime Stoppers program is highly productive or experiences little success in terms of citizen participation, suspect arrests, crime clearances, and fund-raising. The characteristics and actions of the police coordinator, the media, and the board of directors were assessed as possible predictors, as well as key contextual variables describing the local community. The following results emerged from these analyses.

Table 9

The Effects of Exposure to Crime Stoppers on the Community
(Multiple regression analyses)

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables												
	Perceived Crime Rate	Perceived Frequency Robbery/ Assault	Fear of Personal Crime ^a	Fear of Property Crime ^a	Responsibility for Property Crime ^a	Satisfaction with Police	Citizens Should Report Without Pay	Paying is Good Practice	Perceived Arrest Effectiveness	Perceived Prevention Effectiveness	Likely to Call Crime Stoppers	Willingness to Contribute to Crime Stoppers	Called the Police
(standardized regression coefficients)													
<u>Covariates</u>													
Sex ^b	-.01	.09	-.15*	-.03	.16*	-.01	.16*	.05	.02	-.04	.05	.01	.08
Age	.13	.03	.08	-.12	-.01	-.20**	.02	.08	-.06	-.11	-.11	-.03	.09
Race ^c	-.01	-.03	.01	.02	-.11	.02	-.01	-.02	-.04	-.13	-.06	-.14	-.01
Education	-.12	-.04	.01	.15*	.01	.01	.03	-.01	-.13	-.18*	.06	-.04	.07
Direct Victimization ^d	.10	.02	-.07	-.11	.06	-.12	-.07	-.07	.03	-.01	-.08	-.03	.39***
Indirect Victimization ^e	.23**	.09	-.07	-.01	-.18*	-.03	.07	-.02	-.03	.02	.06	-.03	.09
Exposure to McGruff ^f	-.04	-.07	-.04	.00	.01	.05	-.15	.03	-.11	.05	-.11	-.01	-.01
Pretest	.30***	.46***	.53***	.48***	.25**	.37***	.28***	.46***	.23**	.36***	.29***	.50***	.28***
<u>Treatment</u>													
Watch Channel 13 ^g	.03	.00	.05	.07	-.07	-.03	-.19*	.12	.04	.02	-.03	-.04	-.06
Proportion of Variance Explained (R ²)	.24	.26	.41	.33	.13	.20	.16	.24	.12	.27	.13	.32	.35

* p .05
** p .01
*** p .001

^a 4-point scale (higher=less fear).

^b 1=female, 0=male

^c 1=white, 0=nonwhite

^d victimized by personal (0,1) and/or property crime (0,1) during past year (composite scale).

^e personally know someone victimized during past year (y=yes, 0=no).

^f seen any public service announcements on McGruff during past 6 months (1=yes, 0=no).

^g whether or not reported Channel 13 as "most often" watched station at both pretest and posttest (1=yes, 0=no).

Coordinator and Law Enforcement Variables

- o The strongest predictor of program productivity among coordinator variables was job satisfaction. At the national level, the higher the coordinator's job satisfaction, the greater the number of calls received (per 100,000 population), the higher the quality of calls (as measured by cases sent to investigators), the more suspects arrested (per 1,000 Part I crimes), and the more cases solved (per 1,000 Part I crimes). Job satisfaction was the only characteristic of the coordinator that was associated with arrests and the best predictor of calls received and cases solved. The most satisfied coordinators were those who made more public speaking engagements and devoted more hours to the program. (Of course, it may be true that program success gives rise to greater job satisfaction.)
- o Working longer hours was another indicator of productivity. The more hours per week a coordinator worked, the more calls the program received, and the more calls that were sent to investigators for follow-up. However, the direction of causality is unclear inasmuch as coordinators may be forced to work longer hours to handle a greater volume of calls.
- o Also associated with program productivity was the coordinator's level of involvement in the community. The more speaking engagements reported by the coordinator during a six-month period, the greater the number of calls received, the greater the number of calls investigated, and the greater the number of cases solved. However, neither the number of hours worked nor the number of speaking engagements retained its significance when controlling for job satisfaction.
- o Coordinator variables that were not associated with program productivity include: age, education, years with the police force, length of time as coordinator, and reported public speaking ability.

Board of Directors Variables

- o The Board's level of effort seems to be the predominant factor in determining its success. The only board characteristic that was associated with fundraising success (as measured by the amount of money each program had in the bank) was the chairperson's rating of how much "time and energy" the board members invest in the program. Furthermore, boards that invested greater time and energy were also less likely to have experienced "difficult times" as a program and more likely to rate themselves as effective fundraisers.

- o Allocating work evenly among board members appears to have positive results. Boards that managed to allocate the tasks more evenly were less worried about "burn out" and received higher overall performance ratings than boards where one or two members were responsible for most of the work.
- o Many characteristics of the board were not important for predicting fund-raising success or program hardship. Included in this list are factors such as: the presence of an executive committee, board size, board gender composition, and the presence of responsibilities (as a board) other than Crime Stoppers.

Media Variables

- o While it is critical to a Crime Stoppers program to have media participation, it is important to note that the actual number of specific media types that participated with the program was basically unrelated to measures of program performance (e.g. number of calls received, arrests, cases solved). Also, there does not appear to be a single best "mix" of media for maximizing productivity (e.g. radio and television coverage only, weekly newspaper only, etc.)
- o Although the number of media outlets did not influence performance, the amount of special coverage was important (e.g. front page newspaper coverage). The more outlets that provided the program with special coverage, the higher the program's productivity in terms of the number of calls received.
- o The importance of getting early cooperation of the media was stressed by Crime Stoppers coordinators, both in terms of minimizing later problems with the media, and in terms of spreading the word to the public. In many instances, the media have even initiated the program.
- o Continued media cooperation was associated with program performance. The higher the level of combined media cooperation, the greater the number of calls received from the community.
- o In general, the larger the population area, the more difficulties reported by police coordinators in getting initial media cooperation.
- o Coordinators rated radio stations as the most cooperative of the various media used by Crime Stoppers. In general, daily newspapers were rated as the least cooperative type of media. Consistent with these findings, executives at daily newspapers were less positive in their ratings of Crime Stoppers success than

were radio and television executives.

- o Ratings by media executives correlated significantly with local coordinator ratings of Crime Stoppers success in those cities where both types of data were available about a Crime Stoppers program. The ratings of Crime Stoppers success also correlated significantly with several of the performance measures computed from program records. Thus, media perceptions of program success correspond to actual productivity statistics and are validated by law enforcement perceptions.

Evaluating Program Components

- o Evaluative ratings for each of the major program components (law enforcement, board of directors, and media) were positively related to actual program productivity. This finding suggests that participants hold fairly accurate and objective perceptions of their program's success relative to other Crime Stoppers programs. The only productivity score that was not predicted by these evaluations was fund-raising success.
- o When evaluations of different components of the program were compared, ratings of media cooperativeness were consistently stronger than ratings of the coordinator or board of directors for predicting a program's ability to generate calls, arrest suspects, and solve crimes (see Table 10). Whether media ratings are a cause or consequence of program productivity is not known. Nevertheless, the program's fate is linked to their contribution.

Contextual Variables

- o Productivity was higher in communities with less poverty, fewer minorities, and a lower crime rate. However, when all factors were considered simultaneously in the analysis, only the crime rate emerged as important.
- o A close look at population size revealed a curvilinear relationship to productivity, i.e., programs serving medium-sized urban areas (100-250 thousand) were more productive than either smaller or larger programs in terms of calls received, calls investigated, suspects arrested, and crimes cleared (see Table 11). Programs that serve a mixture of communities appear to be more productive than programs that serve exclusively urban, suburban, or rural areas.
- o Crime Stoppers was unaffected by the geographic size of the community or whether the program received technical assistance from other Crime Stoppers programs in surrounding areas.

Table 10

Program Productivity as a Function
of Overall Success Ratings For Each Program Component
(Standardized regression coefficients)

Program Component Being Rated	Productivity Measures (Dependent Variables)				
	Calls Received ^a	Calls Investigated ^a	Suspects Arrested ^a	Crimes Cleared ^a	Funds Raised ^b
Police Coordinator ^c	.19	.13	.25 [*]	.17	.20
Board of Directors ^d	-.28 [*]	-.13	-.01	.04	.20
Media Outlets ^e	.34 ^{**}	.27 [*]	.27 [*]	.23 [*]	.05
Overall Program ^f	.32 ^{**}	.35 ^{**}	.37 ^{**}	.43 ^{***}	-.04
Proportion of Variance Explained (R ²)	.29	.26	.41	.41	.07

^a Per 1000 Part 1 crimes reported to the police.

^b Total funds in the corporation's bank account per 100,000 population.

^c Overall coordinator performance rating by board of director's chairperson.

^d Combined board performance rating by coordinator and board chairperson.

^e Combined media cooperativeness rating by coordinator and board chairperson (averaging separate ratings of each media type).

^f Overall program success rating by coordinator.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

Table 11

Program Productivity as a Function
of Size and Type of Population Served

Size of Population	Productivity Measures					N ^c
	Calls Received ^a	Calls Investigated ^a	Suspects Arrested ^a	Crimes Cleared ^a	Funds Raised ^b	
Less than 50,000	118	122	39	63	\$37838	61
50,000 to 99,999	382	247	53	50	\$11012	47
100,000 to 249,999	616	280	128	173	\$ 9519	38
250,000 or larger	234	136	20	49	\$ 547	46
Type of Population						
Mostly Urban Residents	350	151	62	67	\$13811	48
Mostly Suburban Residents	244	166	32	36	\$12102	30
Mostly Rural Residents	273	69	68	52	\$ 7754	13
Mixed	355	223	66	114	\$24514	97

^aPer 1000 Part 1 Crimes reported to the police.

^bTotal funds in the corporation's bank account per 100,000 population.

^cAverage sample size.

The Effects of Rewards on Callers

Selecting the proper reward size for a given case is viewed as a very important task by board members and police coordinators. The amount of the reward is considered by many to be a critical determinant of the caller's level of satisfaction and willingness to continue a cooperative relationship with the program. However, paying out too much money on a regular basis can create a cash shortage and may lift caller's expectations too high. In light of this situation, a Reward Experiment was conducted, with the Lake County Crime Stoppers program in Waukegan, Illinois, to look at the effects of reward size on caller's perceptions, attitudes, and behavioral intentions (see Table 12).

This randomized experiment allowed us to determine how callers would respond to reward levels that were randomly determined (and thus, had no direct or causal relationship to their case). Given that Lake County Crime Stoppers projected a typical reward size of \$250 per case, this average was maintained by randomly assigning cases to one of three reward sizes: low reward (\$100) medium reward (\$250) and high reward (\$400). The results indicate that the variations in reward size had virtually no effect on the callers. Specifically, callers in the high, medium, and low reward groups did not differ with respect to their satisfaction with the reward, the perceived fairness of the reward amount, their belief in the effectiveness of Crime Stoppers, their intentions to use the program again, and other related measures. With a few rare exceptions, even the callers in the "low reward" group (who received only 100 dollars) reported that they were very satisfied with the amount of compensation.

Table 12

Caller Responses as a Function of Reward Size: A Randomized Experiment
(Means with Standard Deviations in parentheses)

Reward Size	Satisfaction with Reward	Perceived Fairness of Compensation	Perceived Effectiveness of Crime Stoppers	Likely to Call Crime Stoppers Again	<u>N</u>
Low (\$100)	6.75 (3.39)	.75 (.45)	3.83 (.39)	3.67 (.89)	12
Moderate (\$250)	7.35 (2.87)	.82 (.39)	3.62 (.50)	3.65 (.79)	17
Moderately High (\$400)	7.93 (2.79)	.71 (.47)	3.73 (.46)	3.60 (.83)	15
Between-groups F value	0.52	0.25	0.72	0.02	

Measurement Issues and Problems

- o While most Crime Stoppers programs keep some statistics to document their performance, only 1 in 5 programs keep records on seven basic productivity measures, ranging from the number of calls received to the number of suspects convicted of at least one charge.
- o Current measures of productivity are statistically biased in favor of large programs and those with a large number of narcotics cases.
- o There has been only marginal standardization of measurement across programs because of definitional problems. Programs often use different definitions for such variables as "crimes solved," "value of stolen property recovered," and "suspects convicted."
- o Although Crime Stoppers International reports a 96 percent conviction rate across all reporting programs, conviction data are often unavailable to law enforcement personnel without a major effort. Hence, program staff is making an educated guess.

V. WHAT ARE THE CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS?

The findings described in this report, coupled with the numerous meetings, interviews, and site visit experiences have spawned a variety of issues, policy recommendations, and general observations. It is hoped that these observations will have practical significance for the operations of, and the relationships between the three elements of Crime Stoppers: Law Enforcement, Board of Directors, and the Media.

Law Enforcement

- o The location of the Crime Stoppers program within the police department affects the program's relationship with investigators. Programs located within the Investigation division (as opposed to crime prevention or administration) reported a significantly higher level of rapport with investigators and higher levels of cooperation. Programs relegated to units that are far removed from the investigative aspect of police work are more likely to experience an uphill struggle for acceptance within an agency. By the same token, police coordinators must strive to foster and perpetuate a strong working relationship with investigations.
- o A sizeable percentage of Crime Stoppers programs need more staff both to stimulate community awareness through outreach activities and to manage the day-to-day activities within the department.
- o Selecting a highly motivated coordinator with the unusual balance of skills in public relations, investigations, and program management is a critical task.
- o The coordinator's level of involvement in the community and job satisfaction (which go hand-in-hand) seem to be important predictors of program success that should not go unnoticed. Coordinators should make a concerted effort to get out into the community. Speaking engagements can stimulate public awareness of the program, which may have a number of effects, including more calls, more contributions, and more public acceptance.
- o Several groups apparently are in need of better and more extensive training with respect to the program: (a) patrol officers on the street; (b) communications personnel who handle after-hours calls, and (c)

civilian volunteers i.e., non-police persons who contribute their time answering phones and doing clerical tasks.

- o The initial processing of Crime Stoppers calls lays the groundwork for the successful creation and pursuit of a criminal investigation. Moreover, the forwarding of quality (i.e. workable) information increases the probability of arrest, and enhances the credibility of the program among investigators. Thus, proper interviewing techniques must be established so that interviewers obtain critical information on the initial (and oftentimes only) call. In addition, the staff must be extremely careful to avoid either under-screening or over-screening potential cases (problems we have observed). The former leads to weak or useless information that is offensive to investigators, whereas the latter impinges upon the investigators expertise and responsibility.
- o To maintain accountability for Crime Stoppers cases, programs should consider establishing (a) a follow-up form that would be completed by investigators assigned to the case, (b) a tickler file to remind staff about delinquent cases, and (c) a departmental policy that requires investigators to cooperate fully with the program. Although personal contact with individual detectives is useful for maintaining rapport, accountability issues should be handled through the chain-of-command, with investigations' supervisors being required to do follow-up work for the program.
- o Program recordkeeping practices generally leave much room for improvement. Key variables related to program operations and effectiveness are often unreliably measured or sporadically documented. There is a need to develop nationally-accepted standards for measuring performance -- standards that are fair to most programs regardless of the size of the population served or the volume of crime reported to the police. The most popular productivity statistics used today (such as the number of cases solved, the amount of property and narcotics recovered, and the number of convictions), are either unreliable or systematically biased. However, improvement in certain of these measures is possible by using more precise definitions and by correcting for the volume of crime in the community.
- o Police Chiefs, Deputy Chiefs, and other members of the administrative upper echelon play a pivotal role in creating an atmosphere of legitimacy for the program. The "true" sentiments of administrators are readily conveyed in lukewarm directives calling for the support of Crime Stoppers. Because it is frequently viewed as

an unproven commodity, department heads must actively campaign to insure the unencumbered development of the program. This support should translate into better and more adequate staffing, written directives, greater cooperation from investigators, greater visibility for the program, and a general atmosphere of acceptance. Thus, it is imperative that in the early stages of implementation, officers are offered incentives for their participation in Crime Stoppers. To further increase acceptance, "success stories" should be regularly publicized, and investigators must be frequently shown that the achievements of the program enhance (rather than deflate) the recognition they receive for their personal investigative efforts.

- o Training civilians to properly screen calls should be a priority. Volunteers who are exposed to courses in investigatory, interrogating, and interviewing techniques would be an extremely valuable asset to Crime Stoppers. This type of supplementary training may be a good avenue for improving the solvability ratings of Crime Stoppers cases, and thereby increasing the willingness of investigators to cooperate with and to utilize the program. In addition, members of the Police Department's communications unit should be trained to accept Crime Stoppers calls after program hours. Critical evening and weekend calls can be "lost" because callers are likely to become discouraged by frequent "no answers" or inappropriate questioning.

The Board of Directors

- o Given that a board member's willingness to work hard for the program is one of the best predictors of fundraising success, board's must insure that they have the ability to screen out individuals who do not have the necessary motivation to help the program. Creating by-laws which automatically drop members who miss consecutive meetings has been successful for this purpose. Boards should also consider establishing specific responsibilities for board members. We recognize that some board members are really honorary members and programs will need to develop rules and regulations that take this into account.
- o Boards should attempt to allocate work more evenly among board members. Not only does this seem to result in more effective fundraising, but it should help to alleviate widespread concern about "burnout" among the hardest-working board members.
- o Fund-raising is the most critical function of the board, and it should not be surprising that there is no single fundraising strategy or technique that is

guaranteed to work for all Crime Stoppers programs. Boards should recognize that techniques differ in their cost-effectiveness and may be used to serve different purposes. For example, mail solicitations are much more cost-effective than in-person contacts with business, (due to the low cost of mass mailing and the time consuming nature of in-person contacts), although the latter will raise as much money and may benefit the program in other ways. In addition, fundraising programs must be tailored to the characteristics and needs of the community.

- o Dozens of approaches to fundraising have been tried with varying degrees of success. These experiences should be shared and exchanged by means of statewide, regional, and national associations. Trying new strategies is also a good way to avoid burnout. Boards should consider recruiting local fundraising experts as board members. Fundraising is not just a chance event -- it is a combination of knowledge and effort applied to a specific community.
- o To avoid disagreements, boards should consider developing and applying objective guidelines for making judgments about the size of caller rewards. Some programs, for example, assign points or weights to various dimensions of a particular case (e.g., crime severity, victim impact, amount of property recovered, risks encountered by callers), and combine these scores to yield a total that recommends a specific reward or range of rewards. However, these formulas should be reviewed and perhaps rescaled in light of the findings from the Reward Experiment.

The Media

- o Given that the number of media outlets does not predict a program's level of success, it appears that the quality of the relationship between the media and other components of the program is what makes a difference. In fact, overall ratings of media cooperativeness were associated with program productivity. Thus, law enforcement and board members should work on strengthening existing relationships, as well as creating new relationships.
- o In order to minimize problems with the media, their involvement should be sought very early in the program planning process. However, obtaining initial media cooperation can be difficult, especially in larger population centers. Strategies for approaching the media can be learned from cities that have developed strong relationships.

- o Media competition for Crime Stoppers in larger urban areas can create a difficult situation for all parties. Media exclusivity has both advantages and disadvantages for the program. If possible, Crime Stoppers should seek to expand the audience for the benefit of public safety. This has been successfully performed in some cities. However, in some cases, the cost to the program may be too great to break up an exclusive relationship.

General Observations

- o The Impact Study in Indianapolis demonstrates that Crime Stoppers can be very effective in stimulating awareness of the program among law enforcement officers, business persons, and city residents. However, it is important not to expect too much in the way of changes in attitudes and behavior over a relatively short period of time.
- o When planning training seminars for Crime Stoppers programs, the state, regional, and national organizers should keep in mind that most programs are relatively small, serving populations under 100,000. The relationships, needs, resources, etc. are quite different than would be found in larger urban areas.
- o To avoid the problems and issues that often arise between different components of the program, (e.g. meeting deadlines, disclosing case information, sharing responsibilities), every effort should be made to maintain open channels of communication between the media, law enforcement, and the board. This includes an open discussion of mutual expectations, policies, and problems.
- o The Reward Experiment in Lake County suggests that reward size may not be as important to most callers as many people believe. The findings suggest that the usual advice of "when in doubt, pay more" may not be appropriate. Even 100 dollars appears sufficient to keep most callers satisfied, regardless of the circumstances of the case.
- o Since Crime Stoppers inception, a number of legal questions and debates have arisen with regard to its organization, operations, and staff. Some of the major concerns in this domain include: (a) protecting Crime Stoppers' personnel from criminal and civil liability with regard to such claims as false arrest and imprisonment, defamation of character, invasion of privacy, violations of civil rights, breach of contract, illegal fundraising activities, and the misappropriation and unauthorized use of protected

properties; (b) establishing the credibility of paid callers as witnesses and as a supportable source of probable cause for arrests, searches and seizures; and (c) upholding the privilege of maintaining the anonymity of callers.

It is essential that Crime Stoppers staff at all levels stay abreast of these legal issues, and are adequately equipped to make effective responses to potential challenges and law suits. The best preparation is via formalized training and education. Also, staff should be encouraged to become conversant with precedential cases, and to attend seminars and conferences which focus on the legalistic aspects of program functioning. Other hedges against harmful litigation involve the incorporation of programs, the invocation of government immunity, the purchasing of insurance, the utilization of waivers, releases, and other legal instruments, the solicitation of legal counsel, and the conscientious documentation of decisions and correspondence which may contain legalistic implications and consequences.

- o In most programs, the occurrence of calls reaches a peak in the hours and days immediately succeeding the broadcast of the "Crime of the Week." Hence, it is advisable that phone coverage during these times be expanded. For example, it might be useful to assign personnel to answer telephones beyond regular program hours on both the evening of and following the airing of "Crime of the Week."
- o Creating state-wide programs through legislation has the advantage of assuring that the program will have sufficient staffing and finances to provide support, training, and technical assistance. However, instituting a state-wide program in this manner increases the likelihood that such efforts will become politicized. States considering the formation of a state-wide program will have to weigh the costs and benefits of alternative program structures.

Future Research

A few knowledge gaps deserve mention. Future studies should seek to produce better estimates of how often cases are solved through Crime Stoppers that would not be solved (or at least would not be solved as quickly) through the traditional criminal investigation process. There is also a need for additional impact data to determine the nature and extent of media effects on the general public -- how

does the "Crime of the Week" and other media coverage influence people's perceptions of crime, attitudes about citizen participation, and participatory behaviors over an extended period of time? Finally, future research should determine more precisely who uses the anonymous tip lines and for what reasons. The importance of anonymity and reward size in the eyes of different callers should be examined in greater detail. Continued research in these topic areas should advance our knowledge of Crime Stoppers' efficiency as a law enforcement technique, its impact on the general public, and the circumstances under which citizens decide to utilize the program.

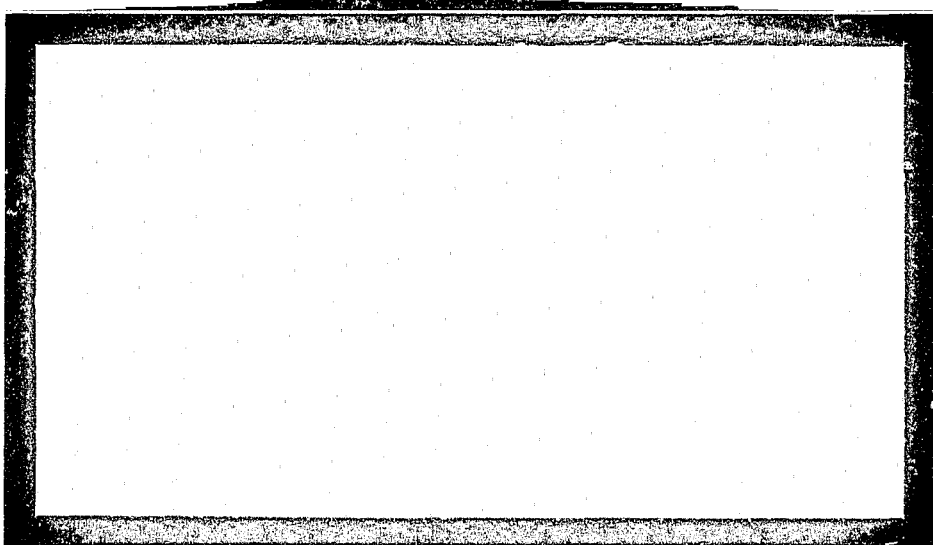
REFERENCES

- Batson, C.D., Coke, J.S., Janosky, M.L., & Hanson, M. (1978). Buying kindness: Effects of an extrinsic incentive for helping on perceived altruism. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 4, 86-91.
- Bickman, L., Edwards, J., Lavrakas, P.J., & Green, S. (1977). National evaluation program phase I summary report: Citizens Crime Reporting Projects. United States Department of Justice: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration.
- Bickman, L. & Rosenbaum, D.P. (1977). Crime Reporting as a function of bystander encouragement, surveillance and credibility. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 35, 577-586.
- Calder, B.J. & Straw, B.M. (1975). Self-perception of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 31, 599-605.
- Clevenger, M. (1980). Personal norms as a type of intrinsic motivation. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Wisconsin-Madison.
- Deci, E.L. (1971). Effects of externally mediated rewards on intrinsic motivation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 18, 105-115.
- Deci, E.L. (1972). The effects of contingent and non-contingent rewards and controls on intrinsic motivation. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 8, 217-229.
- Eck, John E. (1983). Solving Crimes: The Investigation of Burglary and Robbery. Police Executive Research Forum, Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice, U.S. Department of Justice.
- Enzle, M.E. & Ross, J.M. (1978). Increasing and decreasing intrinsic interest with contingent rewards: A test of cognitive evaluation theory. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 14, 588-597.
- Harackiewicz, J. (1979). The effects of rewards contingency and performance feedback on intrinsic motivation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37, 1352-1363.
- Heath, L. (1984). Impact of newspaper crime reports on fear of crime: multimethodological investigation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 47(2), 263-277.
- Karniol, R. & Ross, M. (1977). The effects of performance-relevant and performance-irrelevant rewards on children's intrinsic motivation. Child Development, 48, 482-487.

- Kunda & Schwartz (1983). Undermining intrinsic moral motivation: External reward and self-presentation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45, 763-771.
- Latane, B. & Darley, J.M. (1976). Help In a Crisis: Bystander Response to an Emergency. Morristown, New Jersey: General Learning Press.
- Latane, B. & Rodin, J. (1969). A lady in distress: Inhibiting effects of friends and strangers on bystander intervention. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 5, 189-202.
- Lavrakas, P.J., Rosenbaum, D.P. & Kaminski, F. (1983). Transmitting information about crime and crime prevention to citizens: The Evanston Newsletter quasi-experiment. Journal of Police Science and Administration, 11, 463-473.
- Moore, M.H. (1977). Buy and Bust. Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books.
- Moriarty, T. (1975). Crime, commitment and the responsive bystander: Two field experiments. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 31, 370-376.
- O'Keefe, G.J. (1986). The "McGruff" National Media Campaign: Its public impact and future implications. In D.P. Rosenbaum (ed.) Major evaluations in police-citizen crime prevention. Beverly Hills, California: Sage.
- Piliavin, I.M., Rodin, J. & Piliavin, J.A. (1969). Good samaritanism: An underground phenomenon? Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 13, 289-299.
- Pinder, C.C. (1976). Additivity versus nonadditivity of intrinsic and extrinsic incentives: Implications for work motivation, performance and attitudes. Journal of Applied Psychology, 61, 693-700.
- Pittman, T.S., Cooper, E.E. & Smith, T.W. (1977). Attribution of causality and the overjustification effect. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 3, 280-283.
- Riley, D. & Mayhew, P. (1980). Crime prevention publicity: An assessment. London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, Home Office Research Study No. 63.
- Ryan, R.M., Mims, V. & Koestner, R. (1983). Relation of reward contingency: A review and test using cognitive evaluation theory and interpersonal context to intrinsic motivation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45, 736-750.
- Shotland, L.R. & Stebbings, C.A., (1980). The role of bystanders in crime control. Journal of Social Issues, 40, 9-26.

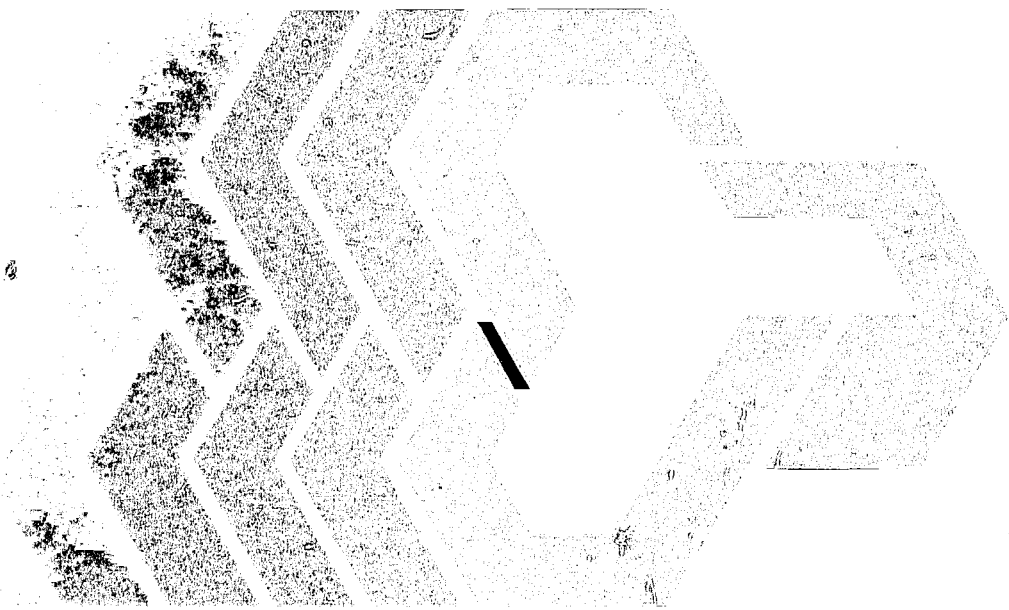
- Skogan, W.G., & Antunes, G. (1979). Information, apprehension, and deterrence: Exploring the limits of police productivity. Journal of Criminal Justice, Fall, 217-242.
- Thomas, G.D., Batson, C.D., & Coke, J.S. (1981). Do good samaritans discourage helpfulness? Self-perceived altruism after exposure to highly helpful others. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 40, 194-200.
- Tyler, T.R. (1978). Drawing inferences from experiences: The effect of crime victimization experiences upon crime-related attitudes and behaviors. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles.
- Tyler, T.R. (1984). Assessing the risk of crime victimization: The integration of personal victimization experience and socially transmitted information. Journal of Social Issues, 40, 27-38.
- Tyler, T.R., & Cook, F.L. (1984). The mass media and judgements of risk: Distinguishing impact on personal and societal level judgements. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 47, 693-708.
- Tyler, T.R., & Lavrakas, P.J. (1985). Cognitions leading to personal and political behaviors: The case of crime. In S. Kraus & R.M. Perloff (eds.) Mass Media and political thought: An information-processing approach. Sage.
- Watson, R.I., (1973). Investigation into deindividuation using a crosscultural survey technique. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 25, 342-345.
- Weiner, M.J., & Mander, A.M. (1978). The effects of reward and perception of competency upon intrinsic motivation. Motivation and Emotion, 2, 67-73.
- Wilson, J.P. (1976). Motivation, modeling, and altruism: A person situation and analysis. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 34, 1078-1086.
- Zimbardo, P.G. (1970). The human choice: Individuation, reason and order versus deindividuation, impulse, and chaos. In W.J. Arnold & D. Levine (eds.) Nebraska symposium on motivation, 1969. Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press.

MF-1



COMMUNITY CRIME PREVENTION PAPERS

163057



U.S. Department of Justice
National Institute of Justice

This document has been reproduced exactly as received from the person or organization originating it. Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the National Institute of Justice.

Permission to reproduce this copyrighted material has been granted by

Public Domain/NIJ
U.S. Department of Justice

to the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS).

Further reproduction outside of the NCJRS system requires permission of the copyright owner.

CRIME STOPPERS: A NATIONAL EVALUATION
OF PROGRAM OPERATIONS AND EFFECTS
Final Report
submitted to the
National Institute of Justice

Prepared by

Dennis P. Rosenbaum, Ph.D.
Principal Investigator

Arthur J. Lurigio, Ph.D.
Project Manager

and

Paul J. Lavrakas, Ph.D.
Co-Principal Investigator

Center for Urban Affairs and Policy Research
Northwestern University
May 1, 1986

This report was prepared under Cooperative Agreement #NIJ-83-IJ-CX-K050 between Northwestern University and the National Institute of Justice, U.S. Department of Justice. Any opinions expressed are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the official position of the National Institute of Justice or Northwestern University. We wish to thank Dr. Richard Rau, our Project Monitor, for his thoughtful advice and helpful feedback throughout the project.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We commence our acknowledgements with the hope that we have properly cited all the persons who lent support and encouragement to our endeavor. First, we are grateful to a cadre of nationally-recognized Crime Stoppers practitioners, who were available throughout the project to meticulously review and comment upon drafts of instruments and reports, and to offer sage advice on the execution of our research plans. Among these individuals, we extend special thanks to Greg MacAleese, Ron Hauri, Chuck Jackson, Coleman Tily and Larry Weida.

Second, considerable gratitude is due to the participants in the project's two specialized case studies. Their conscientious attention to detail and their sincere commitment to the research in spirit and practice guaranteed that the investigations were completed in strict accordance with timetables and procedures. This group includes Waukegan Police Chief Ron Hauri, Mike Holiday, and Corporal Jerry Pankauskas of Lake County, Illinois, and Lieutenant Moore and Deputy Chief Joseph Shelton of Indianapolis, Indiana.

Third, there were those who graciously accepted us into the confines of their programs and communities for indepth site visits. Their hospitality, friendliness, and cooperation exceeded far beyond our expectations. We are indebted to Sergeant C.T. Smith of Denver, Colorado, Sam McKeeman of Wilmington, Delaware, Investigator Susan Moore of Tuscon, Arizona, Detective Peter Geidl of Portland, Oregon, Lieutenant Tim Kline and Ray Duran of Albuquerque, New Mexico, Officer John Kopensparger of Alexandria, Virginia, and Officer Gary Schiedecker of Bozeman, Montana. A special thanks goes out to the Chairpersons, Police Investigators and Media representatives within these cities who took time away from busy schedules to elaborate on the origins and operations of their programs. We also extend our gratitude to Sergeant Gary Shelton of Mt. Airy, North Carolina who sent us a wealth of material about his program.

Fourth, we wish to express our appreciation to those who volunteered in the arduous process of collecting data. Dr. Roy Soloff, Greg MacAleese, Coleman Tily,

Chuck Jackson, Tex Martin, Sam Walsh, Susan Moore, George Ludington, Larry Wieda, Beverly Richardson and others cajoled, coerced, and wheedled Coordinators and Chairpersons to complete mail questionnaires, which no doubt have left a substantial number of them with a lifelong disdain "for academics and their damn surveys." Nonetheless, we are indebted to the survey respondents in law enforcement, the media, and the board of directors who took this research seriously and made this project possible by completing lengthy questionnaires.

Fifth, we acknowledge the support and assistance of our national advisory board comprised of Paul Berry, Program Director, WJLA in Washington, D.C., Dr. Lee Brown, Chief of Police, Houston, Texas, Joseph Koziol, Chief of Police, Portsmouth, Virginia, Greg MacAleese (again), Founder of Crime Stoppers and Program Coordinator, Texas Crime Stoppers Advisory Council, William Swadley, Former Chair of the Board of Directors, Rockford Illinois Crime Stoppers and Charles Jackson, President, Crime Stoppers International. We are especially grateful for their conscientious technical critique of our work from which this report greatly profited.

Finally, we are indebted to many people in the U.S. Department of Justice who made this evaluation possible. Lois Herrington, Assistant Attorney General and James Stewart, Director of the National Institute of Justice each demonstrated strong support for this project and actively participated in our national advisory board meeting. Dr. Fred Heinzelmann was continually involved in the project, serving as "the voice of reason" and offering many good suggestions. We reserve our last and certainly our highest kudos for Dr. Richard Rau, the Crime Stoppers project monitor. Dick was with us each and every step of the way, providing invaluable recommendations, exhortations and guidance. He was truly instrumental in inaugurating and bringing this project to fruition.

DPR
AJL
PAL

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	iv
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
A. THE CRIME STOPPERS PROGRAM.....	1
B. THE NATIONAL EVALUATION.....	4
C. THE FINAL REPORT.....	7
II. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	8
A. THE USE OF INFORMANTS.....	9
B. BYSTANDER INTERVENTION AND VICTIMS' CRIME REPORTING BEHAVIOR.....	19
C. REWARDS, ANONYMITY, AND CRIME REPORTING.....	27
D. THE MASS MEDIA AND CRIME PREVENTION.....	35
III. METHODOLOGY.....	41
A. SCOPE OF THE NATIONAL EVALUATION.....	42
B. STAGE 1: NATIONAL TELEPHONE SCREENING.....	44
Screening of State-wide Programs.....	45
C. STAGE 2: THE NATIONAL MAIL QUESTIONNAIRES.....	46
Developing Instrumentation.....	46
Data Collection, Follow-up Efforts, and Analyses....	47
National Questionnaire of Media Executives.....	48
D. STAGE 3: CASE STUDIES AND SITE VISITS.....	51
Impact Study.....	51
Reward Experiment.....	58
Site Visits and Measurement-Only Case Studies.....	62
The Final Selection of Programs and the Conduct of of Case Studies.....	65
IV. DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS: A NATIONAL LOOK AT CRIME STOPPERS.....	68
A. CRIME STOPPERS: A CHANGING PROGRAM.....	68
Growth, Location and Distribution of Programs.....	68
State-wide Programs.....	71
B. LAW ENFORCEMENT AND THE POLICE COORDINATOR.....	74
Coordinator Personal Characteristics.....	74
Crime Stoppers Calls.....	77
C. THE MEDIA.....	82
Media and Program Start-up.....	82
Media and Present Operations.....	85
Media and Public Awareness.....	89
National Survey of Media Executives.....	92
D. THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS: REWARDS AND FUND-RAISING.....	97
Performance of the Board.....	98
Reward Systems.....	99
Fund-raising.....	103

NOV 1986

SEP 22 1986

ACQUISITIONS

V. EVALUATIVE RESULTS: ASSESSING THE EFFECTS OF CRIME STOPPERS...109

A.	CRIME STOPPERS AS A CRIME CONTROL PROGRAM.....	110
B.	PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES ABOUT CRIME STOPPERS.....	118
	The Participants' View of Crime.....	118
	The Nonparticipatns' View of Crime Stoppers.....	119
C.	A TEST OF CRIME STOPPERS' EFFECTS: THE INDIANAPOLIS IMPACT STUDY.....	123
	The Effects of Crime Stoppers on Indianapolis Business.....	125
	The Effects of Crime Stoppers on Police Officers and Investigators.....	128
	The Effects of Crime Stoppers on Community Residents...	131
D.	FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH PROGRAM PRODUCTIVITY.....	138
	Measures of Productivity.....	139
	Coordinator and Law Enforcement Variables.....	140
	Media Variables.....	144
	Board Variables.....	146
	Overall Ratings of Program Components.....	148
	Contextual Variables.....	149
E.	THE REWARD EXPERIMENT IN LAKE COUNTY.....	152
F.	MEASUREMENT PROBLEMS AND ISSUES.....	154
G.	ISSUES AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS.....	160
	Law Enforcement.....	160
	The Board of Directors.....	162
	The Media.....	164
	General Observations.....	164

Appendix A Telephone Screening Interview

Appendix B State-wide Program Telephone Survey

Appendix C Police Coordinator and Chairperson of the Board of
Director Surveys

Appendix D National Media Executives Survey

Appendix E Impact Study Surveys (Community, Business, and Police)

Appendix F Reward Experiment Questionnaire

Appendix G Site Visit Interview Formats and Observational Checklist

ABSTRACT

Crime Stoppers is a cooperative crime control program involving the mass media, law enforcement, and community volunteers in an effort to solve felony crimes through citizen participation. Crime Stoppers encourages citizens to report information about crime by offering callers monetary rewards and guaranteeing their anonymity. The present two year national evaluation was designed to examine how programs function and to identify advantages and disadvantages of Crime Stoppers to law enforcement and the community. The project employed a variety of methodologies including national mail questionnaires, case studies, and numerous site visits to observe program operations.

Results indicate that Crime Stoppers programs are rapidly growing and exist at a number of levels (local, state, regional, national, and international) and in a complex of settings (urban, rural, suburban). Although criticized by some, the programs are viewed favorably by the media, law enforcement, agencies and the community representatives that participate in them, and seem able to solve felony crimes that could not be solved through traditional investigative procedures. Although Crime Stoppers generates a high level of awareness within a community, it does not immediately lead to significant changes in citizens' attitudes and behaviors with regard to crime and crime reporting. The most productive programs are those with very cooperative media, a police coordinator who involves the community in Crime Stoppers through speaking engagements, and a board of directors that works hard and allocates program responsibilities to all its members.

I. INTRODUCTION

A. THE CRIME STOPPERS PROGRAM

One of the most rapidly expanding and visible crime control programs in the United States is "Crime Stoppers". Variouslly known as "Crime Solvers," "Secret Witness," and "Crime Line," these self-sustaining programs utilize the mass media, the community and law enforcement in an unprecedented way to involve private citizens in the fight against serious crime. Based on the premise that many individuals are unwilling to provide information to the police about criminal activity either because of apathy or fear of retaliation, Crime Stoppers offers cash rewards as an incentive (typically ranging from \$100.00 to \$1000.00), and guarantees anonymity to persons who come forth with details that lead to the arrest and/or indictment of suspected criminals.

Solving crimes is a difficult job that constantly challenges the law enforcement community. There are many factors that limit the effectiveness of police performance (Rosenbaum, 1982). Of paramount importance is the ability of witnesses and informants to provide reliable information about the identity of suspects. Without this basic information from people who know about the crime incident, the probability of solving any particular offense is drastically reduced (cf. Skogan & Antunes, 1979).

Recognizing the critical role of the private citizen in solving crime, a police officer in Albuquerque, New Mexico named Greg MacAleese started the first Crime Stoppers program in 1976. Although the Albuquerque program was preceded by other programs in the early 1970s that used cash rewards and anonymity as their primary incentives (see

Bickman et al., 1976), Officer MacAleese was the first to feature the media in a central role. Since 1976, Crime Stoppers programs have rapidly appeared across the United States and have been touted as one of the nation's most cost-effective anti-crime measures. A number of programs have recently started in Canada and adoption is being considered in European countries as well.

The success of Crime Stoppers hinges upon the joint cooperation and concerted efforts of its various elements, which include representatives of the community, the local media, and the police department. Each program's board of directors -- reflecting one aspect of the community's contribution to the program -- is responsible for setting policy, coordinating fund raising activities aimed at public and private contributors, and formulating a system of reward allocation. The media plays a major role in disseminating basic facts about the program's objectives, general operations, and achievements. Moreover, it serves to regularly publicize the details of unsolved offenses by presenting a reenactment or narrative description of a selected "Crime of the Week". Finally, it is the task of law enforcement personnel to process reported crime information and to direct it to detectives for further investigation. The police coordinator also functions in a variety of other capacities which entail such tasks as selecting the "Crime of the Week," drafting press releases and radio feeds, consulting in the design of televised crime portrayals, keeping records and statistics on program performance, and serving as the liaison with the board of directors and the media.

The precipitous growth of Crime Stoppers programs in the past few years is obvious from the statistics. The number of operational

programs has burgeoned from 5 in 1978 to 48 in 1980. Today there are an estimated 500 programs accepting calls, and new programs are emerging on a weekly basis. In addition, national statistics prepared by Crime Stoppers International indicate that the total number of cases solved by Crime Stoppers programs has increased from 4,683 in 1980 to 23,193 in 1982 to 62,907 by 1984. Similarly, convictions have risen from 1,826 in 1980 to 6,905 in 1982 to 15,000 by 1984. At the end of 1984, 330 programs had recovered 109 million dollars in stolen property and 215 million dollars in narcotics.

B. THE NATIONAL EVALUATION

The National Institute of Justice, interested in the possibility that Crime Stoppers might be an effective new strategy for controlling crime and enhancing citizen participation, elected to fund a national evaluation of these programs. If Crime Stoppers is a sound program with benefits for the communities involved, then other communities without this program should be informed about its existence and how it can be best implemented.

Given that Crime Stoppers programs had never been evaluated or researched by social scientists, the unanswered questions were numerous. Three general questions were proposed as a guiding framework for this national evaluation. First, How does Crime Stoppers work in both theory and practice? What operations and procedures are involved in making the program function as it should? One major objective of the national evaluation was to better understand the respective roles and functions of the media, the community, and law enforcement as they contribute to the Crime Stoppers program. How do these components operate and interact to achieve such program objectives as effective media coverage, successful fund raising, and the proper disposition of information supplied by informants? Another objective of the national evaluation was to examine differences that exist as a function of the size and type of populations served by Crime Stoppers. For example, how does the operation of the program differ for urban versus rural settings, or large versus small populations?

A second guiding question was -- What are the advantages and disadvantages of Crime Stoppers programs to law enforcement agencies

and the community? Does Crime Stoppers really stop crime? Is it an effective tool for obtaining important suspect-relevant information? How do people feel about Crime Stoppers? What factors are associated with high program productivity? These questions were addressed under this evaluation by examining a number of issues and outcomes associated with Crime Stoppers programs. A variety of performance measures were analyzed, ranging from program productivity statistics to community perceptions. The evaluation also tested a number of hypotheses about the possible impact of Crime Stoppers on the police, the citizenry, the business sector, and informants. At the national level, the primary research agenda was to explore the relationship between measured input variables (e.g. the performance ratings of the law enforcement, board, and media components) and measured outcome variables (e.g., performance statistics such as calls received and cases solved).

The final guiding question for this national evaluation was -- What are the policy implications of this research for existing or new programs? Specifically, what have we learned from studying these programs that could improve current practices and/or aid in the development of new programs? One approach to policy analysis focused on operational issues, beginning with the knowledge of which configurations of activities and processes were the most likely to yield beneficial results. After significant relationships between input/process and outcome variables were identified, these findings provided a foundation for selected policy analysis. The main predictor variables fell into several broad categories: (a) law enforcement and the police coordinator's role, (b) the board of

directors and (c) the media. Special attention was given to the level of cooperation, skill, and resources supplied in each of these critical domains. Techniques of fund raising and reward allocation were two areas that were carefully examined to evaluate their relative cost-effectiveness. Rewards are sufficiently important to the Crime Stoppers program that a special experiment was designed to explore the effects of varying reward sizes on informants' perceptions, attitudes, and behavior.

C. THE FINAL REPORT

Large quantities of local and national data were collected during the two years of the evaluation. The final report describes the methodologies employed and offers the first national look at the types of programs in existence and how they operate.

This report begins with a review of the literature in diverse areas relevant to Crime Stoppers. Because our exhaustive search through the National Criminal Justice Research Service confirmed our suspicion that there is no published literature on Crime Stoppers, per se, we examined other areas of research that were judged to have either direct or indirect implications for programs like Crime Stoppers.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

As suggested above, a number of comprehensive and professional library searches revealed a paucity of work directly related to Crime Stoppers and other cognate programs. Apart from two or three articles describing the origin and operations of Crime Stoppers, there was essentially no literature to review. Hence, we widened our search to encompass any social science and criminal justice research or expositions that were germane to the fundamental principles and procedures of Crime Stoppers. The literature review that follows encompasses four major topic areas: (a) the use of informants; (b) bystander intervention and victims' reporting of crime; (c) the effects of rewards and anonymity; and (d) the participation of the mass media in public crime prevention efforts.

A. THE USE OF INFORMANTS

Building a case against a criminal offender basically consists of collecting evidence supporting hypotheses about that person's behavior and intentions. Essentially, investigative procedures are designed to amass details about the alleged perpetrator and his/her involvement vis-a-vis the incident in question. Three general strategies are available to the police for developing cases (Moore, 1977): (a) patrol - efforts to monitor areas, persons, activities, etc. to uncover offenses in progress, or to be in an advantageous position to effectively respond to those offenses; (b) retrospective investigation - efforts to reconstruct offenses that have already occurred, and to illuminate and corroborate the elements of the offenses through a "historical tracing" of physical evidence and the testimony of credible witnesses; and (c) prospective investigation - efforts to learn about offenses that are likely to occur, or to create the antecedent conditions for crimes to be committed in full view of the police. Although each of the above tactics and their variants are regularly utilized to solve offenses, some of the strategies are particularly effective with certain categories of cases and do not work as well with others (e.g., prospective investigations involving the sale of drugs to undercover officers can be quite successful, whereas the use of patrol to develop drug cases is rarely productive). Notwithstanding the obvious differences of these approaches, a common thread runs through all of the investigative technologies (i.e., the importance of gathering and processing useful information).

Investigative restrictions

In seeking to garner information to prove the elements of an offense "beyond a reasonable doubt," police face formidable statutory, constitutional, and legal restrictions which constrain their efforts by specifying the quantity and quality evidence that must be adduced to secure a conviction, and by limiting police behavior with regard to developing cases. The most fundamental restrictions are grounded in the fourth amendment, which stands as a palladium against unreasonable searches and seizures. Moreover, during the 60's and 70's, the Supreme Court's inquiries into law enforcement practices resulted in multiple restrictions on police conduct, particularly in the realm of collecting and interpreting of evidence relating to the identification of criminal suspects. For example, in the 1979 case of Delaware v. Prouse, the Supreme Court ruled that "random car stops require articulable suspicions." The much earlier Mapp v. Ohio (1961) decision found that evidence obtained during an illegal search and seizure was inadmissible in state as well as federal courts. Developments such as these in criminal law, which limit what Wilson (1968) calls aggressive police practice (i.e., "gathering more information about people who may be about to commit, or recently have committed, a crime," p. 63), have further increased police reliance on informants to provide them with the necessary knowledge to effectively close criminal cases.

Who is the criminal informant?

The use of informants has traditionally been part and parcel of the set of techniques employed by police officers to solve criminal cases. It is generally recognized that individuals who serve as an

extension to the "eyes and ears" of the police make an invaluable contribution to law enforcement. Indeed, available evidence indicates that more than three-fourths of all arrests are effected as a result of reports initiated by citizens, and that relatively few occur on the basis of police surveillance alone (Smith & Visher, 1981; Black, 1970).

The late J. Edgar Hoover, former long-time director of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, stated that furnishing information to the police was "one of the citizens' primary obligations." In the early histories of England and America, this obligation was referred to as the "Hue and Cry," which required all members of a community to join in the pursuit of felons. At the turn of the last century, police officers basically served as public watchmen or "patrolers of the streets" who were designated to alert the residents of an area that a crime had transpired. Private citizens would then apprehend the offender and subject him/her to a condign punishment. Over the past 150 years, however, there has been a reverse evolution of roles: police officers are now solely responsible for pursuing criminals, making arrests, and solving offenses, whereas citizens act as the "pipelines" through which information is carried to the police concerning the commission of crimes.

The criminal informant has been basically defined as a "person who informs or prefers an accusation against another, whom he/she suspects of the violation of some penal statute" (Black, 1968, p.919). This definition is somewhat euphemistic when compared to the variety of epithets heaped on informants by the criminal world. Among this collection of unflattering appellations are such labels as "snitch",

"fink", "rat", "stool pigeon", and "scab". Unfortunately, these titles are frequently used by police officers when referring to their own sources of information, and by society in general. As one writer has noted "Stool pigeons are neither Boy Scouts, princes of the church, nor recipients of testimonials" (Moylan, 1974, p. 758). It is accurate to conclude that many officers view informants contemptuously, but nevertheless regard them as a valuable adjunct to their crime solving efforts.

Criminal informants may become pariahs of society for a number of reasons (MacAleese & Tily, 1983): (a) "snitching" constitutes a breach of trust, i.e., it requires relating material that may have been communicated in confidence; (b) informants often attempt to induce people to make admissions and to convey details to them for their own selfish gain; (c) encouraging informants to spy on their neighbors is reminiscent of Nazi Germany and Orwell's 1984; and (d) the activities of informants are seen as infringing on the duties of professional law enforcement agencies which are sanctioned by society to investigate crimes and apprehend criminals. In two studies that examined subjects' judgments of the morality and likeability of persons who did and did not report observed crimes, Himmelfarb (1980) found that for certain nonserious offenses, reporters were less liked than nonreporters even though subjects rated them as more moral. These data suggest that our culture views criminal informants with an ambivalent eye: on the one hand providing information to assist the police in bringing an offender to justice is a laudable act, on the other, it represents an intrusion upon the assiduously guarded rights of individual privacy and behavioral freedom.

A typology of informants. There is no single category of persons or occupations that best exemplifies the criminal informant. Obviously, the most useful individual from whom to receive information pertaining to crime is the criminal him/herself. In lieu of this luxury, it is incumbent upon police officers to acquire the details of offenses from alternative sources including accomplices to the crime, citizen-complainants who are firsthand witnesses to the incident and/or have heard about or observed incriminating actions or events, and fringe players (i.e., persons who associate with members of the criminal element and are therefore frequently in a position to be privy to information or to observe criminal behavior). According to Weston and Wells (1970) "good" informants are people directly or indirectly involved in crimes. Recognizing the importance of obtaining information from persons outside of law enforcement, police departments have long encouraged their officers and investigators to develop police informants as regular conduits of information about local criminal activities.

In general, police informants may be differentiated from citizen-complainants in several respects (Moore, 1977). First, the identity of citizens who report information to the police often remains anonymous, whereas the typical police informant is well known by one or more of the officers/investigators in a Department. Second, the police informant operates with the expectation that he/she will be receiving an explicit reward in exchange for supplying information (e.g., financial remuneration, police leniency in making an arrest or leveling a charge); the citizen-complainant proffers information without attaching a price. Third, the police informant has an abiding

relationship with law enforcement which evolves over the course of several transactions; the citizen's communications with the police usually remain episodic and short-lived. However, if an informant routinely fails to deliver useful information, he/she will probably be relegated to the status of a complainant. By the same token, if a complainant regularly supplies the police with tangible leads, he/she will be summarily cultivated as an informant. Finally, although there is wide variability in the quality of information provided by both groups, police informants generally supply information that is of a higher grade (i.e., more reliable, specific, and workable). This point is strongly supported by Eck (1983)'s study of criminal investigations which revealed that while officers and detectives obtain a large share of crime information from complainants and victims, these groups were among the least likely to offer fruitful details regarding the identity of a perpetrator. Eck's (1983) extensive research on police investigations of burglary and robbery, which was funded by the National Institute of Justice, further underscored the importance of informants as a means to forward the investigative process, and to increase the likelihood that both the crimes will be solved. Similarly, in their study of the criminal investigative process, Greenwood, Chaiken, Petersilia, and Prosoff (1975) also reported that police informants produced a large share of highly valuable information when interviewed by detectives.

The critical role of informants

The use of police informants plays a number of vital roles in solving cases (Moore, 1977). For example, informants provide the groundwork for justifying search-warrant arrests, as well as the

impetus for initiating or accelerating undercover operations. Moreover, their testimony in corroboration with standard police investigations can serve as the basis for grand jury indictments, and frequently becomes the pivotal piece of evidence that leads to a conviction. In an emphatic statement of the centrality of informants within the realm of drug enforcement, Moore (1977) contends that "in the midst of all the most important cases, one will find an informant."

The motivation of informants

Criminal informants may contact the police out of numerous and varying motivations. O'Hara (1976) and Horgan (1974) discuss the wide ranging factors that often compel individuals to become informants. It should be recognized that many of the same motivations are experienced by suspects being questioned about a crime and subjects providing confessions. These factors are: (a) fear -- concern for personal safety or the safety of loved ones; (b) vanity -- attempts to feel important or useful to the police; (c) ingratiation -- toadying the favor of police to earn special treatment or regard; (d) revenge -- a vindictive effort to "get even" with another; (e) repentance -- expiating guilt for previous wrongdoing; (f) jealousy -- actions to humiliate others who have earned greater accomplishments or possessions; (g) remuneration -- informing for a financial emolument or other material gain; (h) avoidance of punishment -- volunteering information to authorities for a promise of leniency; (i) civic mindedness -- efforts to protect the community from crime; (j) gratitude -- means to express appreciation; and (k) competition -- a

desire to undermine those who are pursuing the same criminal interests.

Assessing the quality of information

As the above suggests, information supplied by informants is frequently not given in the spirit of a concerned citizen, but rather is volunteered in exchange for some concession or payment. Because of this arrangement and the unsavory backgrounds of many informants, the police and others involved in the criminal justice system are forced to question the credibility of the informants' reports. In making a determination of the legitimacy of informants' information, law enforcement personnel are cognizant of three basic considerations (La Fave, 1978): (a) the informant's past performance -- if previous reports were reliable, the present information is more likely to be regarded as credible; (b) admission against interest -- if information provided by the informant is incriminating, the authorities' confidence in his/her credibility increases; and (c) the quality of information -- if the informant's report is detailed and precise, it is generally regarded as veridical.

Summary and Conclusions

Despite the widespread disdain with which criminal informants are generally regarded, they are a necessary and integral component of the criminal justice system in America. Evidence offered by informants is frequently instrumental in the apprehension of perpetrators and the solving of offenses. Informants, whose motivations for reporting to the police cover a broad spectrum, may be categorized as criminals, criminal accomplices, police informants, fringe players, and citizen-complainants. Informants are often valuable to the police

because they have criminal contacts and, therefore information about criminal activities. However, their affiliation with the so-called "criminal element" is often problematic, and necessitates that police agencies develop clear policies guiding the use of informants to forestall legal and constitutional difficulties. In addition, such policies must explicate which members of the agency are authorized to bargain with informants, how and when informants are compensated, appropriate responses to informant law-breaking behavior, and the protection of the informant's identity (Eck, 1983).

As noted above, the mechanics for developing and paying police informants have been firmly entrenched in most urban Police Departments for decades. Conventional wisdom and empirical evidence suggest that police informants are the most useful category of persons who provide information to the police regarding criminal activities. However, it does not appear that police informants, as a rule, are involved in the daily operations of most Crime Stoppers. Our observations have shown that the law enforcement agencies which house such programs have formulated implicit rules governing transactions with police informants. These rules include prohibiting police informants from "double-dipping," i.e., receiving a financial reward for information from both the police officer/investigator working the case and the Crime Stoppers program. Further, some programs actively discourage the payment of rewards to known police informants out of a serious concern that their participation in Crime Stoppers would generate adverse publicity, and would lend credence to the notion that the program provides a legitimized means for "common criminals to earn a living."

While most practitioners would maintain that the bottom line is to solve cases irrespective of the source of information, there is also a consensus that Crime Stoppers should foster the more plausible public image of enlisting law-abiding citizens in the fight against crime, as opposed to drawing the interest of criminals to "rat against" their compatriots. From the perspective of the police informant, contacting one's regular officer/investigator rather than Crime Stoppers is essential to maintaining the "quid pro quo" aspect of that relationship. Indeed, some informants may regard calling the program as stepping outside the boundaries of the relationship, and depriving their contacts of the first opportunity to make an arrest. Nonetheless, it should be noted that many investigators openly condone the involvement of police informants in Crime Stoppers -- especially in circumstances in which the Department's "reward kitty" is diminishing or depleted.

In Section B we will discuss the crime reporting behavior of bystanders and victims.

B. BYSTANDER INTERVENTION AND VICTIM'S CRIME REPORTING BEHAVIOR

Introduction

Victims of crime and bystanders or witnesses to criminal incidents play an important role in determining the number of offenders who are brought to justice. The willingness of citizens to report information and to volunteer testimony are so highly critical to the arrest, prosecution, and conviction of suspected criminals, that they have been dubbed the "gatekeepers of the criminal justice system" (Hindelang & Gottfredson, 1976). Although they have assumed this position for well over a century, it is only recently that social science investigators and law enforcement officials have begun to acknowledge the paramountcy of citizens' discretion in the operation of the criminal justice process. Two key occurrences heralded the importance of citizen involvement in the fight against crime, and provided the impetus for research efforts in the areas of bystander intervention and crime reporting behavior: the 1964 murder of Katherine ("Kitty") Genovese in New York, and three national surveys of victims of crime conducted in the late 1960's (e.g., , 1967).

In this section we will review the social psychological and criminal justice literature relating to bystander intervention which suggests why people may fail to offer direct or indirect assistance to victims during criminal episodes, and we will discuss the findings of national victimization surveys which highlight the factors that can effect victims' crime reporting behavior.

Bystander Intervention

Spurred by the Genovese murder, Latane and Darley conducted a series of seminal studies (e.g., Latane & Darley, 1968, 1969) that

examined helping responses in emergencies. Their work elicited a great deal of interest from the scientific community, and stimulated a prodigious amount of experimentation on the dynamics of bystander intervention. Latane and Darley (1970) developed a paradigm that has served as the prototype for the bulk of the domain's research. A typical design comprises three elements: (a) a precipitating incident, i.e., a contrived emergency staged in a laboratory or "real world" field setting (e.g., a subway or airport); (b) a victim in apparent danger or distress, i.e., an individual in the throes of an emergency who explicitly or implicitly cries out for aid; and (c) a bystander, i.e., a subject who witnesses an emergency either alone or in the presence of others, is exposed (directly or indirectly) to requests for assistance, and is required to make an urgent and efficient response to help the victim.

Despite an abiding research interest in the bystander in general, and the extended work that criminologists and psychologists have recently devoted to the study of crime victims, only minimal investigative attention has been given to the study of bystander responses during criminal episodes. Nevertheless, the body of knowledge generated by psychological research in this field may be extrapolated to provide a useful perspective in clarifying the nature and dimensions of anticipated bystander reactions to crime. This perspective may be further extended to acquire insight into the reluctance of some witnesses to "become involved" by reporting the details of a crime to the police, or by calling Crime Stoppers to recount their information. In short, although there are major differences between helping

situations and crime situations (e.g., the presence of a criminal), the present summary assumes that the extensive research findings concerned with witness or bystander intervention in non-criminal incidents are generalizable to criminal incidents.

Researchers in the area of bystander intervention have examined a variety of factors that are purported to affect the likelihood that an individual will help in an emergency. Major findings in the domain may be categorized into two broad classes of variables: (a) situational determinants, i.e., factors-relating to the social and physical environment in which the emergency occurs (e.g., ambiguity of the situation, the presence of other witnesses), and (b) individual difference variables, i.e., endogenous characteristics of the victim or bystander (e.g., personality characteristics, prior experiences).

Summary of Research Findings

Social psychological research on bystander intervention has uncovered a number of factors that have been shown to inhibit or facilitate peoples' involvement in emergency situations. Although many findings in this area may not be highly explanatory or germane to Crime Stoppers, this literature can elucidate some of the factors that may affect an individual's decision to contact such programs to report criminal information. Whether a person who witnesses a crime incident or is knowledgeable regarding the details of an offense will relate the information to authorities (including Crime Stoppers) is a function of various situational determinants, as well as the personal characteristics and traits of the prospective caller. Studies suggest that a situation conducive to the reporting of a crime is one in which: (a) the caller is or believes him/herself to be the sole

witness to the crime; (b) it is clear that a crime has actually occurred (i.e., the situation is low in ambiguity); (c) others are present to encourage the potential informant to call; (d) the caller feels some responsibility to report the crime; and (e) the costs of reporting are minimal relative to the benefits.

Other studies, which have examined personality variables, discuss findings that are admittedly limited in their generalizability because of the disparity between the experimental conditions and scenarios commonly employed in the research, and the complex circumstances surrounding the reporting of information to Crime Stoppers. However, evidence from this line of research leads to some interesting speculation regarding the characteristics of individuals who are inclined to intervene (directly or indirectly) in criminal incidents. Such persons are likely to be (a) high in self-esteem, self-assurance, and empathy; (b) a past victim of crime themselves; and (c) similar to the victim on one or more characteristics.

Reporting Crime to the Police: The Victim's Perspective

During the previous two decades, criminal victimization has been an ever-present social reality in the United States. Its pervasiveness is reflected in survey evidence of more than 41 million incidents of crime and violence that cost taxpayers an estimated nine billion dollars each year. The impact of crime touches a significant proportion of American homes not only through burglary, robbery, and car theft, but also through school and domestic violence, including child abuse (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1983).

The experience of criminal victimization can often have profound and unsettling psychological consequences (Burgess & Holmstrom, 1979;

Fischer & Wertz, 1979; Frederick, 1980). Victims are commonly left with feelings of anger and depression, a sense of violation and vulnerability, and are frequently enmeshed in a state of confusion about how to respond in the aftermath of a crime (Bard & Sangrey, 1979).

When confronted with such circumstances, victims may solicit attention and assistance from the criminal justice system. For some, the decision to notify the police is simple and axiomatic, i.e., informing the police in response to a criminal victimization is a socially sanctioned and expected behavior. As one crime victim noted, "I immediately thought of calling the police ... it's just a natural reaction. I figure when I need help that's who I go to" (Fischer, 1977 p. 7). For other victims, however, the decision to contact the police is fraught with uncertainty and ambivalence. Considerable time may be invested weighing alternative actions, and seeking the counsel of relatives, friends, and bystanders at the scene of the crime (Van Kirk, 1978). The outcome of this decision-making process is that most victims opt not to call the police.

It is widely accepted that the results of the National Crime Survey (NCS) are considered more reliable and complete information about the nature and extent of criminal victimization when compared to the police records and statistics represented in the Federal Bureau of Investigation's Uniform Crime Reports. In addition, victimization surveys provide useful data regarding factors that may affect victims' decisions to report crime. Variables that have been identified by the NCS and other studies of victims as important determinants of crime reporting are briefly summarized below.

Summary of Research Findings

As consistently evidenced by national surveys, crime victims often fail to report their victimization to the police. The decision of victims to inform law enforcement personnel is affected by numerous variables that may also impact upon a victim's decision to call Crime Stoppers. These variables include: (a) the seriousness of the crime -- crimes that are considered by the victim to be more serious are more likely to be reported; (b) victim's perceptions of police investment and efficaciousness -- if victims regard the police as either very unlikely to solve the crime or uninterested in pursuing their case, they will probably decide against reporting the incident; (c) fear of reprisal -- if the victim judges the offender to be in a strong position to retaliate physically or economically he/she will be disinclined to report the crime; (d) the perceived benefits of reporting (social, psychological, and economic) -- greater anticipated benefits increase the probability of reporting; and (e) the presence and level of social influence -- what others say and do influence the victim throughout the crime reporting decision-making process.

Conclusions

It is apparent that the basic philosophical and operational tenets of Crime Stoppers are highly consistent with the above empirical findings. First, a portrayal of the specific details of a criminal incident through the media reduces any ambiguity surrounding an observed event that witnesses' may have misinterpreted earlier as a non-criminal occurrence, or as an episode that was not weighty enough to report. Hence, citizens exposed to Crime Stoppers know

unquestionably that the depicted scenes represent serious illegal activities which demand a prompt response.

Second, regular advertisements to "call Crime Stoppers" are messages designed to encourage social obligation and to inculcate a sense of personal duty to cooperate with the police. Although it is obviously easy to ignore a television or radio broadcast and to diffuse responsibility when the responses of others are not known, if an individual believes that he/she is the only effective witness to a crime, these reminders may be potent enough to actuate the person to "get involved" through Crime Stoppers.

Third, Crime Stoppers programs conspicuously lower the costs of crime reporting, which often stand as formidable obstacles to involvement for both witnesses and victims. As an avenue of reporting, Crime Stoppers: (a) circumvents the lengthy and burdensome demands that arise from participation in the traditional criminal justice process; (b) substantially reduces the potential for criminal retaliation, which for some victims is a considerable risk; and (c) overcomes any expected inconveniences or inner reluctance by providing a financial incentive for conveying information (i.e., the perceived benefits are high).

Finally, because Crime Stoppers explicitly solicits citizen cooperation, individuals may be less inclined to feel they are unnecessarily imposing on the police by reporting a crime, or that the police would not be interested in their information. Also, being aware of the success of Crime Stoppers may prompt persons to call by suggesting to them that participation in the program is often efficacious in leading to solved crimes. Thus, citizens are not as

likely to surmise that their reporting behavior would be "a waste of time" or that "nothing can or will be done."

Despite the conclusion that Crime Stoppers' methods of enlisting citizen cooperation are quite responsive to the results of empirical research, it is not clear that the program's two fundamental assumptions (i.e. people don't report crime because they are typically apathetic or they suffer from fears of retaliation) have a sound basis in what we've learned from studies, or in what victims have reported through national surveys. More specifically, investigations have repeatedly shown that apathy does not adequately explain bystander uninvolved, and that only certain groups (e.g. rape victims and those personally acquainted with or related to perpetrator of a crime) of victims fail to report crimes as a consequence of feared offender retribution. However, as the preceding material suggests, the successfulness of the program may be elucidated by invoking alternative explications, which are firmly grounded in social psychological and criminological research. In the next section, we explore the possible adverse repercussions of rewards and anonymity.

C. REWARDS, ANONYMITY, AND CRIME REPORTING

Introduction

Crime Stoppers programs are based on the premise that many people are unwilling to provide information to the police about criminal activity either because of apathy or fear of retaliation. To overcome what is believed to be apathy, Crime Stoppers offers cash rewards as an incentive to come forth -- typically ranging from 100 to 1,000 dollars. Although the research literature on crime reporting and bystander intervention raises serious doubts about whether apathy is the proper explanation for the pervasive lack of citizen involvement (see previous review), rewards are a distinguishing feature of Crime Stoppers programs. In response to non-reporting that may be attributed to the victim's fear of criminal retaliation, Crime Stoppers allows callers to provide information while maintaining their anonymity. For some groups of callers (e.g., those victimized by acquaintances or spouses), protecting their identity is the only means to effectively allay their fears of offender retribution, and to encourage them to volunteer the details of a criminal episode. Given this emphasis on rewards and anonymity, a critical question should be addressed -- what are the effects of these incentives on human motivation and behavior? Does the research literature suggest that paying people to report criminal activity and protecting their anonymity are wise practices or devices that may potentially engender adverse repercussions?

The Effect of Rewards: Summary of Research Findings

Intrinsic Motivation Research

A sizeable body of psychological research has investigated the impact of rewards on intrinsic motivation. We will attempt to summarize this rather complex literature and determine its relevance to the current reward practices of Crime Stoppers programs. The bulk of the literature on rewards and intrinsic motivation has focused on "contingency effects". That is, researchers have sought to determine the effects of whether or not and how rewards are contingent upon the behavior. The literature is quite complicated and often subject to criticism (e.g., Ryan, et al., 1983). Seeking to alleviate the sizeable terminology problems in the literature, Ryan, et al. (1983) propose a useful categorization of the research based on four types of expected rewards:

(a) task-non-contingent rewards, i.e., rewards are given for engaging in a task, regardless of what the person does. Thus, task completion or quality of work is irrelevant; (b) task-contingent rewards, i.e., rewards are given for completing a task, regardless of quality; (c) performance-contingent rewards, i.e., rewards are given for a certain level of performance. In other words, the individual must reach a specific criterion, norm, or competence level before a reward is given; and (d) competitively-contingent rewards, i.e., rewards are given when people compete directly against one another for a scarce number of rewards.

What does the research literature show for these different reward circumstances? We will briefly summarize the findings for these types of rewards (with the exception of competitively-contingent). Although

there have been only a few task-non-contingent reward experiments, the available literature suggests that such rewards do not decrease intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1972; Pinder, 1976; Swann & Pittman, 1977). However, studies of task-contingent rewards show rather consistent undermining effects. That is, when subjects are told that the reward is contingent upon merely completing the task, their intrinsic motivation for the task declines (e.g., Calder & Staw, 1975; Deci, 1971, 1972; Pittman, Cooper, & Smith, 1977; Weiner & Mander, 1978). As Ryan, et al. (1983) notes, the undermining effect of rewards for simply "doing" the activity has been documented repeatedly on youth populations, ranging from preschool children (Green & Lepper, 1974; Lepper, et al. 1973) to college students (Wilson, Hull, & Johnson, 1981). However, to produce the effect, studies further suggest that the rewards need to be salient (Ross, 1975), desirable, (McLoyd, 1979), given for a challenging/interesting task (Danner & Lonky, 1981), and given without positive performance feedback (Deci, 1972b; Harackiewicz, 1979).

Finally, research on the effects of performance-contingent reward is equivocal but interesting. Some researchers have found that this type of reward undermines intrinsic motivation (e.g., Harackiewicz, 1979), whereas others have found no effect (e.g., Karniol & Ross, 1977), and still others have shown that it enhances intrinsic motivation (e.g., Enzle & Ross, 1978). Ryan, et al. (1983) attempt to clarify the literature by interpreting it in the context of Deci and Ryan's (1980) cognitive evaluation theory. Essentially, Ryan, et al. (1983) argue that performance-contingent rewards can either decrease or enhance intrinsic motivation depending on whether the reward is

administered (and perceived) as informational or controlling. If the rewards are administered in a controlling way (i.e., indicating that the subject is doing what he/she "should" be doing), they tend to decrease intrinsic motivation for the activity. However, if the rewards are administered in an informational way (i.e., providing feedback to the subject that he/she is competent or giving information about how to become competent in the context of self-determination), they tend to enhance intrinsic motivation.

As the above discussion illustrates, comparisons have been made between the different types of reward contingencies. To summarize, task-contingent rewards undermine intrinsic motivation under a number of conditions, whereas task-non-contingent rewards rarely have this effect because they are not interpreted as controlling and attached to the task. The effects of task-performance contingent rewards (whether facilitating or undermining) will depend on the interpersonal context that defines how the reward is administered.

Application to Crime Stoppers. Our interpretation is that Crime Stoppers offers task-performance contingent rewards. Not only do informants have to call the police, but they must supply "good" information before they are eligible to receive a reward. Most programs require the arrest of a suspect as a prerequisite for reward, and many even require indictment or conviction.

A second question is whether these task-performance rewards are generally informational or controlling. Our understanding is that Crime Stoppers rewards are essentially controlling, as indicated by the fact that citizens know in advance what is needed to obtain a reward. Nevertheless, many questions could be raised about the

applicability of these experiments to the urban setting of Crime Stoppers programs. Whether citizens feel a sense of moral obligation to report crime is critical to our analysis because if they do not, then we need not be overly concerned about undermining a motivation that does not exist. Indeed, Crime Stoppers is based on the premise that many people do not feel an internal obligation to report criminal activity.

Research on Rewards and Moral Behavior

The small literature on the effects of rewards on moral behavior is more directly relevant to Crime Stoppers than reward-contingency studies. Does monetary payment have the same undermining effect on moral behavior as it does with other types of intrinsic motivation? Kunda and Schwartz (1983) reviewed the available studies and, concluded that the results do not show the "overjustification effect" on moral behavior. For example, Clevenger (1980) found that students who were payed to engage in an activity supporting an environmental protection law did not report a reduction in their moral obligation to support such a law in comparison to students who were not payed. Other studies on altruism and helping behavior produced ambiguous results. Payment has caused subjects to perceive themselves as less altruistic in one study (Batson, Coke, Jasnosky, & Hanson, 1978) and had no effect in another (Thomas, Batson, & Lake, 1981). Although payment has not been shown to undermine actual helping behavior (Uranowitz, 1975, Zuckerman, Lazaro & Waldgeir, 1979), the absence of payment increased the likelihood of helping.

Application to Crime Stoppers. Some Crime Stoppers advocates may want to argue that the reward aspect of the program is intended for a

particular segment of society that clearly feels no moral obligation to get involved with the criminal justice system. For these individuals -- especially the criminal element -- money is the only way to bring them forward. Although monetary incentives may be the best strategy for motivating these individuals, there is a larger issue regarding the impact of the program on "good citizens". Is there any chance that widespread media coverage of the Crime Stoppers rewards will adversely affect the moral responsibility of the general public to report crime? (Clearly, Crime Stoppers is receiving more aggressive and consistent media exposure than any previous crime control program in the United States, including the national "Take a Bite Out of Crime" campaign.) Deci (1978) closes his chapter on the "applications of reward research" by expressing his concern that the general conclusion about extrinsic rewards undermining intrinsic motivation may have broader implications than researchers have articulated -- "I suspect that as rewards continue to co-opt intrinsic motivation and preclude intrinsic satisfaction, the extrinsic needs - for money, for power, for status -- become stronger in themselves" (p. 207). Eventually, Deci argues, people could end up behaving as if they are "addicted" to extrinsic rewards. Of course, much of this analysis remains speculation.

The Effects of Anonymity: Summary of Research Findings

The second basic component of Crime Stoppers which facilitates the reporting of crime is the assurance that the anonymity of informants will be vigorously protected. This guarantee is presumed to be an effective inducement because it assuages informants' fears of possible retaliation by the offender. In addition, it allows citizens

to volunteer information without becoming directly involved in the characteristically cumbersome criminal justice process.

Social psychological research on the behavioral effects of anonymity consists primarily of studies that view anonymity as an aspect of the larger phenomenon of deindividuation. The term deindividuation, coined by Festinger, et al. (1952), refers to the loss of inner restraints that occurs when an individual's personal identity is blurred or hidden. The consequences of deindividuation include a marked increase in aggressiveness and antisocial behavior, an unwillingness to assume responsibility for actions, and a reduced concern about social evaluation. As a result, the threshold for behaviors that are normally inhibited is lowered, and a person is more inclined to engage in non-normative acts.

Conclusions

Informant anonymity is purported to be one of the basic ingredients contributing to Crime Stoppers' success and effectiveness. Although a small percentage of persons refrain from reporting crime because of a fear of retaliation (see earlier review), there is some evidence (both anecdotal and empirical) to suggest that for particular victims of crime the guarantee of anonymity may provide them with the impetus for volunteering criminal information. However, there exists a number of compelling studies demonstrating that anonymity often releases antisocial and unrestrained behavior. Indeed, Crime Stoppers' promise of informant anonymity may disinhibit certain citizens to act in socially destructive ways. For example, the knowledge that their identities will remain unrevealed, may encourage individuals to intrude on their neighbor's privacy for the sole

purpose of detecting unlawful activities, and to report any and all observed infractions out of a desire for unscrupulous and selfish gain. In the extreme, anonymity may "free" persons to entrap others in criminal situations, and to deceive them into relating incriminating details.

While recognizing that anonymity may create some potential for abuse, it is also important to be aware that Crime Stoppers has a built-in safeguards against "snitching" and "surveillance" inhering in its pervasive policy to publish and provide rewards for only felony offenses. Further, there is no solid evidence that protecting the anonymity of informants has ever resulted in deliterious effects for either the operations of the program or the rights of law-abiding citizens. (The only one to really suffer appears to be the criminal.) In closing, there is reason to believe that without the guarantee of anonymity we can expect a foreclosure on the participation of (a) criminals or "fringe players" who have the best incriminating information about fellow criminals (this is especially true within the drug community in which staying an anonymous informer is often synonymous with staying an alive informer), and (b) good citizens who are fearful of offender retaliation or the callousness of the criminal justice system.

The final section of this review contains discussion of the mass media's participation in crime prevention.

D. THE MASS MEDIA AND CRIME PREVENTION

Introduction

Crime Stoppers is, to a large extent, a mass media program. With the possible exception of the Advertising Council's "Take a Bite Out of Crime" public service advertising campaign, never before has a crime control program received such regular and intensive mass media coverage. Because of this strong media component, we will briefly review the literature of the effects of mass media presentations of crime on citizens' attitudes and behavior, with special attention given to the area of citizen crime prevention. Keep in mind that Crime Stoppers is an attempt to encourage citizen participation in the criminal justice system, and uses the mass media to link law enforcement to the general public.

Commonly, crime prevention programs have attempted to increase awareness of crime as a problem, change attitudes about citizen crime prevention, and stimulate a variety of crime prevention behaviors in the general public (cf. Rosenbaum, 1985). Many alternative strategies have been employed, but the mass media is one of the few vehicles able to reach large audiences. Unfortunately, few media crime prevention programs have been attempted, and evaluations of existing efforts are very rare. The central issue is whether mass communication is an effective means of influencing the general public in the areas of citizen crime prevention and their involvement with the criminal justice system.

Summary of Research Findings

Media Campaign Effects

The question of whether media campaigns of any type can have sizeable effects on the general citizenry has been debated for many years. As O'Keefe (1983) notes, the early research on media campaign effects (carried out in the 1940's and 1950's) led to the conclusion that these strategies produced few, if any, effects, and mostly among those who were seeking confirmation of existing attitudes and behaviors (cf. Klopper, 1960). However, recent studies of public information campaigns suggest that the persuasive impact may be larger than previously thought. Among the more impressive results are those from specific campaigns about heart disease prevention, which show significant changes in cognitions, attitudes, and risk-related behavior (e.g., Maccoby & Solomon, 1981). Yet critics argue that -- taken as a whole -- media campaigns have had rather limited success. For example, Tyler (1984) cites studies where the effects have been minimal in the areas of health-related behaviors, seat-belt compliance, and contraceptive use.

Media and Crime Prevention

How does the mass media affect citizen reactions to crime, and do media crime prevention campaigns make a difference? Data on the effectiveness of media crime prevention campaigns are virtually limited to the NIJ-funded evaluation of the Advertising Council's "Take a Bite Out of Crime" national campaign, sponsored by the Crime Prevention Coalition (see O'Keefe, 1985). The campaign, initiated in October, 1979, focused on encouraging citizen involvement in crime

prevention, primarily in the form of increased burglary prevention and collective neighborhood action.

O'Keefe and his colleagues at the University of Denver found that "McGruff" did in fact influence the American public regarding crime prevention. The public service advertisements were able to reach over half of the nation, and -- for persons exposed to them -- there were effects on a number of dimensions. In a panel sample of 426 respondents reinterviewed 2 years later, persons exposed to the campaign reported increases in their knowledge of crime prevention, more positive attitudes about the efficacy of citizen crime prevention activities, and greater feelings of competence in protecting themselves from crime (O'Keefe, 1985). Of the 25 self-reported behavioral measures employed, panel respondents also showed significant changes on 6 of the 7 key measures on which the campaign was focused (i.e., locking doors, leaving lights on, using time lights indoors, reporting suspicious incidents, and several "neighborhood watch" type of actions). The campaign had almost no effect on perceptions of crime in the local neighborhood, but did affect citizens' estimates of their own risk of victimization (lowering estimates of the likelihood of being burglarized and increasing estimates of one's chances of being a victim of violent crime).

Others assume a more conservative and cautious view of McGruff's impact. As Tyler (1984) reminds us, only 13 percent of the national sample reported any attitude change and only 4 percent reported any changes in behavior. Thus, the behavioral effects of this campaign are minimal.

Another area in which media coverage of crime issues has been studied involves the relationship between exposure to television violence and the perceived risk of victimization (for reviews, see Comstock, 1982; Cook, et al., 1983). Despite inconsistencies in the studies, results suggest that heavy television viewing does not increase fear of crime after controlling for background characteristics related to heavy viewing (Doob & MacDonald, 1979; Hughes, 1980). Although the media does not seem to affect fear of crime, it does affect general knowledge about the crime problem, such as perceptions of the crime rate (Skogan & Maxfield, 1981).

Conclusions

To summarize, the evidence is somewhat mixed about the effects of mass media and crime prevention campaigns on citizen reactions to crime. The McGruff campaign showed a number of specific effects on attitudes and behavior, but the overall behavioral impact on the general public is quite limited. Studies of mass media in general show little effect on crime-related fears or behaviors, but more consistent effects on knowledge and societal level judgements (cf. Tyler & Cook, 1984).

Although the impact of the mass media in this area remains uncertain, Tyler (1984) has sought to explain what he sees as the absence of any compelling effects. According to Tyler's two-factor model, media reports have a limited influence on personal crime-related responses because (a) citizens do not find the reports informative, and (b) they do not find them arousing or upsetting. As we have noted (Lavrakas, et al., 1983) informativeness is a problem because most media coverage does not refer to local crime, but rather

covers a large geographic area. Moreover, media crime communications are often uninformative because they offer little in the way of suggesting effective strategies for avoiding crime. With regard to arousal properties, Tyler (1978) found that media reports of crime were viewed as less emotionally arousing than either informally communicated reports or personal experiences.

The problems of information and arousal should be less of a concern in the case of Crime Stoppers. The appropriate course of action is very clear -- citizens should call the phone number boldly displayed. Also, the issue of failure to arouse is less likely to be a problem with Crime Stoppers media coverage. In the case of television, most reenactments of the "Crime of the Week" -- regardless of their production quality -- are quite dramatic. In fact, we suspect that participating media, as profit making organizations, would be less interested in giving Crime Stoppers weekly coverage during the evening news if their airing failed to capture and maintain the attention of the viewing audience.

Putting conjecture aside, we know virtually nothing about the impact of Crime Stoppers' media coverage on citizen attitudes and behaviors. Some stations claim to have documented changes in television ratings after introducing the Crime Stoppers program. While such results may suggest viewer interest in the Crime Stoppers segment (even though rating changes cannot be confidently attributed to the program), they tell us very little about possible changes in public attitudes or behaviors. Our Impact Study in Indianapolis addressed these issues for the first time. Although this study was not expected to provide any definitive answers to these questions, it

did supply us with a first look at the possible effects of repeated exposure to Crime Stoppers on the general public. (See Results Section of this Report.)

III. METHODOLOGY

The National Evaluation of Crime Stoppers Programs was a multi-stage, multi-method research endeavor that applied a variety of data collection strategies, including telephone and in-person interviews, self-report questionnaires, archival data analyses, case studies, and site visits. This broad-based and systematic approach was designed to yield a rich and variegated source of knowledge about the essential aspects of program operations, procedures, and outcomes. These sources of data ultimately provided answers to critical questions regarding program functioning in theory and practice, and the advantages and disadvantages of Crime Stoppers to law enforcement agencies and the community. In addition, we intentionally formulated our plans for data collection and analyses to allow us to extract policy implications from our findings, which offered recommendations for enhancing program development and productivity.

A. SCOPE OF THE NATIONAL EVALUATION

One of the first tasks of our evaluation was to develop a definition of "Crime Stoppers programs" that would determine the scope of the study and thus specify the universe of relevant programs.

Programs that fell within the purview of our national evaluation of Crime Stoppers were required to have a number of characteristics. The programs incorporated in the study:

- (1) Must provide cash rewards for information leading to the arrest, prosecution, or conviction of persons suspected of felony crimes.
- (2) Use the private sector as the primary arena for fund raising efforts as well as a major source of contributions. Generally, the programs exist as non-profit corporations.
- (3) Insure the anonymity of callers.
- (4) Enlist the ongoing cooperation of the media which regularly describes or depicts criminal episodes, and publicizes the program and its participation procedures.
- (5) Function with the assistance and support of a local group of individuals often organized as the program's board of directors.
- (6) Accept calls that originate from within the program's immediate geographic area, and are processed at the local level (i.e., calls are not made to a central clearinghouse via a single, long-distance, toll-free number). An exception to the above is our interest in examining state-wide programs.

This definition does not consider such factors as the length of a program's operation or its official affiliation. More specifically, several programs were established prior to the creation of Crime

Stoppers and/or have adopted different official program names (e.g., Crime Solvers, Silent Witness, etc.). In both instances, these programs are within the scope of our investigation because their standard operating procedures are consistent with the aforementioned criteria.

Articulating a definition of the evaluation's "field of interest" allowed us to begin the data collection process. Our efforts can be organized into three fundamental stages: the Telephone Screening of Programs, the administration of National Mail Questionnaires, and the conduct of Special Case Studies and Site Visits.

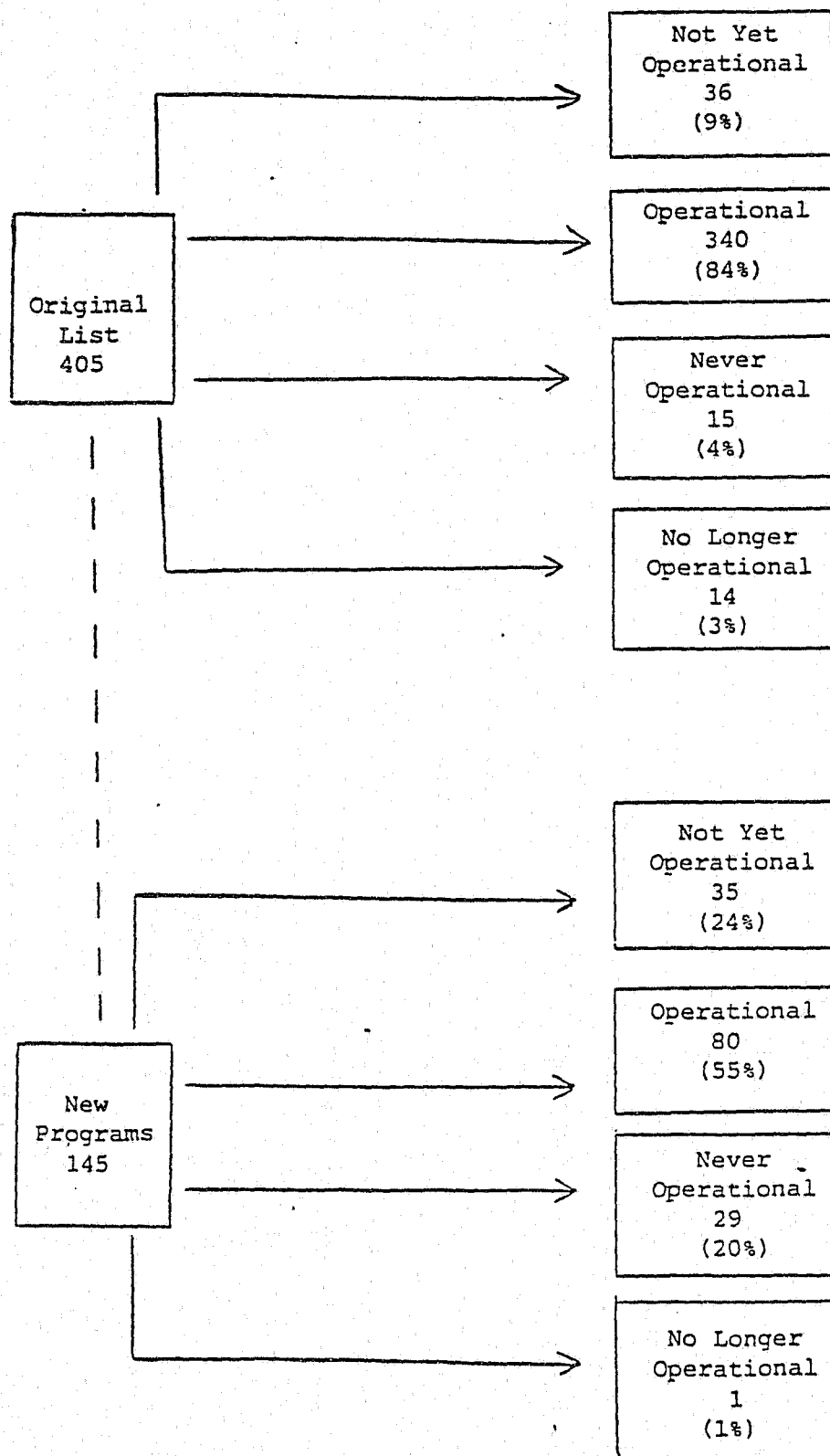
B. STAGE 1: NATIONAL TELEPHONE SCREENING

The first stage of the National Evaluation of Crime Stoppers Programs involved a telephone screening interview of known programs. (This interview is contained in Appendix A). The content of the survey consisted of items relating to program length and scope of operations, media coverage, record keeping practices, problems in implementation, and measures of success. The purpose of the telephone survey was to: (a) ascertain the number, status (e.g., operational, discontinued, etc.), type (e.g., city-wide, community-wide, etc.), size (i.e., population served), and location of all existing programs; (b) verify the mailing addresses of program Coordinators and Chairpersons of the Board of Directors; (c) elicit information that would be helpful in constructing detailed data collection instruments; (d) develop a list of media contacts to be used in a subsequent study of the role of the media in Crime Stoppers; and (e) identify eligible programs for an indepth "Impact Study" and a "Reward Experiment".

Telephone numbers of programs were provided by both Crime Stoppers International and three state-wide programs that sent lists of Crime Stoppers operating within their state as well as regional lists of programs operating in surrounding states. In addition, phone numbers were attained through the telephone survey by asking respondents for the locations of new and/or yet-to-be established programs, and for the names and phone numbers of contact persons working with those programs. Finally, interviewers obtained phone numbers of new programs from directory assistance.

As a result of our efforts, 602 contacts were made. (See Figure 1). Of that number 405 were on original lists (i.e., those provided

Figure 1. Outcome of Telephone Screening Interviews (3/27/84)



by Crime Stoppers International and state-wide programs), whereas 197 were generated from the survey. A contact was defined as a trained interviewer talking to one of four potential respondents: the program's Coordinator, Assistant Coordinator, Secretary, or a person associated with the program who was available to answer questions at the time the call was completed. Interviewers were instructed to speak with the program's Coordinator whenever possible, inasmuch as he/she is usually most knowledgeable regarding program operations. An analysis of respondents showed that 77% were Program Coordinators, 6% Assistant Coordinators, 10% Secretaries, and 7% "Other".

Screening of State-wide Programs

During the final leg of the evaluation, a number of state-wide programs were also screened by conducting telephone surveys with the Directors of the programs. These surveys explored the development, status, purpose, and day-to-day operations of state-wide programs as well as their relationships with local programs and their future plans and goals. (The State-wide Program Telephone Survey is presented in Appendix B.)

C. STAGE 2: THE NATIONAL MAIL QUESTIONNAIRES

The completion of the telephone screener led us into the second stage of the evaluation during which we constructed two comprehensive questionnaires: a Police Coordinator Survey and a Chairperson of the Board of Directors Survey (These surveys are contained in Appendix C.) In addition to the national surveys of Crime Stoppers programs, we conducted a national study of the media's involvement with and assessment of Crime Stoppers. A discussion of this investigation immediately follows our description of the Coordinator and Chairperson questionnaires.

Developing Instrumentation

The national mail questionnaires were developed through a painstaking process involving the collection and synthesis of information emerging from a number of sources: the results of the telephone screener, our own experience and understanding of Crime Stoppers (i.e., its philosophy, organization, and primary modes of operation), and numerous intensive discussions with Crime Stoppers experts, (e.g., seasoned Coordinators and Chairpersons, and members of the Executive Committee of Crime Stoppers International). During the designing of the questionnaires, efforts were directed at generating data that would allow us to test the effects of Crime Stoppers, and would serve to reveal the programmatic and procedural factors that are predictive of Program success.

Review and pilot testing. Preliminary drafts of the surveys were reviewed by selected Chairpersons and Coordinators, University faculty, and the Project Monitor. Their comments and suggestions were incorporated in the many revisions of the instruments. In addition,

we pretested the instruments by administering penultimate drafts of the questionnaires to a sample of Coordinators and Chairpersons. These individuals were instructed to evaluate and make comments about the inclusion of topic areas, the organization and layout of the surveys, and the wording and appropriateness of questions. Their recommendations were considered in the preparation of the final versions of the questionnaires which were approved by the Project Monitor, and were mailed to the Coordinators and Chairpersons of all known operational programs across the United States. At the time of the mailing, 443 operational programs had been identified. The content domains of the two surveys are shown in Table 1.

Data Collection, Follow-up Efforts, and Analyses

As part of the data collection process, we initiated a set of activities to improve questionnaire response rates. These efforts consisted of sending two waves of follow-up letters to participants who had not completed the surveys in accordance with the stated deadlines. Further, we enlisted the cooperation of key Crime Stoppers personnel from various regions across the country who urged completion of the surveys through phone calls and/or written correspondence to all delinquent programs from states in their areas. Of the 443 operational programs which were sent the instruments, 203 or 46% of the Police Coordinators completed the questionnaires, while 164 or 37% of the Chairpersons returned their surveys. The programs included in the respondent sample represent 38 states as well as two provinces in Canada.

Supplementary data to the national surveys. In the months succeeding the initial administration of the national surveys, we

Table 1

Content Domains of the Coordinator and Chairperson of the Board Questionnaires

Police Coordinator Survey	Board of Directors
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Background information o Program operations o Program support o Affiliations o Handling calls o Program staff o Public speaking o Board of Directors o Media questions o Records and Statistics o Investigators o Rewards o Overview: Past and present o Coordinator profile 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> o Background information o Program operations o Membership and performance of the board o Board Activities o Law enforcement-board relations o Fund raising o Rewards o Media o Citizen response o Overview: Past and present o Chairman profile

rendered additional requests to Police Coordinators for the purpose of obtaining crucial supplementary data which approximately one half (51%) of the respondents had neglected to forward along with their returned questionnaires. This information comprised measures of program operations (e.g., number of calls, number and types of cases solved, amount of property recovered), community demographic and reported crime data, and a complete breakdown of Part I Uniform Crime Statistics for 1983 - all of which were central to our later analyses. For each of the Crime Stoppers' communities that returned surveys, our research staff also accessed crime rate data and community demographics through official Census Bureau and FBI Crime Reports.

Data Processing and Analyses. Following the close of survey implementation, the questionnaires were coded, keypunched, and analyzed. The preliminary analyses of the survey data were driven by two fundamental objectives: (a) to describe the characteristics of Crime Stoppers programs at the national level, and (b) to aid in the selection of Crime Stoppers programs for more in-depth case studies and site visits. Subsequent analyses employed an array of multivariate inferential techniques which were formulated to uncover the statistical correlates of program performance and success.

National Questionnaire of Media Executives

Based on a series of unstructured telephone interviews with eight media executives, a detailed structured questionnaire (see Appendix D) was devised for mailing to executives in two samples of media organizations (i.e., daily newspapers, television stations and radio stations, cable television companies). The first was a representative

sample of 514 media organizations listed by Crime Stoppers coordinators as participating in their program. This sample was comprised of 203 newspapers, 180 radio stations and 131 television stations. The second sample was a random sample of 248 daily newspapers, 180 radio stations, 115 television stations, and 120 cable television companies. This random sample was drawn from annual industry yearbooks listing all operating media organizations in the United States for a given year.

As shown in Table 2, response rates to the mail questionnaire were higher for the Crime Stoppers sample than for the random sample. This is most likely due to the greater salience of the survey's topic to media in the Crime Stoppers sample. The overall low response rates are most likely due to a lack of resources to do follow-up mailing. Furthermore, the virtual non-response of cable television companies is probably explained by notes returned from some of this random sample along with blank questionnaires. These notes indicated that they did not have their own news departments, and as such could not answer the survey items. This same "problem" also accounted for some of the non-response in the random samples, as a few of these stations also sent back questionnaires with notes explaining that the survey was not applicable to their organization.

In order to make an informed judgment on the comparability of the two samples, answers to several "contextual" items in the questionnaire were compared. In terms of the executives' ratings of the crime rate and fear of crime in their organizations' market, there were no significant differences between those from the Crime Stoppers' sample and the random sample. Furthermore, there were no significant

Table 2
Response Rates to Media Questionnaire

Type of Media	Type of Sample					
	Crime Stoppers			Random		
	# Mailed	# Returned	Rate	# Mailed	# Returned	Rate
Newspapers	203	59	29%	248	57	23%
Radio	180	45	25%	180	21	12%
Television (UHF/VHF)	131	32	24%	115	20	14%
Cable Television	---	--	---	120	1	0%
TOTALS	514	136	26	663	99	15%

differences between the organizations in the two samples in ratings of the accuracy of the local citizenry's perception of crime, the citizenry's involvement in crime prevention, the citizenry's interest in crime news, and the organizations' satisfaction with the quality of local police service. The two samples also did not differ in the extent to which they felt cooperation with local police in an anti-crime program would compromise their objectivity in covering police/crime news. Finally, there was no difference in self-ratings of how conservative/liberal their organization's editorial stances were.

Thus, all things considered, the two samples were quite similar, despite the different ways they were chosen. The low response rates (26% from the Crime Stopper's sample excluding the cable television organizations), on the other hand, require a cautious interpretation of the survey's findings. It is possible that only a particular subset of media executives chose to respond, while on the other hand, it is also possible that a truly representative sample participated in the survey. Unfortunately it is difficult to make a confident judgment of this.

D. STAGE 3: CASE STUDIES AND SITE VISITS

The third stage of our national evaluation consisted of an in-depth exploration of a number of programs via case studies and extensive site visits. Programs were chosen for two specialized case studies: (a) an Impact Study that assessed the effects of Crime Stoppers on a community's residents, businesses, and police personnel; and (b) a Reward Experiment that studied the effects of rewards on the attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors of informants. During the final months of the project, seven specially selected Crime Stoppers programs were intensively researched through site visits, while one program was examined through a thorough measurement of all aspects of its operations, procedures, and performance.

Impact Study

As part of our research design to test program effectiveness and processes, we performed an impact evaluation study at a chosen location. The purpose of the study was to measure the impact of Crime Stoppers on perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors by administering pretest (Wave 1) and posttest (Wave 2) surveys with a sample of community residents, police officers, and businesses.

The selection of the Impact Study Program was based on a number of factors. Programs considered eligible for selection were evaluated on various criteria which were formulated to insure that the selection process was standardized, scientifically-sound (i.e., would adhere to the specifications of the research design), and practicable (i.e., would permit the easy identification of programs that were appropriate candidates for the study). The following is a description of the selection criteria and their accompanying rationales, exactly as we

applied them in determining the eligibility of programs. Programs considered for selection were reviewed for the following characteristics:

(1) Fully Cooperative -- The coordinator, chairperson of the board of directors and other critical members of eligible programs and the community must make a firm prior commitment to participate in the study according to our prescribed design and data collection process. Therefore, any program that suggests it may have difficulties conforming to the evaluation procedures cannot be considered as a possible site.

(2) Nonoperational -- We were interested only in programs that were in the latter stages of planning, i.e., were nonoperational but expecting implementation within the next few months. Programs that were operational presumably had begun to exert effects on the community, and therefore would not yield valid pretest or baseline measure of impact. Baseline data (i.e., data collected prior to program implementation) allow us to determine whether and how a program has produced changes on several critical impact variables.

(3) Confident that the program will begin accepting calls within a two month time frame, and that the program will have the necessary funding and support to remain viable. We cannot afford to invest time and effort collecting pretest data unless the program appears likely to remain functional during the course of the survey (10 months).

(4) Moderately Large -- Our plans called for us to survey sizeable samples of city residents (n=300), police officers (n=100), and businesses (n=100). To satisfy our sampling quotas (i.e., to guarantee a large enough sample for each of the above groups) it was necessary to conduct the study with a larger program (i.e., one serving a population of approximately 300,000 or more).

(5) Single-Jurisdictional Program -- The data collection process is made logistically more feasible by examining a single-jurisdictional program. Studying such a program does not require surveying independent groups of law enforcement officers, nor does it necessitate enlisting the cooperation of several separate departments or agencies. Moreover, the quality and interpretability of the data is not impaired due to a possible absence of uniformity in program implementation and operations or a "mixing" of responses produced by disparate groups of subjects (e.g., combining the attitudes of sheriffs serving a suburb of a county with police officers within the same county but serving a separate urban jurisdiction). Hence, a single-jurisdictional program provides a "best case test" of the impact of programs on law

enforcement. Finally, conducting the impact evaluation study at a single jurisdictional site lessens the time, complexity, and cost of selecting and interviewing respondents to assess the effect of programs upon citizens, the business community, and law enforcement.

The Selection of Indianapolis. Although several programs were judged eligible on one or more of the above criteria, Indianapolis was deemed the best choice, inasmuch as it fully satisfied all the selection requirements. Deciding upon Indianapolis as the Impact Study Site necessitated many hours of careful planning to arrange for data collection, and to verify that the program would be operational within a reasonable time frame. Shortly following the Project Monitor's approval of our decision, we made an in-person site visit to the city to meet with individuals who had a longstanding interest in establishing an Indianapolis Crime Stoppers, and whose efforts would be instrumental in guaranteeing the program's success. We sustained an ongoing relationship with this group of persons which included the Indianapolis Chief and Assistant Chief of Police, the Chairperson of the Indianapolis Chamber of Commerce, and members of the business community who were striving to raise funds to support the program's implementation. Also, we had regular discussions with representatives of the mayor's office, and with the program's prospective Coordinator. The Indianapolis program began implementation in mid-October, 1984, and the full-scale "kick-off" occurred on January 9, 1985.

During the pretest phase of the Impact Study, we administered three questionnaires that were pretested and reviewed by the Project Monitor: a telephone survey of community residents, a self-administered survey of police officers, and a self-administered survey of Indianapolis businesses. These instruments were designed to measure

people's awareness of and attitudes toward the program, their willingness to use the program, and a host of variables that were postulated to be related to or to influence program effectiveness. (These instruments are contained in Appendix E.) Approximately 10 months following the pretest, a posttest was conducted in Indianapolis. The community, business, and police pretest surveys were coded to permit a reinterviewing of the same respondents. During the posttest phase of the Impact Study, we measured the same set of factors that was examined at Wave 1 to determine whether the existence of Crime Stoppers engendered any changes in the perceptions, attitudes, behaviors, and intentions of the survey participants.

Community survey. A RDD (random-digit-dialing) selection of 300 Indianapolis residents formed the basis for the community sample. An elimination of ineligible telephone prefixes (i.e., those serving areas outside the limits of the city proper) was performed prior to interviewing to facilitate the efficiency of the sampling and interviewing procedures. At the end of the survey period, we had completed 298 interviews. In the process of completing these interviews, 848 randomly generated telephone numbers were processed. We had a total of 104 "refusals," which yielded a 74% completion rate. In total, 1,901 dialings were made to implement this survey.

The sample of Indianapolis residents, which provided data at Wave 1, was recontacted at Wave 2 for the posttest. Respondents were carefully screened by trained interviewers to guarantee that the correct respondent from each of the preidentified Wave 2 households was interviewed. Sixty-two percent of the pretest sample was successfully recontacted and reinterviewed, which compares very

favorably with other RDD panels. Thirty-two percent of the respondents could not be relocated, while only 6% of those recontacted refused to participate in the posttest study. In total, 2086 dialings were made to administer the Wave 2 community survey.

Police survey. The police survey pretest sample consisted of 125 randomly selected law enforcement officers from the Indianapolis Police Department. Sixty percent of the respondents were patrol officers (n=75), and forty percent (n=50) were investigators. An equal number of patrol officers were randomly selected from each of the Department's eight sectors, which are located in four geographic quadrants throughout the city. In addition, patrol officers were equally represented across the Department's three time shifts (morning, mid-day, and evening). Questionnaires were administered by specially trained research assistants who were assigned to the different sectors, and who were responsible for the distribution and collection of surveys at the onset of every shift. Also, an equal number of officers were selected from the Department's four investigative units (narcotics, violent crime, sex crimes, and burglary), which are centrally located in the Department's primary headquarters. Investigators were administered the surveys in the same manner as patrol officers. Eighty-six percent (n=108) of the attempted surveys were returned. The majority of preselected respondents who did not complete the questionnaire were absent on the day of administration due to illness, leave of absence, or special training classes. There were only three refusals.

Data collection during the posttest relied heavily on the cooperation and support of Indianapolis Police Department

Administrators. Prior to the implementation of Wave 2 surveys, a letter from Police Chief McAtee, which contained a directive to urge officers to participate in the research, was delivered to all shift Commanders. Planning the logistics of survey administration was conducted in advance through written correspondence and telephone conversations with all those in the Department responsible for overseeing the distribution of the instruments. A number of points, which were essential to the integrity of the study, were punctuated during these communications. More specifically, program personnel were instructed to refrain from directly administering the questionnaires to avoid creating potential biases in responses. Further, we emphasized that the confidentiality of the surveys was to be vigorously protected, and that strict measures were to be taken to insure that every officer and investigator who participated in the pretest received the proper questionnaire, which was number-coded to allow for the precise matching of the posttest surveys with each respondent's Wave 1 data. Finally, comparable to our pretest data collection strategy, we also enlisted the efforts of trained graduate students who assisted in the administration and retrieval of the surveys.

Eighty-three percent of the Wave 1 investigator sample completed (n=38) the survey at Wave 2, while 36 or 58% of the pretest patrol officers participated in the posttest. The combined response rate for both groups was 68% (74 surveys). However, in the course of cross-referencing the pretest/posttest surveys on a number of basic identifying variables (age, sex, race, education, assignment, marital status, years employed with the Department), we were unable to

definitively match 9 of the Wave 2 surveys with their Wave 1 counterparts. Hence, the effective completion rate was 60% (n=65). Posttest attrition may be attributed to permanent terminations or departures, and absences due to sick days, leaves, "days off", training and vacations. Also, there were 11 refusals.

As part of the Impact Study, we instructed the Police Coordinator to maintain a Crime Stoppers' program log that detailed: (a) media coverage (date, type, and length of exposure); (b) program-related activities (e.g., presentations, roll call training, preparing advertisements and solicitations); (c) calls (date, type, and disposition); and (d) start-up issues and problems (difficulties and solutions). The log was maintained throughout the first year of operation, and was forwarded to us on a regular basis for review and commentary.

Business survey. Finally, to implement the business community survey, a sample of 175 businesses was randomly selected from the population of Indianapolis businesses registered with the Chamber of Commerce, and was stratified by type of business (retail, production/manufacturing, wholesale, and service). The surveys were mailed to participants, and retrieved by research assistants who called each respondent to remind them to finalize the questionnaire, and to make an appointment to personally obtain the survey upon completion. The survey return rate was 60% (n=106).

Our attempts to gather data for the completion of the posttest of Indianapolis' businesses consisted of mailing surveys to all Wave 1 respondents along with correspondence from the Indianapolis Chamber of Commerce and Northwestern University. Both letters reminded potential

participants of the importance of the research, and prompted them to complete the survey as soon as possible, and to return it in an enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope. In addition, each of the questionnaires contained special instructions to guarantee that the survey would be completed by the same individual who cooperated in the pretest. As a means to increase the initial response rate, follow-up letters were mailed. Fifty percent of the business prettest sample (n=53) completed Wave 2 surveys. Seven of the posttest surveys were dropped from the study because it was clear that the respondents were not the same individuals who completed the Wave 1 surveys.

Reward Experiment

The manner in which a program distributes its reward fund may often be the pivotal factor that determines the program's ultimate success or failure. Hence, the National Evaluation of Crime Stoppers included a reward experiment that was designed to provide detailed information about the effect of rewards on informants' behaviors, attitudes, and perceptions. Results of the investigation will be applied toward improving the cost-efficiency and effectiveness of reward allocation (See Results Section). Essentially, the mechanics of selecting a site for the reward experiment were identical to the procedures that were employed to choose a location for the Impact Study. We began the selection process by formulating a set of selection criteria which are described below. Programs that were eligible for the reward experiment had to have the following characteristics:

- (1) Fully Cooperative -- The coordinator, chairperson of the board of directors and other critical members of eligible programs and the community must make a firm prior commitment to participate in the study according to our

prescribed guidelines. Failure to strictly adhere to the conditions of the study will vitiate its results. Therefore, any program that suggests it may have difficulties conforming to the experimental procedures cannot be considered as a possible site.

(2) Nonoperational or Newly Established -- We are interested only in programs that are in the latter stages of planning, i.e., are expecting implementation within the next few months or have become operational within the last three months (during the summer of 1984). Programs that are firmly established will not be as amenable to the kinds of "experimental interventions" that the investigation requires (e.g., varying the reward amounts, interviewing informants).

(3) Confident that the program will begin accepting calls within a two month time frame, and that the program will have the necessary funding and support to remain viable. We cannot afford to invest time and effort preparing a site for study unless the program appears likely to remain functional throughout the course of the experiment (nearly one year).

(4) Moderately Large -- Larger programs (i.e., those serving a population of approximately 300,000 or more) will process a large enough volume of calls to provide a rich data base containing a wide range of crimes and a variety of informants. These ranges will allow more freedom in selecting cases for study, and in manipulating the size of rewards, which will increase the generalizability of the study's findings.

(5) Representative -- The findings of the experiment will be optimally useful if they are relevant (i.e., generalizable) to other programs. Hence, the site chosen for the investigation should be a "typical" program on as many variables as possible, such as the demographics of community residents, local crime rate, types of media coverage, projected number of calls, and size of the service area.

The selection of Lake County. The selection of Lake County, Illinois as the site for the reward experiment was the outcome of a studious comparison of eligible programs on the aforementioned factors. After the Project Monitor had sanctioned our endorsement of Lake County, we inaugurated a series of meetings with the Executive Director and Coordinator of the program to fully elaborate the reward experiment methodology, and to outline the logistics of the study.

Also the evaluation's Principal Investigator traveled to Lake County to apprise the program's Board of Directors of the experiment's design, procedures, and purpose.

Sample. The study's final sample contained 46 informants who participated in the Lake County Crime Stoppers Program, and who were designated to receive a monetary reward for the information they furnished. The sample was restricted to informants who provided details about "run of the mill" cases. Extremely serious or unusual crimes (e.g., kidnapping, murder, rape, and large narcotics violations) were excluded, not only because they are atypical, but because the community would have been less willing to accept the random assignment of such cases to various reward conditions.

Research design. A randomized experimental design was employed to test the effects of different reward levels on informants' perceptions, attitudes, and behavior. Informants were randomly assigned to one of three reward conditions: high reward, medium reward, and low reward. The dollar amounts corresponding to each of the conditions were negotiated with the Program's Executive Director and Board Members. High reward cases were paid \$400, medium reward cases were assigned \$250 payments, and low reward cases were disbursed \$100. Factors that were considered in the decision to attach these particular monetary values to the three reward levels included the total amount of available reward money, the projected average number of monthly rewards, and the projected average reward size. Further, informants who consented to participate in the experiment were differentiated according to a typology of callers which comprised three groupings: good citizen, fringe player, and criminal.

Procedures and measures. Telephone interviews were conducted on a regular monthly basis during the entire course of the study (one full year). (The Reward Experiment questionnaire is provided in Appendix F.) Participation in the interview was voluntary (following the standards of "informed consent"), and receipt of the reward was not made contingent upon the informant's agreement to complete the survey. Each month, cases that were earmarked by the Board to receive a reward were randomly assigned by the Executive Director of the Program to one of the three reward conditions. During this procedure, he remained "blind" to the details of the cases, which at the point of assignment, were only identified by a number that was previously randomly matched with a reward level. The mechanics of randomization were conducted by the project manager, who also made regular site visits to maintain the integrity of the process.

The Program Coordinator notified the informants who had been chosen for a reward, and arranged an appointment with them to call the program to learn the specifics of the reward (i.e., how much money is being given, when and how they may retrieve it, etc.). At the time of the call-back, the Coordinator related the amount of the reward to the informant, and briefly acquainted him/her with the nature of the survey and its significance. If the informant consented to cooperate, he/she was transferred to the study's interviewer -- a part-time volunteer assigned to answer the phone -- who was carefully trained in the techniques of telephone interviewing, with a special emphasis given to the importance of survey consistency and accuracy, and the protection of respondents' anonymity. Finally, at the completion of

the survey, the informant again spoke to the Coordinator to ascertain the time of the reward pick-up and the location of the drop point.

Site Visits and Measurement-Only Case Studies

To complement the wealth of quantitative information which we garnered during the initial stages of our research, the National Evaluation of Crime Stoppers involved a comprehensive and intimate look at various programs through site visits and "measurement-only" procedures. This phase of our study was structured to elicit deeper insights into program procedures, operations, and problems, which were not as likely to emerge from "hardnosed" statistical analyses of survey data. In essence, these additional case studies were conducted to provide a rich description of how Crime Stoppers functions across different settings and circumstances.

Selection criteria. A number of criteria were used to select sites for the remaining case studies. (The criteria used for choosing the Impact Study site and the Reward Experiment site were described earlier.) No single criterion or set of criteria was applied to render these decisions. Although we did our very best to conceptualize this as an empirical process that was guided by data supplied from the programs themselves, we were inevitably forced to exercise some judgment and common sense in making selection decisions.

Most of the information needed to select case study sites was gleaned from the National Mail Surveys. In particular, we examined: (a) coordinator "self-reported" performance, (b) "records and statistics" performance measures, (c) unique elements of the program, and (d) the size and type of population served (suburban, urban, rural). Self-reported performance was measured on six dimensions: (a)

overall rating of program productivity, (b) overall rating of the board of director's functioning, (c) the relationship between the police department and the media, (d) internal cooperation from investigators, (e) internal support from the Chief of Police, and (f) reported difficulties experienced by the program. A composite index of self-reported performance was computed by summing these six items, and programs were then reviewed by applying this index, as well as the individual items.

Because self-assessments are generally biased, our selection process accorded more weight to objective statistical information on program productivity. Program records and statistics contributed the following information to help us identify "high" and "low" performance programs: (a) total number of calls received per 100,000 population over twelve months; (b) total number of crimes solved (cleared) per 100,000 population over twelve months; (c) total dollar value of property recovered per calls investigated, and (d) the number of "critical" performance measures on which the program has kept actual statistics over twelve months. Thus, programs were evaluated not only on some basic performance levels (controlling for population size), but also on the extent to which they kept useful records and statistics. (These measures are discussed further in the Results section of this report.) All measures were standardized to yield a composite index of "records" success that was computed by adding these standardized scores. Programs were rank-ordered on this index, and both individual and composite scores were examined.

Uniqueness of program elements was also considered as a primary selection criterion. Coordinators were asked about their program's

uniqueness in the National Survey, and this information was used to supplement the knowledge we have accumulated from two national Crime Stoppers conferences and literally hundreds of hours of discussion with experts in the field. We were interested in learning about a wide spectrum of program variables such as outstanding program achievements, special implementation or operational problems, and noteworthy relationships/arrangements with the media, law enforcement, other programs, and the community. In addition, to insure that the case studies would encompass a full range of program types, we expressly selected programs from three broad yet comprehensive categories which were defined by the type and size of the populations served by Crime Stoppers: urban, suburban, and rural. Moreover, recognizing the growing importance and prevalence of Crime Stoppers activity at the state level, we opted to include state-wide programs as part of our case study plans.

Nonrespondents. Our prior research experience and knowledge of Crime Stoppers programs suggested that the national survey samples underrepresented programs that may have been plagued by serious difficulties or that were no longer in existence. The real cases of low performance or failure usually do not take the time to complete research questionnaires for various reasons. Thus, we turned once again to national experts for information on programs that were struggling to survive or have discontinued operation. Several programs were identified and these "expert opinions" served as another basis for case study selection -- one that was independent of our quantitative data.

The Final Selection of Programs and the Conduct of Case Studies

After assessing a considerable number of Crime Stoppers programs on each of the selection criterion, we submitted a list of eligible programs in different performance (high/low) and type (urban, suburban, rural) categories for the Project Monitor's review and approval. A series of conferences with National Institute of Justice representatives lead to the final selection of eight locations for case studies:

1. Denver, Colorado
2. Tuscon, Arizona
3. Portland, Oregon
4. Delaware (state-wide program)
5. Albuquerque, New Mexico (Also included a visit to the state-wide program)
6. Alexandria, Virginia
7. Bozeman, Montana
8. Mt. Airy, North Carolina (Measurement Only)

Case Study Methodologies. Aside from the Impact and Reward Experiment sites, our case study methodologies fell under two general rubrics -- site visits and "measurement only." The latter involved in-depth telephone discussions with the Coordinator of a single program, and requests for specific types of program statistics. These requests for data encompassed information that permitted a thorough examination of every aspect of program operations.

The planning and implementation of site visits was quite extensive. The procedures for site visits included a set of diverse research activities. In-person interviews were conducted with the

Police Coordinator, the Chairperson of the Board, and the primary media representatives. (Copies of these interview formats are contained in Appendix G.) Program operations were observed, including the handling of calls, media reenactments, reward allocations, and whenever possible, fund-raising. (The site visit observational checklist appears in Appendix G.) Also, copies of program records and statistics were obtained. The original step-by-step procedural plan which we formulated to execute the site visit methodology is given below.

Step 1. Make decisions regarding the eligibility of programs as prospective case study sites. As articulated in earlier reports, we assessed a number of programs on a variety of criteria to determine their eligibility for selection. The police coordinator survey data served as the primary basis for identifying programs of interest (See Interim Report). In addition, we considered another set of factors in our eligibility decisions that relates to program uniqueness.

Step 2. Contact programs to determine their suitability for a case study. Programs considered for inclusion in the site visit stage of our evaluation have been contacted to ascertain: (a) their willingness to participate in the research; (b) whether the members of the program (Coordinator, Chairperson, Media Representative) were able to accommodate a site visit; and (c) if the program had experienced any recent significant changes in personnel or operations that may have altered its eligibility.

Step 3. Develop instrumentation to interview program personnel. We constructed three open-ended interview guides for implementation during site visits. Although the questions and format of the schedules have been designed to explore specific topic domains, the interview structures will remain flexible enough to permit the pursuit of issues and directions that newly emerge during the interview process. The interview contents will be recorded verbatim on audiotapes and supplemented by written interviewer notes.

Step 4. Prepare an observational checklist that captures the fundamental aspects of program operations, and a summary sheet that details the archival data to be collected. A set of observational guidelines has been prepared to provide an inventory of the critical day-to-day program activities and components that will be explored. In addition, there is a veritable catalog of program records, statistics, and forms that we are planning to retrieve during site visits.

Step 5. Pilot test instrumentation and case study procedures. Preparations have been made to pilot test the interview guides with the Coordinator, Chairperson of the Board, and a Media Representative of a selected program. This experience will be useful in generating information to revise the interview schedules and the observational guidelines, and to identify and redress any glitches in our strategies for arranging and conducting site visits.

Step 6. Finalize site visit arrangements. Calls will be made in advance to confirm site visit appointments and to verify that all personnel will be available on the preestablished dates and at specific times.

Step 7. Conduct the Site Visit. Although the temporal order and precise nature of the procedures followed during site visits will likely vary across different locations, we have developed an agenda that captures the essential tasks to be accomplished at each chosen program. The following list summarizes these tasks:

A. Tour the program facilities paying particular attention to its physical layout, and its record storage and data processing capabilities.

B. Witness the complete telephone processing of an informant call.

C. Examine the media coverage of the Crime of the Week (e.g. view videotape of Crime of the Week/Month, hear radio audiotapes, read newspaper coverage).

D. Interview the Program Coordinator, Chairperson of the Board of Directors, and Media Representative.

E. Attend a prearranged joint meeting of media representatives from newspaper, television, and/or radio outlets to discuss and record perceptions of the advantages and disadvantages of involvement to each media type.

F. Collect descriptive program materials and statistics which we do not already possess.

IV. DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS: A NATIONAL LOOK AT CRIME STOPPERS

The results contained in this report represent the first quantitative look at Crime Stoppers programs across the United States and Canada. Our discussion of the data begins with a brief description of how Crime Stoppers programs have grown in number, and how they are distributed on a number of basic characteristics. Also contained in section A of the descriptive findings is a summary of the state-wide telephone survey, which expounds upon some of the fundamental ingredients, operations, and issues relating to state-wide activities. The bulk of the descriptive results draws upon national survey data and site visit information to provide a descriptive look at the three fundamental components of Crime Stoppers - law enforcement (section B), the media (section C), and the board of directors (section D).

A. CRIME STOPPERS: A CHANGING PROGRAM

Growth, location and distribution of programs

Since its inception in 1976, the growth of Crime Stoppers has continually accelerated. According to our respondent sample, 76% of the programs existing in 1984 had been operational for four years or less, suggesting that the 1980s may be ushering in an era of increased acceptance and support for Crime Stoppers (see Table 3). The results of our national telephone screener survey demonstrated that the number of operational programs rose from 340 to 420 within a 7-month period (June, 1983 to February, 1984). In addition, a number of programs (n=71) reported that they were planning implementation during 1984 (See Figure 1).

Table 3
Year Crime Stoppers Program Became Operational

Year	Percent ^a
1971	.5
1976	1.0
1977	1.6
1978	3.1
1979	5.7
1980	6.8
1981	30.7
1982	22.9
1983	21.9
1984	5.7

^a Based on 192 valid responses in the national police coordinator sample.

As shown in Table 4, the majority of surveyed programs (73%) are functioning within police departments that station 200 officers or less. Further, there appears to be no widely-accepted location within the police department for Crime Stoppers. Although the most common location is the Investigations bureau, a number of programs are housed in Administrative or Crime Prevention offices (see Table 5).

The findings depicted in Table 6 reveal that more than half of the respondent programs (56%) are serving areas with populations of less than 100,000 residents. A breakdown of the types of resident populations served by the programs is depicted in Table 7. It can be seen that more than half of the respondents were not able to classify their program's residential service population as strictly urban, rural, or suburban.

Networking of programs. Crime Stoppers is a veritable network of "programs helping programs." When asked how much help or advice they received from existing programs during the initial stages of implementation, 2 out of 3 respondents indicated that they received either "a lot of help" or "quite a bit of help." Only 5% reported that they received no assistance from persons experienced in program development and operations.

The networking of programs occurs at a number of levels, including local, state, regional, and national affiliations. At the local level, multiple communities may participate in a single program, referred to as a multi-jurisdictional program, for the purpose of pooling resources. Nearly half (49%) of those surveyed reported that they share a phone line, coordinator, media outlet, and/or board of directors with another "community" (i.e., a separate jurisdiction with

Table 4

Size of Police Departments

Number of Sworn Officers	Percent ^a
1 to 25	23.0
26 to 50	15.0
51 to 100	24.0
101 to 200	10.9
201 to 500	10.9
501 to 1000	8.2
1001 to 23000	8.2

^a Based on 183 valid responses in the national police coordinator sample.

Table 5

Physical Location of Crime Stoppers Programs
Within the Police Department

Location	Percent ^a
Investigations	40.7
Crime Prevention	19.0
Public Relations	7.9
Communications	4.2
Administration	13.2
Other	14.8

^a Based on 189 valid responses.

Table 6

Size of Populations Served by Crime Stoppers Program

Population Size	Percent ^a
1,500 to 49,999	31.8
50,000 to 99,999	24.5
100,000 to 249,000	19.8
250,000 to 7,000,000	24.0

^a Based on 192 valid responses.

Table 7

Type of Population Served by Crime Stoppers Programs

Type of Population	Percent ^a
Mostly urban residents	25.5
Mostly suburban residents	16.0
Mostly rural residents	6.9
Mixed	51.6

^a Based on 188 valid responses.

their own police agency and government). On the average, there are seven to nine communities in each of the sharing groups.

Table 8 reveals that at least two-thirds of the multi-jurisdictional programs share all the components. The greatest percentage of respondents (86%) stated that they share media outlets. Moreover, a number of independent programs also share media outlets. As discussed in the media section of this report, 45% of all programs share media outlets. Thirty-seven percent of the coordinators surveyed indicated that they felt "very positive" about multi-jurisdictional programs, 39% felt "positive," 14% had no feeling in either direction, whereas 7% felt "negative," and 3% felt "very negative."

Beyond the local networking of programs, respondents reported that a number of state-wide programs have emerged to provide assistance and support to nascent programs, and to disseminate information regarding the various aspects of program operations and achievements. State-wide programs have also formed regional affiliations in the east, midwest, and southwest. In 1979, Crime Stoppers USA was founded to (a) furnish services to existing Crime Stoppers programs, and (b) assist in the creation and development of new programs. Crime Stoppers USA grew to Crime Stoppers International in 1984, with memberships in Canada and a number of European countries. Sixty-one percent of the respondents reported that they were full members of Crime Stoppers International, whereas 7% had applied for their associate member certificate.

Program operations and activities. Program operations and procedures are uniformly guided by the Crime Stoppers Manual prepared

Table 8

Components Shared with Other Communities

	Percent Yes	Average Number of Communities
a. Phoneline	68.8	8.3
b. Coordinator	67.7	7.3
c. Media outlets	85.9	9.0
d. Board of Directors	69.6	6.9

by Greg MacAleese and Coleman Tily, the first Crime Stoppers Coordinator and Chairperson of the Board of Directors, respectively. Although 1 in 10 program coordinators had not read the Manual, 3 out of 4 respondents indicated that they followed "all" or "most" of the procedural and policy recommendations articulated in the Manual.

Even with the support of other programs and useful suggestions from the Manual, programs still face some major obstacles to program implementation. As shown in Table 9, the most formidable barriers to implementation are public apathy and the lack of adequate funding.

The staff of many programs often engage in activities that extend beyond the scope of Crime Stoppers. From the police coordinator survey, we learned that more than half (55%) of the coordinators work in the crime prevention and public education units of their departments, and therefore engage in activities other than those associated with the Crime Stoppers program.

State-wide Programs

Information regarding State-wide programs was primarily elicited through telephone interviews with the directors of state programs, and through site visits to Delaware and New Mexico. The purpose of this research was to elucidate the development and function of these programs.

Findings indicate that State-wide programs are difficult to pigeonhole into distinct categories. Essentially, the manner in which they are organized, housed, and staffed is determined by prevailing circumstances and needs that are often endemic to a particular area. There is also some debate surrounding the proper definition and purview of state programs. Despite this diversity, all

Table 9

Major Obstacles that Programs Had
to Overcome to Become Fully Operational

	Percent who Listed it	Percent who ranked it number 1
1. Overcoming public apathy/ lack of awareness	42.6	51.7
2. Obtaining sufficient funding	43.2	30.9
3. Getting law enforcement to support and participate in the program	30.0	29.9
4. Enlisting media participation	29.5	23.5
5. Establishing a board of directors	23.7	16.4
6. Obtaining tax exempt status from IRS	24.2	14.5

State-wide efforts share a set of common objectives. The programs are structured to achieve two basic missions: (a) to provide technical and financial assistance to new local programs, and (b) to stimulate interest in local areas where programs do not currently exist. These goals are accomplished via a variety of tacks. For example, some program directors mount regular and concerted educational campaigns throughout their states to promulgate the benefits of Crime Stoppers. In contrast, others assume a more reactive approach to proselytizing, i.e., they by and large direct their attention to local jurisdictions which have rendered specific requests for materials and aid. Many state-wide programs actively encourage greater networking and cooperation between different Crime Stopper jurisdictions, which involves the sharing of information, knowledge, and resources. In addition, such programs accept crime-related calls from throughout the state, and forward the cases to the proper jurisdiction for follow-up and investigation. Toll-free, state-wide numbers are especially useful to smaller communities in which it is often difficult for the caller to maintain his/her anonymity. The downside of accepting calls at this level, however, is that the quality of information received cannot be thoroughly assessed, and therefore "weaker" cases are often passed on to local law enforcement agencies.

Although State-wide efforts appear to enjoy a considerable amount of acceptance throughout the "Crime Stoppers community," many local practitioners have voiced misgivings concerning their support for State programs. This reluctance primarily stems from a fear that larger programs will draw interest and funding away from local activities. Further, many local programs express a strong interest in

maintaining their autonomy and independence, and therefore tend to view the ascendance of State programs as a portent that these larger efforts will co-opt or detract from their own endeavors and accomplishments. Nevertheless, it appears that local and regional training by state-wide programs is growing in popularity and is likely to insure the support and expansion of state-wide efforts.

B. LAW ENFORCEMENT AND THE POLICE COORDINATOR

One of the critical "legs" of the three-legged Crime Stoppers program is the law enforcement leg -- both the agency and the individual assigned to coordinate the program. In this section, we will describe results from our national survey of police coordinators that provide a picture of who the police coordinator is, what type of internal support the program has, and how the program processes Crime Stoppers' calls.

Coordinator Personal Characteristics

Who is the police coordinator? What are the background characteristics of this individual? With very few exceptions, the person responsible for coordinating the program within the law enforcement agency is a sworn officer with several years of law enforcement experience in different sections of the department. Although tenure ranges from only a few months to 32 years, the average coordinator has been employed for 12.6 years and has been assigned to several prior positions, ranging from patrol investigations to crime prevention.

Table 10 shows the demographic characteristics of the police coordinator. While the average age is 38.7 years, there was considerable variation in the coordinator's age, ranging from 26 to 62 years. Levels of educational attainment were also characterized by sizeable variation, ranging from some high school education to the completion of graduate school. However, there was less variability across programs in terms of race and sex, as most police coordinators (9 out of 10) are Caucasian males.

Table 10

Demographic Characteristics of Police Coordinators

Characteristics		Percent ^a
A. Sex		
	Female	8.2
	Male	91.8
B. Age		
	26-29 years	9.0
	30-34 years	23.4
	35-39 years	28.7
	40-49 years	27.7
	50-62 years	11.2
C. Race/Ethnicity		
	Caucasian	93.8
	Hispanic	3.1
	Black	1.5
	Other	1.5
D. Education		
	High school (9-12)	12.0
	Some College	45.3
	College Graduate	25.5
	Some Graduate School	12.0
	Masters Degree or beyond	5.2

^a The sample sizes for A, B, C, D are 194, 188, 194, and 192, respectively.

Coordinator Time Investment. The national survey revealed some striking differences in the amount of time and energy that coordinators invest in their Crime Stoppers program. For some coordinators, managing the program is only a part-time job. As Table 9 shows, nearly 30 percent of the coordinators spend 5 hours or less of their time per week on Crime Stoppers. At the other extreme, many coordinators are very busy on a full-time basis, and a sizeable number (16%) devote more than 40 hours per week to their programs. The average number of hours committed to Crime Stoppers per week is 21.8.

Paralleling these findings, coordinators reported large differences in their efforts to publicize Crime Stoppers through public speaking engagements. As shown in Table 11, roughly 1 in 4 coordinators makes two or less presentations in a six-month period, whereas another 1 in 4 delivers 20 or more presentations during this time period. (The average is 11.2 presentations per six months.) Whether these differences between programs can be translated into differences in program effectiveness is something that is explored in Section D of this report.

Law Enforcement Agency Support. Police coordinators clearly do not operate in a vacuum but rather must function effectively in a fairly complex police organization. Police administrators, investigators, patrol officers, and support staff are believed to play important roles in seeing that the law enforcement component of Crime Stoppers is successfully executed. Thus, one set of questions addressed by this national evaluation focuses on the level of support and cooperation that the program receives from various "actors" within the police department.

Table 11

Examples of Time Invested by Police Coordinator

A. Average Number of Hours
Worked Per Week by Coordinators

<u>Hours</u>	<u>Percent</u> ^a
1 to 5	29.6
6 to 10	12.2
11 to 20	16.9
21 to 37	8.5
38 to 40	16.9
41 to 60	15.9

B. Number of Public Speaking Engagements
About the Program by Coordinators in Past Six Months

<u>Number of Presentations</u>	<u>Percent</u> ^b
0	12.8
1 to 2	13.9
3 to 4	16.1
5 to 9	15.6
10 to 19	18.3
20 to 75	23.3

^a n = 189

^b n = 194

What level of support do Crime Stoppers programs receive from the Chief of Police? Coordinators were asked how often the Chief mentions the program in his public speaking engagements and how often he asks about the status or needs of the program. Most coordinators are pleased with the level of support provided by the Chief of Police but not all programs have been equally "blessed". Seventeen (17) percent reported that the Chief "rarely" or "never" mentions the program in public, and 26 percent reported that the Chief "rarely" or "never" inquires about the program's status or needs.

The adequacy of program staff is a more direct measure of police department support for the Crime Stoppers program. Table 12 displays the coordinator's views on present levels of staffing and changes since program inception. As these results indicate, the majority of coordinators felt that the present number of staff was "somewhat" or "very" sufficient given the current demands of the program. Furthermore, a commitment to Crime Stoppers by police administrators is clearly reflected in 1 out of 3 programs in which the number of staff and/or percentage of time committed to Crime Stoppers has increased since the program was originally implemented. However, substantial variation exists in response to these questions, and more than 1 in 3 coordinators felt that the current number of staff assigned by the police department was "somewhat" or "very" insufficient.

Investigators and patrol officers are two groups whose relationship to the program is considered very important for making the program work within the organization. From the viewpoint of the police coordinator we were able to produce some indirect measures of police officers' knowledge, attitudes, and level of cooperation with

Table 12

Size of Program Staff as Reported by Coordinator

A. Sufficiency of Present Number of Staff Members
Assigned by the Department

<u>Response</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Very sufficient	41.4
Somewhat sufficient	27.7
Somewhat insufficient	22.0
Very insufficient	8.9

B. Changes in the Number of Police Department Staff
(or percentage of Time Committed)
Since the Program's Initial Staffing

<u>Response</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Increased	37.5
Stayed the same	50.5
Decreased	12.0

respect to the Crime Stoppers program. As shown in Table 13, there is considerable awareness and support of Crime Stoppers programs among both investigators and patrol officers. As one might expect, according to the coordinator, investigators are (a) more likely than patrol officers to have a complete understanding of how the program works, (b) less skeptical about the benefits of Crime Stoppers, and (c) more likely to cooperate with the program.

These differences between patrol officers and investigators may suggest that there is room for additional officer education about the purpose and availability of the program. Indeed, 16.5% of the coordinators admitted that neither patrol officers nor investigators had received any training about their Crime Stoppers program in the past year. More importantly, of those departments that did offer some training, 48.3 percent of the coordinators felt that the training was inadequate. Finally, police coordinators in general appear to have a very good rapport with investigators. Only 6 percent report having regular (as opposed to occasional) problems with investigators.

Crime Stoppers Calls

Accepting and properly disposing of anonymous calls is a central function of the Crime Stoppers office. Many questions about these calls were raised as part of this national evaluation, ranging from inquiries about the types of calls received to the procedures employed in follow-up investigations. Some of these findings are described below.

Crime Stoppers programs thrive on receiving "good" tips that are helpful to a criminal investigation. When asked to estimate what percentage of the tips they receive are "good tips", the average

Table 13

Program Awareness, Skepticism and Cooperativeness
Among Investigators and Patrol Officers (Percent)

A. Estimated Percentage (Investigators/Patrol) Who Understand How the Program Works	<u>Type of Officer Being Assessed</u>	
	Investigators	Patrol Officers
0 - 50%	15.6 ^a	38.7
51 - 90%	29.7	44.0
91 - 100%	54.7	17.3
B. <u>Percentage (Investigators/Patrol) Who are Skeptical About Crime Stoppers Program</u>		
0 - 10%	68.3	50.8
11 - 50%	26.0	39.6
51 - 100%	5.8	9.6
C. <u>Level of Cooperation from (Investigators/Patrol)</u>		
Very high or high	61.7	33.7
Somewhat high	21.2	22.1
Neither high nor low	10.9	31.1
Somewhat low	5.2	10.5
Low or very low	1.0	2.6

^a This table figure would be read as follows: 15.6% of the coordinators felt that the percentage of investigators in their department who understand how the Crime Stoppers program works is 50 or less.

response from program coordinators was 46 percent. The usefulness of most tips received varied by size of the population served. According to the survey, the larger the program, the smaller the percentage of tips that were judged useful (e.g., 39% for large programs vs. 49% for small programs). This relationship may indicate a perceptual bias rather than a real percentage difference because larger programs experience a much larger volume of all types of calls on a daily basis, and some of these calls are more salient and memorable.

Given that nearly half of the leads provided by callers are considered "good" leads, the question remains -- who provides the best information to the program on a consistent basis? As shown in Table 14, fringe players were viewed as the best informants, whereas good citizens were seen as the least likely to produce useful information. This finding confirms an important (and nearly obvious) piece of knowledge in the police world, namely that persons associated with or involved in criminal activity are usually the best sources of information about crime.

The various types of crime-related calls are displayed in Table 15. An inspection of these results reveals that the most prevalent calls provide information about cases that involve a property (33%) or a narcotics crime (32%).

Call processing. Who normally answers the Crime Stoppers phone and how are the calls processed? Although the coordinator is the most likely person to answer the phone during regular hours (35%), the majority of programs split this responsibility among several members of the staff. When the person(s) who normally receives calls is away from the phone, few programs have no backup system and are forced to

Table 14

Quality of Information by Type of Caller

Type of Caller	Percent ^a
Good Citizens	9.5
Fringe Players	52.9
Criminals	27.5
Don't Know	10.1

^a n=189

Table 15

Types of Crime-Related Calls Received by Crime Stoppers
(Coordinator's Estimates)

Type of Crime	Percent Breakdown ^a
Crime Against Business	17
Narcotics	32
Personal Crimes (homocides, rape robbery, assault)	16
Property Crimes (burglary, theft)	33
Other Crimes	11

^a Percentages represent an averaging of participants' responses for each category and therefore do not sum to 100 percent.

let the phone ring (4%). Most programs have either call forwarding procedures (36%) or other staff to handle calls (42%). However, a sizeable percentage (18%) use an answering machine when the person who normally answers the phone is not available. There is some debate among Crime Stoppers personnel regarding whether the machine "turns off" callers and therefore should not be utilized. Data pertinent to this question will be examined in section D of this report.

How are the calls processed? Call screening and follow-up investigations are two primary responses to callers for which information is available. Programs differ considerably in the extent to which the program staff (as opposed to investigators) screen calls to determine the accuracy of the information supplied by the informant. In 36 percent of the programs, the staff screens all of the calls, whereas in another 23 percent of the programs the calls go directly to investigators without any staff screening (the remaining 41 percent fall somewhere in between). These differences are not related to program size, as one might expect.

Similar variation was found in the percentage of cases that program staff investigate from start to finish. Whereas 37 percent of the programs never conduct the complete investigation themselves, another 17 percent always conduct the full investigation. As a whole, coordinators report that they or members of their staff investigate approximately 37 percent of the cases from start to finish.

Are there any differences between Crime Stoppers cases and non-Crime Stoppers cases in the way they are investigated? Most coordinators (79%) say "no", but 1 in 5 say "yes". If there are differences, the amount of time spent on the investigation does not

appear to be one of them. Most coordinators (73%) feel that investigators spend the same amount of time on both program cases and non-program cases. The remainder were split, with 12 percent arguing that Crime Stoppers cases receive "more" investigative time and 15 percent arguing that they receive "less" investigative time than other cases. However, Crime Stoppers investigations certainly receive "high priority" in terms of case assignments. Compared to other cases that need to be investigated, Crime Stoppers cases are given a "high" or "very high" priority in 55% of the departments surveyed.

To keep track of how calls are being handled, 3 out of 4 programs use a form or questionnaire to record caller information, and 93 percent of these programs then forward a copy of this form to investigators for follow-up. In the majority of agencies, detectives also have a follow-up form that is designed to give feedback to the Crime Stoppers staff regarding the status of the case. However, more than one-third (37%) do not have this feedback mechanism.

Having a feedback loop is an important program feature, but is no guarantee that investigators will use it properly. Coordinators estimate that investigators actually complete the follow-up form in a timely manner in 52 percent of the cases. To improve performance in this area, some coordinators have developed "tickler" files to remind them of when to follow-up specific cases that are under investigation. Others have pushed for written departmental policies that require detectives to notify the Crime Stoppers program within a certain period of time regarding the status of the investigation. Unfortunately, the majority of coordinators (56%) do not have

"tickler" files and most police departments (78%) do not have written policies about detective follow-up procedures.

C. THE MEDIA

Media and Program Start-up

The media not only play a critical role in every successful Crime Stoppers program, they also help to spread the word about Crime Stoppers, thus bringing it to the attention of communities that have yet to consider starting their own program. Nearly one-fourth (24%) of the Crime Stoppers programs surveyed credit the media as the means through which they became aware of Crime Stoppers.

In contrast, more than one-fourth (28%) of the programs reported that enlisting some form of media participation had been a major problem in becoming fully operational. Crime Stoppers programs serving small population areas reported this as a major obstacle less frequently (i.e., only 1 in 5 said it was a major obstacle) than Crime Stoppers programs in larger population areas. Specifically, half of all programs in areas with over 50,000 population noted that getting the initial cooperation of the local media was either the greatest or second greatest obstacle they had to overcome; only a third of the Crime Stoppers programs in areas serving less than 50,000 experienced a severe start-up problem due to the lack of initial cooperation of their local media.

Crime Stoppers programs in areas with less than 100,000 population were significantly more likely to share media outlets with other programs than was the case in larger areas: whereas 50 percent of all programs in small and medium sized population areas share media outlets, only one-third of those in medium-large and large sized areas do. Of the programs that share media, only one in ten expressed any dissatisfaction with this arrangement. Consistent with this finding,

a coding of open-ended questions revealed that there was a generally positive assessment of the concept of programs "sharing" media, but about one-fourth of the responses indicated some dissatisfaction with the specific arrangement, because it often led to inconsistent publicity received by individual programs.

There was also a generally positive assessment of the effect of state-wide programs on the operation and development of local programs' media component. The only negative comment mentioned with any frequency had to do with a loss of control over one's "image" when a local program has to rely on a statewide multi-jurisdictional arrangement for publicity.

As stated above, a majority of all programs indicated that they had no major problems with their media component during their start-up phase, though this varied across different sized areas. Almost two-thirds of the programs serving small populations stated that they basically had no problems getting their media component operational, compared to only one in five of the programs serving large areas. One consistent problem mentioned by those who did have start-up problems with the media was the issue of "exclusivity" and competition among different local media.

Of those programs that did not report any basic problems with the media during the start-up phase, the most frequently mentioned reason was the direct involvement of the local media in the development of the program; i.e., people from the local media helped plan and implement the program. There was a trend for programs serving larger population areas to be more likely to have the "enthusiastic" support

of their local media when compared to programs in smaller population areas.

Our survey of program coordinators questioned respondents about five different types of local media outlets: a) daily newspapers, b) weekly newspapers, c) radio stations, d) VHF/UHF television stations, and e) cable television services. Not all programs were located in areas served by each of these media types. Nearly nine out of ten programs (86%) reported that there was at least one radio station operating in their service area at the time their program was instituted. Daily newspapers were the next most frequently cited local medium that a program "theoretically" had access to; about three-fourths of all programs (77%) indicated at least one daily newspaper in their service area. Weekly newspapers and VHF and UHF television stations were available in 60 percent of the program areas, whereas cable television was available to only a little over one-third of the programs (36%).

This relatively low percentage of programs with access to television stations probably reflects the reality that smaller communities rarely have a television station that will provide any regular coverage of their news (a developing exception to this is the local programming that is mandated in most cable television services). This is supported by the finding that only 20 percent of the programs in areas with populations under 50,000 reported having "realistic" access to a VHF/UHF television station; 64 percent of programs in medium sized areas had such access, as did 75 percent and 91 percent of those in medium-large and large areas, respectively. Size of area served by a program was basically unrelated to the other types of media

available to a program, with the exception of daily newspapers being available to only six in ten small area programs, compared to 85 percent-plus availability in each of the three larger program areas.

Turning to the relative cooperativeness among different types of mass media at the start-up phase, radio stations, weekly newspapers and cable television stations were rated as somewhat more cooperative than either daily newspapers or regular television stations (See Table 16). Here, the former group was rated as "cooperative" in about 80 percent of the cases, whereas the latter were rated "cooperative" during start-up in about two-thirds of the cases. Furthermore, size of population served correlated significantly with the cooperation of certain types of media at the start-up phase. For both daily and weekly newspapers, the smaller the program area, the higher the rating given for each media type during the start-up phase. On the other hand, there were no differences in the ratings given by Crime Stoppers programs from different sized areas to the three types of broadcast media for their cooperation during the start-up phase.

Media and Present Operations

Depending on the size of the population served, there is a great deal of variation in the type and number of media outlets that cooperate with Crime Stoppers programs. For daily newspapers, in 1984, about half (51%) of Crime Stoppers programs serving small population areas reported the participation of at least one such media. In contrast, upwards of three-fourths or more of the programs in larger population areas report having at least one daily newspaper that participates in their program. Even more variation is found when comparing the average number of dailies that cooperate with programs

Table 16
Cooperativeness of Various Local Media
at Program Start-Up

Media Type	Rating ^a		
	Cooperative	Neutral	Uncooperative
Daily Newspapers	66.4	20.3	13.3
Weekly Newspapers	79.3	15.3	5.4
Radio Stations	83.1	11.9	5.0
VHF/UHF TV Stations	68.8	20.2	11.0
Cable TV Companies	80.3	10.6	9.1

^a Ratings of cooperativeness were made on a 0-10 scale by program coordinators. Rating of 0-3 were grouped as "Uncooperative", 4-6 were grouped as "Neutral" and 7-10 were grouped as "Cooperative."

in different sized areas. Whereas programs in small areas average less than one daily newspaper (.75), those in large areas report an average of 3.3 dailies participating in their program.

For weekly newspapers, in 1984, regardless of population size, about six in ten programs report the participation of at least one such medium. Similar to dailies, the larger the population area, the more the average number of weeklies that participate with a program (see Table 17).

In 1984, radio stations were the most frequently used media by Crime Stoppers programs. Upwards of 75-85 percent of programs serving the different population sizes reported that at least one radio station cooperated with their program. Even Crime Stoppers programs in small population areas averaged nearly two radio stations, whereas those in large areas reported the participation of an average of 7.5 radio stations.

The use of VHF and UHF television stations shows the greatest variation across population sizes. Whereas only 15 percent of the programs serving small areas said that at least one regular TV station cooperated with their program, nine out of ten of those in large areas had at least one such media participating. This is further highlighted by the averages shown in Table 16: small area programs reported the participation of an average .22 television stations, whereas in large areas the average was 2.68.

Finally, for cable television, in 1984, about one-third of all programs had at least one such media participating, with the exception of only about one-fourth of those programs serving medium sized population areas.

Table 17

Size of Population Served
by Type of Media Participation in 1984

Size of Population	Type of Media										N ^a
	Daily Newspaper		Weekly Newspaper		Radio		VHF/UHF Television		Cable Television		
	% with	Ave. #	% with	Ave. #	% with	Ave. #	% with	Ave. #	% with	Ave. #	
Less than 50,000	51	.75	59	1.25	73	1.83	15	.22	35	.41	61
50,000 to 99,999	73	1.11	59	1.52	75	3.48	52	.86	23	.39	47
100,000 to 249,999	86	1.44	58	1.50	86	4.75	69	1.19	36	.44	38
250,000 or larger	75	3.34	61	3.18	80	7.50	89	2.68	36	.55	46

^a Average sample size.

Looking at Table 17, we can also determine the types of media that are most used by Crime Stoppers programs serving different population sizes. For those programs in small areas, radio is the most frequently used media outlet, followed by weekly newspapers, and dailies. Few of these programs have the cooperation of the television media. For programs in medium-sized areas, radio and daily newspapers are the most used media, followed by weeklies and VHF/UHF television. The same pattern holds for programs in medium-sized areas for radio and dailies. Finally, in large population areas, VHF/UHF television is used by proportionately more Crime Stoppers programs than any other media outlet. In terms of raw numbers, radio is used even more. Both daily and weekly newspapers also serve as important media outlets for most Crime Stoppers programs in large population areas.

Table 18 shows that there has not been much change in the way program coordinators rate the current level of cooperation they receive from different media types, compared to their ratings of cooperation at the time of program start-up (compare with Table 16). One exception, however, is the slight increase in the proportion of weekly newspapers and VHF/UHF television stations that are currently rated "cooperative."

Crime Stoppers programs serving medium-large population areas consistently reported more present-day (i.e., 1984) cooperation from daily newspapers, weekly newspapers, radio stations, and VHF/UHF television stations than Crime Stopper programs in other sized areas. The only exception to this trend was for programs in small areas which indicated that the highest level of cooperation they experienced was with cable television stations.

Table 18

Cooperativeness of Various Local Media
at Present Time

Media Type	Ratings ^a		
	Cooperative	Neutral	Uncooperative
Daily Newspapers	68.3	22.7	9.0
Weekly Newspapers	85.8	11.5	2.7
Radio Stations	81.8	10.9	7.3
VHF/UHF TV Stations	73.5	15.0	11.5
Cable TV Companies	78.1	12.3	9.6

^a Ratings of cooperativeness were made on 0-10 scale by program coordinators. Ratings of 0-3 were grouped as "Uncooperative", 4-6 were grouped as "Neutral", and 7-10 were grouped as "Cooperative". Numbers indicate percentage of respondents in each rating group. N varies by type of media.

Viewed in another way, across all population sizes, programs in 1984 rated their participating weekly newspapers as most cooperative (mean rating of 8.5 on a 10-point scale), followed by radio stations (8.4), cable television (8.2), regular television (7.7), and daily newspapers (7.6).

Crime of the Week. Most Crime Stoppers programs (84%) reported that at least one of their media outlets runs the "Crime of the Week," with another eight percent indicating that the local media run a "Crime of the Month" news story. In about half of participating daily newspapers (53%), this spot always gets front page play; another 23 percent often (but not always) give it front page coverage. About one-fourth of participating weeklies always give it front page play, whereas another 30 percent usually do so. Participating radio stations showed no consistent placement of the Crime of the Week spot in their programming day; i.e., different radio stations run it at all times of the day and night. For television, though, the 6:00 p.m. to 12:00 a.m. time-slot seems to be the most common time that the "Crime of the Week" is run.

Participating daily newspapers are more likely than weeklies to run the "Crime of the Week" in the same place each time. Dailies are also more likely than weeklies to publish editorials about Crime Stoppers, write special stories on the program, and to advertise the Crime Stoppers program.

In terms of putting the "Crime of the Week" together, about three-fourths of those programs that have participating daily newspapers, weekly newspapers, and/or radio stations indicated that Crime Stoppers program personnel regularly prepare the newscopy. In

contrast, only one-third of those with regular TV stations participating prepare their own copy; instead, most do it together with the stations' staff. Almost all programs indicated that the participating media did not have a direct editorial say in "picking" the "Crime of the Week."

The police most often chose burglaries by themselves or felonies in general as the "Crime of the Week." There was a difference here for population size: in small areas, burglaries are several times more likely to be chosen as "Crime of the Week" than in large areas, whereas personal felonies were more likely to run as "Crime of the Week" in large population areas than in small areas.

Media and Public Awareness

Demonstrating the important role of the media in the operation of successful Crime Stoppers programs, a coding of open-ended questions revealed that nearly one-third of the programs surveyed felt that increased media participation was needed to improve citizens' awareness of their program. There was a tendency for programs from larger population areas to mention this more often than those from small areas.

Nearly half of all program coordinators reported that their Crime Stoppers program currently did not have any major problems in soliciting an adequate amount of cooperation from their local media. Of those that did list some current problem, the most frequently mentioned were the sometimes troublesome deadlines that the media set, and the media's desire to include information that law enforcement was often not willing to give out, e.g., the victim's name. More programs

in small areas reported such current problems than did programs in large population areas.

When asked why they felt the local media cooperates with Crime Stoppers, program coordinators mentioned two basic reasons: a) to fulfill their public service requirements, and b) to increase their "ratings" (i.e., their readership or viewership). This second reason was given more frequently by Crime Stoppers programs in larger population areas.

Only 20 percent of the programs reported that they had received complaints from their participating local media about working with Crime Stoppers. The most frequent complaint related to publication deadlines. The only other complaint mentioned with any frequency was the media's dissatisfaction with the way that Crime Stoppers personnel sometimes reenact the "Crime of the Week."

Half of all programs reported using some source of publicity that their program had to pay for: the most common expenditure was for bumper stickers, window stickers, pamphlets and brochures. Programs in larger areas were more likely than those in smaller areas to spend money on publicity. Of all programs that paid for publicity, 32 percent reported spending less than \$500, another 30 percent had spent \$500-\$999, another 30 percent had spent \$1,000-\$4,999, and the remaining six percent had spent over \$5,000 on publicity for their program.

When asked what the most successful type of media was for creating public interest in their program, nearly six out of ten programs operating in smaller population areas said it was newspapers, whereas seven in ten programs from larger areas reported that it was

television. Open-ended questions revealed that the media most preferred by coordinators was whichever one they personally perceived as reaching the largest local audience. In other words, there appears to be no consistent preference for either print or broadcast media.

A final topic asked of coordinators about their relations with the media related to the advice they would offer new programs about the best way to solicit and maintain the cooperation of the media. The most frequent response was the necessity to be honest and straight-forward in communicating with media personnel (i.e., to develop trust, and not breed suspicion). Programs from smaller population areas were more likely than those in larger areas to give this response. The only other response mentioned emphasized the importance of trying to use various types of local media (i.e., print and broadcast) equally in order to minimize competition among the different outlets.

National Survey of Media Executives

Awareness and Participation in Crime Stoppers. In an open-ended item at the beginning of the questionnaire, executives were asked if their news organization "encouraged citizen involvement in crime prevention activities/programs," and if so, what type? Nearly all (94%) of the Crime Stoppers sample replied affirmatively, as did 70 percent of the random sample (72% of newspapers and television stations and 62% of radio stations). Of the media from the Crime Stoppers sample, 82 percent indicated that they were currently participating in a Crime Stoppers program, compared to 24 percent of the media from the random sample (23% of newspapers, 19% of radio stations and 38% of television stations).

Later in the questionnaire, a sequence of closed-ended items was used to further determine whether the organization presently participates in Crime Stoppers. The results indicate that 93 percent of the Crime Stoppers sample was presently involved in a local Crime Stoppers Program, compared to 28 percent of the random sample. (Note: The Crime Stoppers sample came from a listing of media provided in February-March 1984 telephone interview with approximately 500 Crime Stoppers programs throughout the continent. The fact that not all the media listed as participating in the 1984 survey were participating at the time of the 1985 mailing could be due to inaccurate information in the 1984 survey, or possibly some of the media participating in 1984 no longer do so.)

Table 19 shows how the two samples belong to one of three categories in terms of their relationship to Crime Stoppers. Nearly 60 percent of the media in the random sample were located in

Table 19

Media Organization's Relationship
to Crime Stoppers

Type of Relationship	Sample	
	Crime Stoppers (percent)	Random
No local Crime Stoppers Program	2	59
Local Crime Stoppers Program, but do not participate	5	13
Participate in local Crime Stoppers Program	93	28

communities with no local Crime Stoppers program. An additional 13 percent of the media in the random sample were located in communities with a Crime Stoppers program, but did not participate. In contrast, only two percent of the media from the Crime Stoppers sample indicated that there was no Crime Stoppers program in their community, with another five percent saying they didn't participate in their local program.

Not suprisingly, all executives in the Crime Stoppers sample were aware of "Crime Stoppers", even those whose organizations did not participate in a local Crime Stoppers program. More significantly, only 10 percent of those in the random sample had never heard of Crime Stoppers -- a finding that is more representative of general media awareness of Crime Stoppers.

For those executives who were not familiar with Crime Stoppers, the survey questionnaire provided a basic explanation of Crime Stoppers operations and philosophy. All executives that were located in communities without a Crime Stoppers program were then asked about the likelihood of their organization participating in such a program if it existed in their community. Nearly two-thirds (64%) said it would be very likely that their organization would participate in a local Crime Stoppers program if one were available. Comparing these responses by different types of media, we found that eight in ten radio stations, half of the newspapers and only one-fourth the television stations said it would be very likely that they would participate. In contrast, less than one-fourth (22%) said it would be very unlikely that their organization would participate.

All executives in the random sample that did not have a local Crime Stoppers program and did not indicate that their organization would be very likely to participate if one were available, were asked "why might your organization not want to participate in such a program?" The most frequent reason given had to do with "operational problems" that would keep the media from being able to coordinate its activities with those of a Crime Stoppers program. Several other reasons were mentioned, most of which centered around a belief that it was beyond the proper role of the media to be participating in such a program. There were no consistent patterns across media types in the reasons given for possible non-participation.

The Nature of Media Participation. Of all the media organizations that currently participate in Crime Stoppers, slightly over half (54%) of the executives in the Crime Stoppers sample, and three-fourths of those in the random sample indicated that their organization helped start Crime Stoppers in their community. None of the three media types were any more likely than the others to have helped start their local Crime Stoppers program.

When asked "why" their organization participates in Crime Stoppers, the most frequent reason (given by 50%) was the belief that Crime Stoppers is helping in the fight against crime. A similar proportion of media executives (46%) explained their company's participation as a public service responsibility. About one in five (17%) also reported that their participation in Crime Stoppers has helped their image with the public. As discussed earlier in this section these latter two reasons for media participation were also the ones most frequently cited by Crime Stoppers coordinators.

When asked to explain what their organization did as part of its participation in Crime Stoppers, a majority (52%) indicated that the agency gave daily and/or weekly coverage to Crime Stoppers, but not necessarily by running a Crime of the Week feature. Nearly three in ten (28%) reportedly publicize Crime Stopper success (e.g., suspects arrested) as part of their regular news coverage. Finally, about one-tenth indicated that their organization was represented on the local Crime Stoppers Board of Directors, helped with fundraising for rewards, provided free advertising for the program, and/or helped produce re-enactments for broadcasting.

Only seven percent of the media responding to the national survey stated that their organization has an "exclusive arrangement" with Crime Stoppers, whereby their organization is the only media of its type that participates in the local program. This arrangement differed significantly by media type, with only two percent of radio stations and 8 percent of newspapers indicating they had exclusivity. In contrast 29 percent of the participating television stations have an exclusive arrangement with Crime Stoppers.

When asked if their organization would continue to participate in Crime Stoppers if they could not maintain the exclusivity, better than eight in ten (86%) of those currently operating with exclusivity indicated that it was "somewhat likely" that they would continue.

A final sequence of questions dealt specifically with the "Crime of the Week" (or in some cases the "Crime of the Month"). Eighty percent (80%) of the media executives indicated that their local Crime Stoppers program uses a Crime of the Week feature, but as reported above, only about one-third stated their organization participated in

it. Most executives with knowledge of "Crime of the Week" (78%) said that each week's publicized crime was chosen by a committee with media input. There was no apparent pattern in what type of crime was regularly chosen, but in general, the executives were "quite satisfied" with the crimes being selected.

D. THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS: REWARDS AND FUNDRAISING

The Board of Directors is the third critical leg of the Crime Stoppers program, with primary responsibility for fund raising and the allocation of rewards. In this section, we will examine the board's fund raising activities and discuss some findings regarding rewards and reward procedures.

Establishing a nonprofit corporation with tax-exempt status is one of the first major tasks facing most programs. Not all of the programs in our sample were involved with a nonprofit corporation, but we suspect that most of the 18 percent that did not include such a corporation were too new to have completed the process. Of the programs that were structured around a nonprofit corporation, 87 percent report that the corporation was created specifically for the Crime Stoppers program, whereas the remainder had attached themselves to existing tax-exempt organizations.

Most boards are quite active and follow a standard practice of meeting once every month (80%). However, a number of programs have less active boards. For example, 16% of the boards meet only one to three times in a six-month period.

In many Crime Stoppers programs, the board of directors has created committees that keep the full board from having to attend numerous meetings. In 43 percent of the programs, the board has established an executive committee to handle some of the business. On the average, these executive committee meetings occur four times in a six-month period. Thirty (30) percent of the programs have created other types of committees to assist the board of directors and these

committees meet as needed, but typically four times in a six-month period.

Performance of the board

How well does the board of directors function in most Crime Stoppers programs? We asked police coordinators to evaluate their board on a number of dimensions. These ratings are shown in Table 18. On each of the eight evaluation dimensions, anywhere from half to three-fourths of the boards received "high" ratings (i.e., 4 or 5 on a 5-point scale) from their police coordinators. However, the variation across these dimensions of performance is worth noting. Boards generally received very high ratings on their "knowledge and understanding of the program's operations and problems" and "working closely with the coordinator." However, they received considerably lower marks in some critical areas, such as effectiveness in fund raising, investing enough time and energy, creating public awareness of the program, and assisting with the media. To illustrate, 1 out of 4 coordinators gave their board a low rating of "1" or "2" on "investing time and energy in the program", whereas half gave their board a "4" or "5" rating on this scale. The overall ratings of performance were very favorable, as 52 percent were judged to be "excellent" or "very good", and another 23 percent as "good". However, one in four was viewed as average or below average in overall performance.

Reward Systems

One of the primary responsibilities of the board of directors is to allocate rewards to informants who have called Crime Stoppers and whose information has yielded tangible investigative results. Thus, each board must establish some type of a reward system or an agreed upon practice for determining who is eligible for a reward and how much the reward should be.

Data were collected regarding the primary criteria used to determine reward eligibility. We were interested in determining at what point a case becomes eligible for a reward in most programs. For example, is an arrest always required or do some programs settle for more or less results before a reward is dispensed? The responses of coordinators are shown in Table 20. Clearly, there is little uniformity of practice across the country when it comes to determining eligibility for rewards. Some Crime Stoppers programs appear to be rather generous, allowing a caller to be eligible for a reward with only the recovery of property, whereas others are more conservative by requiring arrest, indictment and even conviction. Although hard, inflexible rules are often not feasible, some common practices were as well observed, as the substantial variation. The extreme responses ("always" and "never") offer the most information about program policy on eligibility for rewards. For example, Table 19 shows that 18.6 percent of the programs "never" consider the recovery of property or narcotics only as a sufficient outcome to justify eligibility for a reward, whereas another 19.3 percent claim that such recoveries are "always" sufficient. Apparently, the arrest of a suspect satisfies eligibility requirements at least some of the time for 84 percent of

Table 20

Point at Which a Case
Becomes Eligible for a Reward

Level of Results Needed	Eligible for Reward			
	Always	Usually (percent)	Sometimes	Never
Exceptional clearance only	8.1	11.8	36.0	44.1
Property or narcotics recovered only	19.3	20.0	42.1	18.6
Indictment only	35.5	15.9	17.4	31.2
Arrest Only	45.2	17.4	21.3	16.1
Arrest and indictment	68.3	11.8	7.5	12.4
Conviction	40.6	2.3	10.9	46.1

the boards, but is "always" sufficient for only 45 percent of the boards.

Many other factors are considered by the board of directors and the coordinator when making decisions about reward eligibility and reward amount. Perhaps most interesting and most critical to the financial stability of the program is the process of determining the amount of the reward that should be paid for any given case. Our observations and discussions with practitioners indicate that most boards handle reward amounts on a case-by-case basis and employ a variety of factors in this decision-making process. Before discussing these factors, we should emphasize that most boards are in a position of responding to a recommendation of reward amount prepared by the police coordinator. In some cases the board is only a "rubber stamp" for the coordinator and his/her staff (The program staff know the details of the cases much better and bring an aura of "police expertise" to the board meeting). However, in many cases, the coordinator presents the facts to the board, makes a recommendation about the reward level and then the board initiates a serious discussion of reward criteria before it reaches a decision. In any event, we argue that the police coordinator often plays a critical role in influencing the board's perception of the case and its eligibility for reward. (One in five coordinators claim that the boards "occasionally" disagree with their reward recommendation, but 75 percent report that the boards "hardly ever" or "never" disagrees with them.)

We asked coordinators to tell us what criteria were used for making reward decisions and to rank these criteria in order of their

importance in the decision-making process. As Table 21 shows, many factors are weighed when the board, in collaboration with the coordinator, makes a decision about the amount of reward that a caller should receive. By far the most important factor is the severity of the crime. The more serious the crime, the larger the amount of the reward informants can expect to receive. The least important criterion (but one that is still used in decision making by 40% of the programs) is whether the informant is a frequent caller. In sum, there are many factors that the board and program coordinator use to guide their decision about reward levels, but aside from crime severity, there is not a consensus about which factors are important and should be consistently employed.

Reward Amounts. Although the above-mentioned factors seem to determine whether one caller will receive a larger or smaller reward than another caller, they do not suggest an absolute amount or even a range that can be expected.

Exploring this issue of the size of cash rewards, we asked coordinators several questions about their reward statistics for a full year. Table 22 shows the average reward size in 1983 for all programs that reported actual (as opposed to estimated) figures, broken down by crime categories and size of population served. As these statistics indicate, reward size varied as function of the type of crime and whether or not the incident was the "Crime of the Week". Personal crimes (homicide, rape, robbery, and assault) generally yielded much larger rewards (averaging \$379) than property crimes (\$171) or narcotics violations (\$207). However, the "Crime of the

Table 21

Criteria Used in Reward Decision Making

Criteria	Percent Who Use it in Decision Making	Average Ranking on Importance	Percent Who Rank It #1 or #2
Severity of Crime	77.4	1.4	91.7
The "quality" of the information	62.6	3.1	44.8
Amount of property and/or narcotics recovered	71.3	3.5	37.5
Risk taken by caller	52.7	3.8	20.8
Credibility of the caller	44.6	4.7	19.4
Cooperation given by caller	48.9	4.7	6.2
Caller's willingness to testify	43.0	5.2	11.8
Whether caller is a frequent caller	40.1	5.9	5.8

Table 22

Average Reward Size (in dollars)
by Type of Crime and Size of Population Served
January - December, 1983

Size of Population	Type of Crime				N ^c
	Personal ^a Crimes	Narcotics	Property ^b Crimes	Crime of Week	
Less than 50,000	289	177	171	165	61
50,000 to 99,999	406	146	139	344	47
100,000 to 249,999	394	271	203	676	38
250,000 or larger	400	253	178	774	46
OVERALL AVERAGE	379	207	171	505	192

^a Includes homicide, rape, robbery, and assault.

^b Includes burglary, theft and auto theft.

^c Average sample size.

Week" produced the highest reward average (\$505). In addition, larger programs (i.e., over 100,000 population) tended to offer larger rewards, especially for non-personal crimes and for the "Crime of the Week. "

Although reward size was somewhat predictable when viewed as a function of crime type and program size, the most interesting findings are the large differences that remain between programs. For example, the average reward size for personal crimes ranges from 40 dollars in the lowest-paying program to over 1000 dollars in the highest-paying program. Indeed, programs in the lowest-paying quartile averaged between 40 and 200 dollars for personal crimes, whereas the upper quartile averaged between 468 and 1250 dollars. Similar ranges were found for other types of crime and the Crime of the Week.

These findings suggest that the decision to offer a particular reward amount is quite idiosyncratic. Each program seems to have its own set of standards or makes decisions about reward amounts in a somewhat arbitrary manner. Given the difficulties of fund raising and the large volume of informants and crime reporters who go without any rewards, the central question is whether the current practice of reward allocation is optimal in terms of minimizing the expenditure of funds while maintaining a high level of informant satisfaction and cooperation with the program. To address this important policy question, we conducted a Reward Experiment with the Lake County (Illinois) Crime Stoppers program (methodology discussed earlier) to determine how informants respond to different reward levels. The results of this study are presented later in this report under section E.

In our national survey, coordinators reported that informants are generally satisfied with the size of the reward they receive. Using their best judgment, coordinators estimated that 2 out of 3 informants feel that the cash reward is equitable, 9 percent feel it is too large and 25 percent feel it is too small. Unfortunately, these estimates are little more than guesswork because few informants are asked specifically about their satisfaction with the reward or behave in a manner that would expose their true feelings.

Fund-Raising

Although Crime Stoppers programs involve many agencies in both the public and private sectors, almost all of the programs are technically supported by a non-profit corporation that raises funds through a variety of methods. Because these programs pay out rewards to participating citizens, fund raising is one of the most critical functions of the board of directors. It is especially important in medium to large programs or very active programs in as much as they require larger-than-normal disbursements of reward money. For example, the Houston Crime Stoppers program must raise approximately 18,000 dollars per month to maintain its current level of operation. Hence, many programs find themselves in a constant fund-raising posture, especially those who are successful at generating business from informants.

Failure at fund-raising can mean failure as a program. Learning the art and skill of good fund-raising early in the program's existence is an important task for the board of directors and the coordinator. As shown earlier, 1 in 3 coordinators gave their board a

moderate-to-low rating in its ability to raise funds, whereas they rated their board much higher on other dimensions.

Unfortunately, there is no "right way" to raise money or single method that is far superior to all others. Crime Stoppers programs seem to try one method and then another, seek both a change of activities and greater cost-effectiveness.

Thinking that a collection of individual fund-raising experiences from programs across the country might help everyone "see the forest for the trees," we asked board chairpersons to describe their fund raising history. They were asked to list (among other things) the methods or techniques employed, the costs incurred for each, and the amount of funds raised. This information was subjected to a content analysis to identify categories of similar or related fund raising techniques and target populations. The types of information provided by the board chair included the target population for the solicitation/donation (e.g., businesses, individuals, civic organizations), the mode of communication, (e.g., letter/mail, person-to-person), and the general strategy employed (e.g., solicitation, sponsored events, court restitution). Because we did not request specific information in each of these categories, the respondents may have offered information in only one or two of these areas. Nonetheless, we had enough responses in each category to perform separate analyses for each.

Table 23 displays a summary of the fund-raising experiences of Crime Stoppers programs. A Cost-effectiveness ratio was computed using three measures: (a) the total funds raised, (b) the dollar

Table 23

Funds Raised and Costs by Type of Fund Raising

A. Mode of Communication	Gross Amounts Raised	Dollar Costs	Person-hours Invested	<u>N</u>
Mail	5647.94	493.29	77.85	34
Personal contacts ³	6714.19	176.48	1025.19	21
<u>B. Solicitation Target</u>				
Businesses	7734.53	354.81	724.53	32
Individuals	1113.75	100.50	73.00	12
Civic Organizations	3294.64	8.29	57.43	14
Other	2864.29	88.29	31.00	7
<u>C. Police-Sponsored Events</u>				
Booths and sales	6625.00	1650.25	175.00	4
Dances, dinners, banquets	1617.18	410.45	35.00	11
Raffles, bingo	2425.00	294.13	115.13	8
Sporting events	1633.64	85.55	40.45	11
<u>D. Other Techniques</u>				
Presentations/Speaking				
Engagements	1895.83	42.42	28.25	12
Media	2681.82	25.67	23.82	11
Court restitution	5375.00	73.25	13.25	4
Collection box	610.00	100.33	103.00	3
Civic organization events	650.00	1.00	1.00	1
Other	1785.71	148.29	21.71	7

costs of this fund-raising effort, and (c) the number of person-hours expended. Some fund-raising methods are financially costly (e.g., mailing), but require few person hours, while other methods are just the opposite (e.g., individual solicitations or fund-raising events). Therefore, we combined these measures into one ratio as follows:

$$\text{Cost-effectiveness} = \frac{(\text{Total Funds Raised} - \text{Dollar Costs})}{\text{Number of Personhours}}$$

This cost-effectiveness ratio provides a rough index of the "net dollars raised per personhour expended." Thus, it provides a standard measure for comparing all fund-raising techniques.

A total of 93 board chairpersons across the United States and Canada took the time to record their fund-raising history and to retrieve figures about costs and outcomes. They listed a total of 262 fund-raising efforts over several years of Crime Stoppers history. As Table 23 suggests, a variety of fund-raising techniques have been employed with varying degrees of success.

Mode of communication. First, board chairpersons reported sizeable differences in the relative use and cost-effectiveness of the two major modes of communication -- mail vs. personal contact. Our sample of programs used mailing (e.g., individual letters, mass mailings) more frequently than personal contacts (e.g., in-person meetings, telephone conversations), and apparently did so for good reason. Our analysis indicates that mail communication was more than twice as cost-effective as personal contacts, netting \$557.79 for every personhour invested.

Solicitation target. Who have Crime Stoppers programs approached for funds and which of these target groups yielded the best payoff? As Table 24 shows, businesses were the most frequent target of fund raising efforts, but civic organizations were likely to be the most cost-effective targets, producing \$503.23 per personhour committed.

Types of Fund-raising events. Crime Stoppers programs have experimented with nearly every fund-raising event imaginable. Many of these events were sponsored by the local police departments. Although booths and sales may provide good exposure for the program, these events have very poor cost-effectiveness scores. However, raffles, bingo, and telethons are good fund raisers in light of the cost invested.

One of the most promising fund raising techniques is court restitution. Although only a few programs were involved, this strategy yielded the highest cost-effectiveness score of any technique mentioned. Essentially, this approach involves encouraging judges to require offenders to contribute to Crime Stoppers as a condition of probation. Once this agreement has been established, the cost of enforcing it is very minimal (e.g., follow-up letters). Houston Crime Stoppers is one example of how this restitution program can be successfully implemented.

By examining the separate components of the cost-effectiveness formula, we see the relative costs and funds generated for the different fund raising strategies. As shown in Table 23, personal contacts were much less expensive than mail communication in terms of dollar costs, but required substantially more personhours. Thus, even

Table 24

Frequency and Cost-Effectiveness of Fund Raising Techniques^a

A. Mode of Communication	Reported Frequency ^b	Percent	Cost-Effectiveness Score
Mail	39(34)	63.00	557.79
Personal contacts ^c	23(21)	37.00	190.96
<u>B. Solicitation Target</u>			
Businesses	46(32)	43.39	274.36
Individuals	18(12)	16.98	96.91
Civic Organizations	26(74)	24.53	503.23
Other	16(7)	15.09	481.66
<u>C. Police-Sponsored Events</u>			
Booths and sales	5(4)	13.89	65.7
Dances, dinners, banquets	12(11)	33.33	354.97
Raffles, bingo	9(8)	25.00	762.96
Sporting events	10(11)	3.60	242.15
<u>D. Other Techniques</u>			
Presentations/Speaking Engagements	20(12)	38.46	188.92
Media	12(11)	23.08	299.32
Court restitution	4(4)	7.69	718.05
Collection box	5(3)	9.62	52.49
Civic organization events	2(1)	3.85	650.00
Other	9(7)	17.31	390.32

^aAs presented here, the categories are not independent. For example, "letter/mail" strategies could be the same as "solicitations from business." Also, categories will have different sample sizes because of missing data from respondents in particular categories.

^bNumber of times this technique was mentioned. Number in parentheses indicates number of valid cases used in calculations.

^cThis includes both in-person contact and telephone contact.

though the average gross income for personal contacts was slightly higher than mail communication, its cost-effectiveness was much less.

Similarly, many personhours were spent contacting businesses, thus reducing the cost-effectiveness of this approach. However, if board members and other fund raisers do not mind the extra investment of personal time, the payoff is substantial. By far, the most funds were raised through business contacts.

Some fund raising techniques cannot be characterized as high in person costs and low in dollar costs, or vice versa, but rather are expensive on both measures. For example, while booths and sales generated funds, they were costly in terms of both dollars expended and personhours. However, the sponsors may have agendas other than (or in addition to) fundraising that would be well served by these less cost-effective techniques. Generating more publicity for Crime Stoppers could be one such objective. Moreover, sponsors and planners of the events may feel that the public relations benefits outweigh any poor performance in terms cost-effectiveness.

Finally, we offer a word of caution about making generalizations from the categories of fund raising listed here. There is enough variation within these categories that we encourage a closer look at individual techniques by persons interested in planning a fund raiser for Crime Stoppers. For example, in the case of sporting events, a number of programs have sponsored distance runs, but the amount of money raised varied from 200 dollars to 5,000 dollars (and cost-effectiveness ratio were equally divergent). Yet, perhaps the local publicity was comparable in each of these events. Fishing contests (\$2,200) and golf tournaments (\$5,000) are good money raisers, but in

our sample, fishing was not as cost-effective. Thus, sponsors should decide what other benefits, if any, they expect from these activities and weigh a number of issues before making a decision to pursue a particular fund raising strategy.

V. EVALUATIVE RESULTS: ASSESSING THE EFFECTS OF CRIME STOPPERS

What are the advantages and disadvantages of Crime Stoppers to the community? We have heard some rather extreme claims about the program from both advocates and critics. Some argue that Crime Stoppers is "the most effective crime control program ever conceived," while others complain that the perceived disadvantages (e.g. possible invasion of privacy) outweigh any advantages that might accrue with regard to crime control. This section takes us beyond descriptive results to an evaluative look at the effects of Crime Stoppers. Three questions will be addressed: (a) Does Crime Stoppers benefit the community in terms of effective crime control and citizen participation? (b) How is Crime Stoppers viewed by participants and non-participants? and (c) What are the effects of introducing a new Crime Stoppers program on law enforcement personnel, local residents, and the business community?

A. CRIME STOPPERS AS A CRIME CONTROL PROGRAM

Does Crime Stoppers really help law enforcement and the community in their fight against serious crime? Police coordinators have expressed a great deal of confidence in their programs. Our national survey revealed that nearly half of the coordinators felt that Crime Stoppers had reduced the overall crime rate in their community. Furthermore, the statistics kept at the international level seem rather impressive. As shown in Table 25, 380 Crime Stoppers programs reporting to Crime Stoppers International have solved a total of 92,339 felony crimes and have recovered more than 562 million dollars in stolen property and narcotics. Furthermore, these programs claim that Crime Stoppers information has resulted in the prosecution of more than 20,000 defendants, and boast an average conviction rate of 95.5 percent. While some of these statistics are more reliable than others (as discussed in detail later), there should be little doubt that Crime Stoppers programs are showing results. Furthermore, with a property recovery rate of over 6,000 dollars per case and funding of the rewards provided largely by private contributions, Crime Stoppers can be viewed (in a monetary sense) as a cost-effective program.

Although we do not have the hard evidence to reject the claim that Crime Stoppers reduces the overall crime rate in the community, several facts run counter to this assertion. First, the history of crime control programs suggests that crime is a complex and deeply rooted problem that is very difficult to impact. Evaluators in 1985 no longer expect community-wide crime rates to decline as a result of crime control programs -- an expectation which nearly everyone held in the early 1970s.

Table 25

International Crime Stoppers Statistics

Felony Crimes Solved	92,339
Stolen Property and Narcotics Recovered	\$562,219,371
Average Amount Recovered per Case	\$6,089
Defendants Tried	21,959
Defendants Convicted	20,992
Conviction Rate	95.5%
Rewards Paid	\$6,728,392

Source: The Caller, January 1986. (Published by Crime Stoppers International). Based on statistics reported by 380 programs through the end of 1985.

Second, Crime Stoppers activity must be placed in the context of the total volume of serious criminal activity that occurs in a given community. While numerous crimes have been solved through Crime Stoppers programs (as the statistics above indicate) these successes amount to only a small percentage of the total volume of felony crimes committed each year. For example, an analysis of data submitted by programs seeking a productivity award at the 1985 CSI conference revealed that these programs (which are probably more productive than programs not seeking an award), on the average, were responsible for clearing (solving) only 6.5 percent of the crimes cleared by their police departments. Furthermore, keep in mind that only about 1 in 5 crimes reported to the police are cleared, and only one-third of all felony crimes are reported to the police. Thus, we should not expect the overall crime rate to be immediately or substantially affected by the introduction of a Crime Stoppers program because the criminal activity coming through the program is only a small piece of the total crime picture.

In light of these considerations, it seems to us more appropriate to ask a narrower set of questions about the effects of Crime Stoppers. In particular, is this program an effective tool for enhancing criminal investigations, and does it have other benefits, such as increasing citizen participation in the criminal justice system?

Criminal Investigations. In terms of the criminal investigation process, there is no doubt that Crime Stoppers callers, in hundreds of cases, have supplied information that directly or indirectly resulted in the arrest of felony suspects. However, the critical questions are

these: (a) Would these cases have been solved without a Crime Stoppers program by means of the traditional investigative process? (b) Even if these cases could have been solved without the program, would the resources required (time, money, manpower) be too great to justify the investigation?

These are difficult questions to answer, but our field work and archival searches have led us to a tentative conclusion. The available data seem to indicate that Crime Stoppers programs have solved a number of felony cases that were unlikely to be solved through regular criminal investigations or were unlikely to be solved by devoting a "reasonable" amount of law enforcement resources.

Several observations have led to this conclusion. Crime Stoppers is generally used as a supplement to the investigative process. The program was explicitly designed to handle "dead-end" cases, i.e., cases in which investigators have exhausted their leads and are essentially discouraged from continuing the investigation with the same level of intensity. In practice, we find that Crime Stoppers programs do, in fact, handle mostly "dead-end" cases, not only because the program sells itself as the "solver of unsolved crimes," but to do otherwise would be to preempt the investigator's role and risk creating internal tensions in the department. Hence, these circumstances, by definition, suggest that Crime Stoppers tips are "cracking" previously unsolvable cases that have already received a substantial amount of investigative time.

Perhaps the best support for the hypothesis that Crime Stoppers facilitates the criminal investigations process comes from actual cases that have been solved through the program. The following cases

are provided to illustrate the facilitative effects of Crime Stoppers on the law enforcement function:

- o In Albuquerque, New Mexico, the so-called "Winrock Rapist" had kidnapped and sexually assaulted more than thirteen women over a four-month period by abducting them from their vehicles in the Winrock Shopping Center. The police had tried a variety of methods to apprehend the offender, including the use of a police airplane to cover the area, patrols of both uniformed and plainclothes officers, rooftop surveillances, and undercover/decoy police-women. Within days of showing a composite of the suspect in the media, a call came into Crime Stoppers which lead to the immediate arrest of the offender. The "Winrock Rapist" was sentenced to more than 300 years in the New Mexico State Penitentiary.
- o In Orlando, Florida a woman was brutally murdered (stabbed more than 30 times) in her home during a robbery attempt. There were no known witnesses or suspects to the crime. A caller, who stated that she would not have reported what she knew about the crime to the police because she didn't trust them, provided information to Crime Stoppers about the perpetrator. Program personnel then persuaded the caller to speak with an investigator, and later to testify in court. The murderer is now on Florida's death row awaiting execution.
- o A convenience store manager was shot and killed in a robbery attempt in Fairfax County, Virginia. Police assigned to the case were hampered by a lack of productive leads and witnesses. After several months of futile investigative efforts, a Crime Stoppers caller volunteered specific details which lead to the identification, location, and arrest of the offender. The detective working the case reported being convinced that without the vital facts received through Crime Stoppers, it never would have been solved.
- o In Missoula, Montana a Crime Stoppers caller reported that a ring of criminals were stealing semi-trucks and their loads. At the time, the theft ring was completely unknown to law enforcement agents. This tip produced an extensive investigation involving the FBI, and state and local agencies in Montana, Washington, Oregon, California, Texas, and Florida. Through their efforts, numerous arrests were made, and hundreds of thousands of dollars of stolen property were recovered. The police

coordinator of the Missoula program stated that the informant decided to call after seeing a Crime Stoppers advertisement promising confidentiality, and that he would not otherwise have provided the information to the police through regular channels.

- o In Cincinnati, Ohio a 46-year-old male was found strangled to death in his burglarized apartment. After several months of being unable to uncover any clues relating to the offense, homicide investigators suggested featuring the case as a "Crime of the Week." Within seven days of the broadcast, a suspect was arrested and charged with murder.
- o In South Bend, Indiana two college students were critically injured by a hit-and-run driver. Police appealed to the public for information, and the victims' families offered a \$1,000 reward. Apparently there were no eyewitnesses, and the few calls that were made provided no new clues to the case. All investigative leads were exhausted. Ten months following the accident, as a last ditch effort, the case was featured as a "Crime of the Week." Shortly thereafter, an anonymous call pointed to a possible suspect. Following this lead, investigators were able to amass enough evidence to effect an arrest. The offender was eventually found guilty as charged. The detectives working the case asserted that the case was "dead end" before involving Crime Stoppers, and that without the program's assistance, they "would not have been able to focus on one person as a suspect."

These case studies illustrate how Crime Stoppers can solve cases without any remaining leads, cases where citizens are reluctant to call the police desk, and cases that were totally unknown to law enforcement. These examples also demonstrate the unique and critical role of the media in bringing these crimes to the public's attention, informing citizens of the incentives to participate (i.e. anonymity and rewards), and informing them of an easy mechanism to participate (i.e., making a simple anonymous phone call).

Although the "success stories" behind Crime Stoppers are numerous, it would be misleading to suggest that the program is

equally effective in solving all types of felony crimes. Interviews and observations at different sites indicate that Crime Stoppers is, for example, especially useful for solving cases involving fugitives, bank robberies, and narcotics. In the case of fugitives or bank robberies, the widespread dissemination of a suspect's photograph through the mass media appears to be the key ingredient to success (a technological update on the old "wanted" posters). Similarly, other types of felony cases have a better-than-average chance of success through Crime Stoppers when a witness is available who can identify a suspect from police mug-shots or help to produce a composite drawing.

In the case of narcotics, the apparent success of Crime Stoppers may be attributed to the anonymity provided to the caller and the caller's motivation. Oftentimes, the caller is either a good citizen acting out of moral opposition to drugs or a criminal seeking revenge or elimination of competition in the drug market. In either case, the anonymity provided by Crime Stoppers, along with the implicit promise of a law enforcement investigation, make the program very attractive to these groups of callers.

Citizen participation. There are three primary ways that citizens can become involved in Crime Stoppers -- as callers, as financial contributors, and as board members. In each of these areas, Crime Stoppers programs can document their successes. Programs generally have plenty of community residents willing to serve as board members, plenty of callers, and plenty of contributors. The number of calls received by some programs and the amount of funds raised are very impressive and can be interpreted as strong community support (e.g. Houston Crime Stoppers raises \$18,000 per month on the average).

However, the base of community support for Crime Stoppers is not as wide as one might guess without having studied the program. For example, because of the fund-raising function required of the Board of Directors, this body is often comprised of "heavy hitters" in the community who contribute substantially to the program themselves and have the clout to persuade other financially-able persons and institutions to support Crime Stoppers. Because most programs do not rely on small contributions from the general public, as a general rule they have not sought community-wide participation in the fundraising process.

In contrast, Crime Stoppers programs have encouraged the general public to use the anonymous phone line and participate as callers or tipsters. However, because of the nature of crime (i.e.. most "good citizens" never have the opportunity to witness felony crimes with any regularity), the population of callers is skewed toward the criminal element. Crime Stoppers practitioners often talk about three types of callers -- "criminals", "fringe players" (i.e., those who associate with the criminal element) and "good citizens" (see MacAleese & Tily, 1983). We asked coordinators to tell us what percentage of their callers fall into each of these three categories. The results are shown in Table 26, broken down by size of the population served. The most frequent callers, according to police coordinators, are the fringe players (41%), followed by good citizens (35%) and criminals (25%). As expected, criminals constitute a sizeable portion of the callers. Even this figure is probably an underestimate given that some communities want to downplay the role that criminals play in solving crime and emphasize the "good citizen" role. Nevertheless,

Table 26

Type of Caller
by Size of Population Served

Size of Population Served	Type of Caller (Percent)				
	Good Citizen	Fringe Player	Criminal	Female	Male
Less than 50,000	36.0	40.4	25.3	34.1	65.9
50,000 to 99,000	31.5	41.1	27.7	43.2	56.8
100,000 to 249,000	33.9	42.9	23.8	41.3	58.7
250,000 to 7,000,000	40.5	38.4	21.7	46.9	53.1
AVERAGE	35.5	40.6	24.6	40.9	59.1

coordinators believe that 2 out of 3 calls they receive are made by someone who either associates with criminals or is a criminal himself.

Recently, some programs have planted the seeds for an expanded pool of participants by directing attention at youth in school. In addition to encouraging high school students to report drug deals to Crime Stoppers, a few programs are seeking to change social norms about "snitching". Dressed in a superman-type costume, "Captain Crime Stopper" (e.g. Tuscon, Arizona and Nashville, Tennessee) not only provides young children with the usual "officer friendly" tips about public safety, but is also trying hard to change society's norm that "it's wrong to snitch". If this new influence strategy develops into a larger Crime Stoppers movement to break the "code of silence" about criminal conduct, then the pool of Crime Stoppers callers might be greatly expanded.

B. PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES ABOUT CRIME STOPPERS

How is Crime Stoppers viewed by participants and nonparticipants? Is the program considered an asset to the community or a liability? Anecdotal evidence from Crime Stoppers conferences, site visits, and many in-person interviews indicates that Crime Stoppers is an extremely popular program among those who are involved. Law enforcement, the Board of Directors, and the media all tend to view Crime Stoppers as a significant asset to their community. Consistent with these impressions, data from our national surveys show that the majority of police coordinators, board chairpersons, and media executives view their program as "very" or "quite" successful. The perceptions and attitudes of nonparticipants are harder to estimate, but several sources of information suggest a more mixed set of attitudes about the program. These data are summarized below.

The Participants' View of Crime Stoppers

Coordinators were very positive about their Crime Stoppers program. As Table 27 shows, two-thirds of the Coordinators rated their program as either "very" or "quite" successful, and nearly two-thirds felt that Crime Stoppers had either reduced the overall crime rate or the rate for specific crimes.

The board of directors, as represented by the chairperson, was also very enthusiastic about the program. As Table 28 indicates, 79% of the Chairpersons rated their Crime Stoppers programs as "very" or "quite" successful.

Finally, media executives representing participating agencies were also quite positive about the program. Again, almost two-thirds rated their program as "very" or "quite" successful. Furthermore,

Table 27

Coordinators' Perceptions of Program Success

A. "In your opinion, has your program had any effect on the overall crime rate or on the crime rate for specific crimes?"

<u>Response</u>	<u>Percent</u> ^a
Reduced Overall Crime Rate	45.9
Reduced Rate for Specific Crimes	18.0
No Effect On Any Crime Rate (s)	36.1

B. "In your view, how successful has your program been?"

<u>Response</u>	<u>Percent</u> ^b
Very Successful	35.4
Quite Successful	32.8
Somewhat Successful	25.5
Not Very Successful	5.7
Not At All Successful	.5

^a n = 183

^b n = 192

Table 28

Ratings of Program Success by Board of Directors Chairperson

"In your view, how successful has your program been?"

<u>Response</u>	<u>Percent</u> ^a
Very successful	35.8
Quite successful	43.2
Somewhat successful	17.9
Not very successful	3.1
Not at all successful	0.0

^a N=162

three-fourths described local public opinion toward Crime Stoppers as "very positive" or "positive." Newspaper executives, however, rated the success of their local program as significantly lower than did radio or television station.

The Nonparticipants' View of Crime Stoppers

We would expect participants to express confidence in Crime Stoppers and report positive attitudes, but what about nonparticipants? Although parallel data are not available for most groups, we have collected information from at least three sources that provide a flavor for the nonparticipants' views.

Attitudes toward Crime Stoppers from nonparticipants have been somewhat mixed. For those who are familiar with the operations of the program (and we would argue that most people are not), the following observations are possible. First, we have seen newspaper editorials and television appearances by critics of Crime Stoppers. Comprising this group of critics are journalists, defense attorneys, legal scholars, and social scientists who feel that Crime Stoppers is a threat to our privacy and civil rights. The criticisms are quite diverse, ranging from concerns about undermining our civic responsibility to report crime without compensation to concerns about the rights of the accused. (For a review of the main issues, see Rosenbaum & Lurigio, 1985.)

Second, we have collected data from our Indianapolis Impact Study on the general public's perceptions and attitudes about Crime Stoppers. Feelings about Crime Stoppers in this Midwestern city (in 1984 when Indianapolis did not have a Crime Stoppers program) were mixed. A majority (58%) of our random sample felt that programs

similar to Crime Stoppers are likely to encourage undesirable informing on neighbors. However, one-fourth of the sample felt that it would be a "very" effective program for arresting criminals. Another 54 percent felt that it would be "somewhat" effective.

Finally, our national survey of media executives in 1985 gives the viewpoints of two nonparticipating media groups -- those located in cities with or without a Crime Stoppers program. First, media executives in cities without a Crime Stoppers program were generally quite positive about the concept of Crime Stoppers. As noted earlier, almost two-thirds (64%) reported that their organization would be "very likely" to participate if a local program were to start.

As one might expect, the attitudes expressed by nonparticipating media in communities with a Crime Stoppers program were less positive. Compared to the media that participated (and rated their local program as "quite successful") the non-participating media generally rated their local program as "somewhat successful". In addition, the non-participants rated public opinion about the program as only "somewhat positive".

Non-participating media were also asked their reasons for not getting involved. While there were no clear patterns in the reasons given across the three media types, each of the following was mentioned by two or more of the non-participants:

- o another media has an exclusive arrangement with the program that preempts our participation;
- o our organization has never been asked to participate;
- o participation on our part might interfere with our efforts to provide objective coverage of police and crime news;

- o Crime Stoppers is beyond the scope of what a news organization should be doing;
- o we have a basic disagreement with the philosophy which underlies Crime Stoppers;
- o there are administrative problems in coordinating our participation; and
- o we don't believe it would be an effective anti-crime program in our community.

A final issue regarding the media's overall assessment of the Crime Stoppers concept concerns the question of whether, in the long run, anti-crime programs such as Crime Stoppers may cause an erosion of citizen initiative to participate in the criminal justice process without special inducements. As shown in Table 29, a majority of executives from both the Crime Stoppers sample and the random sample saw no undermining effect to citizens' intrinsic motivation; yet those from the Crime Stoppers sample were significantly more likely to feel this way. Table 30 shows that regardless of how they were sampled, three-fourths of the executives from media organizations that currently participate with Crime Stoppers saw no potential for undermining citizen initiative. On the other hand, a noticeable minority of executives at non-participating organizations (1 in 5) thought that such anti-crime programs could undermine citizens' intrinsic motivation.

A Comparative Assessment of Crime Stoppers. In several of the cities surveyed, independent data about specific Crime Stoppers programs were gathered from the national surveys of Crime Stoppers coordinators and board of directors chairpersons, as well as from archival sources. In all, 57 of the executives responding in the media survey were located in cities for which these other data were

Table 29
Effect of Crime Stoppers
on Citizen Initiative by Sample Type

Perceived Effect	Sample	
	Crime Stoppers	Random
	(percent)	
Think it will undermine	6	8
Don't think it will undermine	77	62
Uncertain	17	30

Table 30

Effect of Crime Stoppers
on Citizen Initiative by Type of Relationship to Crime Stoppers

Perceived Effect	Type of Relationship		
	No local Crime Stoppers Program	Local Crime Stoppers, but don't participate	Participate in local Crime Stoppers
	(percent)		
Think it will undermine	9	21	5
Don't think it will undermine	60	58	77
Uncertain	31	21	19

also available, thereby providing a validity check on each group's perceptions about the success of these Crime Stoppers projects.

As reported above, media executives located in communities with Crime Stoppers programs were asked two questions about the productivity of their local program: (a) their organization's perception of the program's success, and (b) their perception of local public opinion towards the program. As shown in Table 31 both ratings of program productivity by media executives correlated significantly with the program Coordinator's ratings of the program. Furthermore, the executives' ratings of public opinion towards the local Crime Stoppers program was related to four of the five statistical measures of program productivity. The overall relationships between success ratings and actual productivity scores are examined later in this report.

In sum, this opportunity to compare independent ratings of program success indicated a fair degree of validation of the various measures. This, of course, does not demonstrate that these independent measures are accurate, but it does strengthen the confidence one places in them.

Table 31

Correlation of Executives' Ratings
of Crime Stopper Success and Independent Measure of Success

Independent Measures	Media Rating of Program Success	Media Rating of Public Opinion Toward Crime Stoppers
Coordinator's ratings of program success	.243 ^{***}	.196 [*]
Calls received per 1,000 crimes reported	.149	.202 [*]
Crimes cleared per 1,000 crimes reported	.158	.251 ^{**}
Suspects arrested per 1,000 crimes reported	.118	.255 ^{**}
Funds Raised per 100,000 population	-.108	-.044

* $p < .10$

** $p < .05$

C. A TEST OF CRIME STOPPERS' EFFECTS: THE INDIANAPOLIS IMPACT STUDY

As suggested in the Methods section of this report, the Impact Study in Indianapolis, Indiana was the first and only empirical test of the effects of Crime Stoppers on various segments of the community (law enforcement, businesses, and the citizenry). To be comprehensive, such an investigation must also include an exploration of the efforts required to effectively establish the program. Hence, we viewed the Impact Study as an opportunity to gain insight into the critical preoperational stage of a program's development. Also, investigating the groundwork of Indianapolis Crime Stoppers allowed us to make more meaningful interpretations of our quantitative findings.

Monitoring Program Implementation. The entire implementation process was closely monitored by charting the progress of the program from its latter stages of conceptualization and evolution through its first year of full-fledged operations. Monitoring the implementation of Indianapolis Crime Stoppers occurred at a number of fronts with the helpful assistance of program staff. First, we kept abreast of the entire range of media coverage afforded to the program. This included a detailing of the publicity it received prior to accepting calls, and a description of the telephone, radio, and newspaper coverage that appeared each month during the course of the Impact Study. We were also privy to copies of publicity and news releases which showcased the program's early "success stories". Second, we traced the growth of the program by perusing monthly reports that provided information relating to performance and operations (See Table 32 for a cumulative summary of these statistics as reported by the Program Coordinator.) Third, we were apprised of the Police Coordinator's personal efforts

Table 32

Greater Indianapolis Metropolitan Crime Stoppers
1985Statistical Report Overview
(Period covered: January 14 - July 3)

Productivity Information

Total Calls Received	1474
Tip Numbers Assigned	487
Total Number of Arrests	127
Amount of Property and Contraband "Recovered"	\$140,971.00

Reward Information

Number of actions eligible for rewards	75
Number of rewards paid	36
Amount of reward funds issued	\$7,535.00
Average amount of reward	\$209.00
Reward dollar ratio to recovery amount	19:1
Reward dollar ratio per arrest	\$59.00 per arrest

to bring greater attention to the program - both within the Department and in the community-at-large. Finally, we learned about the wide range of advertising strategies and fund-raising campaigns that were launched in the many months preceding and following implementation. All of the above materials were complemented by the Police Coordinator's "program log notes", which elaborated on each of the basic components of program implementation -- with particular emphasis given to a specification of start-up problems and obstacles.

The experience of overseeing the implementation of Crime Stoppers in Indianapolis made us keenly aware of the concerted efforts that must be made to bring a program to fruition. The Coordinator's program log documented the arduous and time-consuming tasks involved in garnering the cooperation of the various groups (media, police, financial contributors) that provide the initial support structure for the program. Moreover, our observations convinced us that the implementation of Crime Stoppers in Indianapolis was well-planned and successfully executed. The program received the enthusiastic endorsement of the Police Department, its early media coverage was extensive and professional, and it galvanized enough important members of the community to insure that it would enjoy the financial security necessary for an effective beginning.

The Effects of Crime Stoppers on Indianapolis Businesses

The Sample. Our random sample of Indianapolis businesses was stratified according to "type of business" to insure that the relative percentage of cases in each business category was representative of the distribution of those businesses within the population of Chamber of Commerce Businesses operating in Indianapolis during 1984-1985. More than half (53%) of the businesses participating in the panel survey (i.e., those interviewed at both the pretest and the posttest) were service-oriented, 15 percent were retail outlets, 11 percent were wholesale businesses, and 11 percent were professionals (e.g. doctors, lawyers, accountants). The remainder of the sample (10%), which could not be neatly captured by the above groupings, were classified into a "miscellaneous" business category. The vast majority of businesses (70%) were owner-operated/independent firms, and more than half (51%) had been at their present location for 10 years or more. On the average, the sample of businesses we surveyed had been operating in Indianapolis for 16 years. Eighty-nine percent indicated being "very satisfied" with Indianapolis as a place to do business, and only 2% reported any definite plans for relocating during the coming year.

Fifty-seven percent of the panel survey respondents owned the business, while 34 percent of the participants were managers. Hence, it would be expected that those cooperating in the study had spent a number of years employed with the business or had gained considerable experience in their respective fields. The data confirmed these expectations by revealing that the average length of time respondents had spent with their businesses was 18 years, and that, on the average, they had invested more than 27 years pursuing their

particular business ventures. The average age of the sample was 51, 96 percent were White, 98 percent male, and 68 percent reported earning a Bachelor's degree or above.

Sixty-eight percent of the businesses indicated that they had not been victimized by crime during the preceding year. Of those businesses that had been victimized, the most prevalent crime was employee theft, whereas the least common offense perpetrated against the sample was robbery. A number of chi-square tests demonstrated that the incidence of certain types of crimes against a business (burglary, robbery, employee theft) appear to be related to the business' perceived safety from the offense (i.e., respondents indicated feeling less safe from offenses that have occurred with greater frequency). To protect against the threat of crime, 47 percent of the participants instituted security measures in the past year, at an average cost of \$1150 (excluding outlying cases reporting a total cost of \$10,000 and above). However, according to Indianapolis businessmen, the cost of crime extends beyond the price of adopting specific security measures. More specifically, 28 percent of the participants indicated that crime-related problems forced them to restrict their evening hours, and 25 percent reported an appreciable loss of profit stemming from crime.

Pretest-Posttest Changes. A series of correlated-groups t-tests were performed to examine whether the presence of Crime Stoppers was associated with any significant changes on a number of critical variables. As illustrated in Table 33, we explored a wide range of factors, including businesspersons' perceptions about crime, Crime Stoppers, the police, and the community. In addition, we asked the

Table 33

Pretest-Posttest Changes: Business respondents

Dependent Variables	Difference Between Pretest-Posttest Means	t-value ^a
Awareness of Crime Stoppers	.528 (-)	-7.11 ***
Perceptions of Safety from Crime	.117 (-)	-.71
Effects of Crime on Business	.078 (-)	-3.08 **
Satisfaction with Police	.088 (+)	1.38
Ratings of Police Effectiveness	.003 (+)	.04
Ratings of Crime Stoppers Effectiveness	.1887 (-)	-2.45 **
Likely to call Crime Stoppers	.03 (-)	-.78
Willingness to Contribute to Crime Stoppers	.20 (-)	-.93
Willingness to Participate on Crime Stoppers Board	.33 (-)	-1.25

^a Correlated groups t-test.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

sample about their behaviors and behavioral intentions pertaining to program awareness, utilization, and participation. (All t-values and their corresponding significance levels are also shown in Table 33.)

The data revealed that the Business Community's awareness of Crime Stoppers rose dramatically at the posttest to 96 percent -- a highly significant increase of 53 percentage points compared to the results of the pretest. Businesspersons' reports of satisfaction with the quality of police services showed no change during the course of the study, but respondents indicated being quite satisfied on both the pretest and posttest surveys. Similarly, businesspersons' ratings of the police on a number of basic performance dimensions also showed no pretest-posttest changes (ratings on both occasions were generally positive. However, the results did reveal a significant change in respondents' ratings of Crime Stoppers on a multi-item scale measuring their perceptions of the ability of the program to lead to the arrests of criminals, to prevent crime, and to diminish the likelihood that the businesses would be victimized by crime. Also, respondents reported a significant pretest-posttest reduction in the number of deleterious effects that crime has on their businesses.

Regression Analyses. There are many threats to the validity of a "pretest-posttest only" design that contains no control group. To explore the impact of Crime Stoppers in a multi-variate context, we conducted a set of multiple regression analyses that controlled for the possible confounding influences of extraneous variables which may have accounted for or suppressed any of the hypothesized pretest-posttest differences. Essentially, multiple regression allowed us to determine whether the program or intervention (as

defined by a change in respondents' awareness of Crime Stoppers from the pretest to the posttest) was a significant predictor of any of the posttest criterion variables while holding constant other possible mediating factors (including pretest responses). As shown in Table 34, the analyses failed to yield any significant program effects. In other words, the presence of Crime Stoppers, as measured by respondents' differential awareness of the program at the posttest when compared to the pretest, did not explain a significant portion of the variance in the study's dependent measures.

The Effects of Crime Stoppers on Police Officers and Investigators

The Sample. Fifty-seven percent of the panel respondents from the Indianapolis Police Department sample were investigators, whereas 43% consisted of patrol officers. As noted in the methodology section of this report, a greater proportion of the Wave 1 investigators involved in the pretest participated in the posttest survey when compared to patrol officers. This differential completion rate may be partially explained by the relative ease with which the former could be recontacted (i.e., investigator shifts in Indianapolis are less variable than those of patrol officers, and most investigators are assigned to central locations in the Department's headquarters). The vast majority of police respondents (81%) were male, 88 percent were White, and 63 percent reported completing at least 2 years of college.

More than two-thirds (69%) of the sample indicated that they were "very satisfied" with their current assignment, 38% reported that they were "very satisfied" with police work in general, and 32% revealed that they would "definitely re-enter police work if they could start all over." Chi-square analyses showed no differences between

Table 34

The Effects of Exposure to Crime Stoppers on the Business Community
(Multiples regression analyses)

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables							
	Likely to Call CS ^a	Contribute to CS ^b	Participate on Board ^c	Satisfaction with Police ^d	Ratings of Performance ^e	Ratings of Effectiveness ^f	Perceptions of Safety from Crime	Effects of Crime on Business
(standardized regression coefficients)								
<u>Covariates</u>								
Age	.08	.03	.08	-.14	.16	-.21	.03	.01
Education	.14	.02	-.10	.12	-.26	-.05	.17	.03
Prior Victimization	.04	-.01	-.01	.13	-.28	-.14	-.37*	.28*
Size of Business	-.09	.16	-.04	-.19	.33	.26	-.24	.15
Satisfaction with Indianapolis as a place to do business	.07	-.24	.05	-.03	-.33*	-.28	.16	.20
Pretest	.52**	.59***	.53**	.54**	.44**	.48**	.49**	.57**
<u>Treatment</u>								
Awareness of Crime Stoppers ^g	-.19	-.04	.07	.07	-.08	-.05	-.08	-.11
Proportion of Variance Explained (R ²)	.33	.59	.37	.32	.54	.35	.39	.48

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

^a 4-point scale (4=definitely call, 1=definitely not call)
^b 4-point scale (4=very willing, 1=very unwilling)
^c 4-point scale (4=very willing, 1=very unwilling)
^d 4-point scale (4=very satisfied, 1=very dissatisfied)

^e 5-point scale (1=excellent, 5=poor)
^f 4-point scale (4=very effective, 1=not at all effective)
^g Heard about Crime Stoppers in Indianapolis (1=yes, 0=no)

investigators and patrol officers on any of these measures of satisfaction.

When questioned about police informants, 77 percent of the respondents indicated that they perceived paying people to report information as a "good practice". Of the 69 percent of the police sample (overwhelmingly investigators) who reported using informants on a regular basis, 38% revealed that their informants "quite often" or "very often" demand financial recompense before passing on information. One-third of this subset of the police sample believed that the utilization of informants was "very useful" in solving crimes, and 58% deemed that the details provided by informants "quite often" lead to arrests (See Table 35.) Table 35 also displays officers' categorization of informants into the common typology of good citizens, fringe players, and criminals. Chi-square tests yielded no difference between patrol officers and investigators on any of the above judgments about informants.

Pre-test-Posttest changes. Comparable to our analyses of the business sample data, we performed correlated-groups t-tests to examine whether Officers' perceptions of their jobs, their ratings of Indianapolis residents, and their judgments about Crime Stoppers changed after being exposed to the program for approximately 6 months. Findings showed that the Police Department's efforts to increase intra-agency awareness of Crime Stoppers were highly successful. Virtually, all of the law enforcement respondents (100%) contacted at the posttest reported awareness of the program -- a highly significant increase of 55 percentage points when compared to the number of respondents who reported awareness of Crime Stoppers during the first

Table 35

Police Officers' Judgments About Informants

A. Usefulness of Informants in Solving Crime

<u>Response</u>	<u>Percent of Respondents</u>
Very useful	33
Somewhat useful	62
Not very useful	5
Not at all useful	0

B. Frequency With Which Informant Information Leads to Arrest

<u>Response</u>	<u>Percent of Respondents</u>
Very often	13
Quite often	58
Not very often	29
Almost never	0

C. How to Best Categorize Informants

<u>Response</u>	<u>Percent of Respondents</u>
Criminals	36
Former Criminals	24
Fringe Players	38
Good Citizens	2

wave of measurement. Pretest-posttest comparisons also demonstrated that officers rated Crime Stoppers as being significantly more effective on a multi-item scale which included their judgments about the program's efficaciousness in leading to the arrest of criminals, and in preventing and solving crimes. Although there was no pre-post change in officers' expressed willingness to accept an assignment in Crime Stoppers, they did report being significantly more inclined toward volunteering their time beyond regular police duties to work with the program. (T-values and their corresponding probability levels are displayed in Table 36.)

Regression analysis. Our strategy for analyzing the police data also included conducting multiple regression analyses to test whether higher levels of reported exposure to the program (through television, radio, and newspapers) was a significant predictor of any of the study's dependent variables, while holding constant the effects of several covariates. As shown in Table 37, greater exposure has a significant impact on officers' willingness to volunteer time to Crime Stoppers. Further, it can be seen that married officers, white officers, and those who indicate being satisfied with police work are more willing to accept an assignment in the program. Race also explains a significant portion of the variance in officers' ratings of Crime Stoppers' effectiveness. Finally, it should be noted that assignment (whether an officer was assigned to patrol or investigations) and length of time with the Department failed to account for a significant portion of the variance in any of the dependent measures.

Table 36

Pretest-Posttest Changes: Police Officers

Dependent Variables	Difference Between Pretest-Posttest Means	t-value ^a
Awareness of Crime Stoppers	-.5538	-8.91***
Ratings of Crime Stoppers Effectiveness	-.2359	-3.64***
Ratings of Indianapolis Residents on Crime Prevention	.0557	.61
Ratings of Investigator Performance	.0462	.80
Ratings of Residents' Perceptions of Safety from Crime	-.0175	-.22
Willingness to accept an assignment in Crime Stoppers	.1538	1.34
Willing to volunteer time to work on Crime Stoppers	-.2154	2.07*

^a Correlated groups t-test.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

Table 37
Multiple Regression Analyses of Police Survey Data

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables					
	Ratings of CS Effectiveness	Ratings of Residents on Crime Prevention	Ratings of Investigators	Ratings of Residents' Perceptions of Safety	Willingness to Accept CS Assignment	Willingness to volunteer time to CS
<u>Covariates</u>						
Length of time with Department	-.20	.07	.05	-.12	-.03	.07
Assignment	.16	-.24	.09	.20	-.01	.07
Satisfaction with Police Work	-.23*	.24	.07	-.01	.37**	-.01
Marital Status	.11	-.03	-.01	-.02	-.26*	.05
Sex	-.04	.01	.13	-.12	.007	.03
Education	-.09	.23	.10	-.06	.06	.03
Race (dummy)						
White	-.71*	.02	.55	.57	.65*	-.17
Other	-.79*	.25	.51	.50	.73*	-.12
Pretest	.41***	.01	.46***	.46***	.22	.59***
<u>Treatment</u>						
Officers' Level of Exposure to Crime Stoppers	.18	-.24	-.01	.14	-.05	-.25**
Proportion of Variance Explained (R ²)	.40	.24	.33	.43	.50	.54

*

** p < .05

*** p < .01

*** p < .001

The Effects of Crime Stoppers on Community Residents

One of the main questions addressed in the Indianapolis Impact Study was whether a new Crime Stoppers program, with strong media coverage, could reach the homes of most city residents, heighten their awareness of Crime Stoppers, and positively influence their perceptions, attitudes, and/or behaviors in specific areas.

As noted earlier, a city-wide RDD telephone survey of Indianapolis residents was conducted in October of 1984 to serve as the pretest. The program was successfully implemented in January of 1985 and received strong and consistent media coverage on a weekly basis throughout the intervention period. Posttest data were collected on the same respondents in July, 1985, thus creating a panel design. Because of some delays in program implementation, the scheduled 9-month interval between the pretest and posttest provided only 6 months of media coverage. However, compared to other media-based crime prevention programs, we would argue that the Crime Stoppers intervention was very intense. Given the large volume of media coverage and the arousing nature of television reenactments, citizens received a strong "dosage" of the treatment in terms of both quantity and quality.

Awareness Effects. The results of the citywide community survey indicate that the new Indianapolis Crime Stoppers program was very successful at reaching the homes of most city residents and increasing their awareness of the program. Table 38 shows the changes in awareness of Crime Stoppers that occurred after six months of media coverage and public presentations. More than one-third of the residents (38%) claimed to have heard about Crime Stoppers at the time

Table 38

Community-wide Changes in Awareness of
Crime Stoppers in Indianapolis

Awareness Measures	Percent Aware ^a		
	Pretest	Posttest	Change
1. Heard about Crime Stoppers	38.0	92.9	54.9 (+)
2. Seen TV Reenactments	34.8	70.8	36.0 (+)
3. Read Newspaper Coverage	40.6	52.6	12.0 (+)
4. Heard on the Radio	23.2	25.3	2.1 (+)

^a N=184

of the pretest. (A portion of these individuals may have seen one or two media news stories aired prior to the pretest regarding plans to develop such a program, and others may simply want to appear knowledgeable). In any event, the important finding is that community awareness of Crime Stoppers jumped from 38 percent to almost 93 percent between the pretest and posttest. Table 38 also suggests that much of this increase in public awareness is attributable to exposure on television, as 7 out of 10 citizens who were familiar with the program reported seeing at least one crime reenactment on Channel 13. However, exposure to the program through newspaper and radio was also quite high. Of the 93 percent of the community that had heard about Crime Stoppers at the time of the posttest, more than half had read about it in the newspaper and one-quarter had been exposed to Crime Stoppers over the radio.

Most residents were first exposed to Crime Stoppers on television (60.6%), followed by newspapers (15.3%), other people (14.1%), and radio (5.3%). With the passage of time, however, many residents were "hit" with Crime Stoppers from more than one media source. Of those exposed to Crime Stoppers, 44 percent were knowledgeable about the program from one media source, 44 percent from two sources, and 12 percent were exposed to all three major media outlets. These variations in level of exposure to the program were later examined in relationship to program impact.

The Sample. A random sample of 298 Indianapolis residents was produced through random digit dialing procedures. Of these respondents, 184 were reinterviewed 9 months later. This panel sample of 184 respondents was used for the analyses reported here.

The panel sample was 58 percent female, 56 percent married, 77 percent white (20% black) and ranged in age from 15 to 91. The majority (53%) had attained some educational level beyond high school. The total household income showed substantial variation, but two-thirds of the sample reported an income of \$30,000 or less, with more than one-fourth reported \$10,000 or less. When compared to the total random sample at Time 1, the panel sample was quite similar on most of these dimensions.

Effects on Perceptions, Attitudes, and Behavior. We have just described the results which document that citizens in Indianapolis were, without question, exposed to a new Crime Stoppers program, and often exposed through multiple media sources. Given this successful program implementation, the next question is whether this intervention produced any changes in citizens' perceptions, attitudes, and behavior. Did the media coverage instill pro-Crime Stoppers attitudes and a willingness to participate in this type of crime control activity? Did this coverage improve residents' satisfaction with the police? Also, what effect did it have on the public's perception of the crime problem or individuals' fear of crime? Would fear of crime increase as a necessary price of increasing public awareness via graphic reenactments of felony crimes? A number of such hypotheses were examined.

Pretest-Posttest Changes. The first series of analyses simply tested for significant change between the pretest and posttest on a number of important outcome measures. The results of these correlated-groups t-tests are shown in Table 39. Although most of the analyses were nonsignificant (indicating no change between the pretest

and posttest), several significant findings did emerge in the area of attitudes and beliefs about the Crime Stoppers program. First, citizens were more likely (at the posttest than at the pretest) to believe that Crime Stoppers is an effective program for arresting criminals. As shown in Table 40, the percentage of respondents who felt that Crime Stoppers is "very effective" in leading to the arrest of suspect increases from 25.4 to 34.2. Second, citizens seemed to change their attitudes about the acceptability of paying people rewards for reporting crime. While only 38.2 percent felt this was a "good practice" at the time of the pretest, more than half of the respondents (53.8%) felt it was a good idea by the time of the posttest (see Table 40).

Finally, there was a significant change in citizens' willingness to contribute money to the Crime Stoppers program. Citizens reported a greater willingness to contribute funds to the program at the posttest than they did at the pretest.

Regression analyses. Although the findings described above are interesting, our confidence in the conclusion that these changes are due to the Crime Stoppers program is limited. However, the current study has several built-in controls that were exploited to provide a stronger test of the hypotheses about program impact. First, because we used a panel design (as with the surveys of police and businesses), we were able to control for many pretest differences that may be influencing the observed changes (or absence of change). Second, we were able to control for levels of exposure to the treatment. Exposure to the treatment was operationally defined in two different

Table 39

Pretest-Posttest Changes: Community Residents

Dependent Variables	Difference Between Pretest-Posttest Means (+/- indicates direction of change)	t-value ^a
Perceived Crime Rate	.039 (-)	.47
Perceived Frequency of Robbery/Assault	.069 (-)	1.38
Fear of Personal Crime	.119 (+)	-1.74
Fear of Property Crime	.087 (-)	1.18
Responsibility for Crime Prevention	.040 (+)	-.62
Attitudes toward paying citizens		
- Item 1	.024 (-)	.49
- Item 2	.160 (+)	-3.80***
Satisfaction with Police Rating of Crime Stoppers Effectiveness		
- Arrests	.153 (+)	-2.59**
- Prevention	.123 (+)	-1.70
Likely to call Crime Stoppers	.022 (-)	.39
Willing to Contribute to Crime Stoppers	.211 (+)	-2.87**
Called Police	.044 (-)	1.13

^a Correlated groups t-test.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

Table 40

Community-wide Changes
in Attitudes and Beliefs About Crime Stoppers

Attitudes/Belief	Pretest	Posttest
1. (After description of Crime Stoppers) "How effective do you think such programs would be in leading to the arrest of suspected criminals?"		
....very effective	25.4	34.2
....somewhat effective	62.4	58.0
....not very effective	10.4	6.6
....not at all effective	1.7	1.1
2. "How do you feel about paying people to volunteer information about crimes? In general, do you feel this is a good practice or a bad practice?"		
....good practice	38.2	53.8
....bad practice	61.8	46.2

ways in the context of separate regression analyses, as described below.

Total media effects. First, we created an "independent" variable measuring level of exposure to all major media. Respondents were scored as having been exposed to Crime Stoppers through: none (0), one (1), two (2) or three (3) of the media outlets. In the regression analysis, the following covariates were used: the pretest, sex, age, race, education, direct victimization experience, indirect (vicarious) victimization experience, and television exposure to the McGruff national crime prevention campaign. The analyses tested whether the level of media exposure to Crime Stoppers would explain (account for) any change in the outcome measures after controlling for pretest differences on these outcome scales and for the covariates listed above.

The results showed no significant effects of exposure on any of the outcome measures. Exposure to Crime Stoppers via television, radio, and/or newspaper did not alter perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, or behaviors according to this analysis.

Television effects. While the "total program" approach used above is an acceptable analysis strategy for looking at the entire program, one could argue that it "waters down" the effects of watching dramatic reenactments of crime on television. Another reason for undertaking a television analysis is the opportunity available for using a more controlled quasi-experimental design. For this analysis, exposure to the program was strictly defined by whether or not the respondent usually watches Channel 13 (the only station that covers Crime Stoppers) rather than a competitive station. In fact, a

respondent must have selected Channel 13 at both the pretest and the posttest in order to be considered a member of the "TV exposed" group. By being so restrictive, we have defined a treatment that is somewhat independent of the respondents' personal characteristics, and thus not subject to the usual self-selection biases.

The same covariates and dependent variables were used in this regression analysis that were used earlier to test the total media effects. The results are shown in Table 41. A program or treatment effect would be indicated by the significance of betas in the row titled "Watch Channel 13". Only one treatment effect was observed across 13 separate regression analyses. That is, residents who regularly watched Channel 13 (and presumably were exposed to Crime Stoppers) were less inclined than non-viewers to feel that citizens have a responsibility to report crime without getting paid.

In sum, Crime Stoppers was very successful at heightening citizen awareness of the program. The large majority of Indianapolis residents were quite familiar with Crime Stoppers only six months after starting the program. There was some inconsistent evidence that the program also changed attitudes about paying and accepting rewards in the direction of being more favorable about this concept.

However, the bulk of the findings were nonsignificant, indicating no effect on perceptions of the local crime problem, fear of crime, attributions of responsibility for crime prevention, satisfaction with police, the perceived effectiveness of Crime Stoppers, behavioral intentions to use or financially support the program, and calls to the police. These findings are consistent with a growing literature that questions the impact of media campaigns. However, given the dramatic

Table 41

The Effects of Exposure to Crime Stoppers on the Community
(Multiple regression analyses)

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables												
	Perceived Crime Rate	Perceived Frequency Robbery/Assault	Fear of Personal Crime ^a	Fear of Property Crime ^a	Responsibility for Property Crime ^a	Satisfaction with Police	Citizens Should Report Without Pay	Paying Is Good Practice	Perceived Arrest Effectiveness	Perceived Prevention Effectiveness	Likely to Call Crime Stoppers	Willingness to Contribute to Crime Stoppers	Called the Police
(standardized regression coefficients)													
<u>Covariates</u>													
Sex ^b	-.01	.09	-.15*	-.03	.16*	-.01	.16*	.05	.02	-.04	.05	.01	.08
Age	.13	.03	.08	-.12	-.01	-.20**	.02	.08	-.06	-.11	-.11	-.03	.09
Race ^c	-.01	-.03	.01	.02	-.11	.02	-.01	-.02	-.04	-.13	-.06	-.14	-.01
Education	-.12	-.04	.01	.15*	.01	.01	.03	-.01	-.13	-.18*	.06	-.04	.07
Direct Victimization ^d	.10	.02	-.07	-.11	.06	-.12	-.07	-.07	.03	-.01	-.08	-.03	.39***
Indirect Victimization ^e	.23**	.09	-.07	-.01	-.18*	-.03	.07	-.02	-.03	.02	.06	-.03	.09
Exposure to McGruff ^f	-.04	-.07	-.04	.00	.01	.05	-.15	.03	-.11	.05	-.11	-.01	-.01
Pretest	.30***	.46***	.53***	.48***	.25**	.37***	.28***	.46***	.23**	.36***	.29***	.50***	.28***
<u>Treatment</u>													
Watch Channel 13 ^g	.03	.00	.05	.07	-.07	-.03	-.19*	.12	.04	.02	-.03	-.04	-.06
Proportion of Variance Explained (R ²)	.24	.26	.41	.33	.13	.20	.16	.24	.12	.27	.13	.32	.35

* p < .05

** p < .01

*** p < .001

^a 4-point scales (higher=less fear).^b 1=female, 0=male^c 1=white, 0=nonwhite^d victimized by personal (0,1) and/or property crime (0,1) during past year (composite scale).^e personally know someone victimized during past year (y=yes, 0=no).^f seen any public service announcements on McGruff during past 6 months (1=yes, 0=no).^g whether or not reported Channel 13 as "most often" watched station at both pretest and posttest (1=yes, 0=no).

reenactments of felony crime, the absence of an increase in fear of crime can be viewed as good news. Furthermore, Channel 13 executives report that viewers enjoy the program.

D. FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH PROGRAM PRODUCTIVITY

To the naive observer, all Crime Stoppers programs may appear to be the same -- a law enforcement agency, a board of directors, media outlets, and a standard set of operations. However, as this report indicates, there is not a standard set of operations. In fact, there are remarkable program differences on many dimensions. The national guidelines for program development and implementation (MacAleese & Tily, 1983) are usually tailored to meet the needs of the local community and individuals within that community. In addition to identifying many differences in program characteristics and operations, we have found large differences in program outcomes, such as clearance rates. The next major step in this research was to determine what relationship exists, if any, between these program inputs/processes on the one hand and program outcomes on the other. Stated differently, one of our primary research objectives was to identify important predictors of program productivity and effectiveness.

This section provides an analysis of each major component of Crime Stoppers as it contributes to the overall success of the program. Specifically, what characteristics or actions of the police coordinator, the board of directors, and the media are statistically associated with higher levels of program productivity? Similarly, what contextual variables (e.g. crime rate, population size, population characteristics) seem to influence program productivity?

What factors determine whether a Crime Stoppers program will become a highly productive operation or experience little success in

its efforts to achieve program objectives? One could hypothesize that a number of coordinator, board, media, and contextual variables are associated with program performance. In this section, we will examine the relative importance of these variables for predicting program productivity. However, first we must explain how "productivity" has been defined.

Measures of Productivity

Several productivity scores were computed which reflect some of the major objectives of Crime Stoppers programs. Crime Stoppers is designed, for example to (a) stimulate community awareness and involvement in crime reporting, (b) solve felony crimes, and (c) raise reward money to sustain the program. Given these objectives and the limitations of current record keeping systems, the following productivity scores were computed using 1983 data:

- ° Calls Received - Total number of calls received by the program per 1,000 Part I crimes reported to the police. This score should be indicative of the level of community participation in the program.
- ° Calls Investigated - Total number of Crime Stoppers calls forwarded to detectives for investigation per 1,000 Part I crimes reported to the police. This score should be indicative of the quality of information received from callers assuming some levels of call screening.
- ° Suspects Arrested - Total number of Crime Stopper suspects arrested per 1000 Part I crimes reported to the police. This score should be one indicator of a program's productivity with regard to solving felony crimes.
- ° Crimes Cleared - Total number of crimes that were cleared as a result of Crime Stoppers information per 1,000 Part I crimes reported to the police. This score is another indicator of productivity with regard to solving felony crimes.
- ° Funds Raised - Total funds in the corporation's bank account "last month" per 100,000 population served. This score

should be indicative of community support and level of fund-raising success.

Other measures of program productivity were considered (e.g. dollar value of property recovered and number of convictions), but they were dismissed because of their clear lack of reliability. (The problems with existing statistics used by Crime Stoppers programs are discussed later in this report). Data from 1983 were used (rather than 1984) to maximize the number of programs that would be able to participate in the study given that many programs in the sample had just started in 1984. The figures were adjusted for either the amount of serious crime in the community or the size of the population served in order to overcome the "size" bias in the data. Most of the results reported here are based on data collected in the national surveys of police coordinators and board chairpersons. These two data bases were merged to allow a common set of analyses to be performed.

Coordinator and Law Enforcement Variables

The Coordinator. Many Crime Stoppers experts have argued that the characteristics, motivation, and ability of the program coordinator are critical to the success of the program. While our qualitative field work strongly confirmed this hypothesis, we sought to partially test this notion with quantitative data from our national samples. In particular, correlational analyses were performed to determine if program productivity (as defined above) was associated with the following coordinator variables: coordinator's age, education, number of years with the police force, length of time as coordinator, number of hours worked per week, number of speaking engagements in the past six months, self-rated public speaking ability, and job satisfaction.

Productivity was predicted by only a few of these variables. The coordinator's level of involvement in the community (in terms of speaking engagements) and number of hours worked per week were two factors that correlated significantly with productivity. Specifically, the more hours per week a coordinator worked, the more calls the program received ($r=.25$), the more calls that were forwarded to investigators for follow-up ($r=.28$), the more arrests that were made ($r=.22$), and the more cases that were cleared ($r=.29$). However, the direction of causality is unclear because coordinators may be forced to work longer hours to manage a more productive program.

Similar to this pattern, the more speaking engagements reported by the coordinator during a six-month period, the greater the number of calls received ($r=.26$), the greater the number of calls investigated ($r=.36$), the greater the number of arrests ($r=.20$), and the greater the number of cases cleared ($r=.29$).

The strongest coordinator variable for predicting program productivity was job satisfaction. On a 10-point scale, coordinators who rated themselves as more satisfied with their job were managing more productive Crime Stoppers programs, i.e. programs with more calls ($r=.35$) more cases investigated ($r=.34$), more arrests ($r=.45$), and more cases cleared ($r=.45$).

The most appropriate analysis for examining the independent and combined contribution of these variables for explaining productivity is multiple regression. Our regression analysis, with all variables entered in the equation simultaneously, is shown in Table 42. As the results indicate, only the coordinator's job satisfaction retained its importance as a consistent predictor of productivity when controlling

Table 42

Program Productivity as a Function of Coordinator Variables
(Standardized regression coefficients)

Coordinator Variables	Productivity Measures (Dependent Variables)				
	Calls Received ^a	Calls Investigated ^a	Suspects Arrested ^a	Crimes Cleared ^a	Funds Raised ^b
Age	.12	-.18	-.07	-.12	.06
Education	-.09	-.02	.03	-.02	.04
Years in Police Work	-.08	.00	.10	.10	-.26
Months as Coordinator	.10	.04	.01	.07	.14
Hours Worked Per Week	.15	.08	.06	.11	-.28
Public Speaking Engagements ^c	.13	.23 [*]	.08	.14	.01
Public Speaking Ability ^d	-.02	.00	-.11	-.10	-.16
Job Satisfaction ^e	.24 [*]	.28 ^{**}	.40 ^{***}	.36 ^{***}	.16
Proportion of Variance Explained (R ²)	.19	.23	.23	.26	.14

^a Per 1000 Part 1 crimes reported to the police.

^b Total funds in the corporation's bank account per 100,000 population.

^c Number during past six months.

^d Self-rating on 5-point scale.

^e Self-rating on 10-point scale.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

for the effects of all other coordinator variables. Also noteworthy is the fact that all coordinator variables were inadequate for predicting fund-raising success. This finding is consistent with the assumption that fund-raising success is more likely to be influenced by the efforts and abilities of persons more directly involved, namely the board of directors. (This hypothesis is examined below).

The relationship between the coordinator's job satisfaction and program productivity is dramatically illustrated in Table 43. Indeed, highly satisfied coordinators who have something to be happy about their programs are many times more productive than those of dissatisfied coordinators.

Program Location. There has been much debate surrounding the issue of where Crime Stoppers should be physically and organizationally located within the police department. What is the optimum location for the program within investigations, crime prevention, the administration, or some other bureau or department? One commonly stated hypothesis is that the program must be located within the investigations division in order to gain the support and cooperation of the investigators. We were able to test this hypothesis with data gathered by asking our national sample of program coordinators to rate their relationship with investigators on four separate dimensions: rapport, cooperation, skepticism about the benefit of Crime Stoppers, and jealousy toward Crime Stoppers' staff.

Table 44 shows the mean scores on these dimensions broken down by program location. These results are very consistent with the hypothesis that placing the program under Investigations will enhance the relationship between Crime Stoppers and Investigators. Although

Table 43

Program Productivity as a Function
of Coordinator's Level of Job Satisfaction
(Mean scores)

Coordinator's Job Satisfaction ^a	Productivity Measures			
	Calls Received ^b	Calls Investigated ^b	Suspects Arrested ^b	Crimes Cleared ^b
Low	68	43	5	8
Medium	74	31	51	55
High	455	265	70	104

^a Self-rating on 10-point scale (1-4 = low; 5-7 = medium; 8-10 = high).

^b Per 1000 Part 1 crimes reported to the police.

Table 44
Coordinator's Relationship With Investigators
as a Function of Program Location
(Mean scores)

Program Location	Dimensions of Relationship			
	Rapport ^a	Cooperation ^b	Skepticism ^c	Jealousy ^d
Investigations	1.93	2.00	1.58	1.83
Crime Prevention	2.57	2.91	1.79	2.12
Public Relations	2.20	2.13	1.47	2.33
Communications	1.87	2.12	1.12	1.62
Administration	2.24	2.72	1.64	2.20
Other	2.41	2.36	1.38	2.14
Between-groups F value	3.33 ^{**}	3.61 ^{**}	0.84	1.22

^a 1=excellent; 6=poor.

^b 1=very high; 6=very low.

^c 1=few are skeptical of benefits; 6=most are skeptical.

^d 1=never jealous of program staff; 5=very often jealous.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

location did not make a difference in terms of affecting investigators' skepticism or jealousy, it was related to the levels of rapport and cooperation. Specifically, Crime Stoppers programs located in the Investigations division report significantly higher levels of rapport and cooperation with investigators than programs not located in Investigations. (The one exception was Communications, but this location is so atypical for Crime Stoppers that the small sample may have produced unreliable results).

Handling Calls. Many aspects of call processing could affect the overall performance of the program. Proper interviewing and call screening are just two examples of important activities in which differential performance has been observed. Callers can easily be "turned off" if they are not treated properly or discover that their anonymity has been jeopardized. Furthermore, our field work strongly suggests that investigators can be "turned off" if the staff over-screen (i.e., pursue information on cases that are obviously dead-ends) or under-screen the caller's information before giving the case to Investigations.

Another issue that has received much discussion is the use of answering machines when Crime Stoppers personnel are not available to answer the telephone. Experts hypothesize that the use of these machines will discourage citizens from calling again because of the impersonal nature of the reception and the caller's fear of being taped. To our surprise, the available data do not support this claim. As shown in Table 45, Crime Stoppers programs that use answering machines have experienced higher levels of productivity across all measures when compared to programs which do not use them. The use of answering machines was associated with higher rates for calls

Table 45

Program Productivity as a Function of Call Handling Procedures
(Mean scores)

How Calls Handled When Receptionist Not Available	Productivity Measures ^a			
	Calls Received	Calls Investigated	Suspects Arrested	Crimes Cleared
Calls Forwarded	173	150	38	62
Calls Left Unanswered	178	62	15	51
Answering Machine Used	1018	398	122	158
Other	214	146	54	77
Between-groups F value	2.82 [*]	1.20	0.95	0.76

^a Per 1000 Part 1 crimes reported to the police.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

received, calls investigated, suspects arrested, and crimes cleared. One explanation for this finding is that callers feel more comfortable talking to a machine than to a person who might question them or threaten their anonymity in some way. However, other variables may explain this condition as spurious rather than casual.

Media Variables

The media play a key role in all Crime Stoppers programs. The regression analysis reported in this section examined the relative importance of key media variables in explaining differences in program productivity. One important question is whether the quality of the media's participation (e.g. cooperativeness) or quantity of participation (e.g. number of media outlets) is more important for predicting performance by local Crime Stoppers programs.

The findings reported below are the result of an iterative process involving many separate tests for media effects. In each test, different operational definitions of each media construct were employed. For example, in trying to determine the best test of the effects of having daily newspapers as a media outlet, data on the number of daily newspapers that participated in each program were coded several different ways, including using them as an interval, ordinal, and a nominal-level (dichotomous) measures. After inspecting many preliminary analyses, we concluded that the relationship between productivity and a program's success vis-a-vis various media was best represented by whether a program had at least one participating media in each type (daily newspaper, weekly newspaper, radio, television, and cable), and not by how many of each type were participating. In other words, there were few differences in productivity as the number

of media outlets increased beyond one in each area, but the differences between none and one were most noteworthy. Thus, a decision was made to use dichotomous variables in the final set of analyses (i.e. presence or absence of each media type).

Another set of analyses sought to determine whether there was a single best combination of media. For example, does Crime Stoppers function more productively if it has radio and newspaper coverage only, radio and television coverage only, etc? The analysis did not identify a single best "mix" of media for maximizing productivity.

The frequently-discussed hypothesis about the advantages (or disadvantages) of exclusive arrangements between Crime Stoppers and the media was also examined. The results indicate that having an exclusive relationship with a local television station did not significantly affect the program's productivity. Hence, exclusivity does not appear to facilitate or inhibit productivity levels.

Finally, an overall analysis was performed to examine the relative explanatory power of three types of media-related factors and the importance of a quality relationship. (The multiple regression results are shown in Table 46.)

On separate surveys, the police coordinator and the board of directors chairperson each rated the cooperativeness of five possible types of media which may participate in their program. These 10 ratings were combined to form an overall media cooperation scale. The internal consistency of this scale was acceptably high ($\alpha=.67$), thus indicating agreement in the judgments made by the coordinator and board chairperson. Also, five of the independent variables in Table 46 represent whether or not a local program had one of the five

Table 46

Program Productivity as a Function of Media Variables
(Standardized regression coefficients)

Media Variables	Productivity Measures (Dependent Variables)				
	Calls Received ^a	Calls Investigated ^a	Suspects Arrested ^a	Crimes Cleared ^a	Funds Raised ^b
Media Cooperation ^c	.23 *	.31 ***	.33 ***	.31 ***	.13
Daily Newspaper ^d	.14	.26	.18	.14	.20
Weekly Newspaper ^e	.21 *	.13	.08	.01	.19
Radio ^f	-.25	-.30 *	-.19	-.21	.10
VHF/UHF Television ^g	-.14	-.01	-.14	-.06	-.19
Cable Television ^h	.06	-.04	.08	.13	.15
Special Coverage ⁱ	.22 *	.08	.12	.17	-.07
Proportion of Variance Explained (R ²)	.19 ***	.18 ***	.20 ***	.19 ***	.15 *

^a Per 1000 Part 1 crimes reported to the police.

^b Total funds in the corporation's bank account per 100,000 population.

^c Combined media cooperativeness rating by coordinator and board chairperson (averaging separate ratings of all media types).

^d Dichotomy of whether or not program has daily newspaper participation.

^e Dichotomy of whether or not program has weekly newspaper participation.

^f Dichotomy of whether or not program has radio station cooperation.

^g Dichotomy of whether or not program has VHF/UHF television station cooperation.

^h Dichotomy of whether or not program has cable television participation.

ⁱ Total number of media types from which program receives special coverage.

*

** p < .05

*** p < .01

*** p < .001

separate types of media outlets. Finally, a "special coverage" index was formed by summing the number of media types from which the program received a special Crime Stoppers section or programming slot (mean = 1.9).

Overall, the set of media variables explained nearly one-fifth of the variance in the number of calls received by the program ($R^2 = .19$). As shown in Table 46, three of the variables were significant contributors to the number of calls received: media cooperation, weekly newspaper, and special coverage. The higher the level of media cooperation achieved by the program, the greater the number of calls received. Programs with at least one participating weekly newspaper received a significantly greater number of calls than programs without weekly newspaper participation. Further, the more outlets that provided the program with special coverage, the higher the program's productivity on this measure.

Media variables also accounted for about one-fifth of the variance ($R^2 = .18$) in the number of calls investigated. Separately, high levels of media cooperation were again found to be significantly related to higher productivity for calls investigated. What at first glance may be somewhat surprising, programs with at least one radio station participating, scored significantly lower on these productivity ratings than programs without radio participation.

Board Variables

A number of characteristics of the Board of Directors were examined in relationship to program productivity. What determines the fund-raising success of the board? Is it the number of board members, the composition of the board, the allocation of responsibilities, the

level of effort, or some other set of factors that determines board productivity and leads to high or low performance ratings?

Analysis of the national survey data revealed that the best predictor of the board's productivity was the amount of "time and energy" that board members have invested in the program. The higher the chairperson's rating of the board's willingness to give of its time and energy, the more funds they had in the bank ($r=.23$), the higher their rating on fund-raising effectiveness ($r=.53$), the less worried they were about fund-raising (or contributor) "burnout" ($r=-.30$), the less likely they were to have experienced "difficult times" in the past ($r=.38$), and the higher their overall performance rating by the chairperson and coordinator ($r=.57$).

The extent to which a board of directors allocates its work evenly among its members was another factor that correlated with certain productivity measures. Boards that managed to allocate their work more evenly were rated as effective fundraisers ($r=.32$) and were less likely to have experienced difficult times in the past ($r=.25$). However, the regression analyses showed a different pattern of results for this variable. When all of the relevant variables were considered in the regression equation, the equality of work allocation contributed significantly to a reduction in worry about burnout and an increase in the board's overall performance rating.

The regression results for board variables are shown in Table 47. Clearly, board members' willingness to invest time and energy in their Crime Stoppers was the predominant influence on program productivity. A few exceptions were apparent: Worry about "burnout" was predicted by an unfair allocation of work and the absence of an executive

Table 47

Program Productivity as a Function of Board Variables
(Standardized regression coefficients)

Board of Directors Variables	Productivity Measures (Dependent Variables)					
	Fund Raising ^a	Rating of Fundraising ^b	Worry About "Burnout"	Experienced "Difficult Times"	Overall Rating ^c	Calls Received ^d
Number of Board Members	-.21	-.02	-.19	-.03	-.16	.24
Gender Composition ^e	-.11	-.06	-.11	.11	-.08	-.45**
Right "Balance" of People	-.08	-.09	.14	-.06	-.09	.03
Equality of Work Allocation ^f	.20	.08	.27*	.12	.25*	.10
"Time & Energy" Invested	.35**	.56***	-.21	-.35**	-.44***	.15
Hours Worked Per Month	-.10	-.09	-.01	.17	-.02	.08
Public Speaking Engagements ^g	.02	-.14	-.21	.03	-.01	-.26
Presence of Executive Committee	-.02	-.07	-.24*	-.10	-.08	-.23
Non-Crime Stoppers Responsibilities	.03	-.14	.01	.07	-.02	.27
Proportion of Variance Explained (R ²)	.15	.35	.26	.21	.40	.37

^a Total funds in the corporation's bank account per 100,000 population.

^b Rating of board's fundraising effectiveness by board chairperson (5=high; 1=low).

^c Combined overall rating of board performance by coordinator and board chairperson (1 = excellent; 7 = very poor).

^d Number of calls received by the program per 1000 Part 1 crimes reported to the police.

^e Percent of board that is male.

^f How often work is shared equally (1=always; 4=hardly ever).

^g Number during past six months.

* p < .05

** p < .01

*** p < .001

committee. The number of calls received by the program was predicted by the gender composition of the board, such that as the percentage of females on the board increased, so did the number of calls received per 100,000 population. This relationship may be spurious, but no alternative explanation has been proposed.

One of the more important findings to emerge from this analysis was the absence of effects for many variables that were thought to influence the board's productivity. Board characteristics that were not generally important for predicting fundraising success or program hardship include: board size, board composition, the number of public speaking engagements, the presence of an executive committee, and the presence of responsibilities (as a board) other than Crime Stoppers. In contrast, the importance of investing time and energy as a board member is shown in Table 48.

Overall Ratings of Program Components

In this section we examine the extent to which performance ratings for each of the major components of Crime Stoppers were associated with program productivity. That is, do the overall ratings/evaluation given to the coordinator, board of directors, the media, and the program as a whole serve to predict the actual performance of the program? If so, what is the relative importance and interdependence of these contributing factors?

Multiple regression analyses were performed on these ratings and the standardized regression coefficients are shown in Table 49. The results indicate that positive ratings for each of the components were important for predicting higher productivity, but ratings of media cooperativeness were consistently stronger than ratings of the

Table 48

Program Productivity as a Function
of Time and Energy Invested by Members of the Board of Directors
(Mean scores)

Time and Energy Invested by Board ^a	Productivity Measures			
	Fund Raising ^b	Rating of Fundraising ^c	Worry About "Burnout" ^d	Overall Rating ^e
Low	8915	2.22	2.82	3.72
Medium	22227	3.40	3.14	2.78
High	20219	4.07	3.60	1.93

^a Rating by board chairperson on 5-point scale (low = 1-2; medium = 3; high = 4-5).

^b Total funds in the corporation's bank account per 100,000 population.

^c Rating of board's fundraising effectiveness by board chairperson (5 = high; 1 = low).

^d How worried that fundraisers or contributors will "burnout" (1 = very; 5 = not at all on composite scale).

^e Combined overall rating of board performance by coordinator and board chairperson (1 = excellent; 7 = very poor).

Table 49

Program Productivity as a Function
of Overall Success Ratings For Each Program Component
(Standardized regression coefficients)

Program Component Being Rated	Productivity Measures (Dependent Variables)				
	Calls Received ^a	Calls Investigated ^a	Suspects Arrested ^a	Crimes Cleared ^a	Funds Raised ^b
Police Coordinator ^c	.19	.13	.25*	.17	.20
Board of Directors ^d	-.28*	-.13	-.01	.04	.20
Media Outlets ^e	.34**	.27*	.27*	.23*	.05
Overall Program ^f	.32**	.35**	.37**	.43***	-.04
Proportion of Variance Explained (R ²)	.29	.26	.41	.41	.07

^a Per 1000 Part 1 crimes reported to the police.

^b Total funds in the corporation's bank account per 100,000 population.

^c Overall coordinator performance rating by board of director's chairperson.

^d Combined board performance rating by coordinator and board chairperson.

^e Combined media cooperativeness rating by coordinator and board chairperson (averaging separate ratings of all media types).

^f Overall program success rating by coordinator.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

coordinator or board of directors for predicting a program's ability to generate calls, arrest suspects, and solve crimes. Of course, the strongest predictor of productivity was the overall rating of the program (by the coordinator), but this finding does not inform us about the relative influence of the three major components.

These significant correlations between overall performance ratings (which were only perceptions and judgments) and actual performance statistics suggest that program participants hold fairly accurate perceptions of their program's level of success. These perceptions explain between 26 and 41 percent of the variance in productivity scores. (However, we should note that performance ratings did not correlate with fund-raising success.)

Table 50 illustrates the relationship between performance ratings and program arrest productivity. With the exception of the board of directors, higher performance ratings were associated with a greater number of suspects arrested per 1,000 Part 1 crimes.

Contextual Variables

In addition to the characteristics of program components, contextual variables were assessed as possible correlates of program productivity. In particular, data from our national surveys, the FBI's Uniform Crime Reports, and the 1980 census were used to measure the following variables: crime rate (Part I crimes per 100,000 population), perceived crime rate, population size, percentage of the population living below the poverty level, racial composition (percentage minority), geographic size of the service area, whether or not the program is multi-jurisdictional, and whether or not the

Table 50

Number of Suspects Arrested as a Function
of Success Ratings for Each Program Component

Ratings of Program Components	Average Number of Arrests Per 1,000 Part 1 Crimes
<u>Satisfaction with Police Coordinator</u>	
Very satisfied (1)	39.7
Satisfied (2)	47.3
Not Satisfied (3-4)	7.0
<u>Media Cooperativeness</u>	
Very high (10)	162.9
High (8-9)	127.1
Moderate (5-7)	12.0
Low (1-4)	10.6
<u>Board Performance</u>	
Excellent (1.0-1.5)	46.9
Very Good (2.0)	86.1
Good (2.5-3.0)	33.8
Fair/Poor (3.5-7.0)	53.4
<u>Overall Program Success</u>	
Very Successful (5)	128.2
Quite Successful (4)	21.8
Somewhat or Not very Successful (1-3)	33.3

program received technical assistance from other Crime Stoppers programs in their area when getting started.

Correlational analyses revealed that several contextual variables were associated with productivity. To summarize these findings, Crime Stoppers productivity (i.e. calls, arrests, clearances) was significantly higher in communities with less poverty, fewer minorities, and a lower crime rate. However, when all of the contextual variables were considered simultaneously, only the crime rate remained as a significant predictor of productivity (see Table 51). That is, the lower the crime rate in the community, the higher the program's productivity on all dimensions except the amount of funds raised. Effectiveness at fundraising was primarily related to population size, i.e., smaller communities were more successful at raising funds.

Taken as a whole, these contextual analyses suggest that smaller, less urbanized communities are able to achieve higher levels of productivity than the larger, poorer cities when using the productivity measures developed in this study. However, a closer inspection of the data suggests that the pattern of relationships is more complex. Because the size and type of population served were important variables throughout our descriptive analysis, yet did not seem to be important in these regression analyses, (except to explain fundraising) additional analyses were performed. Indeed, a curvilinear trend was discovered in the relationship between population size and most of the productivity measures. A look at the mean productivity scores in Table 52 reveals a clear nonlinear trend across different population sizes. More specifically, the

Table 51

Program Productivity as a Function of Contextual Variables
(Standardized regression coefficients)

Context Variables	Productivity Measures (Dependent Variables)				
	Calls Received ^a	Calls Investigated ^a	Suspects Arrested ^a	Crimes Cleared ^a	Funds Raised ^b
Crime Rate	-.57***	-.57***	-.53***	-.48***	-.18
Perceived Crime Rate	.09	.04	.14	.06	.30*
Population Size	.16	.06	-.06	.00	-.61***
Percent in Poverty	.09	.06	-.07	-.03	-.22
Percent Minority	-.18	-.07	.01	-.05	-.14
Geographic Size	.14	.10	.01	-.01	-.04
Multi-jurisdictional	.12	.15	.01	.06	.03
Start-up Assistance	-.08	-.02	-.16	-.16	-.06
Proportion of Variance Explained (R ²)	.40	.33	.32	.28	.48

^a Per 1000 Part 1 crimes reported to the police.

^b Total funds in the corporation's bank account per 100,000 population.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

Table 52

Program Productivity as a Function
of Size and Type of Population Served

Size of Population	Productivity Measures				
	Calls Received	Calls Investigated	Suspects Arrested	Crimes Cleared	Funds Raised
Less than 50,000	118	122	39	63	37838
50,000 to 99,999	382	247	53	50	11012
100,000 to 249,999	616	280	128	173	9519
250,000 to 7 million	234	136	20	49	547

Type of Population	Productivity Measures				
	Calls Received	Calls Investigated	Suspects Arrested	Crimes Cleared	Funds Raised
Mostly Urban Residents	350	151	62	67	13811
Mostly Suburban Residents	244	166	32	36	12102
Mostly Rural Residents	273	69	68	52	7754
Mixed	355	223	66	114	24514

medium-sized urban areas (i.e. 100,000 to 250,000 population) were significantly more productive than either the smaller or larger programs in terms of calls received, calls investigated, suspects arrested, and crimes cleared. Furthermore, the ratio of suspects arrested to calls investigated shows that programs in medium-sized urban areas have a much higher arrest rate per calls investigated (e.g. 1 in 2 vs. 1 in 6 for larger cities). This may be due to the consistently lower rate of forwarding cases for investigation (i.e., they forwarded only 280 of the 616 calls received) which suggests that the medium-sized programs engage in a more extensive screening process. To help interpret the lower half of Table 52, the reader should know that many of the programs that we are calling "medium-sized urban programs" described themselves as serving "mixed" populations, meaning some combination of urban, suburban, and/or rural residents. The effects of type of population were less clear, perhaps due to the ambiguity surrounding this self-labeling process.

E. THE REWARD EXPERIMENT IN LAKE COUNTY

Selecting the proper reward size for each case is viewed as a very important task by board members and police coordinators. The amount of the reward is considered by many to be a critical determinant of the informant's satisfaction level and willingness to continue a cooperative relationship with the program. However, paying large rewards on a regular basis can create a cash shortage and may lift informants' expectations too high. In light of this situation, the Reward Experiment was conducted, with the full cooperation of Lake County Crime Stoppers (Illinois), to look at the effects of reward size on informant's perceptions, attitudes, and behavioral intentions.

Employing a randomized experimental design, this study allowed us to determine how informants would respond to reward levels that were randomly determined (and thus, had no casual relationship to the informant's case). The question of interest were these: will variation in reward size affect informants' satisfaction with the reward and the perceived fairness of the reward? Will it alter their attitudes toward Crime Stoppers and their intentions to use the program again in the future?

A one-way analysis of variance was performed to test the effects of reward size on informants. The results were consistent across all dependent variables: Reward size had virtually no effect on informants. That is, informants in the low, moderate and moderately high reward conditions did not differ in terms of their satisfaction with the reward, the perceived fairness of the reward, their belief in the effectiveness of Crime Stoppers, and their intentions to use the program again. The results are shown in Table 53.

We also tested the hypothesis that persons of low income, persons with criminal histories, or those who directly attribute their participation to money (rather than anonymity) would be more disappointed by smaller rewards. That is, we predicted that rewards would have a differential effect depending on the informant's motives for calling Crime Stoppers. To test this hypothesis, interaction terms were created and examined in a multiple regression framework. The results indicate that reward size did not interact with the informant's motives or his/her financial status to determine reactions to the reward payment. Thus, the hypothesis was not supported by the data.

Taken as a whole, the results suggest that reward size is not as important to most informants as we think it is. Regardless of the amount of the reward, informants were quite satisfied with their compensation. Even in the low reward condition (\$100), for example, 41 percent of the informants rated their satisfaction as a "10" on a 1-to-10 scale. These findings should cause Crime Stoppers boards to think about whether they may be paying too much on certain cases.

Table 53

Informant Responses as a Function of Reward Size
(Means with Standard Deviations in parantheses)

Reward Size	Satisfaction with reward	Perceived Fairness of Compensation	Perceived Effectiveness of Crime Stoppers	Likely to Call Crime Stoppers Again	N
Low (\$100)	6.75(3.39)	.75(.45)	3.83(.39)	3.67(.89)	12
Moderate (\$250)	7.35(2.87)	.82(.39)	3.62(.50)	3.65(.79)	17
Moderately High (\$400)	7.93(2.79)	.71(.47)	3.73(.46)	3.60(.83)	15
Between-groups F value	0.52	0.25	0.72	0.02	

F. MEASUREMENT PROBLEMS AND ISSUES

Measuring the productivity of Crime Stoppers program is a multi-faced and sometimes difficult task. In this section, we discuss the current record keeping practices of Crime Stoppers programs, the limitations of these data, and the possibilities for improvement. The actual records and statistics kept by program staff regarding operational activities and criminal justice outcomes offer a good picture of the extent and quality of the current data base. The police coordinator questionnaire contained a comprehensive list of 57 questions about program records focusing on: (a) calls received by the program, (b) arrests and clearances, (c) property recovered or confiscated, (d) rewards, and (e) prosecutions and convictions. Programs were asked for the actual figures, but were allowed to provide estimates (kept separately from actual statistics) if the actual figures were not recorded or were very difficult/costly to recover in a short period of time. Our request for statistics was intentionally quite broad, ranging from questions that we knew many programs could answer (e.g., number of rewards paid) to items that would test the limits of their current record keeping practices (e.g., number of defendants convicted of the most serious charge issued).

To give the reader a sense of the current state of record keeping among Crime Stoppers programs, Table 54 shows the percentage of programs that provided "actual" statistics in a few "critical" areas. By "critical," we simply mean relatively basic types of information that would give some indication of performance along dimensions that seem central to the purpose of Crime Stoppers programs. The following measures are represented in Table 54 as critical measures: number of

Table 54
Percentage of Programs
That Keep Critical Record and Statistics

Number of Critical Records Kept	Percent
0	16.7
1	1.5
2	3.0
3	7.9
4	13.3
5	21.2
6	16.7
7	19.7

calls received, number of crimes cleared, number of narcotics crimes cleared, dollar value of stolen property recovered, number of rewards paid, number of suspects prosecuted, and number of suspects convicted of at least one charge. As the results show, 83 percent of the programs kept statistics in at least one of these basic areas during 1983 but only 20 percent keep statistics in all seven. Thus, there is room for significant improvement in record keeping practices.

One of our objectives in this national evaluation was to examine the adequacy of currently used measures of program performance and, if necessary, suggest improvements that would increase their utility for both researchers and practitioners in this field. In fact, we have already applied our own thinking in this area to develop the productivity measures used in this report. For Crime Stoppers practitioners, our suggestions about measurement may assist them in conducting critical self-assessments and provide a stronger basis for recognizing and encouraging solid performance at regional, national, and international levels. In fact, some of our preliminary suggestions were used recently at the 6th International Crime Stoppers Conference to improve the fairness of criteria used to determine the winners of the 1985 Productivity Awards. Although some practices have started to change, we shall articulate the key measurement problems that have existed to date and the direction of change we are suggesting.

One of our primary concerns was how to proceed in developing outcome measures that are fair to most programs -- big and small, urban and rural, etc. As noted above, Crime Stoppers International (CSI) gives annual "Productivity Awards" to participating

programs. These awards (for populations less than 100,000, 100,000 to 500,000, and over 500,000) have been based on productivity scores calculated by CSI in the following manner:

The productivity totals are based on an eight-hour work day. The total number of hours a program has been in operation is divided by the number of cases solved to develop a ratio of clearances. Then the total amount of stolen property and narcotics recovered by a program is divided by the total number of hours to determine a recovery ratio. (The Caller, November, 1984, p. 19).

Although these clearance and recovery ratios were well-intended, they seem to be limited in several respects. These limitations, if our analysis is correct, would create biases in favor of certain types of Crime Stoppers programs, especially larger programs and those with narcotics problems. First, these productivity measures do not adequately control for large differences in program size. Given that the size of the population dramatically affects the volume of crime in a particular city, which in turn affects the volume of calls to the program, which then affects the volume of cases solved, etc., then the question becomes -- should programs serving a population of 500,000 or 600,000 people be compared to programs serving 2 million or even 7 million people? Similarly, should programs serving 1,500 people be compared to those serving 95,000? A secondary concern in the latter category is the level of competition to receive an award -- in our national sample more than half of all the Crime Stoppers programs fell into this "less than 100,000" category. Thus, smaller programs face much stiffer competition to receive a Productivity Award. (This is not, however, an inherent measurement problem, but rather a problem of grouping programs properly for merit awards.)

Second, by including narcotics in the property recovery ratio, programs in certain parts of the country where narcotics are a major problem are likely to score very high. This is not to suggest that narcotics recovery is unimportant, but rather it should be considered as one of several measures that allows the bulk of Crime Stoppers programs an opportunity for success recognition.

A third problem with current productivity measures is that they divide the total number of crimes solved by the number of hours a program has been in operation. This approach may not be very responsive to recent changes in a program's performance. Programs "successful" in previous years are likely to remain successful, and the same is true for "unsuccessful" programs. In order for the awards given in one year to be totally independent of awards given in subsequent years, only the most recent 12 months of "hours worked" statistics should be used to calculate productivity scores. In fact, days or weeks would be adequate to control for length of existence. If, however, one is really interested in controlling for personhours invested to solve a particular crime, then "8 hours" is not the right figure across all programs. Programs with more than a dozen staff members (e.g., Houston, New York) should not be compared with programs that employ a half-time coordinator. Statements about "crimes solved per hour" imply productivity rates. Some programs have considerably more (and others have considerably less) than eight personhours invested in each day.

There are other problems that pertain to specific productivity measures. A brief assessment of these limitations is provided below:

- o Crimes Solved - The number of felony crimes cleared (solved) has always been a troublesome measure in

law enforcement because of the tendency to clear multiple crimes with a single arrest, and the use of "exceptional clearances." These practices are sometimes abused by investigators (e.g. clearing 100 burglaries with a single arrest), thus lowering the reliability and validity of this statistic as a measure of performance. Of course this problem is not restricted to Crime Stoppers data and predates this program by many years. In the case of Crime Stoppers, however, the available data on "cases solved" have another ambiguity: some programs report the number of crimes cleared, while others report the number of arrests made. Actually, arrests should be recorded as a separate and more reliable measure of program productivity.

- o Value of Stolen Property Recovered - While Crime Stoppers programs pride themselves on recovering large amounts of stolen property and narcotics, these statistics suffer from problems of interpretability and low reliability. Narcotics pose the greatest measurement obstacles. Some Crime Stoppers programs record the street value of narcotics recovered while others record the wholesale value. Furthermore, these values vary substantially from one region of the country to the next and from one agency to the next. (DEA guidelines are not always followed.) As a consequence, there exists no standardization of measurement in this area, and therefore, no statistical reliability. The value placed on other types of property may be more reliable, but most Crime Stoppers programs combine these figures with narcotics figures to produce a single measure of the total value of property recovered. Hence, none of the available information is useful for a comparative analysis. Furthermore, in terms of rewarding productivity, these recovery statistics strongly favor Crime Stoppers programs in the southwest and southeast which handle a disproportionately large volume of narcotics cases. We suggest that separate recovery figures be kept for narcotics and non-narcotics property crimes, and that efforts be made to standardize the assessed value of narcotics. If more reliable measurement can be achieved, then useful indicators of cost-effectiveness could be developed (e.g. value of property recovered divided by the amount of rewards paid or cases solved).
- o Convictions - Crime Stoppers International reports that 96 percent of the Crime Stoppers cases prosecuted result in conviction. Unfortunately, the meaningfulness of such conviction data is

questionable. Some programs report the number of defendants convicted, while others report the number of counts on which a particular defendant was convicted. Perhaps the biggest problem with conviction data is that much of the information reported is based on rough police estimates rather than actual court decisions. The problem is that most Crime Stoppers programs do not have easy access to conviction data (63% of our national sample offered no conviction data) and, therefore, do not compile accurate statistics on a routine basis. The guesswork involved may explain why the 96 percent conviction rate is substantially higher than the conviction rate for felony crimes in general. Although conviction rates for felony cases tried in the United States vary substantially by jurisdiction, most of the cities studied recently show rates between 64 and 77 percent (Boland, 1983). In any event, there is much room for improvement in this area.

As an overall comment on measurement issues, we cannot fault the many programs that have conscientiously attempted to keep accurate statistics on what they feel are the best available measures of program productivity. Two problems with the current state of affairs are the unreliability of commonly used indicators of productivity and the limited amount of record keeping that exists for a substantial number of programs.

To summarize, we are suggesting that more individualized productivity measures be employed that do a better job of controlling for major differences in population, crime, and program resources -- factors that are likely to affect outcomes in an unfair way. To illustrate the direction of our thinking, we have developed and used a number of performance measures that divide by the number of Part I crimes reported to the police. In some cases, we have used the size of the population served as our denominator.

G. ISSUES AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings described in this report, coupled with the numerous meetings, interviews, and site visits experiences we have had throughout the course of the two-year evaluation, have spawned a variety of issues, policy recommendations, and general observations. Hopefully, these observations will have practical significance for the operations of, and the relationships within and between the three elements of Crime Stoppers: Law Enforcement, Board of Directors, and the Media.

Law Enforcement

- o A sizeable percentage of Crime Stoppers programs need more staff both to stimulate community awareness through outreach activities and to manage the day-to-day activities within the department.
- o Selecting a highly motivated coordinator with the unusual balance of skills in public relations, investigations, and program management is a critical task.
- o The coordinator's level of involvement in the community and job satisfaction (which go hand-in-hand) seem to be important predictors of program success that should not go unnoticed. Coordinators should make a concerted effort to get out into the community. Speaking engagements can stimulate public awareness of the program, which may have a number of effects, including more calls, more contributions, more public acceptance/support, and possibly greater deterrence of crime.
- o Several groups apparently are in need of better and more extensive training with respect to the program: (a) patrol officers on the street; (b) communications personnel who handle after-hours calls, and (c) civilian volunteers.
- o The initial processing of Crime Stoppers calls lays the groundwork for the successful creation and pursuit of a criminal investigation. Moreover, the forwarding of quality (i.e. workable) information increases the probability of arrest, and enhances the credibility of the program among investigators. Thus, proper interviewing techniques must be established so that interviewers obtain critical information on the initial (and oftentimes only) call. In

addition, the staff must be extremely careful to avoid either under-screening or over-screening potential cases (problems we have observed). The former leads to weak or useless information that is offensive to investigators, whereas the latter impinges upon the investigators expertise and responsibility.

- o To maintain accountability for Crime Stoppers cases, programs should consider establishing (a) a follow-up form that would be completed by investigators assigned to the case, (b) a tickler file to remind staff about delinquent cases, and (c) a departmental policy that requires investigators to cooperate fully with the program. Although personal contact with individual detectives is useful for maintaining rapport, accountability issues should be handled through the chain-of-command, with investigations supervisors being required to do follow-up work for the program.
- o Top-down support from law enforcement administrators is essential for addressing most of the problem areas identified above. This support should translate into better and more adequate staffing, written directives, greater cooperation from investigators, greater visibility for the program, and a general atmosphere of support. Because Crime Stoppers is a community program and not just a law enforcement program, in some cities the Board of Directors and the media have been successful at changing attitudes about the program among local law enforcement executives.
- o Program recordkeeping practices generally leave much room for improvement. Key variables related to program operations and effectiveness are often unreliably measured or sporadically documented. There is a need to develop nationally-accepted standards for measuring performance -- standards that are fair to most programs regardless of the size of the population served or the volume of crime reported to the police. The most popular productivity statistics used today (such as the number of cases solved, the amount of property and narcotics recovered, and the number of convictions), are either unreliable or systematically biased. However, improvement in certain of these measures is possible by using more precise definitions and by correcting for the volume of crime in the community.
- o Crime Stoppers staff seem to have less internal difficulty if their program is situated within or closely associated with the investigative units of

Police Departments. Creating a physical or psychological distance from investigators can be highly detrimental to program operations. Programs relegated to units that are far removed from the investigative aspect of police work are more likely to experience an uphill struggle for acceptance within an agency. By the same token, police coordinators must strive to foster and perpetuate a strong working relationship with investigations.

- o Police Chiefs, Deputy Chiefs, and other members of the administrative upper echelon play a pivotal role in creating an atmosphere of legitimacy for the program. The "true" sentiments of administrators are readily conveyed in lukewarm directives calling for the support of Crime Stoppers. Because it is frequently viewed as an unproven commodity, department heads must actively campaign to insure the unencumbered development of the program. Thus, it is imperative that in the early stages of implementation, officers are offered incentives for their participation in Crime Stoppers. To further increase acceptance, "success stories" should be regularly publicized, and investigators must be frequently shown that the achievements of the program enhance (rather than deflate) the recognition they receive for their personal investigative efforts.
- o Training civilians to properly screen calls should be a priority. Volunteers who are exposed to courses in investigatory, interrogating, and interviewing techniques would be an extremely valuable asset to Crime Stoppers. This type of supplementary training may be a good avenue for improving the solvability ratings of Crime Stoppers cases, and thereby enhancing the willingness of investigators to cooperate with and to utilize the program. In addition, members of the Police Department's communications unit should be trained to accept Crime Stoppers calls after program hours. Critical evening and weekend calls can be "lost" because informants are likely to become discouraged by frequent "no answers" or inappropriate questioning.

The Board of Directors

- o Given that a board member's willingness to work hard for the program is one of the best predictors of fundraising success, board's must insure that they have the ability to screen out individuals who do not have the necessary motivation to help the program. Creating by-laws which automatically drop members who miss consecutive meetings has been

successful at screening out non-contributing members. Boards should also consider establishing specific responsibilities for board members. We recognize that some board members are really honorary members and programs will need to develop rules and regulations that take this into account.

- o Boards should attempt to allocate work more evenly among board members. Not only does this seem to result in more effective fundraising, but it should help to alleviate widespread concern about "burnout" among the hardest-working board members.
- o Fundraising is the most critical function of the board, and we should not be surprised that there is no single fundraising strategy or technique that is guaranteed to work for all Crime Stoppers programs. Boards should recognize that techniques differ in their cost-effectiveness and may be used to serve different purposes. For example, mail solicitations are much more cost-effective than in-person contacts with business, although the latter will raise as much money and may benefit the program in other ways. In addition, fundraising programs must be tailored to the characteristics and needs of the community.

Hundreds of approaches to fundraising have been tried with varying degrees of success. These experiences should be shared and exchanged by means of statewide, regional, and national associations. Trying new strategies is also a good way to avoid burnout. Boards should consider recruiting local fundraising experts as board members. Fundraising is not just a chance event - - it is a combination of knowledge and effort applied to a specific community.

- o To avoid repeated disagreements, boards should consider developing and applying objective guidelines for making judgments about the size of informant rewards. Some programs, for example, assign points or weights to various dimensions of a particular case (e.g., crime severity, victim impact, amount of property recovered, risks encountered by informants), and combine these factor scores to yield a total that recommends a specific reward or range of rewards. However, these formulas should be reviewed and perhaps revealed in light of the findings from the Reward Experiment.

The Media

- o Given that the number of media outlets does not predict a community's level of success, we suspect that the quality of the relationship between the media and other components of the program is what makes a difference. In fact, overall ratings of media cooperativeness were associated with program productivity. Thus, law enforcement and board members should work on strengthening existing relationships, as well as creating new relationships.
- o In order to minimize problems with the media, their involvement should be sought very early in the program planning process. However, obtaining initial media cooperation can be difficult, especially in larger population centers. Strategies for approaching the media can be obtained from cities that have developed strong relationships.
- o Media competition for Crime Stoppers in larger urban areas can create a difficult situation for all parties. Media exclusivity has both advantages and disadvantages for the program. If possible, Crime Stoppers should seek to expand the audience for the benefit of public safety. This has been successfully performed in some cities. However, in some cases, the cost to the the program may be too great to break up an exclusive relationship.

General Observations

- o The Impact Study in Indianapolis taught us that Crime Stoppers can be very effective at stimulating awareness of the program among law enforcement officers, business persons, and city residents. However, we must be careful not to expect too much in the way of changes in attitudes and behavior over a relatively short period of time.
- o When planning training seminars for Crime Stoppers programs, the state, regional, and national organizers should keep in mind that most programs are relatively small, serving populations under 100,000. The relationships, needs, resources, etc. are quite different than would be found in larger urban areas.
- o To avoid the problems and issues that often arise between different components of the program, (e.g. meeting deadlines, disclosing case information, sharing responsibilities), every effort should be made to maintain open channels of communication between the media, law enforcement, and the board.

This includes an open discussion of mutual expectations, policies and problems.

- o The Reward Experiment in Lake County has taught us that reward size is not as important to most informants as we think it is. The findings suggest that the usual advice of "when in doubt, pay more" may not be appropriate. Even 100 dollars is enough to keep most informants very satisfied, regardless of the circumstances of the case.
- o Since Crime Stoppers inception, a number of legal questions and debates have arisen with regard to its organization, operations, and staff. Some of the major concerns in this domain include:
 - (a) protecting Crime Stoppers' personnel from criminal and civil liability with regard to such claims as false arrest and imprisonment, defamation of character, invasion of privacy, violations of civil rights, breach of contract, illegal fundraising activities, and the misappropriation and unauthorized use of protected properties;
 - (b) establishing the credibility of paid informants as witnesses and as a supportable source of probable cause for arrests, searches and seizures;
 - and (c) upholding the privilege of maintaining the anonymity of informants.

It is essential that Crime Stoppers staff at all levels stay abreast of these legal issues, and are adequately equipped to make effective responses to potential challenges and law suits. The best preparation is via formalized training and education. Also, staff should be encouraged to become conversant with precedential cases, and to attend seminars and conferences which focus on the legalistic aspects of program functioning. Other hedges against harmful litigation involve the incorporation of programs, the invocation of government immunity, the purchasing of insurance, the utilization of waivers, releases, and other legal instruments, the solicitation of legal counsel, and the conscientious documentation of decisions and correspondence which may contain legalistic implications and consequences.

- o In most programs, the occurrence of calls reaches a peak in the hours and days immediately succeeding the broadcast of the "Crime of the Week". Hence, it be advisable that phone coverage during these times be expanded.
- o Creating state-wide programs through legislation has the advantage of assuring that the program will have

sufficient staffing and finances to provide support, training, and technical assistance. However, instituting a state-wide program in this manner increases the likelihood that such efforts will become politicized. States considering the formation of a state-wide program will have to weigh the costs and benefits of alternative program structures.

REFERENCES

- Aderman, D. (1972). Elation, depression, and helping behavior. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 24, 91-101.
- Allen, H. (1972). Bystander intervention and helping on the subway. In L. Bickman & T. Henchy (eds.) Beyond the laboratory: field research in social psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Amir, M. (1971). Patterns in Forcible Rape. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Anderson, R., Manoogian, S., & Reznick, J. (1976). Undermining and enhancing of intrinsic motivation in pre-school children. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 34, 915-922.
- Atkinson, J.W. (1964). An Introduction to Motivation. New Jersey: Van Nostrand.
- Austin, W. (1979). Sex Differences in bystander intervention in a theft. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37, 2110-2120.
- Bard, M. & Sangrey, D. (1979). The Crime Victim's Book. New York: Basic Books.
- Bar-Tal, D. (1976). Prosocial behavior: Theory and research. New York: Halstead.
- Batson, C.D., Coke, J.S., Jasnosky, M.L., & Hanson, M. (1978). Buying Kindness: Effect of an extrinsic incentive for helping on perceived altruism. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 4, 86-91.
- Bem, D.J. (1972). Self perception theory. In L. Berkowitz (ed.) Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, (Vol. 6). New York: Academic Press.
- Bickman, L. (1969). The effect of the presence of others on bystander intervention in an emergency. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The City University of New York.
- Bickman, L. (1971). The effect of another bystander's ability to help on bystander intervention in an emergency. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1, 367-379.
- Bickman, L. (1975). Bystander intervention in a crime: The effect of a mass media campaign. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 5, 296-302.
- Bickman, L., Edwards, J., Lavrakas, P.J. & Green, S. (1977). National evaluation program phase 1 summary report: Citizen Crime Reporting Projects. United States Department of Justice: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration.

- Bickman, L. & Green, S. (1977). Is revenge sweet? The effect of attitude toward a thief on crime reporting. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 2, 101-112.
- Bickman, L. & Green, S. (1977). Situational cues and crime reporting: Do signs make a difference? Journal of Applied Psychology, 7, 1-18.
- Bickman, L. & Kamzan, M. (1975). The effect of race and need on helping behavior. Journal of Social Psychology, 89, 73-77.
- Bickman, L. & Rosenbaum, D.P. (1977). Crime reporting as a function of bystander encouragement, surveillance, and credibility. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 35, 577-586.
- Biderman, A.d. & Reiss, A.J., Sr. (1967). On exploring the 'Dark Figure' of crime. Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science, 374, 1-15.
- Black, H.C. (1968). Black's law dictionary. St. Paul, Minnesota: West Publishing Company.
- Black, D.J. (1970). Production of crime rates. American Sociological Review, 35, 733-748.
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (1983). Report to the Nation on Crime and Justice: The data. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Burgess, A., & Holmstrom, L. (1979). Rape: Sexual disruption and recovery. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 49, 658-669.
- Calder, B.J & Straw, B.M. (1975). Self-perception of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 31, 599-605.
- de Charms, R. (1968). Personal causation: The internal affective determinants of behavior. New York: Academic Press.
- Clark, R.D. & Word, L.E. (1972). Why don't bystanders help? Because of ambiguity? Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 24, 392-400.
- Clark, R.D., & Word, L.E. (1974). Where is the apathetic bystander? Situational characteristics of the emergency. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 29, 279-287.
- Clevenger, M. (1980). Personal norms as a type of intrinsic motivation. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Wisconsin-Madison.

- Comstock, G. (1982). Violence in television content: An overview. In D. Pearl, L. Bouthilet, & J. Lazar (eds.) Television and Behavior (Vol. 2, pp. 108-125). Rockville, M.D.: National Institute of Mental Health.
- Cook, T.D., Kendzierski, D.A. & Thomas, S.V. (1983). The implicit assumptions of television research. Public Opinion Quarterly, 47, 161-201.
- Danner, F. W., & Lonky, E. (1981). A cognitive-developmental approach to the effects of rewards on intrinsic motivation. Child Development, 52, 1043-1052.
- Darley, J.M. & Latane, B. (1968). Bystander intervention in emergencies: Diffusion of responsibility. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 8, 377-383.
- Darley, J.M. & Batson, C.D. (1973). From Jerusalem to Jericho : A study of situational and dispositional variables in helping behavior. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 27, 100-108.
- Darley, J.M., Teger, A.I. & Lewis, L.D. (1973). Do groups always inhibit individuals' responses to potential emergencies? Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 26, 395-399.
- Deci, E.L. (1971). Effects of externally mediated rewards on intrinsic motivation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 18, 105-115.
- Deci, E.L. (1972). The effects of contingent and non-contingent rewards and controls on intrinsic motivation. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 8, 217-229.
- Deci, E.L. & Porac, J. (1978). Cognitive evaluation theory and the study of human motivation. In David Greene and Mark R. Lepper (eds.) The Hidden Costs of Reward: New Perspectives on the Psychology of Human Motivation. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.
- Deci, E.L. & Ryan, R.M. (1980). The empirical exploration of intrinsic motivational process. In L. Berkowitz (ed.), Advances in experimental social psychology (Vol. 13). New York: Academic Press.
- Dienstbier, R.A. & Leak, G. (1976). Effects of monetary reward on maintenance of weight loss: an extension of the overjustification effect. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Psychology Association, Washington, D.C.
- Doob, A.N. & MacDonald, G.E. (1979). Television viewing and the fear of victimization. Journal of Personal and Social Psychology, 37, 170-179.

- Eck, John E. (1983). Solving Crimes: The Investigation of Burglary and Robbery. Police Executive Research Forum, Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice/U.S. Dept. of Justice.
- Emswiller, T., Deaux, K. & Willits, J.E. (1971). Similarity, sex and requests for small favors. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 1, 284-291.
- Ennis, P. (1967). Crime victims and the police. Trans-Action, 4, 36-44.
- Enzle, M.E. & Ross, J.M. (1978). Increasing and decreasing intrinsic interest with contingent rewards: A test of cognitive evaluation theory. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 14, 588-597.
- Festinger, L., Pepitone, A. & Newcomb, T. (1952). Some consequences of deindividuation in a group. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 47, 382-389.
- Frederick, C. (1980). Effects of natural vs. human-induced violence upon victims. In L. Kirens (ed.), Evaluation and Change: Service for Survivors. (pp. 71-75). Minnesota: Minneapolis Medical Research Foundation.
- Fischer, C.T. (1977). Unpublished research interviews with victims of crime. Duquesne University, 1977.
- Fischer, C.T. & Wertz, F.J. (1979). Empirical phenomenological analyses of being criminally victimized. In Giorgi, A., Knowles, R. & Smith, D.L. (eds.), Duquesne Studies in Phenomenological Psychology (Vol. 3, pp. 135-158). Pennsylvania: Duquesne University Press.
- Flanagan, T.J., Hindeland, M.J. & Gottfredson, M.R. (eds.). Sourcebook of criminal justice statistics - 1979. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office.
- Gelfand, D.M., Hartmann, D.P., Walder, P. & Page, B. (1973). Who reports shoplifters? A field-experimental study. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 25, 276-285.
- Glass, D.C. (1964). Changes in liking as a means of reducing cognitive discrepancies between self-esteem and aggression. Journal of Personality, 32, 531-549.
- Goodstein, L., & Shotland, R.L. (1982). The crime causes crime model: A critical review of the relationships between fear of crime, bystander surveillance, and changes in the crime rate. Victimology, 5, 133-151.
- Gore, P.M. & Rotter, J.B. (1963). A personality correlate of social action. Journal of Personality, 31, 58-64.

- Greenberg, Martin S., Ruback & R. Barry (1982). Social psychology of the criminal justice system. California: Brooks/Cole.
- Greenberg, M.S., Ruback, R.B. & Westcott, D.R. (1983). Decision making by crime victims. A multimethod approach. Law and Society Review, 17, 47-84.
- Greenberg, Martin S. & Ruback, R. Barry (1984). Criminal victimization: Introduction and overview. Journal of Social Issues, 40, 1-18.
- Greene, D. & Lepper, M.R. (1974). Effects of extrinsic rewards on children's subsequent intrinsic interest. Child Development, 45, 1141-1145.
- Greenwood, P., Petersilia, J. & Chaiken, J. (1977). The criminal investigation process. Lexington, Massachusetts: D.C. Heath.
- Griffin, S. (1973). Rape: The all-American crime. Ramparts, 10, 26-35.
- Harackiewicz, J. (1979). The effects of rewards contingency and performance feedback on intrinsic motivation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37, 1352-1363.
- Hawkins, R.O. (1973). Who called the cops? Decisions to report criminal victimization. Law and Society Review, 7, 427-444.
- Himmelfarb, Samuel (1980). Reporting and nonreporting of observed crimes: moral judgments of the act and actor. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 10, 56-70.
- Hindelang, M.J. & Gottfredson, M. (1976). The victim's decision not to invoke the criminal justice process. In W.F. McDonald (ed.) Criminal justice and the victim, California : Sage.
- Hindelang, M.J. & Davis, B.J. (1977). Forcible rape in the United States: A statistical profile. In D. Chappel, R. Geis & G. Geis (eds.), Forcible Rape: The Crime, The Victim, and the Offender. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Horgan, J.J. (1974). Criminal investigation. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hornstein, H.A. (1970). The influence of social models on helping. In J. Maccaillay and L. Berkowitz (eds.), Altruism and Helping Behavior. New York: Academic Press.
- House, J.S. & Wolf, S. (1978). Effects of urban residence on interpersonal trust and helping behavior. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 36, 1029-1043.
- Hughes, M. (1980). The fruits of cultivation analysis: A reexamination of some effects of television viewing. Public Opinion Quarterly, 44, 287-302.

- Huston, T.L. & Korte, C. (1975). The responsive bystander: Why he helps. In T. Lickona (ed.), Morality: A handbook of moral development and behavior. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Huston, T.H., Ruggiero, M., Conneri, R. & Geis, G. (1981). Bystander intervention into crime: a study based on naturally-occurring episodes. Social Psychology Quarterly, 44, 14-23.
- Isen, A.M. (1970). Success, failure, attention and reactions to others: The warm glow of success. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45, 294-301.
- Isen, A.M. & Levin, P.F. (1972). Effect of feeling good on helping: Cookies and kindness. Journal of Personality and Social Behavior, 21, 384-388.
- Isen, A.M., Horn, N. & Rosenhan, D.L. (1973). Effects of success and failure on children's generosity. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 27, 239-247.
- Isen, A.M., Clark, M. & Schwartz, M.F. (1976). Duration of the effect of good mood on helping: Footprints on the sands of time. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 34, 385-393.
- Jones, E.E. & Nisbett, R.E. (1972). The actor and observer: divergent perceptions of the causes of behavior. In E.E. Jones, D.E. Kanouse, H.H. Kelley, R.E. Nisbett, S. Valins & B. Weiner (eds.), Attribution: Perceiving the causes of behavior. New Jersey : General Learning Press, 1972.
- Karniol, R. & Ross, M. (1977). The effects of performance-relevant and performance-irrelevant rewards on children's intrinsic motivation. Child Development, 48, 482-487.
- Kidd, Robert F. & Chayet, Ellen F. (1984). Why do victims fail to report? The psychology of criminal victimization. Journal of Social Issues, 40, 39-50.
- Klapper, J.T. (1960). The effects of mass communications. New York: Free Press.
- Klein, L., Luxenberg, J., King, M. & Gilbert, K. (1983). Reach out and bust someone: The evolution of Crime Stoppers Programs. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Society of Criminology, Denver, Colorado.
- Knudten, R.D., Knudten, M.S., Meade, A. & Doerner, W. (1975). Citizen victimization as a characteristic of the crime and the criminal justice system. Unpublished manuscript, Marquette University.
- Knudten, R.D., Meade, A.C., Knudten, M. & Doerner, W. (1976). The victim in the administration of justice: Problems and perceptions. In W.F. McDonald (ed.), Criminal Justice and the Victim. California : Sage.

- Knudten, R.D., Meade, A.C., Knudten, M.S. & Doerner, W.G. (1977). Victims and Witnesses: Their experience with Crime and the Criminal Justice System. (Executive Summary). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Korte, C. (1971). Effects of individual responsibility and group communication on help-giving in an emergency. Human Relations, 24, 149-149.
- Korte, C. & Kerr, N. (1975). Response to altruistic opportunities in urban and non-urban settings. Journal of Social Psychology, 95, 183-184.
- Krebs, D. (1975). Empathy and altruism. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 32, 1134-1146.
- Kunda & Schwartz (1983). Undermining intrinsic moral motivation: external reward and self-presentation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45, 763-771.
- La Fave, W.R. (1978). Search and seizure: A treatise on the Fourth Amendment. St. Paul, Minnesota: West Press.
- Latane, B. & Darley, J.M. (1968). Group inhibition of bystander intervention. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 10, 215-221.
- Latane, B. & Dabbs, J.M. (1975). Sex, group size, and helping in three cities. Sociometry, 38, 180-194.
- Latane, B. & Darley, J.M. (1969). Bystander apathy. American Scientist, 57, 244-268.
- Latane, B. & Darley, J.M. (1970). The unresponsive bystander: why doesn't he help? New York: Appleton-Century-Croft.
- Latane, B. & Darley, J.M. (1976). Help In a Crisis: Bystander Response to an Emergency. New Jersey : General Learning Press.
- Latane, B. & Nida, R. (1981). Ten years of research on group size and helping. Psychological Bulletin, 89, No. 2, 308-325.
- Latane, B. & Rodin, J. (1969). A lady in distress: inhibiting effects of friends and strangers on bystander intervention. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 5, 189-202.
- Lavrakas, P.J., Rosenbaum, D.P. & Kaminski, F. (1983). Transmitting information about crime and crime prevention to citizens: The Evanston Newsletter quasi-experiment. Journal of Police Science and Administration, 11, 463-473.

- Lepper, M.R., Greene, D. & Nisbett, R.E. (1973). Undermining children's intrinsic interest with extrinsic rewards: A test of the "overjustification" hypothesis. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 28, 129-137.
- MacAleese, G. & Tily, H.C. (1983). Crime Stoppers Manual. Albuquerque, New Mexico: Crime Stoppers International.
- Maccoby, N. & Solomon, D. (1981). The Stanford community studies in health promotion. In R. Rice & W. Paisley (eds.), Public communication campaigns. California, Sage.
- McKenna, R.H. (1976). Good samaritanism in rural and urban settings: A nonreactive comparison of helping behavior of clergy and control subjects. Representative Research in Social Psychology, 7, 58-65.
- McLoyd, V.C. (1979). The effects of extrinsic rewards of differential value on high and low intrinsic interest. Child Development, 50, 1010-1019.
- Merrens, M.R. (1973). Non-emergency helping behavior in various sized communities. Journal of Social Psychology, 90, 327-328.
- Midlarsky, E. (1968). Aiding responses: An analysis and review. Merril Palmer Quarterly, 14, 229-260.
- Milgram, S. (1970). The experience of living in cities. Science, 167, 1461-1468.
- Miller, A.G. (1977). Actor and observer perceptions of the learning of a task. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 11, 95-111.
- Moriarty, T. (1975). Crime, commitment and the responsive bystander: Two field experiments. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 31, 370-376.
- Moss, M.K. & Page, R.A. (1972). Reinforcement and helping behavior. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 2, 360-371.
- Moylan, C.E. (1974). Hearsay and probable cause: An Aquilar and Sprinelli primer. Mercer Law Review, 25, 741-786.
- Mussen, P. & Eisenberg-Berg, N. (1977) Roots of Caring, Sharing and Helping. San Francisco: W.H. Freeman.
- O'Hara, C.E. (1976). Fundamentals of criminal investigation. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thoms.
- O'Keefe, G.J. (1983). The persuasive impact of a crime prevention information campaign. Presented at the 91st Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association at Anaheim, CA.

- O'Keefe, G.J. The "McGruff" National Media Campaign: Is Public Impact and Future Implications. (1986) In D.P. Rosenbaum (Ed.) Community crime prevention: Does it work?. California : Sage.
- Piliavin, J.A. & Piliavin, I.M. (1972). Effect of blood on reaction to a victim. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 23, 353-361.
- Piliavin, I.M., Rodin, J. & Piliavin J.A. (1969). Good samaritanism: An underground phenomenon? Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 13, 289-299.
- Pinder, C.C. (1976). Additivity versus nonadditivity of intrinsic and extrinsic incentives: implications for work motivation, performance, and attitudes. Journal of Applied Psychology, 61, 693-700.
- Pittman, T.S., Cooper, E.E. & Smith, T.W. (1977). Attribution of causality and the overjustification effect. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 3, 280-283.
- Reese, J.T. (1980). Motivations of criminal informants. FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 15, 6, 23-27.
- Rosenbaum, D.P. (Ed.) (1986). Community Crime Prevention: Does it work?. California : Sage.
- Rosenbaum, D.P. & Lurigio, A.J. (1985). "Crime Stoppers: Paying the Price." Psychology Today, June, 56-61.
- Ross, A.S. (1971). Effect of increased responsibility on bystander intervention: The presence of children. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 19, 306-310.
- Ross, A.S. & Braband, J. (1973). Effect of increased responsibility on bystander intervention: II. The cue value of a blind person. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 25, 254-258.
- Ross, M. (1975). Salience of reward and intrinsic motivation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 32, 245-254.
- Ruback, R. Barry, Greenberg, Martin S. & Westcott, David R. (1984). Social influence and crime-victim decision making. Journal of Social Issues, 40, 51-76.
- Rushton, J.P. (1978). Urban density and altruism: Helping strangers in a Canadian city, suburb, and small town. Psychological Reports, 43, 989-990.
- Ryan, R.M., Mims, V. & Koestner, R. (1983). Relation of reward contingency motivation: A review and test using cognitive evaluation theory and interpersonal context to intrinsic motivation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45, 736-750.

- Shaffer, D.R., Roget, M. & Hendrick, D. (1975). Intervention in the library: The effect of increased responsibility on bystanders willingness to prevent a theft. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 5, 303-319.
- Schaps, E. (1972). Cost, dependency, and helping. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 21, 74-78.
- Schwartz, S.H. (1977). Normative influences on altruism. In L. Berkowitz (ed.) Advances in Experimental Social Psychology (Vol. 10). New York: Academic Press, pp. 222-279.
- Schwartz, S.H. & Gottlieb, A. (1976) Bystander reactions to a violent theft: Crime in Jerusalem. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 34, 1188-1199.
- Schwarz, L., Jennings, K., Petrillo, J. & Kidd, R.F. (1980). Role of commitments in the decision to stop a theft. Journal of Social Psychology, 10, 183-192.
- Seedman, A.A. & Hellman, P. (1975). Chief. New York: Avon Books.
- Shotland, L.R. & Stebbins, C.A. (1980). Bystander response to rape: can a victim attract help? Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 10, 510-517.
- Shotland, Lance R. & Goodstein, Lynne I. (1984). The role of bystanders in crime control. Journal of Social Issues, 40, 9-26.
- Skogan, W.G. (1975). Citizen reporting of crime: Some national panel data. Unpublished manuscript.
- Skogan, W.G. & Maxfield, M.G. (1981). Coping with crime: Individual and neighborhood reactions. California: Sage.
- Smith, D. & Visher, C.A. (1981). Street level justice: Situational determinants of police arrest and decisions. Social Problems, 29, 169-177.
- Solomon, L.Z., Solomon, H. & Stone, R. (1978). Helping as a function of number of bystanders and ambiguity of emergency. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 4, 318-321.
- Staub, E. (1970). A child in distress: The influence of age and number of witnesses on children's attempts to help. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 14, 130-140.
- Staub, E. (1974). Helping a distressed person: Social, personality, and stimulus determinants. In L. Berkowitz (ed.) Advances in Experimental Social Psychology (Vol. 7). New York: Academic Press.

- Staw, B.M., Calder, B.J., Hess, R.K. & Sandelands, L.E. (1980). Intrinsic motivation and norms about payments. Journal of Personality, 48, 1-14.
- Suedfeld, P., Bochner, S. & Wnek, D. (1972). Helper-sufferer similarity and a specific request for help: Bystander intervention during a peace demonstration. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 2, 17-23.
- Swann, W.B. & Pittman, T.S. (1977). Initiating play activity of children: The moderating influence of verbal cues on intrinsic motivation. Child Development, 48, 1128-1132.
- Takooshian, H., Haber, S. & Lucido, D.J. (1977). Who wouldn't help a lost child? You maybe. Psychology Today, 88, 67-68.
- Thomas, G.C., Batson, C.D & Coke, J.S. (1981). Do good samaritans discourage helpfulness? Self-perceived altruism after exposure to highly helpful others. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 40, 194-200.
- Tyler, T.R. (1978). Drawing inferences from experiences: the effect of crime victimization experiences upon crime-related attitudes and behaviors. Unpublished dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles.
- Tyler, T.R. (1984). Assessing the risk of crime victimization: the integration of personal victimization experience and socially transmitted information. Journal of Social Issues, 40, 27-38.
- Tyler, T. R. & Cook, F.L. (1984). The mass media and judgments of risk: Distinguishing impact on personal and societal level judgments. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 47, 693-708.
- Uranowitz, S.W. (1975). Helping and self-attributions: A field experiment. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 31, 852-854.
- Van Kirk, M. (1978). Response Time Analysis (Executive Summary). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Wagner, C. & Wheeler, L. (1969). Model, need and cost effects in helping behavior. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 12, 111-116.
- Walster, E. & Piliavin, J.A. (1972). Equity and the innocent bystander. Journal of Social Issues, 28, 165-189.
- Webster, W. (1981). Uniform crime reports for the United States, 1980. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

- Weiner, M.J., & Mander, A.M. (1978). The effects of reward and perception of competency upon intrinsic motivation. Motivation and Emotion, 2, 67-73.
- Weis, K. & Weis, S. (1975). Victimology and the justification of rape. In I. Drapkin & E. Vaino (eds.) Victimology: A New Focus (Vol. 3). Massachusetts: Lexington Books.
- Weston, P.B. & Wells, K.M. (1970). Criminal investigation -- Basic perspectives. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Weyant, J.M. (1978). Effects of mood states, costs, and benefits on helping. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 36, 1169-1176.
- Wilson, J.P. (1976). Motivation, modeling, and altruism: A person situation analysis. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 34, 1078-1086.
- Wilson, J.Q. (1968). Varieties of police behavior. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.
- Wilson, T.D., Hull, J.G. & Johnson, J. (1981). Awareness and self-perception: Verbal reports on internal states. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 40, 53-71.
- Wispe, L. & Freshley, H. (1971). Race, sex, sympathetic helping behavior: The broken bag caper. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 17, 59-65.
- Zimbardo, P.G. (1969). The human choice: Individuation, reason and order versus deindividuation, impulse, and chaos. In W.J. Arnold & D. Levine (eds.), Nebraska symposium on motivation (Vol. 17). Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press.
- Zuckerman, M., Lazzaro, M.M. & Waldgeir, D. (1979). Undermining effects of the foot-in-the-door technique with extrinsic rewards. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 9, 292-296.

Appendix A

Telephone Screening Interview

Telephone Screening Survey

National Evaluation of Crime Stoppers

Hello, my name is _____ from Northwestern University. I'm calling long distance to speak with the COORDINATOR of your Crime Stoppers Program.

- A. IF COORDINATOR NOT AVAILABLE ASK FOR ASSISTANT COORDINATOR.
 - B. IF THERE IS NO ASSISTANT COORDINATOR OF IF HE/SHE IS NOT AVAILABLE ASK FOR CRIME STOPPERS SECRETARY.
 - C. IF NONE OF THE ABOVE CAN BE REACHED ASK IF THERE IS A PERSON AVAILABLE WHO KNOWS ABOUT THE PROGRAM AND CAN ANSWER A FEW IMPORTANT QUESTIONS.
 - D. IF PROGRAM NO LONGER OPERATIONAL, SKIP TO Q26.
 - E. IF PROGRAM NOT YET OPERATIONAL, SKIP TO Q28.
 - F. IF NO RESPONDENT AVAILABLE NOW, BUT IS AVAILABLE LATER TODAY, ASK HIM/HER TO CALL YOU BACK: (312) 492-5685
- IF NO RESPONDENT AVAILABLE TODAY, DETERMINE WHEN YOU CAN CALL BACK TO REACH HIM/HER. GET ASSURANCE THAT HE/SHE WILL BE THERE WHEN YOU CALL BACK.

CIRCLE A-F
(7)

IF SPEAKING WITH ONE OF THE CORRECT PERSONS, PROCEED:

We are conducting a nation-wide study of all Crime Stoppers programs for the National Institute of Justice to identify factors that contribute to the success of these programs. We are working with the cooperation of Crime Stoppers USA, and with the assistance of Greg McAleese and Coleman Tily. The reason we are calling you today is to confirm some basic information about your program.

PROCEED TO Q1

1. First, I'd like to confirm the official name of your program. (CHECK NAME ON IRF).
2. Now, I would like to confirm the mailing address of your program. Are you still located at (CHECK ADDRESS ON IRF).
3. We need the correct spelling of the coordinator's name (CHECK NAME ON IRF). IF COORDINATOR IS RESPONDENT SKIP TO Q5
4. We also need the correct spelling of your name _____.
5. We need to confirm the name, address, and phone number of the chairman of your Board of Directors (CHECK IRF).

6. How long has your program been operational; that is, when did you start accepting calls? Month _____ Year _____. (8-11)

Not accepting calls yet....2222 (SKIP TO Q28)

7. Is your program best described as a

State-wide program, 5

County-wide program, 4

City-wide urban program, 3

Community-wide suburban program, or 2

Rural program ? 1

OTHER (specify) _____ 7

DON'T KNOW 8

(12)

8. What is the total size of the population served by your program (approximately)? _____ (13-20)

9. How many calls does your program receive per month that result in new cases? _____ (21-24)

10. How much does the board usually authorize in total reward money per month? _____ (25-29)

** I would now like to ask you some questions about the participation of the media in your program.

11. How many newspapers, and radio and television stations participate in your program (approximately)? _____ (30-32)

_____ Newspapers _____ Radio Stations

(33-40)

_____ Cable T.V. Stations _____ Network T.V. Stations

(IF NONE, SKIP TO Q14)

12. Do any of your local media carry the crime of the week? (41)

Yes 1

No 2

13. We are planning to study the role of the media as part of our national evaluation of crime stoppers. In order to do this, we need the names, addresses, and phone numbers of contact persons from the media who work with your program. Could you please send us a list of this information for all publishing companies and T.V. and radio stations. (CLARIFY WHAT INFORMATION IS NEEDED -- NAME, ADDRESS, PHONE NUMBER.) I'll give you the address:

Crime Stoppers Evaluation
Center for Urban Affairs
Northwestern University
Evanston, Illinois 60201 (SKIP TO Q15)

14. How do you publicize your crimes? _____

15. What evidence do you use to measure the success of your program?

- a. _____ [] (42)
b. _____ [] (43)
c. _____ [] (44)
d. _____ [] (45)
e. _____ [] (46)

16. Do you keep records in these areas? (ASK ABOUT EACH - CHECK BOX NEXT TO THOSE WITH RECORDS)

17. How can you tell a "very good" Crime Stoppers Program from one that is not as good?

- a. _____
b. _____
c. _____

18. Are you aware of any communities that have started a Crime Stoppers Program recently -- say in the last 6 to 8 months -- or communities that are thinking about starting a program?

Yes 1

No 2 (SKIP TO Q22)

(47)

19. We'd like to identify all new programs or any that are currently in the planning stages. How many new programs are you aware of?
_____ (IF MORE THAN 5, SKIP TO Q21)

(48-50)

20. We need the city, contact person, and phone number of these new programs. If you have this information handy, I'll take it down over the phone.

	City/State	Contact Person	Phone Number
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			

(SKIP TO Q22)

21. Would you please send us the names and phone numbers of these new programs as soon as possible? We really need the list right away. Would it be possible for you to mail it in the next few days, along with the media list we talked about earlier? Mail it to the same address I gave to you.

22. Are you aware of any communities that have discontinued their Crime Stoppers program or perhaps are having difficulty keeping it going?

Yes 1
No 2 (SKIP TO Q 24)

23. Do you have some specific communities in mind? (ASK FOR CITIES FIRST)

	City/State	Contact Person	Phone Number
1.			
2.			
3.			

(51)

(52)

24. Now for our last question -- in your opinion, what have been the biggest problems that your program has experienced? This includes problems getting started and problems you've encountered since then.

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____
d. _____
e. _____

(53)

25. During the next phase of this national study, we will be sending you a questionnaire asking you much more about your program. This questionnaire will be extremely important to give us a thorough understanding of your operation. It will give you an opportunity to provide critical information about how Crime Stoppers works, and therefore, it may help to improve existing and future programs. We will welcome any ideas or suggestions you might have about Crime Stoppers.

We are looking forward to receiving your list of media contacts (and new programs) within the next few days. Thank you very much for your cooperation. (HANG UP-SKIP TO Q35)

26. When was your program operational -- from what date to what date?
(Month/Year) ____/____ to ____/____

(54-55)

27. Why was your program discontinued?

Thank you for your cooperation (HANG UP-GO TO Q35)

28. Are you still working on the development of a Crime Stoppers program?

Yes 1 (SKIP TO Q30)
No 2

(56)

29. Why is Crime Stoppers not being considered at this time?

Thank you for your cooperation (HANG UP - GO TO Q35)

30. Have you formed a nonprofit corporation and filed for tax-exempt status?

Yes 1 (57)
No 2

31. Has any of the media agreed to participate in your program?

Yes 1 (58)
No 2

32. Has anyone committed any funds to your program yet?

Yes 1 (59)
No 2

33. When do you anticipate the "kickoff" of your program?

_____ (month/year) (60-63)

NO KICKOFF DATE 7777

34. Given what you know about your police department and your community, how confident are you that you will have a fully operational Crime Stoppers program? Are you

(64) Very confident, 3
Somewhat confident, or. . . . 2
Not very confident? 1
DON'T KNOW 8

** During the course of our national study, we may be in contact with you again to see how things are progressing. Thank you for your cooperation.

(HANG UP - GO TO Q35)

ASSESSMENT OF RESPONDENT

35. WAS RESPONDENT VERY COOPERATIVE 3
SOMEWHAT COOPERATIVE 2 (65)
NOT VERY COOPERATIVE 1

36. DID RESPONDENT SEEM VERY KNOWLEDGEABLE 3
SOMEWHAT KNOWLEDGEABLE 2 (66)
NOT VERY KNOWLEDGEABLE 1

37. DO YOU THINK THE INFORMATION
GIVEN BY RESPONDENT WAS . . . MOSTLY ACCURATE, OR . . . 1
MOSTLY INACCURATE? . . . 0

(67)

b. (If inaccurate)

Why? _____

Appendix B

State-wide Program Telephone Survey

Name: _____
Program: _____

STATE-WIDE PROGRAM SURVEY

April 1985

1. When did you begin your organizing efforts and activities at the state level? mo. _____ yr. _____

2. Can you describe the type of activities you were involved in? (includes plans for future development).

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____

3. Do you have a state-wide association of Crime Stoppers programs in _____?

Yes1
No0 (skip to Q. 5)

4. How many programs are active members of the association? _____

5. Does your office serve the entire state?

Yes1
No0

6. Is your office affiliated with state government (i.e., considered a government based program or under the auspices of state government)?

Yes1
No0

7. Do you have a toll-free number?

Yes1 (If yes, record
telephone and
date of
accepting
calls
no. date

No.0

8. Do you assist new programs in getting started?

Yes1
No0 (skip to Q. 11)

9. Specifically, what kinds of services do you offer to new programs?

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____

10. Approximately how many programs does your program service? _____

11. Do you have paid staff members working for your state-wide program?

Yes1
No0 (skip to Q. 13)

12. Approximately, how many full and part-time workers are being paid a salary by your program?

Part-time _____

Full-time _____

13. Do you air state-wide publicity about Crime Stoppers?

Yes1
No0 (skip to Q. 15)

14. Specifically, what kind of advertising do you do?

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
TV	1	0
Radio	1	0
Newspaper	1	0
Billboards	1	0
Other (Specify _____)	1	0

15. Do you broadcast a state-wide "Crime of the week/month?"

Yes1
No0

16. Do you run newspaper spot about the "Crime of the Week/Month?"

Yes1
No

17. What kinds of "information packets" (pamphlets, brochures, etc.) does your state-wide program disseminate to the public? (please send)

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____
d. _____

18. Does your program process its own cases?

Yes1
No0

19. Does your program collect statistics?

Yes1
No0 (skip to Q. 22)

20. How many cases has your program cleared? _____

21. How much in stolen property and narcotics has your program recovered?

\$ _____ property

\$ _____ narcotics

\$ _____ total (if breakdown not available)

22. What are the major obstacles to starting and maintaining a state-wide program?

Start-up obstacles

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

Maintenance obstacles

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

23. What plans or changes does your program anticipate in the near future? (i.e., in what direction is your program headed? Future look promising?)

Appendix C

Police Coordinator and Chairperson of the Board of Director Surveys

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR POLICE COORDINATORS

Background Information

To gain a better understanding of you and your background, please answer the following questions about yourself.

1. How long have you been the Police Coordinator for the program (or functioning as the Coordinator)?

_____ years _____ months.

2. Do you hold a position or have a title other than Coordinator of this program?

Yes 1 (specify) _____

No 2

3. Approximately how many hours per week do you devote to the program? _____ hours

4. If less than 100 percent of your working time is devoted to the program, what are your other responsibilities?

5. Prior to your involvement in the program, what positions did you hold in the department and for how long? (List only your last five assignments, beginning with the most recent).

<u>Assignment</u>	<u>Length of Time</u>
1) _____	_____
2) _____	_____
3) _____	_____
4) _____	_____
5) _____	_____

6. To whom do you report in the chain of command? (Specify the rank and the division or bureau; e.g. Captain - Investigations; Sergeant - Crime Prevention; Officer - Public Relations; Chief of Police). Do not indicate the person's name.

7. How many coordinators has your program had since its inception?

_____ (If only 1, Skip to Question 1, next section).

8. To your knowledge, what have been the primary reasons why coordinators have left their position?

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____

9. In what bureau or division is the program office physically located?

Investigations.....1
Crime Prevention.....2
Public Relations.....3
Communications.....4
Administration.....5
Other (Specify: _____).6

10. What is the approximate size of your police department?

Number of sworn personnel _____
Number of civilian employees _____

Program Operations

1. When did your program become operational; that is, when did you start accepting calls?

Month _____ Year _____

2. What is the approximate size of the population served by your program?

3. What is the approximate size of the geographic area served by your program in square miles?

4. Who does your program serve?

Mostly urban residents.....1
Mostly suburban residents.....2
Mostly rural residents.....3
Even split (specify) _____ .4

5. Would you say that the overall crime rate in the area served by your program is ... (circle one)

Very high 7
High 6
Moderately high 5
Neither high nor low 4
Moderately low 3
Low 2
Very low 1

6. In your opinion, has your program had any effect on the overall crime rate or the crime rate for specific crimes?

Reduced overall crime rate.....1
Reduced crime rate for specific
crimes (specify type _____).2
No effect on any crime rate(s).....3
Increased crime rate(s)
(Explain _____).4

7. What type(s) of crime does your program focus on most often?

(specify) _____

8. How did your community first find out about Crime Stoppers/Solvers? We found out through ...

Other programs in the area.....1
A statewide or regional association.....2
Crime Stoppers U.S.A. (International).....3
The media (e.g. read about it in newspapers or magazines, heard about it on TV or radio).....4
Other (specify) _____.....5

- | | |
|---|---|
| High crime rate..... | 1 |
| Large number of unsolved crimes..... | 2 |
| Public apathy toward crime..... | 3 |
| Informants' reluctance to come forth and be identified..... | 4 |
| Citizens' lack of confidence in local law enforcement..... | 5 |
| Inadequate police-media relations..... | 6 |
| Recommendation from Chamber of Commerce..... | 7 |
| Other (specify) | 8 |

- Rank

- | | |
|---|---|
| Obtaining tax exempt status from the IRS..... | 1 |
| Overcoming public apathy/lack of awareness..... | 2 |
| Obtaining sufficient funding..... | 3 |
| Enlisting media participation..... | 4 |
| Establishing a board of directors..... | 5 |
| Getting law enforcement to support and participate in the
program..... | 6 |
| Other (specify) | 6 |

11. When your program first got started, how much help or advice did you get from persons with experience coordinating other similar programs? (Circle only one)

- 4 -

12. In running your program, how many of the guidelines in the Crime Stoppers Manual do you follow?

All of them.....5
Most of them.....4
Some of them.....3
A few of them.....2
None of them.....1
Have not read the Manual.....8

13. Are you aware of anything unique or different about your program?

Yes.....1 (If yes, please specify): _____
No.....2 _____

14. Does your office limit itself to Crime Stoppers/Solvers-type activities or does it include other activities (e.g. Neighborhood Watch, Operation Identification, and/or other crime prevention/public education functions)?

Limited to Crime Stoppers/Solvers.....1
Includes other activities.....2 (Please specify) _____

Program Support

1. Would you say that citizen awareness of your program is...(circle one)

Very high.....7
High.....6
Moderately high.....5
Neither high nor low.....4
Moderately low.....3
Low.....2
Very low.....1

2. What could be done, if anything, to improve citizens' awareness of your program?
(Please list)

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____

3. How would you describe the current level of citizen participation in your program
(in terms of the number of informant calls you receive)?

Very high.....7
High.....6
Moderately high.....5
Neither high nor low.....4
Moderately low.....3
Low.....2
Very low.....1

4. What could be done, if anything, to further encourage citizens to call in?
(please list)

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____

5. Approximately how many of your investigators are aware of the program and
understand how it works?

10% or less.....1
11 to 30%.....2
31 to 50%.....3
51 to 70%.....4
71 to 90%.....5
91% or more.....6

6. Of those investigators who have heard about the program how many are skeptical about its benefits?

10% or less.....1
11 to 30%.....2
31 to 50%.....3
51 to 70%.....4
71 to 90%.....5
91% or more.....6

7. What type of rapport do you feel you have with investigations?

Excellent -- Never any problems.....1
Very good -- problems are very rare.....2
Good -- problems occur occasionally.....3
Fair -- problems occur with some regularity.....4
Not very good -- problems occur frequently.....5
Poor -- problems occur all the time.....6

8. How would you describe the level of cooperation the program receives from investigators?

Very high.....1
High.....2
Moderately high.....3
Neither high nor low.....4
Moderately low.....5
Low.....6
Very low.....7

9. What could be done, if anything, to enhance the investigators' support for the program? (please list)

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____

10. Approximately how many of the patrol officers are aware of the program and understand how it works?

10% or less.....	1
11 to 30%.....	2
31 to 50%.....	3
51 to 70%.....	4
71 to 90%.....	5
91% or more.....	6

11. Of those officers who have heard about the program, how many are skeptical about its benefits?

10% or less.....	1
11 to 30%.....	2
31 to 50%.....	3
51 to 70%.....	4
71 to 90%.....	5
91% or more.....	6

12. How would you describe the level of cooperation the program receives from patrol officers?

Very high.....	1
High.....	2
Moderately high.....	3
Neither high nor low.....	4
Moderately low.....	5
Low.....	6
Very low.....	7

13. What could be done, if anything, to enhance the patrol officers' support for the program? (please list)

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| Yes..... | 1 |
| No..... | 2 |
| No training..... | 8 |

- | | |
|-------------------|---|
| Very often..... | 7 |
| Quite often..... | 6 |
| Fairly often..... | 5 |
| Sometimes..... | 4 |
| Occasionally..... | 3 |
| Hardly ever..... | 2 |
| Never..... | 1 |

- [illegible]

Yes.....1
No.....2
Don't know.....3

2. Has there ever been a regional meeting that included programs from more than one state in your region of the country?

Yes.....1 (Where were they held? What month/year?)

No.....2

(Skip to Question 6)

Don't know.....3

3. Approximately how many programs were represented at the last regional meeting?

_____ programs

4. Which states were invited to the last regional meeting?

5. Has anyone representing your program ever attended a regional meeting?

Yes.....1

No.....2

6. Does your state have a "state-wide program" in any sense?

Yes.....1 (What are its primary activities?)

No.....2

7. Is your program an associate member of Crime Stoppers International (formerly Crime Stoppers-U.S.A.)?

Yes..Received Associate Member Certificate.....1

No..Applied, but have not received Certificate.....2

No..Have not applied.....3 (Any particular reason?)

Never heard of Crime Stoppers International (USA)..8

8. Do you report statistics to Crime Stoppers International on a regular basis?

Yes.....1

No.....2

9. What is your impression of Crime Stoppers International?

Very positive 5

Positive 4

Neutral 3

Negative 2

Very Negative 1

Don't Know 9

10. Does your community share a phone line, coordinator, media contacts, and/or board of directors with another community or communities? (A "community" is here defined as another town, village, or city, usually with its own police protection).

Yes 1

No 2 (Skip to Question 14)

11. Which of the following does your community share with other communities?(Check one)

	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>IF YES: How many communities share?</u>
a. Phone line?	_____	_____	_____
b. Coordinator?	_____	_____	_____
c. Media outlets?	_____	_____	_____
D. Board of Directors?	_____	_____	_____

12. Do you receive calls for other communities or does another community receive calls for you?

We receive calls for them.....1

They receive calls for us.....2

Other.....8 (specify)_____

13. How do you feel about being involved with a multi-community or multi-jurisdictional program? Do you feel...

Very positive.....5
Positive.....4
Neutral.....3
Negative.....2
Very negative.....1

14. Does your program use the same television, radio and/or newspaper outlets as other separate programs?

Yes.....1
No.....2 (Skip to Question 18)

15. Which of the following does your program share with other programs?

	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>IF YES: How many programs share?</u>
a. Television?	_____	_____	_____
b. Radio?	_____	_____	_____
c. Newspaper?	_____	_____	_____

16. Are you satisfied with the arrangement you have to share media services with other programs?

Very satisfied.....1 (Skip to Question 18)
Somewhat satisfied.....2
Not very satisfied.....3
Not at all satisfied.....4

17. Why are you not completely satisfied with the arrangement for media coverage?

18. How do you feel about multi-community or multi-jurisdictional programs (not including statewide programs)? Are they a "good idea" or not? What do you see as the major advantages and disadvantages?

19. How do you feel about statewide programs? Major advantages and disadvantages?

Handling Calls

1. Please explain how your telephone is "answered" throughout the week by listing the time(s) of the day under each column (e.g. "8am - 10am"). Please account for all 24 hours of the day.

	Staff Answers	Volunteer Answers	Calls Forwarded to Nonstaff	Answering Machine	Phone Unattended
Sunday	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Monday	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Tuesday	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Wednesday	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Thursday	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Friday	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Saturday	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>

2. Who normally answers the Crime Stoppers telephone during the day?

Coordinator.....1
 Assistant Coordinator.....2
 Secretary.....3
 Detective.....4
 Other (specify)_____ .6

3. If the person who normally receives the calls is away from the phone during regular hours, what usually happens?

Calls are forwarded.....1 (To whom?) _____
Calls are left unanswered.....2
Answering machine is used.....3
Other (Specify) _____.....8

4. Do you or your staff screen the information received from callers to determine its accuracy or do you generally leave this task for the investigators?

We screen all of the calls.....4
We screen most of the calls.....3
We screen some of the calls.....2
We screen none of the calls.....1

5. Roughly what percentage of the cases do you investigate yourself from start to finish? _____%

6. Of all the tips that you receive from callers, roughly what percent would you say are "good" tips that help an investigation in some way? _____%

7. Some coordinators have classified callers into three general types: (1) the "Good Citizen"; (2) the "Fringe Players" who associate with the criminal element; and (3) people involved in some type of criminal activity. In your community what percentage of your callers fall into each of these categories?

Good Citizens..... %
Fringe Players..... %
Criminals..... %

100%

8. Which type of caller consistently provides the best information to your program?

Good Citizens.....1
Fringe Players.....2
Criminals.....3
Don't Know.....9

9. Is there a better way to classify or categorize types of callers in your community?
If so, please specify:

10. What is your estimate of the percentage of callers that are female? _____ %

11. In your community, what do you think serves as the stronger incentive for most callers -- the reward or the anonymity?

The reward.....1

The anonymity.....2

Both equally.....3

Don't know.....8

12. Do you feel that the program stimulates citizens to call anonymously about incidents that otherwise would not come to the attention of the police?

Yes.....1 (If yes, what type of incidents?

No.....2

Program Staff

1. In the table below please indicate (a) the positions held by all salaried persons who work directly with the program, (b) the percentage of their working time that is devoted to the program, (c) the estimated salary cost of this work (before taxes) and (d) the source of this salary. (Examples are provided below).

[illegible]

2. In the table below, please indicate (a) the positions here by all volunteers who work directly with the program and (b) the estimated number of hours per month that they volunteer. (Examples are provided below.

	<u>Position Held</u>	<u>Estimated Number of Hours Volunteered Per Month</u>
Example:	<u>Board Chairman</u>	<u>10 Hours</u>
Example:	<u>20 Board Members</u>	<u>5 Hours each</u>
Example:	<u>Volunteer Receptionist</u>	<u>20 Hours</u>
Example:	<u>Volunteer Fund Raiser</u>	<u>10 Hours</u>
Begin		
Here:		

3. Given the current demands of the program, how sufficient is the present number of staff members assigned by the department?

Very sufficient 1
 Marginally sufficient 2
 Marginally insufficient 3
 Very insufficient 4

4. Has the number of police department staff and/or percentage of their time committed to the program increased, decreased, or stayed the same since the program was originally staffed?

Increased3
 Decreased1
 Stayed the Same2
 Don't Know9

Public Speaking

1. Not counting meetings with the board of directors, how many public speaking engagements have you personally completed in the past six months (approximately)?
-

2. When you receive a speaking invitation, how often do you invite someone from the board to join you?

Always 5
Usually 4
Sometimes 3
Rarely 2
Never 1

3. How would you evaluate your public speaking ability? Would you say you are a ...

Very good speaker 5
Good speaker 4
Average speaker 3
Below average speaker 2
Poor speaker 1

4. How often would you say the Chief of Police mentions the program in his public speaking engagements?

Always 5
Usually 4
Sometimes 3
Rarely 2
Never 1

5. How often does the Chief of Police (or someone representing the Chief) ask you about the status or needs of the program?

Very often 5
Quite often 4
Sometimes 3
Rarely 2
Never 1

Board of Directors/Non-Profit Corporation

1. Does your program include a nonprofit corporation?

Yes1

No2 (If no, Skip to Question 4)

2. What is the name of this corporation? _____

3. Was this non-profit corporation created specifically for your program?

Yes1

No2

4. Does your program have a board of directors or group of individuals that performs functions such as allocating rewards and fund raising?

Yes1

No2

5. How often do you meet with your board of directors?

Number of Meetings
Per Six Month Period

a. Full Board _____

b. Executive Committee _____

c. Other Committees _____

6. On a scale of 1-5 what rating would you give the board of directors on each of the following dimensions? (circle one number for each dimension).

Low rating High rating Don't know

a. Having a knowledge & understanding of the program's operations and problems.....1....2....3....4....5.....9

b. Being effective in raising funds.....1....2....3....4....5.....9

c. Having the right balance of people.....1....2....3....4....5.....9

d. Setting program policy.....1....2....3....4....5.....9

e. Working closely with the coordinator.....1....2....3....4....5.....9

f. Assisting with the media component.....1....2....3....4....5.....9

g. Creating public awareness of program.....1....2....3....4....5.....9

h. Investing time and energy in the program.....1....2....3....4....5.....9

7. What steps, if any, could be taken to improve or benefit your board of directors?

8. Based on your experience, what are the key factors that contribute to an effective/successful board of directors? In other words, what characteristics separate "good" boards from ones that don't function as well?

9. How would you rate the overall performance of your board of directors?

Excellent	1
Very good	2
Good	3
Average	4
Fair	5
Poor	6
Very poor	7

Media Questions

1. Who has the primary responsibility for working with the media?

Police Coordinator	1
Police Department Administrator	2
Civilian Executive Director	3
Board of Directors	4
Two or more above	5
Other (Specify _____)	6

2. If more than one person has a relationship (either formal or informal) with the media, please specify each person's position and responsibility (e.g. periodic public relations - board member, preparing reenactments - police coordinator).

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

3. Prior to your program's existence, how would you describe your department's relationship with the media?

Very Good 5
Good 4
Average 3
Poor 2
Very Poor 1
Don't Know 9

4. Does your program have a "logo" that it uses? If yes, does this logo get used by your local media outlets?

_____ Yes, we have a logo, but local media don't use it
_____ Yes, we have a logo, and local media use it
_____ No, we do not have a logo

Media Cooperativeness

1. Please explain the problems, if any, your program had during its start-up phase, in getting the local media to cooperate. Your answers should explain what your program had to overcome in order to get cooperation from your local media.

2. Please explain the advantages, if any, your program had during its start-up phase in getting the media to cooperate. Your answer should explain what you had going for your that helped get the media to participate in your program.

3. AT THE START OF YOUR PROGRAM, how cooperative were each of the various media when approached by your program? Please use the following scale to rate how cooperative each of your local media were. If you do not have a certain media outlet listed below, please write in "NA" (not applicable) in that blank. Cooperation may vary

within media types. If some daily newspapers, for example, were cooperative, and other newspapers were not, try to use an "average" rating for that media type.

Very Uncooperative 0---1---2---3---4---5---6---7---8---9---10 Very Cooperative

- _____ Daily Newspapers
- _____ Weekly Newspapers
- _____ Radio Stations
- _____ VHF/UHF Television Stations
- _____ Cable Television Community Access Channels

4. AT THE PRESENT TIME, how cooperative are each of the various local media? If you did not have a certain media outlet listed below, please write in "NA" (not applicable) in that blank. Cooperation may vary within media types. If some daily newspapers, for example, are very cooperative, and other newspapers are not, try to use an "average" rating for that media type.

Very Uncooperative 0---1---2---3---4---5---6---7---8---9---10 Very Cooperative

- _____ Daily Newspapers
- _____ Weekly Newspapers
- _____ Radio Stations
- _____ VHF/UHF Television Stations
- _____ Cable Television Community Access Channels

5. Not including start-up problems, please explain the problems, if any, your program has now, in getting the local media to cooperate.

6. Why do you feel the local media cooperates with your program. What are the incentives? If the reason(s) you list don't apply to all local media, please indicate which ones they do apply to:

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____

7. Has any of your media contacts ever complained about your dealings with them?
(e.g. timeliness of information; quality of work; reliability).

Yes 1

No 2 (Skip to Question 1, next section)

8. What has been their complaint(s)?

Media Participation

1. For each year since the start-up of your program please list the number of media that have participated in your program by type of media. That is, if your program started in 1980, and had 3 radio station participating that year please write in a "3" under the radio column for the row labeled "1980". If your number of participating radio stations stayed at 3 until 1983, and then increased to 6 radio stations, please write in "3" for 1981 and 1982, and write in "6" for 1983 and 1984. If you have a certain type of local media, but they do not participate, write in a "0" under the proper heading for each year of nonparticipation. If you do not have a local media type, write in "NA" (not applicable). PLEASE DO NOT LEAVE ANY SPACES BLANK FOR THE YEARS YOUR PROGRAM HAS BEEN OPERATIONAL.

<u>YEAR</u>	<u>Daily Newspapers</u>	<u>Weekly Newspapers</u>	<u>Radio</u>	<u>VHF/UHF Television</u>	<u>Cable Television</u>
1976	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
1977	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
1978	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
1979	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
1980	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
1981	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
1982	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
1983	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
1984	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. Do you have an agreement or understanding to work exclusively with one TV station?

Yes 1

No 2

Does Not Apply 9

3. Which media outlet is the most successful in creating public interest in your program? Why do you feel this outlet is the most successful?

4. When a case has been solved through the program, how often do each of the following media publicize the case? (Circle one number for each medium)

	<u>Always</u>	<u>Usually</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Never</u>
a. Television	4	3	2	1
b. Newspaper	4	3	2	1
c. Radio	4	3	2	1

5. Have you ever used any source of publicity that your program had to pay for? If "yes", please explain the type you used and give an approximate amount of money your program paid for this publicity. (For example, "we printed up 10,000 bumper stickers-they cost us \$3,500; "we bought air time on radio and TV-it cost \$5,000"; "we took out ads in the newspaper - they cost us \$500.000").

Crime of the Week Coverage

1. Do any of your media outlets run a Crime of the Week or Crime of the Month?

Yes, the crime of the month 1

Yes, the crime of the week 2

Yes, both crime of the week

and crime of the month 3

No 4 (Then how do you publicize
your program?) _____

2. Please check each of the types of media that run your Crime of the (Week/Month),

_____ Daily Newspapers

_____ Weekly Newspapers

_____ Radio Stations

_____ VHF/UHF Television Stations

_____ Cable Television Community Access Channels

3. For each of the local media outlets that run your Crime of the Week/Month, please describe the type of coverage they give the Crime of the Week/Month and other aspects of your program. Skip those sections which are not applicable (i.e. those that apply to media outlets which do not participate in your program).

a. Daily Newspapers

(1) Does the Crime of the Week/Month get front page coverage?

Always 4

Usually 3

Sometimes 2

Never 1 (If never, where in the newspaper
does it usually run?) _____

(2) Is there a special section in the newspaper that is always allocated
for your program?

Yes 1

No 2

(3) Approximately how many square inches of newshole do you get? _____

(4) Does the newspaper(s) publish ... (circle all that apply):

Editorials on your program 1

Articles or special stories on your program 2

Advertisements about your program 3

b. Weekly Newspapers

(1) Does the Crime of the Week/Month get front page coverage?

Always 4

Usually 3

Sometimes 2

Never 1 (If never, where in the newspaper
does it usually run?) _____

(2) Is there a special section in the newspaper that is always allocated
for your program?

Yes 1

No 2

(3) Approximately how many square inches of newshole do you get? _____

(4) Does the newspaper(s) publish ... (circle all that apply):

Editorials on your program 1

Articles or special stories on your program 2

Advertisements about your program 3

c. Radio Stations

(1) When do radio stations usually air your Crime of the Week/Month?

6 a.m. - 12 p.m. 1

12 p.m. - 6 p.m. 2

6 p.m. - 12 a.m. 3

12 a.m. - 6 a.m. 4

(2) Is there a special broadcast time that is always allocated for
your program?

Yes 1

No 2

(3) Is the Crime of the Week/Month broadcasted during a news hour?

Always4
Usually3
Sometimes2
Never1

(4) Do any of the radio stations use sound reenactments?

Yes 1
No 2

(5) Do any of the radio stations editorialize about your program?

Yes1
No2

(6) In total, how many radio stations do you mail information to about your program? _____

d. UHF/VHF TV Stations

(1) When do television stations usually air your Crime of the Week/Month?

6 a.m. - 12 p.m. 1
12 p.m. - 6 p.m. 2
6 p.m. - 12 a.m. 3
12 a.m. - 6 a.m. 4

(2) Is there a special broadcast time that is always allocated for your program?

Yes 1
No 2
Not Applicable 8

(3) Is the Crime of the Week/Month shown during a news hour?

Always4
Usually3
Sometimes2
Never1

(4) On the average, approximately how many minutes do your TV reenactment last? _____

(5) Do any of the TV stations editorialize about your program?

Yes1

No2

(6) Are you aware of any data kept by the media regarding the effects of your program on viewer ratings?

Yes1

No2

e. Cable Access Channels

(1) When do television stations usually air your Crime of the Week/Month?

6 a.m. - 12 p.m. 1

12 p.m. - 6 p.m. 2

6 p.m. - 12 a.m. 3

12 a.m. - 6 a.m. 4

(2) Is there a special broadcast time that is always allocated for your program?

Yes 1

No 2

Not Applicable 8

(3) Is the Crime of the Week/Month shown during a news hour?

Always 4

Usually 3

Sometimes 2

Never 1

(4) On the average, approximately how many minutes do your TV reenactments last? _____

(5) Do any of the TV stations editorialize about your program?

Yes1

No2

(6) Are you aware of any data kept by the media regarding the effects of your program on viewer ratings?

Yes1

No2

4. For each of the local media who run your Crime of the (Week/Month), please indicate whether your program usually puts together the copy/recording, whether someone from the media outlet usually puts it together, or whether both of you usually put it together. Leave blank those media outlets who don't run your Crime of the (Week/Month). Check only one of the three columns for each medium that applies.

	We put it together most of the time	They put it together most of the time	Both of us put it together most of the time
Daily Newspapers	_____	_____	_____
Weekly Newspapers	_____	_____	_____
Radio Stations	_____	_____	_____
VHF/UHF TV	_____	_____	_____
Cable TV	_____	_____	_____

5. Please describe the process whereby the Crime of the (Week/Month) is chosen. Specifically, what is the media's role, if any, in determining which crime to publicize?

6. What type of crime(s) usually get picked for the Crime of the (Week/Month)? If some crimes are selected more often than others please explain why this occurs.

7. Please describe other ways, if any, that your local media help with your Crime Stoppers Program:

8. Based on your experience, what advice can you offer new programs in their attempt to solicit and maintain the cooperation of the media (e.g. lessons learned)?

Records and Statistics

1. The following questions are about important program statistics. If you do not have the information at your fingertips, please take a few minutes to locate it or calculate it. However, if the information is not available, please make a rough estimate and check the appropriate reason why the actual figure is not available.

All questions below refer to 1983 statistics -- January 1, 1983 to December 31, 1983 and apply to your program only (not the entire police department). If your record keeping is based on a fiscal year that is different from the calendar year, please indicate the months you are referring to when answering these questions. If your program has been operating less than one year, again, indicate the months used as the basis for your statistics.

If Rough Estimate, Why Was
Actual Figure Not Available?
(Check one)

<u>Calls Received (1983)</u>	<u>Actual Figure</u>	<u>Rough or Estimate</u>	<u>Necessary Records Not Kept</u>		<u>Too Difficult or To Retrieve</u>	
a. Number of calls received	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
b. Number of Calls related to unsolved crimes	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

If Rough Estimate, Why Was
Actual Figure Not Available?
(Check one)

<u>Calls Received (1983)</u>	<u>Actual Figure or</u>	<u>Rough Estimate</u>	<u>Necessary Records Not Kept</u>	<u>or</u>	<u>Too Difficult To Retrieve</u>
c. Number of calls that produced information forwarded for investigation	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
d. Number of "call backs" about on-going or old cases.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
e. Number of caller code numbers assigned.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>Arrests and Clearances (1983)</u>					
a. Number of crimes cleared	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
b. Number of suspects arrested	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
c. Number of felony crimes cleared	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
d. Number of felony suspects arrested	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
e. Number of juvenile suspects arrested	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
f. Homicides					
- Number cleared	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
- Number of Arrests	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
g. Rapes					
- Number cleared	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
- Number of arrests	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
h. Personal robberies					
- Number cleared	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
- Number of arrests	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
i. Assaults/batteries					
- Number cleared	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
- Number of arrests	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
j. Residential burglaries					
- Number cleared	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
- Number of arrests	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

If Rough Estimate, Why Was
Actual Figure Not Available?
(Check one)

<u>Arrests and Clearances (1983)</u>		<u>Actual Figure</u> or <u>Rough Estimate</u>	<u>Necessary Records Not Kept</u> or <u>Too Difficult To Retrieve</u>
k.	Thefts		
	- Number cleared	_____	_____
	- Number of arrests	_____	_____
l.	Auto Thefts		
	- Number cleared	_____	_____
	- Number of arrests	_____	_____
m.	Arson		
	- Number cleared	_____	_____
	- Number of arrests	_____	_____
n.	Commercial Crimes (robbery, burglary, etc.)		
	- Number cleared	_____	_____
	- Number of arrests	_____	_____
p.	Narcotics		
	- Number cleared	_____	_____
	- Number of arrests	_____	_____

If Rough Estimate, Why Was
Actual Figure Not Available?
(Check one)

<u>Property Recovered or Confiscated (1983)</u>	<u>Actual Figure or</u>	<u>Rough Estimate</u>	<u>Necessary Records Not Kept</u>	<u>or</u>	<u>Too Difficult To Retrieve</u>
a. Value of all stolen property recovered (including vehicles)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
b. Value of stolen vehicles recovered	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
c. Street value of narcotics confiscated	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
d. Wholesale value of narcotics confiscated	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
e. cash confiscated	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<u>Rewards (1983)</u>					
a. Number of rewards paid	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
b. Amount of rewards paid	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
c. Number of rewards unclaimed	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
d. Amount of rewards unclaimed	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
e. Personal crimes (murder, rape, robbery, assault)					
- Number of rewards paid	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
- Amount of rewards paid	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
f. Narcotics					
- Number of rewards paid	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
- Amount of rewards paid	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
g. Property crimes (burglary, theft, auto theft)					
- Number of rewards paid	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
- Amount of rewards paid	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
h. Crime of the week (or month) only					
- Number of rewards paid	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
- Amount of rewards paid	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

If Rough Estimate, Why Was
Actual Figure Not Available?
(Check one)

<u>Prosecutions & Convictions (1983)</u>	<u>Actual Figure</u> or <u>Rough Estimate</u>		<u>Necessary Records</u> or <u>Too Difficult To Retrieve</u>	
			<u>Not Kept</u>	<u>or</u>
a. Number of suspects prosecuted (tried)	_____	_____	_____	_____
b. Number of charges (counts) placed	_____	_____	_____	_____
c. Number of suspects convicted of at least one charge	_____	_____	_____	_____
d. Number of charges that resulted in conviction	_____	_____	_____	_____

Investigations

1. Based on your experience, do you feel there are any differences between program cases and non-program cases in the way that they are investigated? (e.g. more/less resources devoted; different types of investigations).

Yes1 (Please specify)

No2
2. Is it your impression that investigators spend more time, less time, or about the same time investigating program cases as they do investigating non-program cases?

More time1

Less time3

About the same2
3. Do you fill out some type of form or questionnaire for the call that you receive?

Yes, all calls.....1

Yes, some calls.....2

No.....3 (If no, Skip to Question 5)
4. Do you regularly forward a copy of the caller questionnaire to investigators for follow-up?

Yes.....1

No.....2

5. Do detectives have a follow-up form (or section of the caller questionnaire that is designed to give you feedback about the status of program cases?

Yes.....1

No.....2

6. In what percentage of the cases would you say detectives are actually completing the follow-up form in a timely manner?

Never.....0

1 in 10.....1

2 in 10.....2

3 in 10.....3

4 in 10.....4

5 in 10.....5

6 in 10.....6

7 in 10.....7

8 in 10.....8

9 in 10.....9

10 in 10.....10

7. Do you keep a "tickler" file that tells you when to follow up specific cases that are under investigation?

Yes.....1

No.....2

8. Does your department have a written policy which indicates that detectives (and others) must notify your program within a certain period of time regarding the status of the investigation?

Yes.....1

No.....2

9. What types of crime-related calls do you typically receive? Estimate the percentage breakdown:

Crimes against business..... %

Narcotics..... %

Personal crimes (homicide, rape, robbery, assault..... %

Property crimes (burglary, theft)..... %

Other crimes..... %

100 %

10. Does your police department use formal case screening procedures for criminal investigations? i.e. Does your department have a written policy that established criteria for making case screening decisions and assigning responsibility for these decisions to specific individuals or groups?

Yes, we have a written policy'.....1

No, we do not have a written policy.....2

11. How often does your department conduct a formal "solvability" analysis on cases that are under consideration for your program? (Estimate only)

Never.....0

1 in 10.....1

2 in 10.....2

3 in 10.....3

4 in 10.....4

5 in 10.....5

6 in 10.....6

7 in 10.....7

8 in 10.....8

9 in 10.....9

10 in 10.....10

12. What percentage of the cases accepted by your program are considered truly "dead" or without any investigative leads?

None.....0

1 in 10.....1

2 in 10.....2

3 in 10.....3

4 in 10.....4

5 in 10.....5

6 in 10.....6

7 in 10.....7

8 in 10.....8

9 in 10.....9

10 in 10.....10

13. Considering all of the cases that need investigation by your department, where do your program cases fit into the assignment priorities? Would you say that your cases receive...

Very high priority.....5
High priority.....4
Average priority.....3
Low priority.....2
Very low priority.....1

14. Does your department have a policy that limits the length of time an investigation can be conducted before a written report must be submitted on the progress of the investigation?

Yes.....1
No.....2

15. Does your department attempt to measure the productivity of investigative units in terms of the number of cases solved?

Yes.....1
No.....2

16. Does your department attempt to measure the productivity of investigative units in terms of the number of suspects convicted?

Yes.....1
No.....2

17. To your knowledge, do any of the investigators try to entice their informants by encouraging them to call your program?

Yes.....1
No.....2

Prosecution

1. Roughly what percentage of the "arrest but no prosecution" cases would you say is due to the prosecutor's attitude about your program?

None.....0
1 in 10.....1
2 in 10.....2
3 in 10.....3
4 in 10.....4
5 in 10.....5
6 in 10.....6
7 in 10.....7
8 in 10.....8
9 in 10.....9
10 in 10.....10

2. Of the Crime Stoppers cases that are prosecuted, roughly what percentage have involved challenges by the defense attorneys regarding the credibility of information supplied by anonymous persons?

None.....0
1 in 10.....1
2 in 10.....2
3 in 10.....3
4 in 10.....4
5 in 10.....5
6 in 10.....6
7 in 10.....7
8 in 10.....8
9 in 10.....9
10 in 10.....10

3. If you have encountered court problems, do these problems seem to persist or have they been resolved?

Problems persist.....1

Problems resolved.....2

Never had any problems.....3 (If never, Skip to Question 1, next section)

4. What is (or was) the nature of the court problem(s)?

5. Does your prosecutor's office have an automated record keeping system, such as PROMIS (Prosecutor's Management Information System) that provides prosecution statistics on criminal cases?

Yes.....1

No.....2

Don't know.....9

6. In general, how hard is it for you to obtain statistics about prosecution and conviction rates for your cases?

Very difficult.....4

Somewhat difficult.....3

Not very difficult.....2

Not at all difficult.....1

Rewards

1. Who has the primary responsibility or "final word" in making decisions about rewards? (Circle one for each choice)

Always Usually Sometimes Never

a. the coordinator.....4.....3.....2.....1

b. the board of directors.....4.....3.....2.....1

c. both the coordinator &
board deciding together....4.....3.....2.....1

2. How often do you become involved in the following activities relating to the payment of rewards? (Circle one for each activity)

Always Usually Sometimes Never

- a. Making arrangements between informant and board member.....4.....3.....2.....1
- b. Accompanying board member to drop site.....4.....3.....2.....1
- c. Personally making payments to informant.....4.....3.....2.....1

3. At which point does a case become eligible for a reward in your program? (Circle one for each choice)

- a. Property or narcotics recovery only...4.....3.....2.....1
- b. Arrest only.....4.....3.....2.....1
- c. Indictment only.....4.....3.....2.....1
- d. Arrest and indictment.....4.....3.....2.....1
- e. Conviction.....4.....3.....2.....1

- 4a. Which of the following criteria do you use in making decisions about rewards? (Circle all that apply)

RANK

- | | |
|-------|--|
| _____ | Severity of the crime.....1 |
| _____ | Amount of the property recovered.....2 |
| _____ | The "quality" of the information.....3 |
| _____ | Cooperation given by informant.....4 |
| _____ | Risk taken by informant.....5 |
| _____ | Informant's willingness to testify.....6 |
| _____ | Whether informant is a frequent caller.....7 |
| _____ | Credibility of the informant.....8 |
| _____ | Other (please specify)_____9 |

- 4b. Now for all those circled please go back and rank order the criteria by placing the #1 in front of the most important criterion, the #2 in front of the next most important, and so on until all circled criteria are ranked. For example, if you circled numbers 1, 5, and 7 you would rank those three items with the most important item being given a 1 and the least important a 3.

5. How often does the board disagree with your reward recommendations?

Very often.....5

Often.....4

Occasionally.....3

Hardly ever.....2

Never.....1

6. For the "Crime of the Week," does your program usually publicize a specific reward amount or is the amount determined later by the board?

Specific reward publicized.....1

Reward determined later.....2 (Skip to Question 5)

7. Although it may vary from week to week on the average how much does your program offer as a reward for the "Crime of the Week"?

\$ _____

Overview: Past & Future

1. Has your program experienced any "difficult times"?

Yes.....1

No.....2 (If no, Skip to Question 3)

2. How long did these difficult times last, and what do you think was the major cause?

3. Assuming there is always room for improvement, what component or aspect of your program would you like to see strengthened, and why? (e.g. relations with media, board, police) Please be specific.

4. Do you have any advice or suggestions for new programs? What are the important lessons that need to be learned?

5. Looking ahead, what changes do you see happening among programs like yours? What positive changes do you envision? What negative changes do you envision?

Positive Changes

Negative Changes

Coordinator Profile

1. How many years have you worked at the police department? _____ years

2. What is your current rank? (e.g. civilian, officer, sergeant, lieutenant)

3. What is your age? _____

25 or less.....1

26 - 35.....2

36-45.....3

46-55.....4

56 or more.....5

4. What is your sex?

Male.....1

Female.....2

5. What is your racial/ethnic background?

Asian.....1

Black.....2

Hispanic.....3

White.....4

American Indian.....5

Other (specify)_____ .6

6. What was the highest grade or year of school you completed? _____

Materials to Send

Crime and Census Information

1. A very critical component of our study involves a detailed examination of your program on the basis of crime and demographic data. In order to gain a full understanding of your activities and accomplishments, we need you to send us information about the community within which your program operates. Some of this information may have to be obtained from your municipal government's planning department or information bureau. A telephone call to the appropriate office should get you the information. Please report the following statistics: (Note that you may attach xerox copies of any completed reports or records as supporting documentation such as the police department's Annual Report)
 - a. A list of all Part 1 and Part 2 crimes which are submitted by your local law enforcement agency (police or sheriff's department) for the UCR. Please send listings for 1981, 1982, and 1983 (if complete).
 - b. 1980 Census data - should include information about your community regarding the following population variables:
 - 1) Age breakdowns by categories (% less than 18; % 65 or older)
 - 2) Sex breakdowns by categories (% Male; % Female)
 - 3) Race breakdowns by categories (% White, % Black, % Hispanic, % Other)
 - 4) Median family income
 - 5) Median value of housing

Program Information and Records

2. In addition to the above information, we would like you to send us the following data relating to your program's operation:
 - a. One blank and one completed example of all forms and questionnaires used to keep records (e.g. call processing questionnaires, detective follow-up forms etc.) Delete any identifying or compromising information.
 - b. One copy of every monthly statistical report since your program has been in existence. For example, if your program was established in October, 1982 (18 months ago) we would expect you to send us 19 reports including April 1984. If your program does not compile monthly reports, then please send copies of all cumulative summary reports which have been prepared since your program started (e.g. quarterly reports, annual reports, periodic reports to the board, etc.) It is essential that all monthly or cumulative summary reports contain data indicating the number of calls received and the amount of rewards paid.
 - c. Materials illustrating media coverage and program publications. This information should include a media packet (if available), newspaper articles, pamphlets, crime of the week coverage, newspaper "insert," etc.
 - d. Written departmental policies or procedures that directly pertain to the program.
 - e. 1983 (or 1984) program budget or annual financial statement for the nonprofit corporation

- f. List of media contacts as requested earlier in the telephone survey (please ignore this request if you have already forwarded this list).

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR CHAIRMAN OF
THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Background Information

So that we can gain a better understanding of you and your program, please answer the following background questions.

1. How long have you been the program's chairman of the board of directors?
_____ years _____ months
2. What is your regular occupation? _____
3. On the average, how many hours per month do you devote to your program?

4. How did you get involved with your program? _____

5. Were you working with your program in any other capacity before becoming the chairman?

Yes.....1 (If yes, please describe) _____

No.....2
6. Do you enjoy your work as chairman?

Always enjoy it.....1
Very often enjoy it.....2
Often enjoy it.....3
Sometimes enjoy it.....4
Hardly ever enjoy it.....5
Never enjoy it.....6

7. What aspect(s) of your job as chairman of the board do you find most satisfying?
(Please describe)

8. What aspect(s) of your job as chairman of the board do you find least satisfying?
(Please describe)

9. How many public speaking engagements about your program have you personally
completed in the past six months (approximately)? _____ engagements.

10. When you receive a speaking invitation, how often do you invite someone from the
police department to join you?

Always.....5
Usually.....4
Sometimes.....3
Rarely.....2
Never.....1

11. How useful have public speaking engagements been in generating interest in your
program?

Very useful.....1
Useful.....2
Somewhat useful.....3
Not at all useful.....4

Program Operations

1. How many chairmen has your program had since its inception?

_____ (If only 1, Skip to Question 3).

2. In your opinion, which of the following reasons prompted previous chairmen to leave their position? (Circle all that apply).

Bylaws or general policy did not permit consecutive terms.....1
Inability to devote enough time to program because of
other responsibilities/commitments.....2
Dissatisfying relations with law enforcement personnel.....3
Dissatisfaction with other board members.....4
Lack of community support for the program.....5
Elected out of office.....6
Other (Please specify) _____

3. What were the major obstacles that had to be overcome before your program could become fully operational? (Circle all numbers that apply)

RANK

_____ Obtaining tax exempt status from the IRS.....1
_____ Overcoming public apathy/lack of awareness.....2
_____ Obtaining sufficient funding.....3
_____ Enlisting media participation.....4
_____ Establishing a board of directors.....5
_____ Getting law enforcement to support and participate in the program.....6
_____ Other (Please specify) _____

If more than one is circled above, please rank order the responses by placing a 1 to the left of the obstacle that was the most difficult to overcome, a 2 to the left of the obstacle that was the next most difficult to overcome, a 3 to the left of the obstacle that was the third most difficult to overcome, and so on, until ALL the CIRCLED responses have been ranked.

4. When your board was first getting started, how much help or advice did you get from persons with experience on the boards of other programs?

A lot of help.....5
Quite a bit of help.....4
Some help.....3
Very little help.....2
No help.....1

5. Would you say that the overall crime rate in the area served by your program is...

Very high.....1
High.....2
Somewhat high.....3
Neither high nor low.....4
Somewhat low.....5
Low.....6
Very low.....7

6. Would you say that citizens' awareness of your program is...

Very high.....1
High.....2
Somewhat high.....3
Neither high nor low.....4
Somewhat low.....5
Low.....6
Very low.....7

7. What could be done, if anything, to improve citizens' awareness of your program?
(Please list)

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____
d. _____

8. How would you describe the volume of calls received by your program? (Circle one)

Very high.....1
High.....2
Somewhat high.....3
Neither high nor low.....4
Somewhat low.....5
Low.....6
Very low.....7

9. What could be done, if anything, to encourage more citizens to call in?
(Please list)

- a. _____
b. _____
c. _____
d. _____

10. In your view, how successful has your program been?

Very successful.....5
Quite successful.....4
Somewhat successful.....3
Not very successful.....2
Not at all successful.....1

Membership and Performance of Board

1. How many persons sit on your board of directors? _____

2. Does your board of directors have responsibilities as a group other than the program?

Yes.....1 (If yes, what are they?)

No.....2

3. What is the composition of your board? How many of the board members are.....

(a) male _____
female _____

(b) White _____
Black _____
Hispanic _____
Other race _____

(Please note that the sum of categories for a, b, and c should each equal the total number of board members)

(c) Under 25 years old _____
25-40 years old _____
41-65 years old _____
over 65 years old _____

4. Are any of the members of the board paid a salary for their board work?

Yes.....1

No.....2 (If No, Skip to Question 6)

5. What source(s) are used to generate the salary of your paid board members?
(Please list)

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____
d. _____

6. To the best of your knowledge, please list the occupations of the members of your board of directors and the number that fall into each occupational category.(e.g. doctors - 2; lawyers - 1; businesspersons - 1; teachers - 1; farmers - 2; factory workers - 2; etc.)

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____
d. _____
e. _____
f. _____

g. _____
h. _____
i. _____
j. _____
k. _____
l. _____

7. How often do you meet with your board of directors?

Number of meetings
per six-month period

- a. Full board.....
b. Executive committee.....
c. Other committees.....

8. On a scale from 1 to 5, what rating would you give the board of directors on each of the following dimensions? (circle one number for each dimension).

Low rating High rating Don't know

- a. Having a knowledge & understanding of the program's operations and problems.....1....2....3....4....5.....9
b. Being effective in raising funds.....1....2....3....4....5.....9
c. Having the right balance of people.....1....2....3....4....5.....9
d. Setting program policy.....1....2....3....4....5.....9
e. Working closely with the coordinator.....1....2....3....4....5.....9
f. Assisting with the media component.....1....2....3....4....5.....9
g. Creating public awareness of program.....1....2....3....4....5.....9
h. Investing time and energy in the program.....1....2....3....4....5.....9

9. What steps, if any, could be taken to improve or benefit your current board of directors?

10. Based on your experience, what are the key factors that contribute to an effective/successful board of directors? In other words, what characteristics separate good boards from ones that don't function as well?

11. How would you rate the overall performance of your board of directors?

Excellent	1
Very good	2
Good	3
Average	4
Fair	5
Poor	6
Very poor	7

Board Activities

1. Please list the boards' principal activities and the approximate average number of hours you spend on each activity as a group. (e.g. reward setting - 4 hours; fund raising - 6 hours).

<u>Activity</u>	<u>Number of Hours Per Month</u>
a. _____	_____
b. _____	_____
c. _____	_____
d. _____	_____
e. _____	_____
f. _____	_____

2. Do you feel that board members each invest approximately the same amount of time doing work for the program or is most of the work done by only a few of the board members?

Work is always equally shared.....	1
Most of the time work is equally shared.....	2
Some of the time work is equally shared.....	3
Work is hardly ever equally shared.....	4

3. What activities or duties, if any, do board members ever complain about doing? In your view, what is the reason(s) for their complaints? (Please describe)

4. In your opinion, what aspects of their position do board members find most satisfying? (Please describe)

Law Enforcement - Board Relations

1. How often does the board meet with the police coordinator to discuss the program?

Number of meetings
per six month period

- a. Full board
b. Executive committee
c. Other committees

2. How satisfied are you with the performance of your program's coordinator?

Very satisfied.....1
Quite satisfied.....2
Somewhat satisfied.....3
Not very satisfied.....4
Not at all satisfied.....5

3. How cooperative is the program's coordinator when working with the board?

Very cooperative.....1
Quite cooperative.....2
Somewhat cooperative.....3
Not very cooperative.....4
Not at all cooperative.....5

4. How would you rate the boards' relationship with the police officers or investigators who work with your program?

Very positive.....1
Quite positive.....2
Somewhat positive.....3
Neither positive or negative.....4
Somewhat negative.....5
Quite negative.....6
Very negative.....7
Does not have a relationship.....9

5. Excluding the Police Coordinator, have you encountered any difficulties in working with police officers or investigators?

Yes.....1
No.....2
Does not apply.....9 (If does not apply, skip to
Question 7)

6. Please describe the nature of these problems or difficulties.

7. In your view, how effective have investigators and police officers been in following up on criminal leads?

Very effective.....1
Quite effective.....2
Somewhat effective.....3
Not very effective.....4
Not at all effective.....5

8. How would you describe the level of support for the program among police officers and investigators?

Very high.....1
High.....2
Somewhat high.....3
Neither high nor low.....4
Somewhat low.....5
Low.....6
Very low.....7

9. What could be done if anything, to increase the investigators' and police officers' support for the program? (Please list)

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____

10. How often does the Chief of Police of your community (or someone representing the Chief) ask you about the status or needs of the program?

Very often.....5
Quite often.....4
Sometimes.....3
Rarely.....2
Never.....1

Fund Raising

1. Please list the primary fund raising methods used by your board.

<u>Rank</u>	<u>METHOD</u>
a.	_____
b.	_____
c.	_____

(continued next page)

<u>Rank</u>	<u>METHOD</u>
_____ d.	_____
_____ e.	_____
_____ f.	_____

For the fund raising methods listed above, please rank order the methods by placing the number 1 in front of the most frequently used method, then the number 2 in front of the next most frequently used method, and so on, until you have ranked all the methods.

2. For each of the fund raising activities above, please indicate below the following information: (1) the approximate date of each activity (2) the duration of each activity, (3) the revenue generated from each activity, (4) the estimated cost in dollars per each activity, and (5) the estimated number of manpower hours expended for each activity. Note that the ordering of activities in this item should correspond to the ordering in item #1. For example, if "a" is "telephone requests" in item 1, "a" in this item should also refer to telephone requests.

	<u>Activity Dates</u>	<u>Duration - Months/days</u>	<u>Funds generated</u>	<u>Estimated Cost (\$)</u>	<u>Estimated Manhours</u>
Example: a.	<u>June 1981</u>	<u>1 month</u>	<u>\$ 1,000</u>	<u>\$ 100</u>	<u>80</u>
Example: b.	<u>Every Summer</u>	<u>3 months</u>	<u>\$ 5,000</u>	<u>\$ 250</u>	<u>120</u>
Example: c.	<u>Each week</u>	<u>12 months</u>	<u>\$12,000</u>	<u>\$2,500</u>	<u>2000</u>
Example: d.	<u>Every 6 months</u>	<u>1 week</u>	<u>\$ 2,500</u>	<u>\$5,000</u>	<u>40</u>

Begin Here:

a.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
b.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
c.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
d.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
e.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
f.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

3. Does your experience show that the program usually sets its fund raising goals too low, too high, or at a level that is reasonably attainable?
- Too low.....1
Too high.....3
Attainable.....2
4. How much unspent money did your program have as of the first of this month?
- \$ _____
5. How do you obtain money for administrative expenses? _____
6. Have you ever been forced to "slow down" the program because of a shortage of reward money?
- Yes.....1 (If Yes, how many times) _____
No.....2
7. Do your fund raisers generally view fund raising for the program as a periodic season event or as a continuous year-around process?
- Periodic.....1
Continuous.....2
Neither.....3 (If neither, please explain)
8. How concerned are you that your board members will get tired of asking for contributions and experience fund raising "burn out"? Are you...
- Very concerned.....1
Quite concerned.....2
Somewhat concerned.....3
Not very concerned.....4
Not at all concerned.....5

9. Please rate the likelihood that the following methods will be effective in raising funds. (Circle one)

	Very unlikely to be effective					Very likely to be effective					Don't Know
Personal contacts	1	2	3	4	5						9
Telephone calls	1	2	3	4	5						9
Direct mailings	1	2	3	4	5						9
Appeals to organizations	1	2	3	4	5						9
Special events	1	2	3	4	5						9
Media telethons	1	2	3	4	5						9
Requests to foundations.....	1	2	3	4	5						9
Other (Specify) _____	1	2	3	4	5						9
_____	1	2	3	4	5						9

10. Please rate how costly the following fund raising methods are to the program in terms of money, manpower, and time.

	Very costly					Very cheap					Don't Know
Personal contacts	1	2	3	4	5						9
Telephone calls	1	2	3	4	5						9
Direct mailings	1	2	3	4	5						9
Appeals to organizations	1	2	3	4	5						9
Special events	1	2	3	4	5						9
Media telethons	1	2	3	4	5						9
Requests to foundations.....	1	2	3	4	5						9

11. How concerned are you that your primary contributors will get tired of giving?

Very concerned.....1
 Quite concerned.....2
 Somewhat concerned.....3
 Not very concerned.....4
 Not at all concerned.....5

12. In your opinion, what are the primary reasons why people who have been contacted do not contribute to your program? (Please list)

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____
- f. _____

13. If your program was in desperate need of funding, what fund raising method(s) would you immediately use to bail out the program? (Please describe)

14. Successful fund raising efforts often use so-called "psychological strategies" such as appealing to a person's fears or playing on their social responsibility for contributing. What kinds of strategies does your program use to motivate people to make donations? (Please describe).

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____

15. What would you change about your present fund raising activities to make them more effective? (Please describe)

Rewards

- 1a. Which of the following criteria do you use in making decisions about rewards?
(Circle all that apply).

RANK

_____	Severity of the crime.....	1
_____	Amount of property and/or narcotics recovered.....	2
_____	The "quality" of the information.....	3
_____	Cooperation given by informant.....	4
_____	Risk taken by informant.....	5
_____	Informant's willingness to testify.....	6
_____	Whether informant is a frequent caller.....	7
_____	Credibility of the informant.....	8
_____	Other (please specify) _____	

- 1b. Now for all those circled above, please go back and rank order them by placing the #1 in front of the most important criterion, the #2 in front of the next most important, and so on until all circled criteria are ranked. For example, if you circled numbers 1, 5, and 7 you would rank those three items with the most important items being given a 1 and the least important a 3.

2. How often does the coordinator of the program disagree with the board's reward recommendations?

Very often.....	5
Quite often.....	4
Sometimes.....	3
Not very often.....	2
Never.....	1

4. For the Crime of the Week/Month, how often does your program publicize a maximum reward (e.g. "up to \$1000") _____ % of the time (approximately).
5. For the Crime of the Week/Month, how often does your program publicize a specific (fixed) reward amount? _____ % of the time (approximately).

6. Although it may vary from week to week, on the average, how much does your program offer as a reward for the Crime of the Week/Month?

\$ _____

7. Do you change the locations (i.e. "drop sites") where informants are given rewards?

Always.....4
Usually.....3
Sometimes.....2
Never.....1

8. What percentage of your rewards go for cases that are not publicized?

\$ _____

9. How often do you become involved in the following activities relating to the payment of rewards? (Circle one for each activity).

	<u>Always</u>	<u>Usually</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Never</u>
a. Making arrangements between board members & caller.....	4	3	2	1
b. Accompanying board member to drop site.....	4	3	2	1
c. Personally making payment to informant.....	4	3	2	1

Media

1. What are the board's principal responsibility in working with the media? (Please list)

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____

2. As far as working with the media is concerned how would you compare the time the board spends with the time spent by law enforcement personnel (including the police coordinator).

The board spends more time working with the media.....1
Law enforcement personnel spend more time working with the media.....2
The board and law enforcement personnel spend an equal
amount of time working with the media.....3

3. How would you describe the board's relationship with the media?

Very good.....5
Good.....4
Average.....3
Poor.....2
Very Poor.....1
Don't know.....8

4. At the present time, how cooperative are each of the various local media? If your program does not have a certain media outlet listed below, or has not approached them, please write "NA" (not applicable) in that blank. Cooperation may vary within media types. If some daily newspapers, for example are very cooperative and other newspapers are not, try to use an "average" rating for that media type. Please write a number next to each type of media indicating how cooperative they have been.

Very Uncooperative 0...1...2...3...4...5...6...7...8...9...10 Very Cooperative

_____ Daily Newspapers
_____ Weekly Newspapers
_____ Radio Stations
_____ VHF/UHF Television Stations
_____ Cable Television Community Access Channels

5. Please explain the problems, if any, your program has now (or has had in the past) in getting the local media to cooperate.

6. Why do you feel the local media cooperate with your program? What are their incentives? If the reason(s) you list don't apply to all local media, please indicate which one they do apply to:

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____

7. Please describe the board's role in selecting and preparing a Crime of the Week/Month for airing and publication.

Citizen Response

1. In your community, what do you think serves as the stronger incentive for most callers -- the reward or the anonymity?

Reward.....1
Anonymity.....2
Both Equal.....3
Don't Know.....4

2. Do you feel that the program stimulates citizens to call anonymously about incidents that otherwise would not come to the attention of the police?

Yes.....1 (If Yes, what types of incidents?)

No.....2 _____

Overview: Past & Future

1. Has your program experienced any "difficult times"?

Yes.....1

No.....2 (If No, skip to Question 3)

2. How long did these difficult times last, and what do you think was the major cause?

3. Assuming there is always room for improvement, what component or aspect of your program would you like to see strengthened, and why? (Please be specific).

4. Do you have any advice or suggestions for new programs? What are the important lessons that need to be learned?

5. Looking ahead, what changes do you see happening among programs? What positive changes do you envision? What negative changes do you envision?

Positive Changes

Negative Changes

Chairman Profile

1. What is your age? _____

2. What is your sex?

Male.....1

Female.....2

3. What is your racial/ethnic background?

Asian.....1

Black.....2

Hispanic.....3

White.....4

American Indian.....5

Other (Please specify) _____..6

4. What was the highest grade or year of school you completed? (Please circle one)

Elementary..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

High School..... 9 10 11 12

Some College..... 13

College Graduate..... 14

Some Graduate School..... 15

Masters Degree..... 16

Doctoral Degree..... 17

Thank you for your cooperation.

Appendix D

National Media Executives Survey

Medill Media and Police Project Questionnaire

Please circle the number associated with the answer you choose in each closed-ended question. Also please follow the SKIP instructions which will help to lead you to the next appropriate question based on your answers. Feel free to include additional comments in the margins or on a separate sheet of paper. Thank you.

Q1. What is the overall crime rate in your community? Is it ...

very high,	5
high,	4
moderate,	3
low, or.	2
very low?	1
DON'T KNOW	9

Q2. What is the degree of fear of crime in your community? Is it ...

very high,	5
high,	4
moderate,	3
low, or.	2
very low?	1
DON'T KNOW	9

Q3. Does your news organization encourage citizen involvement in crime prevention activities and/or programs through the news stories which you run?

NO	1	[SKIP TO Q5]
YES.	2	

Q4. Please describe what your news organization has done to encourage citizen participation in crime prevention activities and/or programs.

Q5. In general, how accurate is the perception of residents in your community about the amount of crime in your community? Is it ...

very accurate,	4
somewhat accurate,	3
somewhat inaccurate, or.	2
very inaccurate?	1
DON'T KNOW	9

Q6. In general, are citizens in your community actively involved in trying to prevent crime, or are they generally inactive and/or apathetic when it comes to crime prevention?

ACTIVELY INVOLVED. 1
SOMEWHERE IN BETWEEN 2
INACTIVE AND/OR APATHETIC. 3
DON'T KNOW 9

Q7. In general, how interested are citizens in your community in stories that deal with the occurrence and investigation of crimes? Are they ...

very interested, 4
quite interested, 3
somewhat interested, or. 2
not at all interested? 1
DON'T KNOW 9

Q8. In general, how interested are citizens in your community in news stories that deal with the internal workings/operations of your local police department? Are they ...

very interested, 4
quite interested, 3
somewhat interested, or. 2
not at all interested? 1
DON'T KNOW 9

Q9. Briefly describe the type of coverage your news organization gives to stories about the commission and investigation of local crimes, and to stories about the internal workings of your community's police department. Please include the number of persons assigned to this coverage and an explanation of how specific stories are assigned.

Q10. When your reporters request information from your community's police department, how often do the police provide full, detailed and accurate responses? Do they do so ...

always, 4
most of the time, 3
sometimes, or. 2
never? 1
DON'T KNOW 9

Q11. From an editorial standpoint, how satisfied is your news organization with the quality of service your police department provides the local community? Is your organization ...

very satisfied, 4 [SKIP TO Q13]
somewhat satisfied, 3
somewhat dissatisfied, or. 2
very dissatisfied? 1
DON'T KNOW 9

Q12. In what ways is your organization less than fully satisfied with the service provided by your local police to the community?

Q13. How professional a reputation does your local police department have with in your community? Are they generally thought of as ...

very professional, 4
somewhat professional, 3
somewhat unprofessional, or. 2
very unprofessional? 1
DON'T KNOW 9

Q14. What is your local police department's opinion of the professionalism of your news organization? Do they generally regard your organization as ...

very professional, 4
somewhat professional, 3
somewhat unprofessional, or. 2
very unprofessional? 1
DON'T KNOW 9

Q15. To what extent does your news organization generally regard the local police department's operations as corrupt? Do you regard them as ...

very corrupt, 4
quite corrupt, 3
somewhat corrupt, or 2
not at all corrupt? 1 [SKIP TO Q17]
DON'T KNOW 9

Q16. In what ways does your organization regard your local police operations as corrupt?

Q17. To what extent is the suppression of crime information by the police a problem in your community? Does your organization regard it as a ...

big problem, 3
some problem, or 2
basically no problem? 1 [SKIP TO Q19]
DON'T KNOW 9

Q18. Please list any types of crimes that your organization suspects (or knows) your local police try to suppress.

Q19. Do your local police generally feel that your organization's coverage of crime related stories interferes with their work?

No 1 [SKIP TO Q21]
Yes. 2

Q20. In what ways do the police feel your news coverage interferes with their work?

Q21. In your opinion, how related is police cooperation with your news organization to previous coverage of their activities by your organization? Would you say it's ...

highly correlated, 3
somewhat correlated, or. 2
not at all correlated? 1
DON'T KNOW 9

Q22. In your opinion, how satisfied are the local police with your news organization's coverage of crime related stories? Are they ...

very satisfied,. 4 [SKIP TO Q24]
somewhat satisfied,. 3
somewhat dissatisfied, or. 2
very dissatisfied? 1
DON'T KNOW 9

Q23. In what ways are they less than fully statisfied with your organization's coverage of crime related stories?

Q24. What, if any, policy differences or disagreements are there between your local police and your news organization's editorial stance regarding the way the police conduct their activities? [If none, please write in "none"]

Q25. Is your news organization's coverage of the quality of service provided by your local police department, generally, ...

very positive/favorable, 5
somewhat positive/favorable, 4
mixed, 3
somewhat negative/unfavorable, or. 2
very negative/unfavorable? 1

Q26. How effective is your organization's coverage of stories about wanted or missing persons in generating response from your local citizenry? Is it ...

very effective, 4
quite effective, 3
somewhat effective, or 2
not at all effective? 1
DON'T KNOW 9

Q27. In general, if the media were to cooperate with their local police department in some form of crime prevention program, how much might such cooperation serve to compromise the media's future objectivity in covering police related stories? Would you say it's likely to be a ...

great compromise, 4
moderate compromise, 3
slight compromise, or 2
no compromise? 1
DON'T KNOW 9

Q28. If your news organization were to cooperate with your local police department in some form of crime prevention program, how much might that compromise your organization's future objectivity in covering police related stories? Would you say it's likely to be a ...

great compromise, 4
moderate compromise, 3
slight compromise, or 2
no compromise? 1
DON'T KNOW 9

Q29. Does your organization currently cooperate with your local police department in any anti-crime program?

NO 1 [SKIP TO Q31]
YES. 2

Q30. Is this a "Crime Stoppers" program?

NO 1
YES. 2 [SKIP TO Q35]

Q31. Have you ever heard of Crime Stoppers?

NO 1
YES. 2 [SKIP TO Q33]

Q32a. Crime Stoppers is an anti-crime program which involves the police, the media, and the citizenry. Rewards are offered to citizens who anonymously call a special "Crime Stoppers" telephone number with "tips" which lead to arrests and convictions of suspected criminals. The media help publicize the program, often by running stories on "the crime of the week". If such a program were planned for your community, how likely is it that your organization would participate? Is it ...

very likely, 4 [SKIP TO Q50]
somewhat likely, 3
somewhat unlikely, or. 2
very unlikely? 1
DON'T KNOW 9

Q32b. Why might your organization not want to participate in such a program?

***** [SKIP TO Q50] *****

Q33. Is there a Crime Stoppers program in your community?

NO 1
YES. 2 [SKIP TO Q35]

Q34a. If a Crime Stoppers program were planned for your community, how likely is it that your news organization would participate? [See Q32a for description of Crime Stoppers] Is it ...

very likely, 4 [SKIP TO Q50]
somewhat likely, 3
somewhat unlikely, or. 2
very unlikely? 1
DON'T KNOW 9

Q34b. Why might your organization not want to participate in such a program?

***** [SKIP TO Q50] *****

Q35. Does your organization participate in your local Crime Stoppers program?

NO 1
YES. 2 [SKIP TO Q37]

Q36. Which of the following are reasons why your news organization does not participate in Crime Stoppers? [Please circle all that apply]

- a. Another media outlet has an exclusive arrangement with the Program which pre-empts our participation. 1
- b. Our organization has never been asked to participate. 2
- c. Crime Stoppers is more appropriate for other media types than ours 3
- d. The Program is identified with another local news organization 4
- e. Participation on our part might interfere with our efforts to provide objective coverage of police and crime news 5
- f. Crime Stoppers is beyond the scope of what a news organization should be doing. 6
- g. We have a basic disagreement with the philosophy which underlies Crime Stoppers 7
- h. There are administrative problems in coordinating our participation. 8
- i. We don't believe it would be an effective anti-crime program in our community 9

Other: _____

Q37. How successful is the Crime Stoppers program in your community? Is it ...

very successful, 4
quite successful, 3
somewhat successful, or. 2
not at all successful? 1
DON'T KNOW 9

Q38. How would you rate public opinion toward the local Crime Stoppers program? Is it ...

very positive,	7
positive,	6
somewhat positive,	5
neutral/mixed,	4
somewhat negative,	3
negative, or	2
very negative?	1
DON'T KNOW	9

If your organization does not participate in Crime Stoppers SKIP TO Q50

Q39. When did your news organization start participating in Crime Stoppers?

_____ year

Q40. Did your organization help start Crime Stoppers in your community?

NO	1
YES.	2

Q41. Please list the reasons that your organization participates in Crime Stoppers?

Q42. Briefly describe the nature of your organization's participation in Crime Stoppers. That is, what does your organization do to help the Program?

Q43. Does your news organization have an exclusive arrangement with your local Crime Stoppers program? That is, are you the only news organization that participates with the Crime Stoppers program in your community?

NO 1 [SKIP TO Q46]
YES. 2

Q44. Whose decision was it to develop this exclusive arrangement?

Q45. If your news organization could not maintain this exclusive arrangement, how likely would it be that your organization would continue to participate in the Crime Stoppers program? Would it be ...

very likely, 4
somewhat likely, 3
somewhat unlikely, or. 2
very unlikely? 1
DON'T KNOW 9

Q46. Does your local Crime Stoppers program have a "Crime of the Week" or "Crime of the Month" feature?

NO 1 [SKIP TO Q50]
YES. 2

Q47. How is the Crime of the Week/Month chosen?

Q48. What type of crime is usually chosen as the Crime of the Week/Month?

Q49. How satisfied is your organization with the selection of the Crime of the Week/Month? In general, are you ...

very satisfied, 4
somewhat satisfied, 3
somewhat dissatisfied, or. 2
very dissatisfied? 1
DON'T KNOW 9

Q50. In the long run, do you think that anti-crime programs such as Crime Stoppers may cause an erosion of citizen initiative to participate in the "Criminal Justice Process" without inducements (e.g., rewards)?

NO 1
YES. 2
DON'T KNOW 9

Q51. Please describe any other anti-crime programs in which your news organization participates. [If none, please write in "none"]

Q52. Would the editorial stances generally taken by your news organization be considered ...

very conservative, 7
conservative, 6
somewhat conservative, 5
moderate/independent, 4
somewhat liberal, 3
liberal, or 2
very liberal? 1

Thank you very much for your cooperation in this research project. Your responses are completely confidential. If you would like a written summary of the findings please provide your name and address below. These identifiers will be cut off the bottom of this page as soon as we receive your questionnaire.

Name: _____

Address: _____

Appendix E

Impact Study Surveys (Community, Business, and Police)

Crime Stoppers
Indianapolis Community Survey - 1985 Wave II

Time Interview Began _____ a.m.
p.m.

** First of all, I have a few questions about the neighborhood where you live.

1. How many years have you lived in your present neighborhood?

_____ years
(DON'T KNOW)99

10-11

2. On the whole, how satisfied are you with living in your neighborhood? Would you say that you are. . . .

Very satisfied, 4
Somewhat satisfied, 3
Somewhat dissatisfied, or 2
Very dissatisfied? 1
(DON'T KNOW). 9

12

3. How many of the people on your block do you know by name -- all of them, most of them, some, hardly any, or none?

All of them 5
Most of them 4
Some 3
Hardly any 2
None 1
(DON'T KNOW). 9

13

4. In general, would you describe the crime rate in your neighborhood as . . .

Very high, 5
Higher than average, 4
About average, 3
Lower than average, or 2
Very low? 1
(DON'T KNOW) 9

14

5. How often are people robbed of their money, beaten up, or assaulted on the streets in your neighborhood. Does this happen
- | | | |
|-----------------------------|---|----|
| Very often, | 4 | 15 |
| Quite often, | 3 | |
| Not too often, or | 2 | |
| Almost never? | 1 | |
| (DON'T KNOW) | 9 | |
6. How safe do you feel or would you feel being out alone in your neighborhood at night? Do you feel . . .
- | | | |
|-------------------------------|---|----|
| Very safe, | 4 | 16 |
| Somewhat safe, | 3 | |
| Somewhat unsafe, or | 2 | |
| Very unsafe? | 1 | |
| (DON'T KNOW) | 9 | |
7. How concerned are you that someone will break into your home to steal something when no one is home? Are you
- | | | |
|---------------------------------|---|----|
| Not at all concerned, | 4 | 17 |
| Somewhat concerned, | 3 | |
| Quite concerned, or | 2 | |
| Very concerned? | 1 | |
| (DON'T KNOW) | 9 | |
8. When it comes to the prevention of crime in a community, do you feel that it's more the responsibility of the residents, or more the responsibility of the police?
- | | | |
|---------------------------------|---|----|
| The police | 1 | 18 |
| Residents | 3 | |
| (EQUALLY RESPONSIBLE) | 2 | |
| (DON'T KNOW) | 9 | |
9. If a person has information about a crime, how responsible are they for reporting what they know to the police without expecting to be paid for the information? Are they
- | | | |
|------------------------------------|---|----|
| Very responsible, | 3 | 19 |
| Somewhat responsible, or | 2 | |
| Not at all responsible? | 1 | |
| (DON'T KNOW) | 9 | |

10. Are you aware of any crime prevention activities in your neighborhood such as neighborhood watch meetings, block watch meetings, or police officers offering crime prevention tips?

Yes 1

20

No 0 (IF NO, SKIP TO Q. 12a)

11. In the past year or so have you participated in any crime prevention activities in your neighborhood?

Yes 1

21

No 0

12a. Have you heard about a program in Indianapolis called Crime Stoppers?

Yes 1

(SKIP TO Q. 13)

22

No 0

(NOT SURE). 8

12b. Have you heard about a program in Indianapolis that publicizes a crime on TV, radio, or in a newspaper, and then offers a reward to anyone who supplies anonymous information to the police about who committed the crime?

Yes 1

23

No 0

(NOT SURE). 8

(SKIP TO ** on page 5)

13. How did you first become aware of the program? Did you first hear about it on the radio or television, in the newspaper, or from other people?

Radio 1

24

Television 2

Newspaper 3

Other people 4

(DON'T KNOW) 9

14. Have you seen any of the program's crime reenactments on TV?

Yes 1
No 0 (SKIP TO Q. 15)

25

PASS OVER

14a. How often do you watch the crime reenactments on TV? Do you watch them ...

Every week, 4
Every other week, 3
Once a month, or 2
Less than once a month? 1
(DON'T KNOW) 9

66

14b. In general, what was your response to the reenactments? Please give me a quick yes or no answer to the following.

1) Were the reenactments realistic?

Yes 1
No. 0
(DON'T KNOW) 9

67

2) Were they often about violent crimes?

Yes 1
No. 0
(DON'T KNOW) 9

68

3) Were they fear-arousing for viewers?

Yes. 1
No. 0
(DON'T KNOW) 9

69

4) Were they instructive or educational for viewers?

Yes. 1
No. 0
(DON'T KNOW) 9

70

15. Have you read about the program or about any of the crimes it publicizes in the newspaper?
- Yes 1 26
- No 0
16. Have you heard any of the program's broadcasts on the radio?
- Yes 1 27
- No 0
17. In your opinion, would you say that the level of awareness of Crime Stoppers in Indianapolis is
- High, 3 28
- Moderate, or 2
- Low? 1
- (DON'T KNOW) 9
18. Have you ever called the Crime Stoppers number?
- Yes 1 29
- No 0
- (DON'T KNOW) 9

** Now I'm going to ask you some questions about programs like Crime Stoppers. As you may know, these programs depict real crimes on TV, on the radio, and in the newspaper. The programs are carried out through the efforts of a local police or sheriff's department. Citizens who know anything about the crimes described in the media are encouraged to call the police to report the information. Callers are allowed to remain anonymous, and when the information they give leads to the arrest of a suspected criminal they are offered a financial reward by private citizens who raise money for the program.

Crime Stoppers and similar programs are beginning in many cities across the United States and in Canada. They first appeared in 1976 and have since been given a lot of publicity in newspapers and magazines, and on TV talk shows. People have different views about these programs. We are interested in your opinions about them.

19. How effective do you think such programs would be in leading to the arrest of suspected criminals? Would you say they would be

Very effective, 4
 Somewhat effective, 3
 Not very effective, or 2
 Not at all effective? 1
 (DON'T KNOW) 9

30

20. How effective do you think these programs would be in preventing crime? Would you say they would be

Very effective, 4
 Somewhat effective, 3
 Not very effective, or 2
 Not at all effective? 1
 (DON'T KNOW) 9

31

21. There are many reasons why people might be motivated to call these types of programs. In your opinion, what is the main reason that most people might call? Is it because they want to reduce crime, they feel a moral obligation, they want to try to get revenge on someone, or they want to collect a reward?

Reduce crime 4
 Moral obligation 3
 Revenge 2
 Collect a Reward 1
 (DON'T KNOW) 9

32

22. If you had information about a crime, how likely is it that you would call such a program to report the information? Would you say you would

Definitely call, 4 (SKIP TO Q. 24)
 Probably call, 3
 Probably not call, or 2
 Definitely not call? 1
 (DON'T KNOW) 9

33

23. What are the reason(s) why you might be unwilling to call?

24. Now I'm going to read you a few reasons why a person may have information about a crime and decide not to report the information to such programs. What do you think is the main reason people don't call? Is it because they are afraid the criminal might get revenge, they believe reporting the crime really won't help, they don't want to turn in people they know, or they may have had bad experiences with the police?

Criminal revenge 4
Reporting won't help 3
Don't want to turn in people they know. . 2
Bad experiences with police 1
(DON'T KNOW) 9

34

25. Programs like Crime Stoppers raise money through private donations in order to pay citizens rewards for calling. If someone from such a program approached you to ask for a donation, how willing would you be to give money? Would you be

Very willing, 4 (SKIP TO Q. 27)
Somewhat willing, 3
Somewhat unwilling or, 2
Very unwilling? 1
(DON'T KNOW) 9

35

26. What are the reason(s) why you might be unwilling to contribute?
-
-
-

27. How do you feel about paying people to volunteer information about crimes? In general, do you feel this is a good practice or a bad practice?

Good practice 1
Bad practice 0
(DON'T KNOW) 9

36

28. How likely is it that programs that pay anonymous callers will encourage people to think it's ok to snitch on their neighbors? Is it

Very likely, 4
Somewhat likely, 3
Somewhat unlikely or, 2
Very unlikely? 1
(DON'T KNOW) 9

37

** Now, I'd like to ask you a few questions about yourself.

29. During the past year, have you called the Indianapolis police for any reason?

Yes	1	38
No	0	
(DON'T KNOW)	9	

30. During the past year, have you reported any crimes or suspicious activities to the Indianapolis police?

Yes	1	39
No	0	
(DON'T KNOW)	9	

31. In general, how satisfied are you with the quality of police services in Indianapolis? Are you . . .

Very satisfied,.	4	40
Somewhat satisfied,.	3	
Somewhat dissatisfied, or.	2	
Very dissatisfied?	1	
(DON'T KNOW)	9	

32. During the past year in Indianapolis, has any of your own property been stolen, destroyed, or damaged, such as breaking into your home, slashing the tires on your car, or stealing your bicycle?

Yes	1	41
No	0	
(DON'T KNOW)	9	

33. During the past year in Indianapolis, have you been robbed on the street or physically attacked or has someone threatened you or tried to harm you?

Yes	1	42
No	0	
(DON'T KNOW)	9	

34. Do you personally know of anyone else in Indianapolis who has been a victim of crime during the past year, such as being robbed, attacked, threatened, or having their property stolen or damaged?

Yes 1
No 0
(DON'T KNOW) 9

43

35. On an average weekday, how much time do you usually spend watching television from the time you get up until you go to sleep?

_____ Hours _____ Minutes (IF NONE, SKIP
(DON'T KNOW) 9999 TO Q.42)

44-45

46-47

36. When you come across news stories about crime on television, do you usually pay close attention to them, some attention, or not much attention at all?

Close attention 3
Some attention 2
Not much attention at all 1
(DON'T KNOW) 9

48

37. In general, how satisfied are you with the way television stations present local news stories about crime? Are you

Very satisfied, 4
Somewhat satisfied, 3
Somewhat dissatisfied, or 2
Very dissatisfied? 1
(DON'T KNOW) 9

49

38. Do you feel that television stations spend too much time covering local news stories about crime, not enough time, or the right amount of time?

Too much time 3
Not enough time 1
Right amount of time 2

50

39. How often do you watch police, crime, or detective programs on television?
Do you watch them very often, quite often, not too often, or almost never?

Very often 4
Quite often 3
Not too often 2
Almost never 1
(DON'T KNOW) 9

51

40. Which television channel do you watch most often -- Channel 4, 6, 8, or 13?

Channel 4 04
Channel 6 06
Channel 8 08
Channel 13. 13

52-53

41. During the past six months or so have you seen any public service
announcements showing McGruff the crime dog talking about preventing and
reporting crime?

Yes 1
No 0
(DON'T KNOW) 9

54

** Now I'll finish by asking you just a few background questions that are needed to analyze the results.

42. In what year were you born? _____ year

(REFUSED) 9998

55-58

(DON'T KNOW) . . . 9999

43. What was the highest grade or year of school you completed?

None 00

59-60

Elementary 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08

High School 09 10 11 12

Some College 13

College graduate (bachelors) 14

Some graduate school 15

Masters degree 16

Doctoral degree 17

(REFUSED) 98

(DON'T KNOW) 99

44. Are you presently married or living with someone as married?

Yes 1

61

No 0

(REFUSED) 8

45. For 1983, was your total household income from all sources, before taxes,...

(Repeat until "no")

More than \$10,000? No 1

62

More than \$20,000? No 2

More than \$30,000? No 3

More than \$50,000? No 4

Yes 5

(REFUSED) 8

(DON'T KNOW) 9

46. What is your racial-ethnic background? Are you

Asian, 1
Black, 2
Hispanic, 3
White, 4
American Indian, or 5
Something else? (specify _____) . . . 6
(REFUSED) 8
(DON'T KNOW) 9

63

** Thank you very much for your cooperation.

(HANG UP - GO TO Q.47)

47. Sex

Male 0
Female 1

64

48. Do you think the information given by respondent was

Accurate 1
Inaccurate 0 (why?)

65

For
66-70
SEE
PAGE
FOUR

TIME ENDED _____

July, 1985

Police Survey

Indianapolis Police Department

1. What division or unit are you currently assigned to?

Patrol1
Investigations2
Other (Please specify below)3

8

2. How long have you been with the Indianapolis Police Department? (Fill in the years and months)

Years _____ Months _____

9-10
11-12

3. What type of position do you expect to have 5 years from now?

Police Work1
Business2
Retirement3
Other (Please specify below)4

13

4. If you could start all over, would you want to re-enter police work?

Definitely1
Probably2
Probably not3
Definitely not4
Don't know9

14

5. How satisfied are you with your current assignment?

Very satisfied1	15
Somewhat satisfied2	
Somewhat dissatisfied.3	
Very Dissatisfied.4	

6. Overall, how satisfied are you with police work in general?

Very satisfied1	16
Somewhat satisfied2	
Somewhat dissatisfied.3	
Very Dissatisfied.4	

7. On a scale from 1 to 5, please rate the performance of Indianapolis residents in each of the following areas. (Circle one number for each area).

	<u>Excellent</u>	<u>Good</u>	<u>Average</u>	<u>Below Average</u>	<u>Poor</u>	<u>Don't Know</u>	
a. Reporting crime.	1	2	3	4	5	9	17
b. Assisting police	1	2	3	4	5	9	18
c. Reporting suspicious activity	1	2	3	4	5	9	19
d. Following police suggestions on safety and crime prevention.	1	2	3	4	5	9	20

8. Compared to citizens in other cities, would you say the residents of Indianapolis feel more or less safe from crime?

More Safe	3	21
Less Safe	1	
About the Same	2	
Don't know	9	

9. Have you heard about a program in Indianapolis called Crime Stoppers?

Yes	1 (Skip to Q.11)	22
No	0	

10. Have you heard about a program in Indianapolis that publicizes a crime on TV, radio, or in a newspaper, and then offers a reward to anyone who supplies anonymous information to the police about who committed the crime?

Yes 1
No 0 (Skip Q.16)

23

11. How did you first become aware of the program? (Please describe)
-
-

12. Have you seen any of the program's crime reenactments on TV?

Yes 1
No 0

24

13. Have you read about the program or about any of the crimes it publicizes in the newspaper?

Yes 1
No 0

25

14. Have you heard any of the program's broadcasts on the radio?

Yes 1
No 0

26

15. In your opinion, would you say that the level of awareness of Crime Stoppers in Indianapolis is . . .

High, 3
Moderate, or 2
Low? 1
Don't know. 9

27

16. In general, do you feel it is a good practice or a bad practice to pay people to come forth with information about crimes?

Good practice 1
Bad practice 2
Don't know 9

28

** The next few questions pertain to programs like Crime Stoppers. As you may know, these programs depict real crimes on TV, on the radio, and in the newspaper. The programs are carried out through the efforts of a local police or sheriff's department. Citizens who know anything about the crimes described in the media are encouraged to call the police to report the information. Callers are allowed to remain anonymous, and when the information they give leads to the arrest of a suspected criminal they are offered a financial reward by private citizens who raise money for the program.

Crime Stoppers and similar programs are beginning in many cities across the United States and in Canada. They first appeared in 1976 and have since been given a lot of publicity in newspapers and magazines, and on TV talk shows. People have different views about these programs. We are interested in your opinions about them.

17. How effective do you think such programs would be in leading to the arrest of suspected criminals? Would you say they would be...

Very effective	4	29
Somewhat effective	3	
Not very effective	2	
Not at all effective	1	

18. How effective do you think these programs would be in preventing crime? Would you say they would be...

Very effective	4	30
Somewhat effective	3	
Not very effective	2	
Not at all effective	1	

19. How effective do you think these programs are in solving crimes that otherwise would have remained unsolved if the program were not in existence?

Very effective	4	31
Somewhat effective	3	
Not very effective	2	
Not at all effective	1	

20. How willing would you be to accept an assignment working with a Crime Stoppers Program in a variety of roles, ranging from investigative work to public relations?

Very willing	1	32
Somewhat willing	2	
Somewhat unwilling	3	
Very unwilling	4	

21. How willing would you be to volunteer time outside your regular police duties to work with a Crime Stoppers program?

Very willing	1	33
Somewhat willing	2	
Somewhat unwilling	3	
Very unwilling	4	

22. Do you have informants who routinely supply you with information about criminal activity?

Yes	1	34
No	0 (Skip to Q. 27)	

23. How often do informants want money before they are willing to talk?

Very often	4	35
Quite often	3	
Not very often	2	
Almost never	1	

24. How useful are these informants in helping you to solve crimes?

Very Useful	4	36
Somewhat Useful	3	
Not very useful	2	
Not at all useful	1	

25. In general, how often does the information supplied by an informant lead directly to an arrest?

Very often	4	37
Quite often	3	
Not very often.	2	
Almost never.	1	

26. How would you best categorize the majority of informants?

Good Citizens	1	38
Criminals	2	
Former Criminals	3	
Fringe Players (Persons who associate with criminals but who themselves don't commit crimes)	4	
Other (Please specify below)	5	

27. In your opinion, how effective are the Department's investigative units in solving crimes?

Very effective	4	39
Somewhat effective	3	
Not very effective	2	
Not at all effective	1	

28. Compared to last year, would you say the investigative units are presently solving more crimes, less crimes, or about the same number of crimes?

More crimes	3	40
Less crimes	1	
About the same	2	
Don't know9	

** The following background information is needed to properly analyze the questionnaire results.

29. What is your sex?

Male 0
Female 1

41

30. What is your racial/ethnic background?

Asian 1
Black 2
Hispanic 3
White 4
American Indian 5
Other (Please specify below) 6

42

31. What was the highest grade or year of school you completed?

None00
Elementary01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08
High School 9 10 11 12
Some College 13
College Graduate 14
Some Graduate School. 15
Masters Degree 16
Doctoral Degree 17

43-44

32. Are you currently . . .

Married1
Living with someone as married2
Widowed3
Divorced4
Separated5
Never been married6

45

** Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Indianapolis Business Survey

Do not
write
in this
column

Date/Seq 85-

1-3

1. Is your business an owner-operated store, a franchise, or a branch of a larger firm?

Owner-operated, independent 1
Franchise or chain 2
Branch of a larger firm 3
Other (Please specify in the space below) . . 4

5

2. Please indicate the type of business you operate.

Retail 1
Wholesale 2
Service 3
Professional 4
Other (Please specify in the space below) . . 5

6

3. Does your business own your building?

Yes 1
No 0

7

4. How long has your business been at its present location?
_____ years

8-9

5. How many persons does your business employ? (Estimates are acceptable).

Full-time employees _____

10-13

Part-time employees _____

14-17

Do not
write
in this
column

6. How many times has your business been victimized by the following crimes during the past year? (Circle one for each crime)

Crime	Not at All	Once	Twice	Three Times	Four or More Times	DON'T KNOW	
*Burglary	0	1	2	3	4	9	18
**Robbery	0	1	2	3	4	9	19
Shoplifting	0	1	2	3	4	9	20
Employee Theft	0	1	2	3	4	9	21
Other Crimes	0	1	2	3	4	9	22

- * Breaking and entering the store when the premises are vacated
 ** A face-to-face hold up of a store employee

7. How safe do you consider your business to be with respect to the following types of crimes? (Circle one for each crime)

Crime	Very Safe	Somewhat Safe	Somewhat Unsafe	Very Unsafe	DON'T KNOW	
*Burglary	1	2	3	4	9	23
**Robbery	1	2	3	4	9	24
Shoplifting	1	2	3	4	9	25
Employee Theft	1	2	3	4	9	26
Other Crimes	1	2	3	4	9	27

- * Breaking and entering the store when the premises are vacated
 ** A face-to-face hold up of a store employee

8. Has your business made any changes in security during the past year to protect itself against crime? (e.g., installed an alarm system, changed locks, hired security, trained employees in security measures)

Yes 1 28
 No 0 (Skip to Q. 10)

9. What was the approximate cost of these changes in security?
 \$ _____

Do not
write
in this
column

10. In the past year, have you participated in any crime prevention meetings with other businesses?

Yes 1
No 0

34

11. In the past year, have you attended any crime prevention training sessions with police officers?

Yes 1
No 0

35

12. How satisfied are you with Indianapolis as a place to do business?

Very satisfied 1
Somewhat satisfied 2
Somewhat dissatisfied 3
Very dissatisfied 4

36

13. In general, would you describe the crime rate in the community where your business is located as

Very high 5
Higher than average 4
About average 3
Lower than average 2
Very low 1

37

14. In general, what do you think is the most serious crime problem in the community where your business is located? (Please specify below)

Do not
write
in this
column

15. Which of the following effects does crime have on your business?
(Check all that apply)

- | | |
|--|----|
| _____ Customers limit their shopping because of their fear of crime. | 38 |
| _____ Difficulties recruiting employees because of the community's reputation regarding crime. | 39 |
| _____ Restriction of evening hours because of crime-related problems. | 40 |
| _____ Increased investments of time and money to protect the store against crime. | 41 |
| _____ Growing personal fears that the business will be victimized by crime. | 42 |
| _____ Loss of profits due to crime. | 43 |
| _____ Other (Please specify) _____ | |

16. Please list below any problems in the local community other than crime that interfere with the successful operation of your business.

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____

17. How likely do you think it is that your business will move from this location in the next two years?

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|----|
| Definitely move | 5 | 44 |
| Probably move | 4 | |
| 50/50 chance | 3 | |
| Probably not move | 2 | |
| Definitely not move | 1 | |
| Would like to but can't | 8 | |

Do not
write
in this
column

18. How satisfied are you with the quality of police services in the business community?

Very satisfied 4
Somewhat satisfied 3
Somewhat dissatisfied 2
Very dissatisfied 1
Don't know 9

45

19. Do you have any suggestions for improving the quality of police services in the business community? (Please list)

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____
d. _____

20. How satisfied are you with the quality of police service in Indianapolis as a whole?

Very satisfied 4
Somewhat satisfied 3
Somewhat dissatisfied 2
Very dissatisfied 1
Don't know 9

46

21. During the past year, have you called the police for any reason?

Yes 1
No 0
Don't Know 9

47

Do not
write
in this
column

22. On a scale of 1-5 what rating would you give the police in this community on each of the following dimensions? (Circle one number for each dimension)

	Excellent	Good	Average	Below Average	Poor	Don't Know	
a. Being highly visible . . .	1 . . .	2 . . .	3 . . .	4 . . .	5 . .	9	48
b. Knowledge of business' problems	1 . . .	2 . . .	3 . . .	4 . . .	5 . .	9	49
c. Effectiveness in apprehending criminals. .	1 . . .	2 . . .	3 . . .	4 . . .	5 . .	9	50
d. Responsivenss to business' concerns . . .	1 . . .	2 . . .	3 . . .	4 . . .	5 . .	9	51
e. Educating business about crime prevention. .	1 . . .	2 . . .	3 . . .	4 . . .	5 . .	9	52

23. In your opinion, who is more responsible for doing something about crimes against business -- the businesses themselves or the police?

The police	0	53
The businesses	1	
Don't know	9	

24. Have you heard about a program in Indianapolis called Crime Stoppers?

Yes	1 (SKIP TO Q.26)	54
No.	0	

25. Have you heard about a program in Indianapolis that publicizes a crime on TV, radio, or in a newspaper, and then offers a reward to anyone who supplies anonymous information to the police about who committed the crime?

Yes	1	55
No	0 (IF NO, SKIP TO ** on Pg.8)	

Do not
write
in this
column

26. How did you first become aware of the program? Did you first hear about it on the radio or television, in the newspaper, or from other people?

Radio 1
Television 2
Newspaper 3
Other people 4
Don't know 9

56

27. Have you seen any of the program's crime reenactments on TV?

Yes 1
No 0

57

28. Have you read about the program or about any of the crimes it publicizes in the newspaper?

Yes 1
No 0

58

29. Have you heard any of the program's broadcasts on the radio?

Yes 1
No 0

59

30. In your opinion, would you say that the level of awareness of Crime Stoppers in Indianapolis is . . .

High, 3
Moderate, or 2
Low? 1
Don't know 9

60

31. Have you ever called the Crime Stoppers number?

Yes 1
No. 0

61

Do not
write
in this
column

** The next few questions pertain to programs like Crime Stoppers. As you may know, these programs depict real crimes on TV, on the radio, and in the newspaper. The programs are carried out through the efforts of a local police or sheriff's department. Citizens who know anything about the crimes described in the media are encouraged to call the police to report the information. Callers are allowed to remain anonymous, and when the information they give leads to the arrest of a suspected criminal they are offered a financial reward by private citizens who raise money for the program.

Crime Stoppers and similar programs are beginning in many cities across the United States and in Canada. They first appeared in 1976 and have since been given a lot of publicity in newspapers and magazines, and on TV talk shows. People have different views about these programs. We are interested in your opinions about them.

32. How effective do you think such programs would be in leading to the arrest of suspected criminals? Would you say they would be . . .

Very effective	4
Somewhat effective	3
Not very effective	2
Not at all effective	1

62

33. How effective do you think these programs would be in preventing crime? Would you say they would be . . .

Very effective	4
Somewhat effective	3
Not very effective	2
Not at all effective	1

63

34. How effective do you think these programs would be in decreasing the likelihood that your business will be victimized by crime? Would you say it will be . . .

Very effective	4
Somewhat effective	3
Not very effective	2
Not at all effective	1

64

Do not
write
in this
column

35. If you had information about a crime, how likely is it that you would call Crime Stoppers to report the information? Would you

Definitely call 4 (SKIP TO Q. 37)
Probably call 3
Probably not call 2
Definitely not call 1
Don't know 9

65

36. Please list any reason(s) why you might be unwilling to call Crime Stoppers.

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____

37. Programs like Crime Stoppers raise money through private donations in order to pay citizens rewards for calling. If someone from such a program approached you to ask for a donation, how willing would you be to give money? Would you be . . .

Very willing 4 (SKIP TO Q. 39)
Somewhat willing 3
Somewhat unwilling 2
Very unwilling 1

66

38. Please list any reason(s) why you might be unwilling to contribute to Crime Stoppers.

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____

Do not
write
in this
column

39. A Crime Stoppers Program has a Board of Directors that typically meets once a month and consist of private citizens who volunteer to run the program. Board members decide on the amount and method of reward payment, select crimes to be featured in the media, and make fund raising decisions. If someone from the Crime Stoppers program invited you to serve as a member of the Board of Directors, how willing would you be to participate? Would you be . . .

Very willing 4 (SKIP TO Q. 41)
Somewhat willing 3
Somewhat unwilling 2
Very unwilling 1
Don't know 9

67

40. Please list any reasons why you might be reluctant to join the Board of Directors of Crime Stoppers

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____

The following background information is needed to properly analyze the questionnaire results.

41. How long have you been working with this company? _____ Years

68-69

42. What is your position in the business?

Owner 5
Manager 4
Assistant Manager 3
Employee 2
Other (Please specify below) 1

70

43. How long have you been working in business? _____ Years

71-72

Do not
write in
in this
column

44. What is your age? _____

73-74

45. What is your sex?

Male 0

75

Female 1

46. What was the highest grade or year of school you completed?

None 00

76-77

Elementary 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08

High School 09 10 11 12

Some College 13

College graduate (bachelors) 14

Some graduate school 15

Masters degree 16

Doctoral degree 17

47. Are you currently . . .

Married 1

78

Living with someone as married 2

Widowed 3

Divorced 4

Separated 5

Never been married 6

48. What is your racial-ethnic background? Are you

Asian 1

79

Black 2

Hispanic 3

White 4

American Indian 5

Something else? (specify _____) . . . 6

49. Are you interested in helping the new Indianapolis Crime Stoppers Program as a volunteer?

Do not
write
in this
column

Yes	3
Maybe	2
No.	1
Don't know.	9

80

** Thank you very much for your cooperation. Please hold on to this questionnaire. Someone will stop by to pick it up within the next two or three days.

Appendix F

Reward Experiment Questionnaire

Crime Stoppers
Informant Telephone Survey

1. How did you first become aware of Crime Stoppers? Did you first hear about it on the radio or television, in the newspaper, or from other people?

Radio	1	21
Television.	2	
Newspaper	3	
Other people.	4	
(DON'T KNOW).	9	

2. Is this the first crime for which you have called the Crime Stopper's program?

Yes	1 (Skip to Q.8)	22
No.	0	

3. How many prior cases have you called in to Crime Stoppers, not counting the latest one? _____ cases

23-24

4. Have you ever received a reward from Crime Stoppers, not counting this week's reward?

Yes	1	25
No.	0 (Skip to Q.8)	

5. How many previous rewards have you received and what were the amounts?

1. \$ _____	26-28
2. \$ _____	29-31
3. \$ _____	32-34

6. Overall, how satisfied were you with the previous reward(s)?
Tell me how satisfied you were by using a scale from 1 to 10
where 1 is "not at all satisfied" and 10 is "very satisfied."

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
Not at all					(Skip to Q. 7)					Very	
Satisfied										Satisfied	

35-36

(DON'T KNOW) 11

7. Why were you not very satisfied with the previous reward(s)?

8. Which do you think is more important to people who call the Crime
Stoppers number -- the money they might get or the fact that they
don't have to give their name?

Money	1
Anonymity	2
(BOTH)	3
(DON'T KNOW)	9

37

9. What was your main reason for calling Crime Stoppers this time?

14. Why do you feel that the reward is not a fair compensation for your efforts?

15. Do you know anyone, other than yourself, who has called Crime Stoppers in the past year?

Yes 1
No. 0
(DON'T KNOW) 9

46

16. If you witness another crime someday, how likely are you to call Crime Stoppers again? Are you...

Very likely to call, 4 (Skip to Q. 18)
Somewhat likely, 3
Somewhat unlikely, or 2
Very unlikely?. 1
(DON'T KNOW). 9

47

17. Can you think of any reason(s) why you might be unwilling to call Crime Stoppers in the future? _____

18. How effective do you think Crime Stoppers is in leading to the arrest of suspected criminals? Would you say it is

Very effective, 4
Somewhat effective, 3
Not very effective, or 2
Not at all effective? 1
(DON'T KNOW) 9

48

** Now I'd like to ask you a few questions about your experiences with crime and crime reporting.

19. During the past year or so, have you reported any crimes or suspicious activities to the police without calling the Crime Stoppers number?

Yes	1	49
No.	0	
(DON'T KNOW)	9	

20. In the past year or so have you participated in any crime prevention activities in your neighborhood, such as neighborhood watch meetings, block watch meetings, or home security improvements?

Yes	1	50
No.	0	
(DON'T KNOW)	9	

21. During the past year, has any of your own property been stolen, destroyed, or damaged, such as breaking into your home, slashing the tires on your car, or stealing your bicycle?

Yes	1	51
No.	0	
(DON'T KNOW)	9	

22. During the past year, have you been robbed on the street or physically attacked or has someone threatened you or tried to harm you?

Yes	1	52
No.	0	
(DON'T KNOW)	9	

23. How safe do you feel or would you feel being out alone in your neighborhood at night? Do you feel...

Very safe,	4	53
Somewhat safe,	3	
Somewhat unsafe, or	2	
Very unsafe?	1	
(DON'T KNOW)	9	

29. Is the suspect involved in the present case you've reported to Crime Stoppers a

Total stranger to you,	1	59
Someone you have seen before but don't know by name,	2	
Someone you know by name,	3	
An acquaintance, or	4	
A relative?	5	
(REFUSED)	8	
(DON'T KNOW)	9	

29. What is your racial-ethnic background? Are you...

Asian.	1	60
Black.	2	
Hispanic	3	
White.	4	
American Indian, or.	5	
Something else? (specify _____)	6	
(REFUSED).	8	
(DON'T KNOW)	9	

31. Are you presently married or living with someone as married?

Yes	1	61
No	0	
(REFUSED)	8	

32. In what year were you born? _____ year

(DON'T KNOW)	9999	62-65
(REFUSED)	9998	

36. Was respondent...

Very cooperative3
Somewhat cooperative2
Not very cooperative1

70

37. Do you think the information given by respondent was...

Accurate1
Inaccurate0 (Why?) _____

71

Appendix G

Site Visit Interview Formats and Observational Checklist

POLICE COORDINATOR INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Program Definition and Manpower Use

- 1a. What is the size of the population served by your program? _____
(Approximate number if exact figure is not known)
- 1b. How many square miles are covered by your program? _____
- 1c. How many different communities participate in your program? _____

2. How many full-time and part-time employees work for your program?
- ° Are they all paid a salary?
 - ° What is the source of their salary?
 - ° What are their responsibilities?
 - ° Do you have any volunteers working with your program?
 - ° In general, what are the characteristics of those who contribute their time to work with your program?

3. How would you describe the type of community in which your program is located?
- ° Is it urban, suburban, rural?
 - ° Are residents blue or white-collar workers?
 - ° Do residents typically participate in community improvement and crime prevention activities?
 - ° Is the community tightly (loosely) knit?
 - ° Is this a relatively high, medium, low crime area?
 - ° What are the most prevalent crimes?

4. Does your program have a relationship with any other programs in the area?

- ° What is the nature of the relationship?
- ° What components of your program (media, board, phone lines) do you share with other programs?
- ° How is sharing advantageous to your program?
- ° Conversely, how has it created problems/difficulties?
- ° Has anyone involved with your program or any of the other programs with which you share components complained about the arrangement?
- ° What was the nature of these complaints?

5. Does your state have a state-wide program?

- ° If yes ... Which of its services have you utilized?
- ° Are you a member of Crime Stoppers International?
- ° If no ... Why haven't you considered joining?
- ° Are you a member of any state-wide or regional associations?

6. What (if anything) is special or unique about your program?

- ° What sets your program apart from other Crime Stoppers?
- ° In your opinion (perception), how does your program compare with other Crime Stoppers? (better, average, worse?)
- ° What has been your program's greatest accomplishment since its beginning?

7. What kinds of public relations efforts do you engage in to promote your program?

- ° How often do you spend time in these types of activities?
- ° Which of the activities do you believe has been most successful in promoting your program, and why has it had such a positive impact?

History/Implementation Problems

1. What circumstances led to the development of Crime Stoppers in your community?

- ° Who was primarily responsible for the implementation of the program?
- ° How did he/she first become interested?

2. What was the hardest part of getting your program started?

- ° What major obstacles had to be overcome?
- ° How were these earlier problems redressed?
- ° Do any of these difficulties continue to plague your program?
- ° Which of the difficulties are the hardest to live with and why?
