

MF2

CRIMINAL VICTIMIZATION IN KENTUCKY: A LONGITUDINAL STUDY

RESEARCH REPORT SERIES
NUMBER 9

U.S. Department of Justice
National Institute of Justice

108853

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 in microfiche only has been granted by

Kentucky Criminal Justice Statistical
Analysis Center

to the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS)

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

KENTUCKY
CRIMINAL
JUSTICE



STATISTICAL
ANALYSIS
CENTER

STRONG
VERAL

URBAN STUDIES CENTER
UNIVERSITY OF LOUISVILLE

108853

KENTUCKY CRIMINAL JUSTICE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS CENTER

THE MISSION

The Kentucky Criminal Justice Statistical Analysis Center (SAC) was established in 1984 as a centralized clearinghouse for criminal justice statistics. A major objective of SAC is to gather concrete data about the criminal justice system in Kentucky and to disseminate that data statewide. With this information, policymakers will be better able to make criminal justice decisions.

THE STAFF

Co-Directors: C. Bruce Traughber
Office of the Attorney General
Commonwealth of Kentucky

Knowlton W. Johnson, Ph.D.
Urban Studies Center
College of Urban and Public Affairs
University of Louisville

Manager: Jack B. Ellis

University Faculty: Gordon S. Bonham, Ph.D.
Gennaro F. Vito, Ph.D.

Research Analyst: Linda Burgess, M.A.

RECENT RESEARCH PRODUCTS

- o Capital Punishment
- o Child Abuse and Neglect
- o Criminal Justice Agencies Data Inventory
- o Criminal Justice Needs-Use Assessment
- o Criminal Victimization
- o Offender-Based Tracking System
- o Persistent Felony Offenders

THE CENTER

The Kentucky Criminal Justice Statistical Analysis Center is housed in the Office of the Attorney General, Commonwealth of Kentucky, and operated by the Urban Studies Center--the policy research component of the College of Urban and Public Affairs--in cooperation with the U.S. Bureau of Justice Statistics.

SAC is available to assist you in meeting your data and information needs. For more information, contact:

Mr. Jack B. Ellis
Urban Studies Center
College of Urban and Public Affairs
University of Louisville
Louisville, Kentucky 40292
(502) 588-6626

108853

**CRIMINAL VICTIMIZATION IN KENTUCKY:
A LONGITUDINAL STUDY**

Research Report Series: Number 9

Conducted by
Urban Studies Center
College of Urban and Public Affairs
University of Louisville

Knowlton W. Johnson, Ph.D.
Fran H. Norris, Ph.D.
Linda Burgess, M.A.

for
Kentucky Criminal Justice Statistical Analysis Center

David L. Armstrong
Attorney General

October 1986

NCJRS
JAN 23 1988
ACQUISITIONS

AUTHORS' NOTES

Dr. Knowlton Johnson, principal investigator, was responsible for overseeing the entire project. In particular, he directed second-year research instrument revisions and data collection, and preparation of the executive summary and application sections of the final report. Dr. Fran Norris, Director of the USC Public Safety and Emergency Studies Program, was responsible for the second-year data analysis, a presentation at the second annual SAC conference, and preparation of the introduction, data collection and analysis sections of the final report. Ms. Linda Burgess, project manager, coordinated revisions of the research instruments, and collection and coding of data, and assisted in analyzing the data. All members of the research team assisted in critiquing and revising the final report.

The authors would like to express their appreciation to the following Urban Studies Center staff members who provided support services and consultation to the project: Jack Ellis, Gordon Bonham, Anne Fream, Sandy Cleary, Patty Cleary, Lynne Wilson, Scott Bonham, Nancy Roseberry, Lisa Johnson, Monica Bowles, Elizabeth Jones, and Vernon Smith.

This report is a product of the Kentucky Criminal Justice Statistical Analysis Center.

Co-Directors

Knowlton W. Johnson
Urban Studies Center

C. Bruce Traughber
Office of the Kentucky Attorney General

The SAC is funded by the Bureau of Justice Statistics, U.S. Department of Justice, Grant No. 84-BJ-CX-0013. 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 Bureau of Justice Statistics or the University of Louisville as a whole, its trustees, chief administrative officers, or any division of the University.



COMMONWEALTH OF KENTUCKY
OFFICE OF THE ATTORNEY GENERAL

DAVID L. ARMSTRONG
ATTORNEY GENERAL

November 1, 1986

CAPITOL BUILDING
FRANKFORT 40601

Dear Friend:

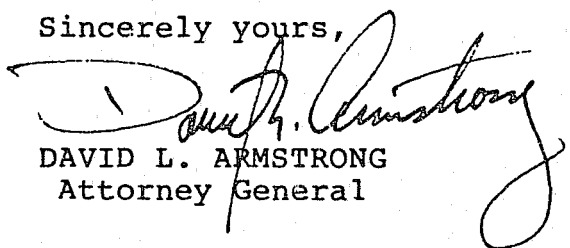
As the Kentucky Criminal Justice Statistical Analysis Center completes its second year of operation, we can look back with pride upon the achievements we have made since beginning the program. In our first year of operation we completed a number of major studies that had a significant impact upon the work of the General Assembly in its 1986 Session. It was quite gratifying to sit in the audience and listen to the debate among the General Assembly members and have them quote research from the SAC. I hope that you found our first year's work informative as well.

In our second year of work, we have maintained our commitment to quality research that is relevant to the state's decision-makers. We have written on topics ranging from child abuse to victimization to persistent felony offenders. As we begin our third year, we have several projects that were begun several months ago but could not be completed within the second year of operation. Thus, we anticipate that our third year of work will be even better than the previous two.

The entire SAC staff is to be commended for their efforts. I want to call special attention to the support and encouragement given to us by Mr. Don Manson with the Bureau of Justice Statistics, U. S. Department of Justice, our grant coordinator.

By raising issues and providing answers through quality research, we hope to be a part of the continued improvement in Kentucky's criminal justice system. Your support and advice is always welcome. Together we can make a difference for Kentucky.

Sincerely yours,


DAVID L. ARMSTRONG
Attorney General

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

One of the most important projects of the Kentucky Criminal Justice Statistical Analysis Center (SAC) has been a two-year statewide study of victimization patterns and the changes, if any, in the lives of victims after being touched by crime. Studying the long- and short-term effects of both violent and property criminal victimization for an entire state goes beyond the scope of many previous victimization studies.

In the spring of 1985 a two-stage, stratified, citizen survey of Kentuckians was conducted using random-digit-dialing procedures. The sampling design resulted in 557 interviews representing (on a weighted basis) 3,843 Kentucky households. One year later, in 1986, respondents were reinterviewed about their crime experiences since the time of the first interview. Consequently, the 1985 report period covers mid-1984 to mid-1985 and the 1986 report period covers the subsequent twelve months to mid-1986. Except where noted as a calendar, references to 1985 and 1986 refer to these report periods.

Eighty percent of the original participants (445 households) responded to the second interview. Comparisons of the 1985 and 1986 samples after appropriate weighting showed that attrition in 1986 did not affect the sample's generalizability to Kentucky households or its representativeness of these households. Estimates for 1985 had a margin of error of about plus or minus one percent and the 1986 estimates have a margin of error of plus or minus two percent.

Results of the study are presented in summary and then in detail in the following order: (1) Kentucky crime estimates, (2) the short- and long-term effects of being victimized, and (3) awareness and use of formal support services and crime prevention services. Uses of the results are also suggested below.

Crime Victimization in Kentucky

- Over 20 percent (20.5%) of the households in Kentucky experienced a crime in Report Year 1986. This rate does not differ from that estimated for Kentucky in Report Year 1985, but it is well below the national rate of 25 percent for calendar year 1985.
- Approximately 19 percent (19.4%) of the households in Kentucky were touched by a property crime in Report Year 1986. This rate is about the same as Kentucky's 1985 rate, but is also below the national rate of 23 percent for calendar year 1985.

- About 2.5 percent of the households in Kentucky were touched by violent crime during Report Year 1986. The rate is about the same as in the previous year in Kentucky and in the nation as a whole for 1985.
- The 1986 crime rate was more than twice as high among households that experienced a crime in the previous year (40.8%) as it was among those that did not experience a crime in the previous year (15.5%). Among households that experienced a violent crime in 1985, 70 percent of them reported some type of crime in 1986.
- Approximately half of the households experiencing a crime in 1986 (50.3%) reported that crime to the police.

Short- and Long-term Effects of Criminal Victimization

- In the short term (within a year of the incident), respondents from households victimized by crime were significantly more depressed and more fearful than respondents in nonvictim households. Respondents within households touched by a violent crime reported the highest level of depression and fear.
- Respondents from households experiencing multiple incidents of crime during Report Year 1986 reported higher levels of depression and fear than did those who reported only one crime incident or no crime.
- In the long term (more than a year after the incident), the level of fear in victim households continued to be higher than the level of fear in nonvictim households. The long-term effects of violence on fear of crime are more pronounced than are the long-term effects of experiencing property crime.
- However, when more than a year had passed since the incident, the depression in victim households was no higher than was the depression in nonvictim households.

Use of Formal Support and Crime Prevention Services

- The proportion of survey respondents having contact with criminal justice system officials differed by type of official. Encounters with police (21%) were more frequent than encounters with prosecutors (3%) or with judges (6%).
- Nearly one half of the victim households (46%) reported "very positive" experiences with the police; 29 percent indicated "somewhat positive" experiences; and 25 percent stated their experiences were "not positive." A higher percentage of respondents from victim households reported less positive experiences with prosecutors than with police; 23 percent reported that the experience had been "very positive"; 39 percent stated "somewhat positive"; and 39 percent indicated "not positive."

- o At least 80 percent of the household respondents were aware of programs for victims of rape, spouse abuse, or child abuse, or programs concerning missing and exploited children; conversely, few (21%) were aware of the victim/witness-assistance programs operated by the Kentucky Office of the Attorney General and by Commonwealth Attorneys located in the more heavily populated judicial districts.
- o When comparing levels of awareness of selected victim programs from 1985 to 1986, a significant increase was found in the awareness of rape relief, spouse abuse, and child abuse services.
- o Only about 9 percent of the respondents of victim households reported use of any of the victim services of which they were aware. The extent of use of victim services in 1986 was approximately the same as in 1985.
- o Most Kentuckians take some precautions against crime. The methods most frequently practiced include locking their vehicles when parked away from home (94%), keeping keys in hand when returning to a parked car (91%), and keeping an eye out on one another's homes (90%). Very few respondents have had burglar alarms installed (8%).
- o Of those precautions associated with formal programs, neighborhood watch was most frequently practiced (90%) but was least associated with a formal program (10%). Nearly 45 percent of respondents living with someone under 18 reported that they have had children fingerprinted through the Child I.D. Program and only 4 percent have taken this precaution through some other means.

Use and Application of the Results

- o Results show that respondents in households victimized by crime, particularly violent crime, are much more likely to be victimized again. Crime prevention services offered in the state should focus on recurring victimization. Victims themselves might play a significant role in crime prevention services designed to reduce recurrent victimization.
- o Criminal victimization, especially violence, has a significant short-term effect on depression and fear of crime among victim households and a lasting effect on fear of crime. Victim programs should recognize and attempt to alleviate the different forms of psychological distress experienced by victims, i.e., both the depression and fear. With regard to the fear of crime, programs should be designed to impact the long-term effects resulting from criminal victimization.
- o A substantial percentage of respondents from victim households reported that their experience with the police was only "somewhat positive" or "not positive" at all and an even higher percentage viewed experiences with prosecutors as only somewhat or not at all positive. These findings strongly suggest that criminal justice agencies, particularly the law enforcement agencies, commonwealth

attorney and county attorney offices, should examine the quality of contact between victims and agency personnel. Further, it is recommended that the state designate special funds to develop, implement and evaluate a new training program to improve the quality of contact between victims and the criminal justice agencies in Kentucky.

- o Few citizens are aware of victim/witness assistance programs that operate in the Kentucky Office of the Attorney General and a number of commonwealth attorney offices in the more heavily populated judicial districts. A special public relations program should be designed to increase the awareness and use of this service.
- o Longitudinal research needs to be conducted to determine the effectiveness of crime prevention services. Research is needed also that identifies the effect, if any, on victims that results from undesirable contact with the criminal justice system. A victims' needs assessment should be conducted to ascertain the extent and type of needs of victims by regions of the state. Data should also be obtained that can be used to promote greater utilization of existing victim services.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Letter from the Attorney General	ii
Executive Summary	iii
List of Tables	viii
List of Figures	ix
Background and Purpose	1
Methods and Procedures	3
Sample	3
Sample Selection	3
Follow-up Procedures	5
Sample Attrition	5
Weighting and Estimation Procedures	6
Results of the Study	8
Kentucky Households Touched by Crime: 1985 and 1986	8
Repeated Victimization in Kentucky: 1985 and 1986	8
The Aftermath of Victimization: Short-term Effects	10
The Aftermath of Victimization: Long-term Effects	17
Victim Awareness of and Experience with Formal Support Services	21
Crime Prevention	25
Use and Application of the Findings	29
References	33
Appendices	

LIST OF TABLES

1.	Respondent Characteristics by Household Type	4
2.	Response Rates by Type of Respondent	7
3.	Respondents' Assessment of Response to Problem by Legal System Officials	23
4.	Use of Program-Associated Crime Prevention Measures	27

LIST OF FIGURES

1. Crime Rates for Kentucky 1985 and 1986 Compared to U.S. Rate for 1985	9
2. 1986 Crime Rates by 1985 Victim Status	11
3. Aftermath of Criminal Victimization: Mean Depression by Type of Incident.	13
4. Aftermath of Criminal Victimization: Mean Fear by Type of Incident.	14
5. Aftermath of Criminal Victimization: Mean Depression by Number of Incidents	15
6. Aftermath of Criminal Victimization: Mean Fear by Number of Incidents	16
7. Long-term Effects of Criminal Victimization: Mean Depression by Type of Incident.	19
8. Long-term Effects of Criminal Victimization: Mean Fear by Type of Incident.	20
9. Contact with Legal System Officials During the Last Two Years by Type of Crime Victim: 1985.	22
10. Awareness and Use of Services by Victims	24
11. Use of Crime Prevention Measures	26
12. Application Design for Translating Victimization Results	30

THE STUDY

BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE

In July 1984, the Kentucky governor issued an executive order giving the attorney general authority to seek federal funds from the Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS) to strengthen the criminal justice statistical capabilities in the Commonwealth. As a result, a grant was awarded a few months later (September 1984) to establish the state's first Criminal Justice Statistical Analysis Center (SAC). The SAC was placed in the Attorney General's Office but operated by the Urban Studies Center in the College of Urban and Public Affairs at the University of Louisville.

One of the major projects initiated by the Kentucky SAC during 1985 assessed statewide crime victimization patterns and also examined the victims' lives after being touched by crime. Historically, only a few states have surveyed citizens to establish statewide patterns of crime (U.S. Department of Justice, 1983). Similarly, fewer studies have focused on the consequences of crime as it relates to the health and welfare of citizens (Karmen, 1984). This study, designed to address both concerns, looked at victim rates, victim awareness of various programs, and victim participation in assistance efforts.

The SAC study went beyond the traditional victimization studies by focusing not only on the extent and nature of crime as reported by victims, but also on the aftermath of both violent and property criminal victimization (O'Brien, 1985). Additionally, a new differential sampling design was employed, unusual in victimization research but widely used in other areas, to ensure that a substantial number of interviews were conducted with people who have selected characteristics even though they comprise a small proportion of the total population. In this study, the small subgroup included households whose members have been touched by crime.

One year later, in 1986, respondents to the original survey were reinterviewed about their crime experiences since the time of the first study. This second survey serves two complementary purposes. First, as a 1986 survey, it provides information about crime and its aftermath for the past year. Second, as a follow-up interview to the 1985 survey, it provides information about post-victimization experiences over a longer range of time than typically studied. We hope that some of the advantages of conducting longitudinal studies of victimization are evident in this report.

This report focuses on the results from the 1986 survey. The major questions addressed are as follows:

- o What was the prevalence of crime in Kentucky in this past year? How do this year's rates compare with those established for Kentucky a year ago and with the nation as a whole?
- o How likely is crime to recur in the same households over time?
- o What are the "psychological costs" of crime, both for the short term and for the longer term?
- o To what extent do victims become involved in formal support services provided by criminal justice agencies and victim programs?
- o What types of crime prevention are practiced by Kentuckians?

Before these questions are addressed, the research methods and the sample are discussed. Use and application of the findings are then highlighted.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Sample

The data in this report are based on a stratified, random sample of 445 respondents who participated in both interviews of a two-wave panel study conducted in the state of Kentucky in 1985 and 1986. Initially, 557 respondents were interviewed between May and July 1985 about the crime experiences of their households during the previous twelve months. One year later, between May and July of 1986, 445 of these same respondents were interviewed again about the crime experiences of their households for the twelve-month period beginning after their first interview. The weighted sample is generally representative of households in Kentucky. The characteristics of the respondents are presented in Table 1. Details on the sampling, follow-up, and weighting procedures are given below.

Sample Selection

The household sample was determined by a two-stage cluster approach adapted for telephone interviewing. This form of random-digit dialing assured that every household with a telephone had an equal probability of inclusion in the sample while maintaining some efficiency in field procedures (Waksberg, 1978). Unlisted or unpublished numbers had the same probability of inclusion as listed numbers. Approximately 88 percent of Kentucky households have telephones.

The selection process began with a screening of about 5,000 households. Persons answering residential phones were administered a short survey (4-5 questions) to identify whether any adult living in that household had been a crime victim in the past year. From this information, households were categorized by their exposure to violent crime, property crime, or no crime. Within each category, the probability that a household was selected for the complete interview varied inversely with the probability that a household would be assigned to that category. For example, a given household was most likely to be assigned to the "no-crime" category. Therefore, a lower proportion of no-crime households were interviewed. For making population estimates, each household's data was weighted by its probability of selection. In this way, the data are properly adjusted to reflect Kentucky households as a whole.

Table 1

Respondent Characteristics by Household Type
(Unweighted)

	Victim Households		Nonvictim Households		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Sex						
Male	57	45	126	40	183	41
Female	69	55	192	60	261	59
Age						
Under 25	25	20	36	11	61	14
25 - 34	30	24	75	24	105	24
35 - 44	37	29	62	19	99	22
45 - 54	16	13	43	14	59	13
55 - 64	10	8	48	15	58	13
65 and older	8	6	54	17	62	14
Employment Status						
Full-time	68	54	157	49	225	51
Part-time	13	10	28	9	41	9
Unemployed	45	36	133	42	178	40
Education						
First to eighth grade	10	8	44	14	54	13
Ninth to high school graduate	68	55	168	54	236	55
College, business school	35	29	76	25	111	26
Graduate school	10	8	21	7	31	7
Race						
White	113	90	289	92	402	92
Black	11	9	23	7	34	8
Other	2	1	1	3	3	1
Number in Household						
One	14	11	51	16	65	15
Two	33	26	95	30	128	29
Three to four	61	48	132	42	193	44
Five or more	18	14	39	12	57	13
Marital Status						
Married for first time	56	45	193	61	249	56
Never married	25	20	44	14	69	16
Remarried	10	8	19	6	29	7
Widowed	9	7	30	9	39	9
Separated	3	2	5	2	8	2
Divorced	22	18	27	9	49	11
Total n	126		318		444	

Within each household selected for the complete interview, one person was randomly selected from all adult members of the household. He or she was then asked to report for all persons residing in that household. The selected respondent may or may not have been the victim of the crime.

These aspects of the 1985 survey design are discussed in more detail in SAC Research Report Number 3.

Follow-up Procedures

To minimize the amount of attrition from the first wave of data collection in 1985, respondents were asked their telephone number and the name and telephone number of a contact who would know how the respondent could be reached. Although this reduced tracking efforts considerably, several respondents were not located initially. These cases required additional, and in some cases, extraordinary investigative efforts. Some respondents were located with notes made by the first wave interviewer in the margin of the questionnaire. These sometimes included the respondent's occupation, a well-known relative, or some other bit of information that provided a helpful lead.

Several respondents were tracked by using a special directory published in larger cities which cross-references names, addresses, and telephone numbers. In this way, a new or correct telephone number, a correct name spelling, and in several cases, a former or current address was obtained that helped locate and interview the respondent. A few respondents were tracked to colleges, to new residences in other states, and to military bases.

Knowing the respondent's name in most cases and emphasizing their past participation in the first wave of the study and the importance of the follow-up interview seemed to minimize the number of refusals. Interviewers were trained to gently discourage a refusal by suggesting an appointment for a more convenient time or by allowing the respondent to call the interviewer back. A few potential refusals were avoided by assigning the cases to a different interviewer who waited a few days and called the respondent back.

Sample Attrition

The 1986 sample of 445 households represents 80 percent of the 1985 sample. Of those who participated in the 1985 interview, about 6 percent refused to participate in 1986, 1 percent began but did not complete the interview, and about 1 percent had died or become too ill to participate. The

remaining 12 percent either could not be located or were unavailable for an interview.

As shown in Table 2, response rates varied little across most demographic subgroups of the sample. Eighty-two percent of male respondents remained in the study compared to 79 percent of female respondents. Eighty percent of both blacks and whites continued to participate, as did 80 percent of both urban and rural respondents. Respondents with more than a high school education were somewhat more likely than others to continue, however (86% vs. 77%). Participation rates also varied with age, increasing with age up to 40 and then decreasing.

The variable which appeared to have the strongest effect on continued participation was 1985 victimization. Respondents who had reported a violent crime (or both violent and property crime) in their first interview were less likely to remain in the study than those who reported only a property crime or no crime in their first interview.

Weighting and Estimation Procedures

The weights applied to the 1986 data adjust for both the probability of selection in 1985 and the differential response rates by crime type in 1986. Separate weights were derived for male victims of violence, female victims of violence, other males, and other females. For each group, the weight was the product of the 1985 weight (see Research Report Number 3) and the inverse of the 1986 response rate. This product was then adjusted so that the total weighted sample size was the same as the total unweighted sample size. This step adjusts the weights so that statistical tests may be applied to the data.

The accuracy of the 1986 weights (and the post-stratification procedures) was tested by comparing the estimates and measures of central tendency on 1985 variables obtained using the original weights with those obtained using the 1986 weights. The results were virtually identical which indicates that the 1986 sample also may be considered as representative of Kentucky households.

All means and frequency distributions (percentages) included in this report are based on weighted data. All statements such as "greater than," "less than," "different than," etc., have been tested and found to be significant at the $p < .05$ level. 1985 estimates have a margin of error of about plus or minus one percent. 1986 estimates have a margin of error of about plus or minus two percent.

Table 2

Response Rates by Type of Respondent

	Percent Responding in 1986
Total 1985 sample	80
Sex	
Male	82
Female	79
1985 Victim Status	
Property only	84
Violent only	68
Property and violent	63
No crime	82
Age	
21 and under	70
22 - 30	75
31 - 40	87
41 - 50	82
50 +	81
Race	
White	80
Black	80
Other	79
Education	
Less than high school	77
High school	77
More than high school	86
Urban-Rural	
Non SMSA county	80
SMSA county	80

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Kentucky Households Touched by Crime: 1985 and 1986

The first question addressed in the study was "What was the prevalence of crime in Kentucky for Report Year 1986 (i.e., mid-year 1985 to mid-year 1986) and how does that compare to the rate of crime in Kentucky for the preceding year?" A related question was, "How do crime rates in Kentucky compare to those for the nation as a whole?" A copy of the battery used to establish crime incidence is included in Appendix A.

As illustrated in Figure 1, about one in five Kentucky households (20.5%) experienced some type of crime in the twelve months prior to the second interview. This rate does not differ from that estimated for the previous year in Kentucky (19.7%). Both Kentucky rates (1985 and 1986) were below the national rate for calendar year 1985, which was 25 percent or about one in four households (U.S. Department of Justice, 1986).

Property crime rates also were comparable for Kentucky in 1985 (18.1%) and 1986 (19.4%). Again, the rates were below the national rate of 23 percent.

Whether or not there was a change in the rate of violent crime over the two years of the study is more difficult to determine. There was some indication that violent crime in 1986 was down from 1985. The 1985 estimate was 4.2 percent and the 1986 estimate was 2.5 percent. Given the sampling error of the two surveys, however, this difference is on the borderline between a change that can be accepted as a significant difference and one that cannot. Overall, the safest conclusion is that the rates of crime in Kentucky did not change meaningfully between 1985 and 1986. Both violent crime rates were close to the national rate for 1985 of 4.8 percent.

Approximately half of the households experiencing a crime in 1986 (50.3%) reported that crime to the police. In the 1985 survey, the most common reasons for not reporting crimes to the police were: believing that nothing could or would be done, particularly if there was no proof; feeling that the incident was not important enough; or regarding the incident as a private, personal matter. (This question was not asked in the 1986 survey.)

Repeated Victimization in Kentucky: 1985 and 1986

A particular advantage of using a panel study for assessing patterns of victimization is that it allowed victims from the first year of the study to be

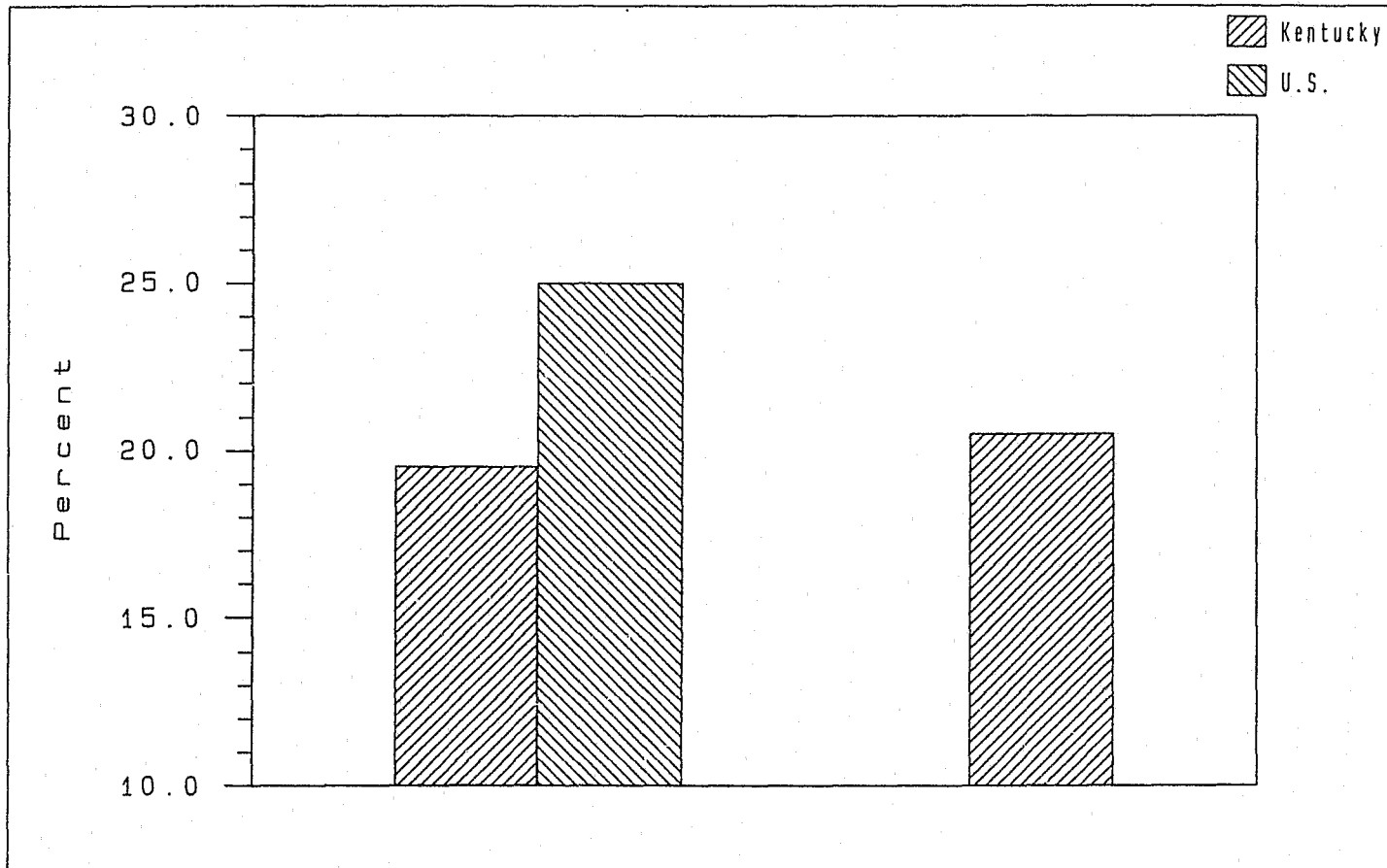


FIGURE 1: Crime rates for Kentucky, 1985 and 1986, compared to U.S. rate for 1985.

followed for an additional year. Thus, an important question for this year's survey was whether those households that experienced a crime last year would be more or less likely than others to experience a crime this year.

As shown in Figure 2, the 1986 crime rate was more than twice as high among households that experienced a crime in 1985 (40.8%) than it was among those that did not experience a crime in 1985 (15.5%). Recurrent victimization was even more pronounced among households reporting violence in 1985. Seventy percent (70.5%) of them reported some type of incident in 1985. They were more likely than all others to experience a violent crime in 1986 (17.7% vs. 2.5% of the general population). They were also more likely than all others to experience a property crime in 1986 (52.8% vs. 19.4% of the general population).

To offer an explanation for this finding is beyond the purpose of this report. Theories about the causes of victimization (Gottfredson, 1981; Sparks, 1981) certainly would suggest some degree in consistency for being at risk, whether that risk is due to the victim's lifestyle (e.g., exposure to high-risk time, places, and people) remaining the same over time, residential stability, the victim's tendency to be negligent or to precipitate the incidents, or the victim's continuing attractiveness to offenders (e.g., wealth). Whatever the cause, however, these results suggest that victims of crime--particularly victims of violence--may be important targets for preventive interventions.

The Aftermath of Victimization: Short-term Effects

Another issue addressed by the study was the consequences or aftermath of victimization, specifically whether psychological distress would be higher among victims than among nonvictims. Two different aspects of distress were studied. The first was depressive symptoms as measured by the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (Radloff, 1977). This scale measures current (last week) symptoms and includes questions such as: How many days during the last week...did you not feel like eating?...could you not shake off the blues?...did you feel like a failure? A copy of the scale is included in Appendix A. The second aspect of distress, one more specifically tied to the victimization experience, was fear of crime. Fear implies a state beyond being aware or cautious about crime. Fear is a state that is disruptive for the individual. The scale includes such questions as: How much does the fear of crime prevent you from doing things you like to do?, How often do you think



FIGURE 2: 1986 Crime rate by 1985 victim status.

about being robbed or assaulted? A copy of this scale also is included in Appendix A. Procedures used to validate the scale were presented in SAC Research Report Number 3.

Using the 1986 data, a variation of analysis of variance (ANOVA) known as Multiple Classification Analysis (MCA) was used to compare mean levels of depressive symptoms and fear across groups differing in their households' crime experiences. This analysis procedure allowed group means to be adjusted for any differences between those groups in sex, race, and education before assessing whether those groups differed in their levels of distress. In short, MCA controlled for the impact of the variables which in a preliminary analysis had been related significantly to depression.

It should be noted again that within the victim categories, the respondents resided in victimized households but may or may not have been the victims themselves. These analyses thus rest on the assumption that crime may affect persons who are not directly victimized but who live in the same primary group environment as the direct victim.

Figure 3 shows the mean levels of depressive symptoms in 1986 for groups differing in their type of crime experience in 1986, i.e., whether the household experienced no crime, a property crime, or a violent crime. (Respondents whose households experienced both violent and property crime are placed in the violent crime category.) As can be seen, nonvictims have the fewest depressive symptoms, property crime victims were more depressed than nonvictims, and violent crime victims were the most depressed of the three groups. These differences were highly significant when tested statistically, $F(2,416)=12.77$, $p<.001$ for the overall between-groups difference; $t(1,416)=1.98$, $p<.05$ for the contrast of property crime victims and nonvictims; $t(1,416)=3.65$, $p<.001$ for the contrast of violent crime victims and property crime victims.

As shown in Figure 4, the same pattern held when between group differences in fear of crime were examined. Nonvictims had the least fear. Violent crime victims had the most fear and property crime victims were somewhere in between. These differences also were found to be statistically significant, $F(2,416)=4.04$, $p<.05$ for the overall between-groups difference; $t(1,416)=1.75$, $p=.08$ for the contrast of property crime victims and nonvictims; $t(1,416)=2.49$, $p<.01$ for the contrast of violent crime victims and property crime victims.

The next two figures (Figures 5 and 6) concern between group differences according to the number of victimizations, i.e., whether the household

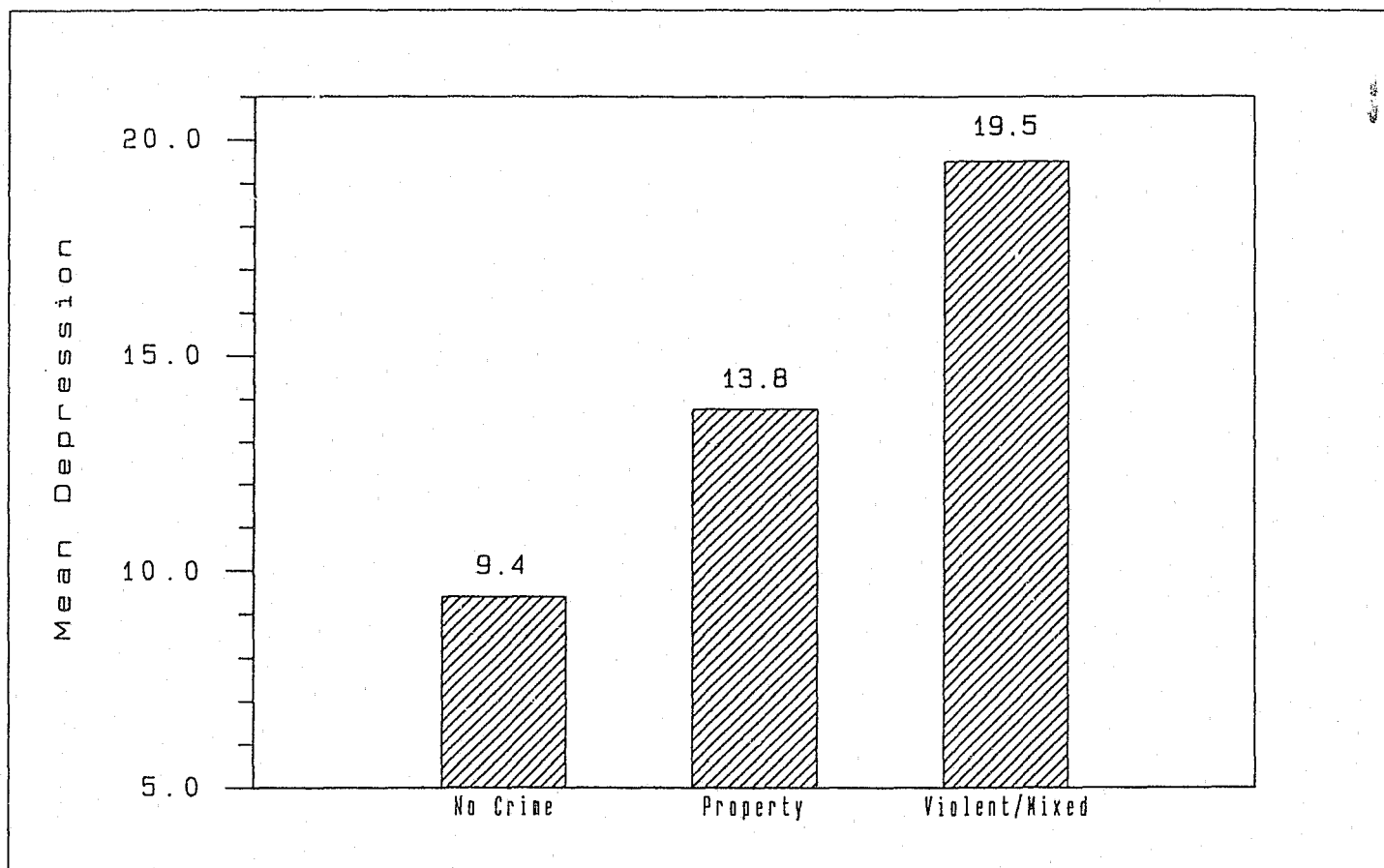


FIGURE 3: Aftermath of criminal victimization:
Mean depression by type of incident.

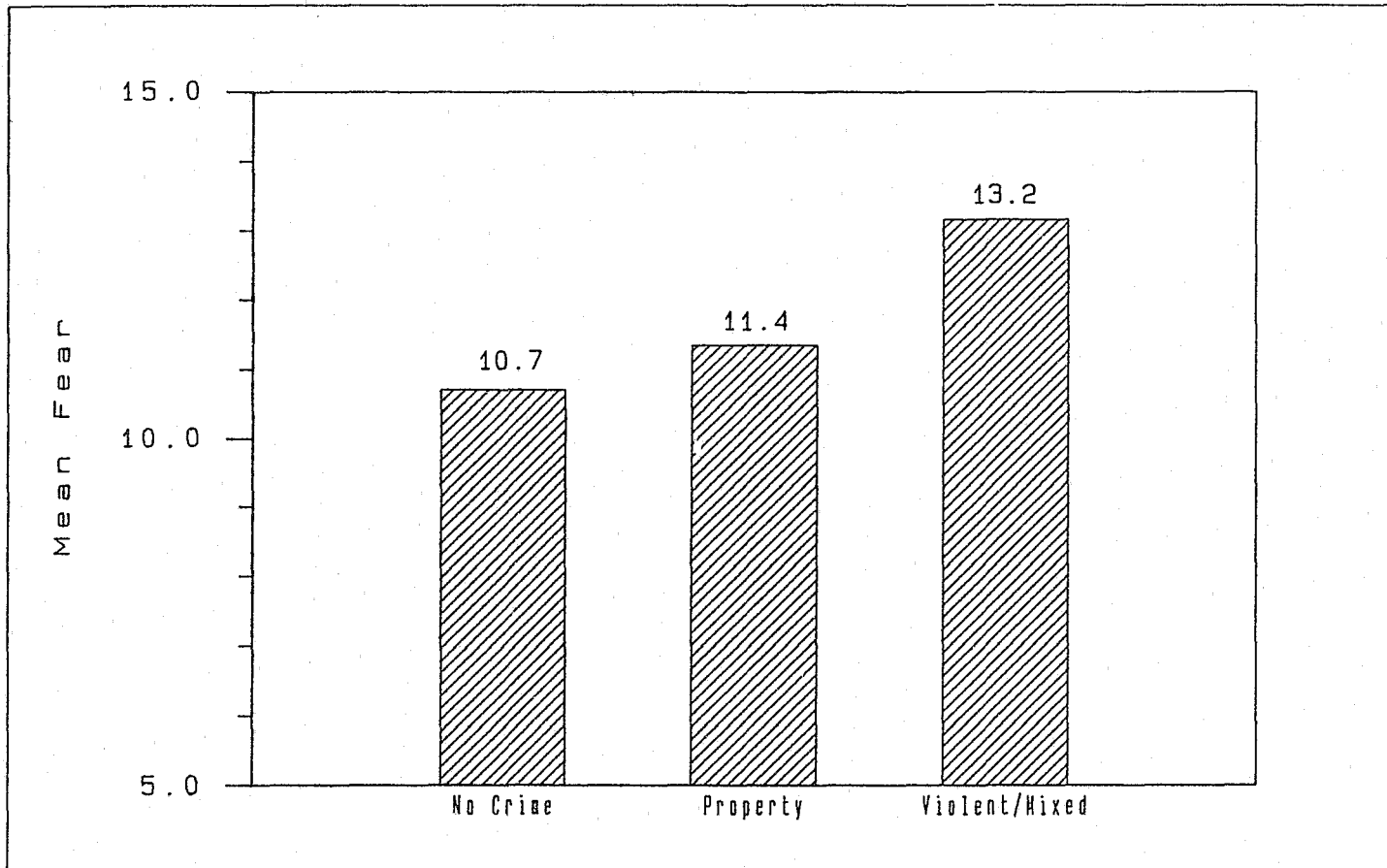


FIGURE 4: Aftermath of criminal victimization:
Mean fear by type of incident.

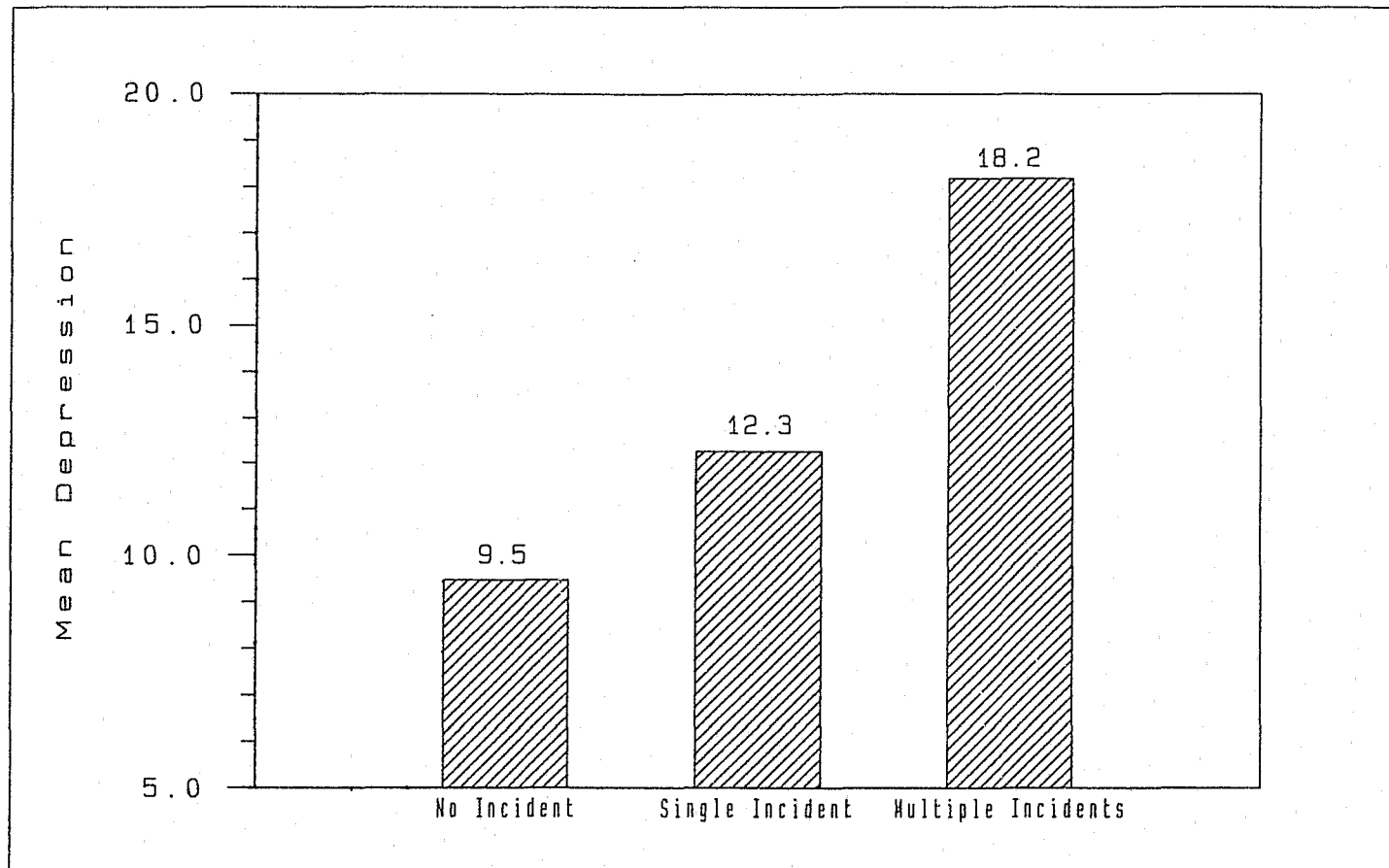


FIGURE 5: Aftermath of criminal victimization:
Mean depression by number of incidents.

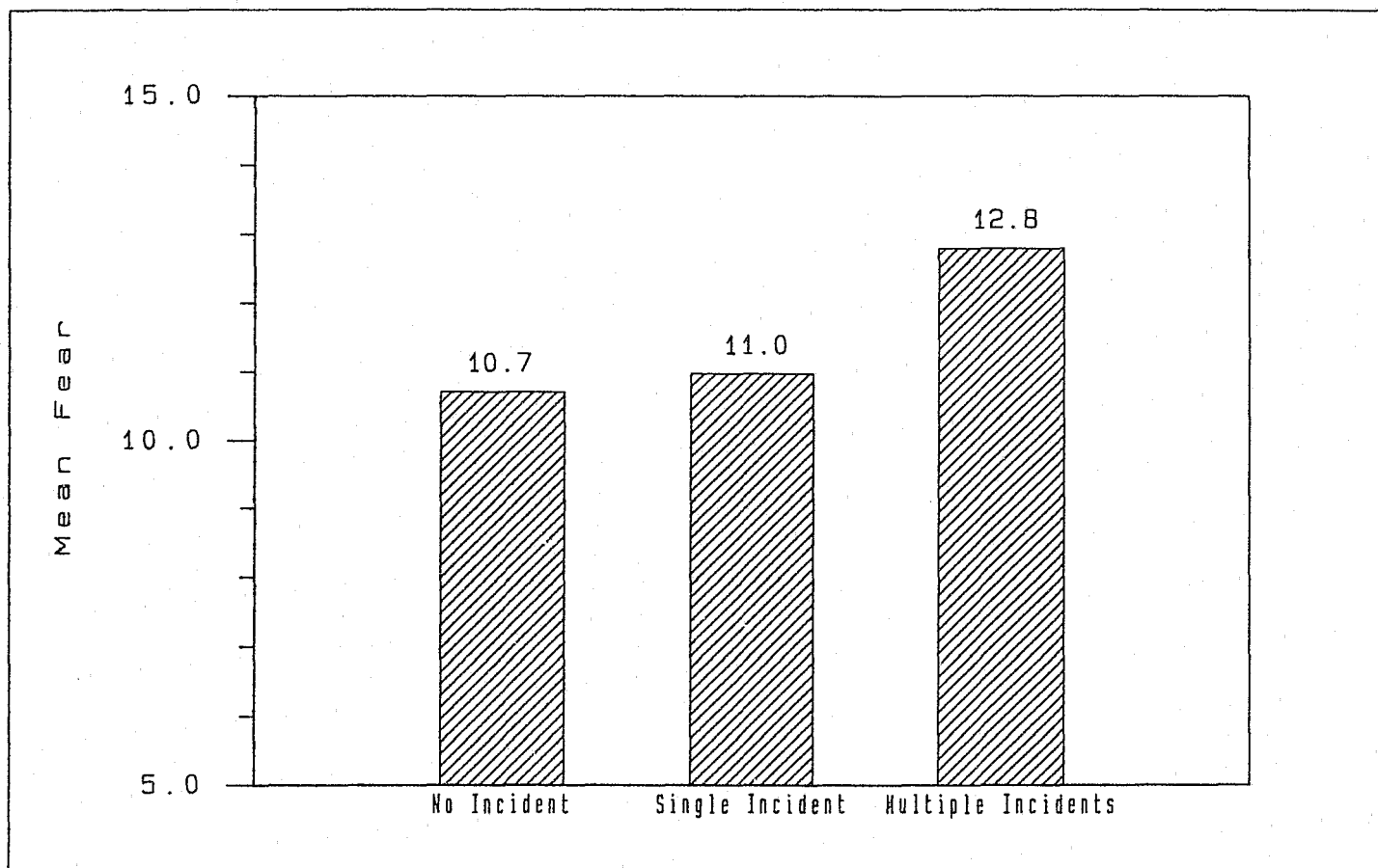


FIGURE 6: Aftermath of criminal victimization:
Mean fear by number of incidents.

experienced no incident, one incident, or two or more incidents in 1986. The results parallel those presented above for the type of victimization experienced. As can be seen, the no-incident group had the lowest depression and fear, the single-incident group had somewhat higher depression and/or fear, and the multiple-incident group had the highest depression and/or fear. Most of these differences were significant according to statistical tests. For depression, $F(2,416)=13.91$, $p<.001$ for the overall between-groups difference; $t(1,416)=3.75$, $p<.001$ for the contrast of single incident and no incident groups; $t(1,416)=1.21$, $p=.22$ for the contrast of multiple incident and single incident groups. For fear, $F(2,416)=5.68$, $p<.01$ for the overall between-groups difference; $t(1,416)=1.16$, $p=.25$ for the contrast of single incident and no incident groups; $t(1,416)=3.20$, $p<.001$ for the contrasts of multiple incident and single incident groups.

The above analyses have a striking degree of consistency. They clearly suggest that, regardless of whether severity of incident is the criterion or number of incidents is the criterion, there is a strong relationship between victimization and distress. These results also are quite consistent with previous studies of the psychological aftermath of victimization, although most of those studies were conducted on smaller, less representative samples of victims (e.g., Atkinson, et al., 1982; Sales, et al., 1984).

Why is this so? A number of authors have discussed the potential conflicts that victims may experience (e.g., Janoff-Bulman, 1979; Peterson & Seligman, 1983). Being a victim is believed "to shatter our assumptions of personal invulnerability." Alternately, victims may feel out of control over their environments or at fault for what happened to them. Most of us like to think of the world as "just," but this is difficult for victims. These kinds of conflicts are believed to result in the depression and fear.

The Aftermath of Victimization: Long-term Effects

In the analyses discussed in the preceding section, the measures of distress were taken, on the average, within a few months of the crime. But what about distress over a longer range of time? An additional question of this year's study concerned these long-term effects. Would the psychological distress continue to be higher among 1985 victims than among nonvictims more than a year later? A particular advantage of panel studies is that both short-term and long-term effects can be examined.

In the next two figures, the sample is divided into groups according to victimization type in 1985. For these groups, there are two post-victimization interviews--that given in 1985 and that given in 1986.

Again, Multiple Classification Analysis was used to compare mean levels of depression and fear across these groups. As before, these means are adjusted for the effects of sex, race, and education. In this case, however, it was also necessary to adjust the means for victimizations reported in 1986. That is, 1986 distress means among 1985 victims could have been high because many respondents in those groups were also victimized in 1986. In these analyses, we have attempted to isolate that part of the distress that can be attributed only to the initial victimization.

Figure 7 presents the adjusted means for depressive symptoms in 1985 and 1986. Consistent with the findings for this year's victims, last year's property crime victims initially showed considerably higher levels of symptoms than nonvictims, $t(1,416)=2.16$, $p<.05$. As before, violent crime victims were more depressed than property crime victims, $t(1,416)=3.43$, $p<.001$. Figure 7 also shows, however, that over the ensuing year, the symptoms of the two victim groups decreased sharply. By the end of that year, the difference between groups was no longer statistically significant, $F(2,416)=0.79$, although the difference had been highly significant in the first year, $F(2,416)=7.06$, $p<.001$.

A somewhat different pattern emerges when long-term effects on fear are examined, as shown in Figure 8. For this more specific measure of distress, not only are the groups initially different (1985), $F(2,424)=10.75$, $p<.001$, they continue to be different at the end of the following year (1986), $F(2,424)=4.48$, $p<.01$. That is, although the fear victims feel decreases somewhat, fear remains higher among property crime victims than among nonvictims, $t(1,416)=2.19$, $p<.05$. Again, victims of violence have higher levels of fear than victims of property crime, $t(1,416)=2.96$, $p<.01$.

In sum, the generalized feelings of depression victims experience appear to dissipate over time. Nonetheless, because of their fear, the lives of victims remain somewhat disrupted for quite some time after the incident. Certainly, providing assistance directed at legitimately reducing victims' fears should be an important priority for victim programs.

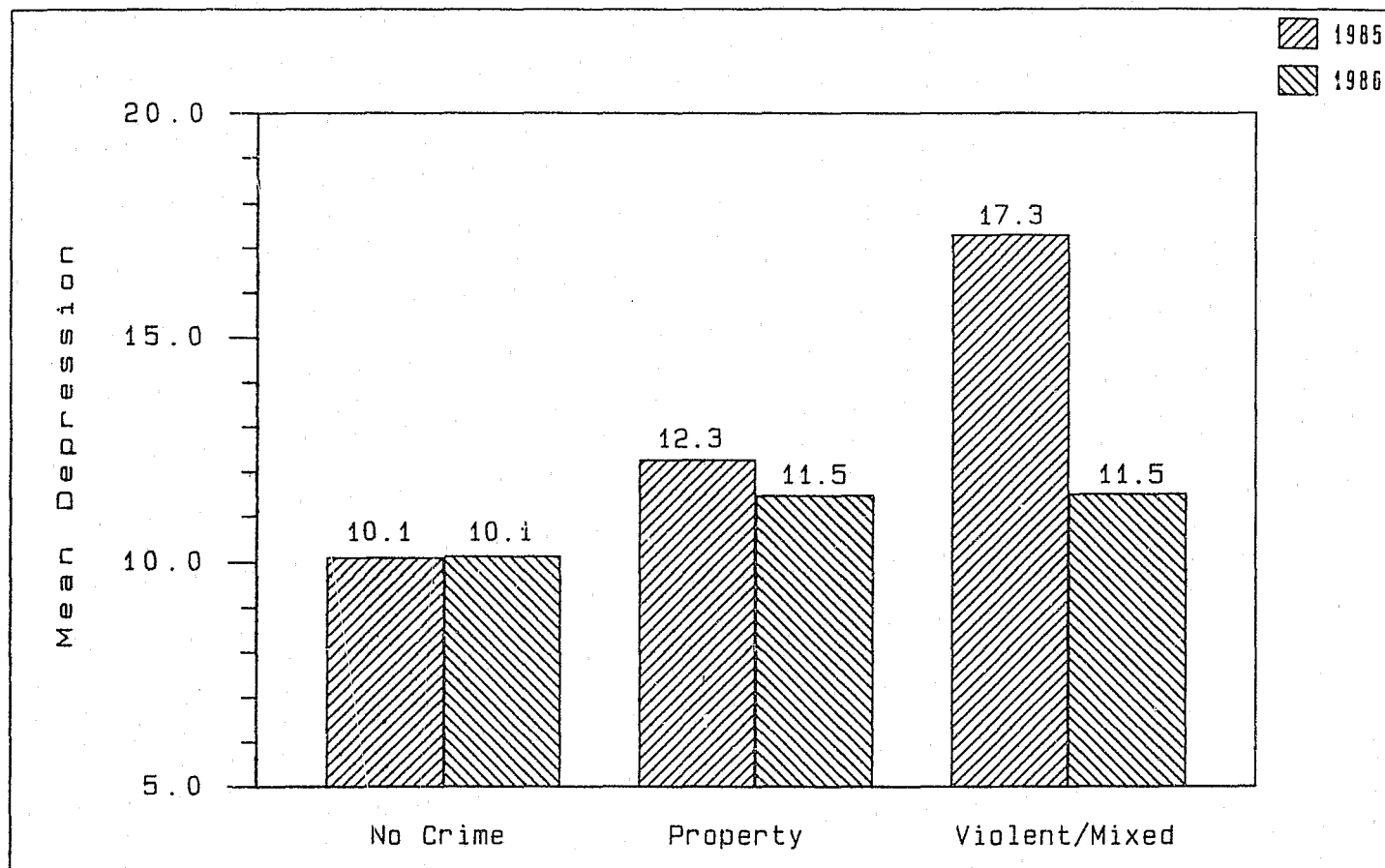


FIGURE 7: Long-term effects of criminal victimization:
Mean depression by type of incident.

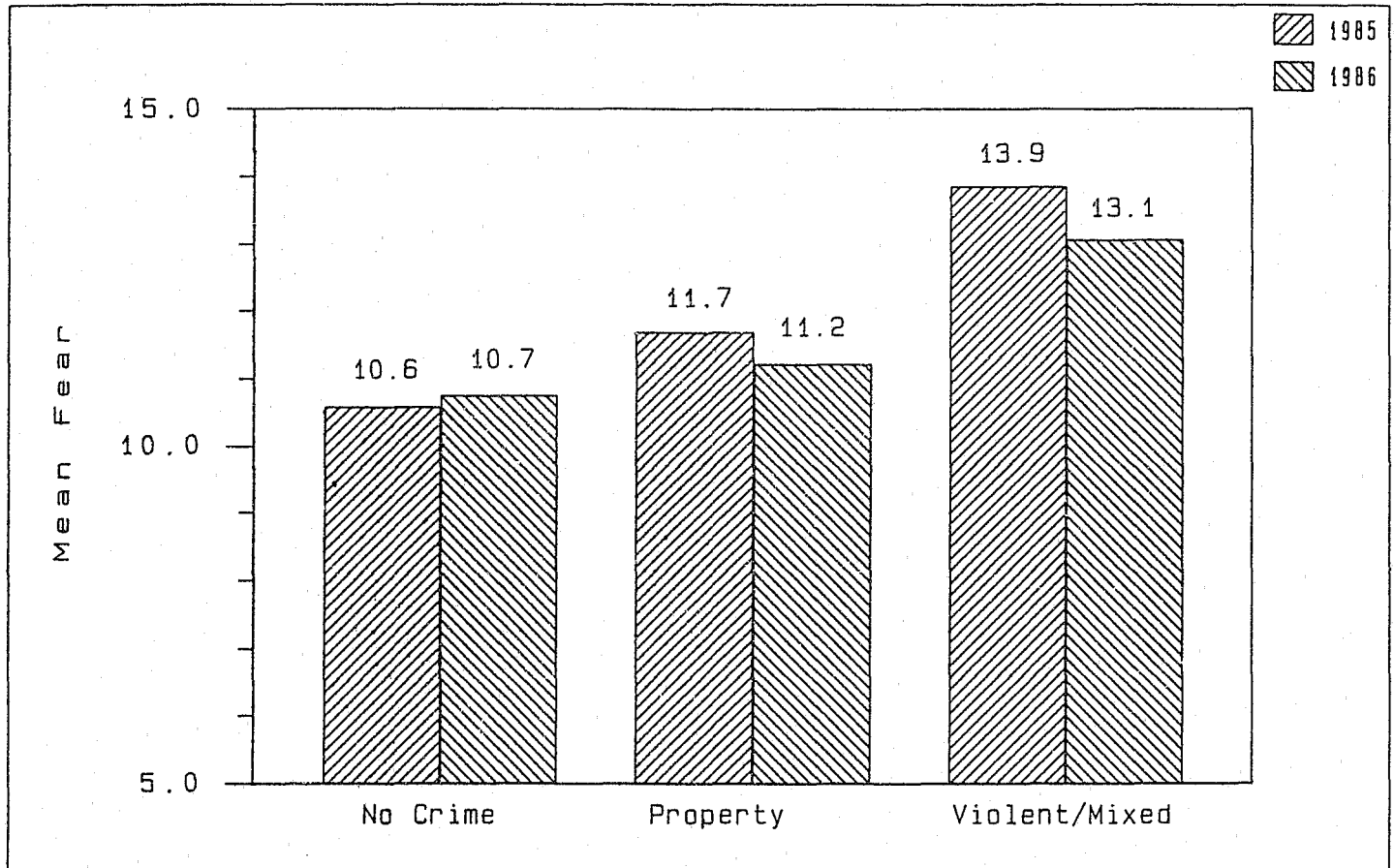


FIGURE 8: Long-term effects of criminal victimization:
Mean fear by type of incident.

Victim Awareness of and Experience with Formal Support Services

Another policy concern that this study addressed is the awareness victims have of, and experiences they have had with, formal support services. These services include both those given by the criminal justice system in Kentucky and by victim assistance programs.

Figure 9 presents data related to the contact respondents have had with various justice system officials over the past two years. Because the adjudication process may take some time to complete, the sample has been divided into groups here according to the 1985 crime experiences. Two things should be apparent in this figure. First, victims of violence are more likely than victims of nonviolent crime to come into contact with police and prosecutors. For example, about two thirds (67%) of those experiencing violence and property crime have had contact with police compared to about one third (38%) of those experiencing nonviolent property crime. Second, the percentage of all respondents having contact with the official differs by type of official, with the police being the most frequently encountered (21%) while prosecutors (3%) and judges (6%) were less frequently encountered.

The survey also assessed victims' opinions of legal system officials, but it should be recalled that very few victims could be asked these questions. These data are presented in Table 3. Of the 134 victims who came into contact with the police, 46 percent were "very positive," 29 percent were "somewhat positive," and 25 percent were "not positive." Respondents who were positive about their experiences with the police most often cited the quick response or politeness of the officers as the major reason for their feelings. Conversely, respondents who were not positive often felt they were not taken seriously or treated courteously. Of the 26 victims who had contact with prosecutors, 23 percent were "very positive," 39 percent were "somewhat positive," and 39 percent were "not positive." Here, respondents appeared to be most influenced by whether or not they perceived the prosecutor as having taken action. Overall, it appears that victims tend to be less positive about their experiences with prosecutors than about their experiences with the police or, for that matter, with defense attorneys or judges. (See Table 3.) Although this finding must be interpreted cautiously because of the small sample size, it is consistent with the judgements given by the 14 subjects asked this question in the 1985 survey.

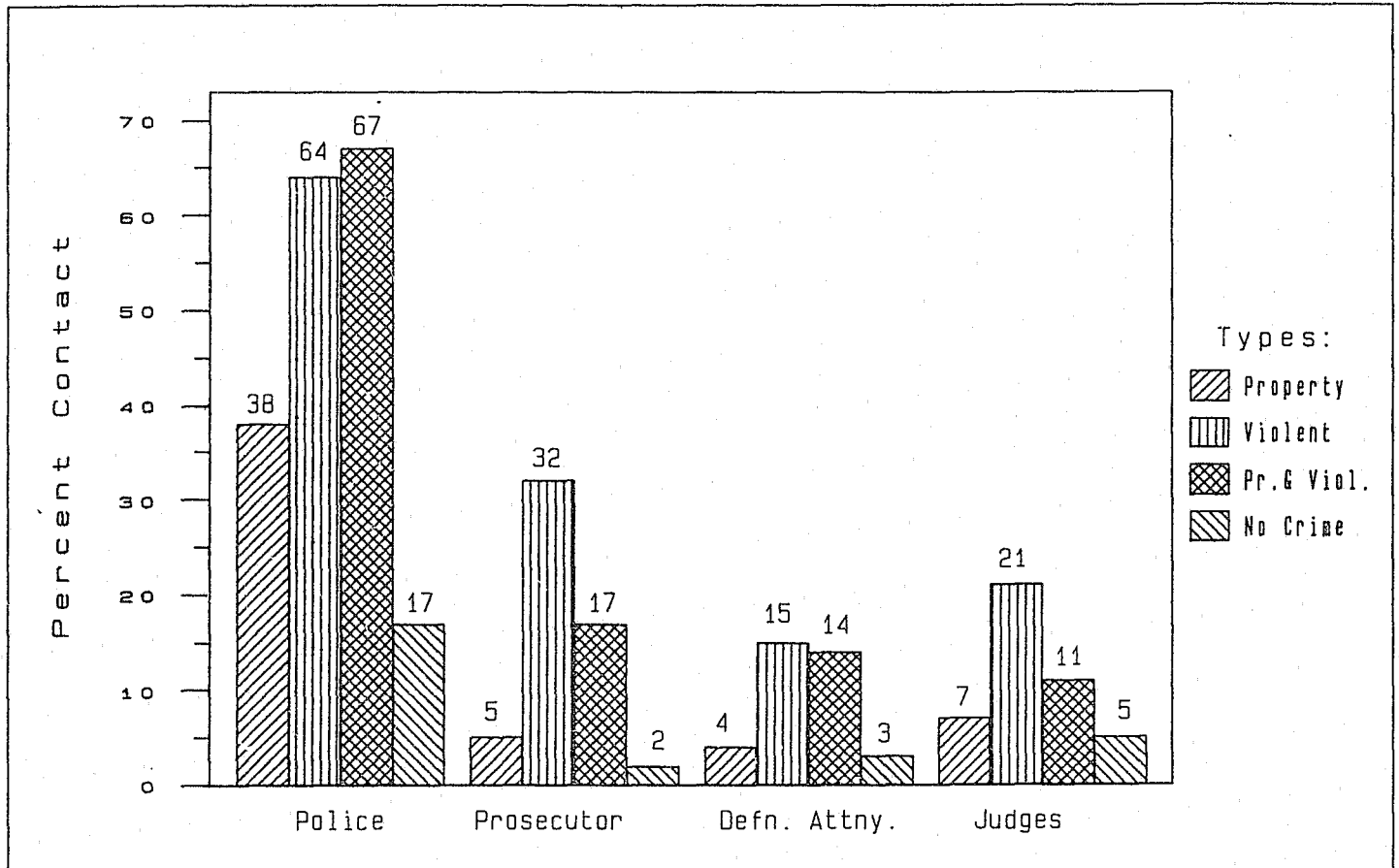


FIGURE 9: Contact with legal system officials during the last two years by type of crime victim, 1985.

Table 3

Respondents' Assessment of Response to Problem by Legal System Officials

	<u>Very Positive</u>	<u>Somewhat Positive</u>	<u>Not Positive</u>	<u>n</u>
Police	46%	29%	25%	134
Prosecutor's Office	23%	39%	39%	26
Defense Attorneys	57%	24%	19%	21
Judges	48%	32%	19%	31

The next question of the study concerned victim services: What proportion of victims are aware of these services and what proportion used them? Data related to this question are presented in Figure 10. Of all the findings from the survey, these perhaps require the most qualification. They do not address (and the nature of the study does not allow us to address) the extent to which particular "target" groups (e.g., rape victims) use particular services designed for them (e.g., rape relief centers). Rather, the data in Figure 10 are for all 1986 victims.

As can be seen in this figure, levels of service awareness are quite high. No fewer than 80 percent were aware of rape relief programs, spouse and child abuse programs, or programs concerning missing and exploited children. On the other hand, relatively few (21%) were aware of the victim/witness assistance program, a program designed for a broader range of victims than the programs noted above.

Use of services was quite low. Of course, as noted above, no one of these programs would be applicable to all victims. However, only between 8 and 9 percent of the victims used any of these services. This pattern suggests that further outreach and/or wider availability of these programs may be needed. Or, there may be gaps between the needs of victims and the programs presently offered.

How do these findings relate to those of the 1985 study? Many of the questions concerning awareness and use of services were not directly comparable in the two interviews. For those services where the findings can be compared--rape relief, spouse abuse, child abuse--the data indicate that awareness of

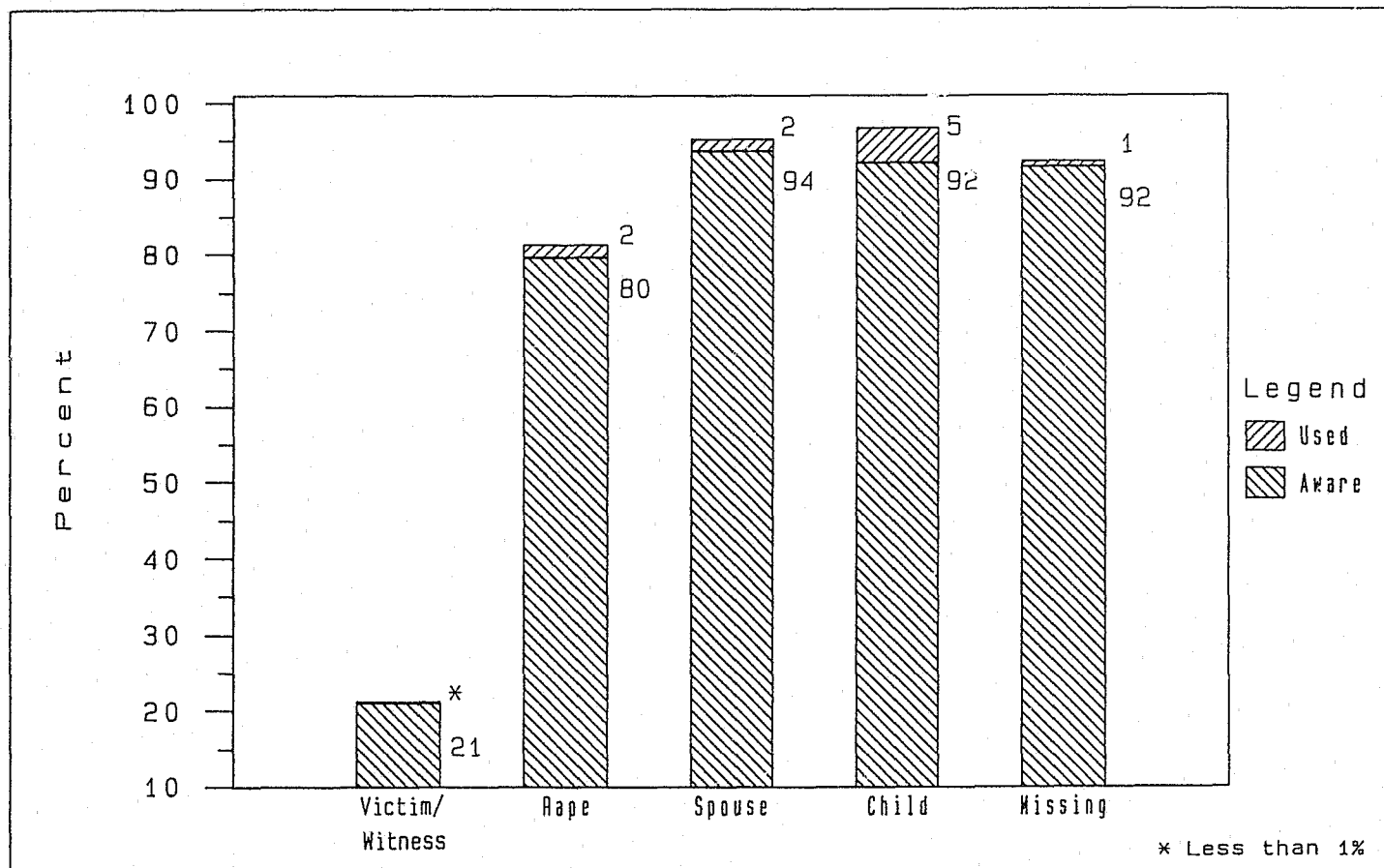


FIGURE 10: Awareness and use of services by victims.

services has increased over the past year. This was tested using a t-test of the difference in proportions in 1985 and 1986. Where a t-value of 1.96 is required for concluding that the change is a significant one, these values were: 1.92 for rape relief; 3.43 for spouse abuse; and 3.40 for child abuse. Proportions using the services were the same in 1985 as in 1986: for rape relief, $t=1.00$; for spouse abuse, $t=.042$; for child abuse, $t=1.21$. Likewise, the proportions using any service were the same--about 9 percent each year.

Crime Prevention

The final topic addressed by the study was crime prevention. As you will see, most citizens in Kentucky take at least some precautions against crime.

Figure 11 ranks a number of household crime prevention techniques according to their prevalence of use. The single most commonly practiced precaution was keeping an eye out on one another's homes; 90 percent said they did this (although, as will be discussed, very few did this through official neighborhood watch programs). The next most common precautions are having mail and newspaper deliveries stopped (or picked up) when leaving town, and leaving lights, radio, or television on when no one is at home. About three out of four Kentucky households use each of these precautions. Fewer, but still a substantial proportion (59%), use deadbolt locks, and about a third (35%) have had valuables engraved. Very few (8%) have had burglar alarms installed.

Most respondents also reported that they practice auto-related safety. Ninety-four percent lock their vehicles when parked away from home, 91 percent keep keys in hand when returning to a parked car, and 58 percent lock their vehicles when parked at home.

"Program associated" crime prevention measures were not as common, but nonetheless have been used by a considerable number of Kentuckians. As shown in Table 4, particular anti-crime measures vary in the extent to which they were used in conjunction with a formal program or taken independently of the program that sponsors the service. "Neighborhood Watch" is at one end of this continuum. Ten percent of Kentucky households do this in association with police-sponsored programs, but an additional 80 percent do this informally. Other precautions were less likely to be taken overall, but those who did so were more likely to use formal programs or services. An example of this is having valuables engraved. Twenty-one percent of Kentucky households have done this in association with Operation Identification, while only 14 percent have

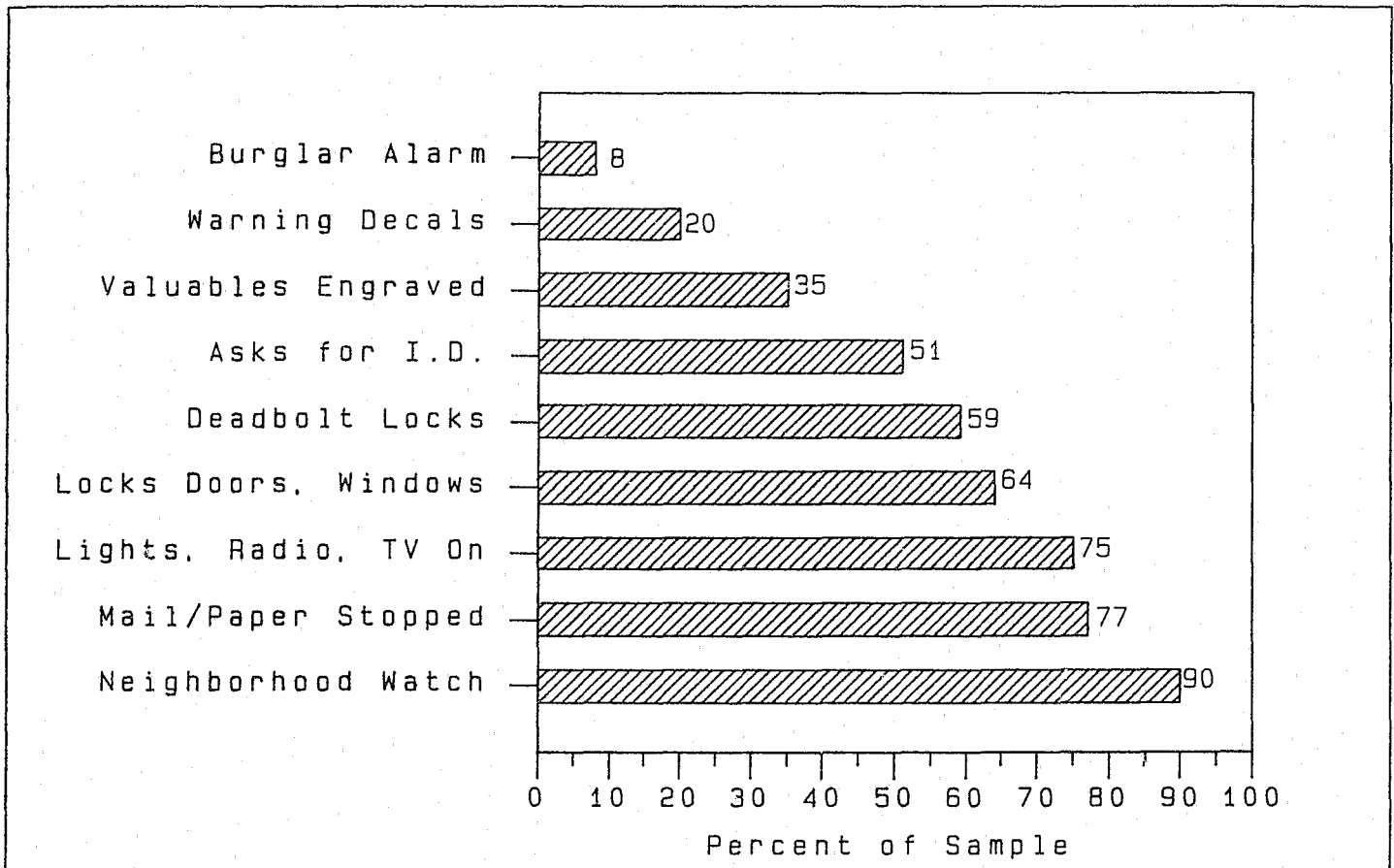


FIGURE 11: Use of crime prevention measures.

Table 4

Use of Program-Associated Crime Prevention Measures

<u>Neighborhood Watch</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Do, in association with police-sponsored program	10
Do, informally or other	80
Do not	<u>10</u>
	100
<u>Valuables Engraved</u>	
Do, in association with Operation Identification	21
Do, informally or other	14
Do not	<u>65</u>
	100
<u>Anti-burglary or Warning Decals</u>	
Do, in association with Operation Identification	15
Do, informally or other	5
Do not	<u>80</u>
	100
<u>Professional Survey or Advice</u>	
Do, in association with Home Security Surveys	3
Do, informally or other	4
Do not	<u>93</u>
	100
<u>Child Fingerprinting (respondents with children under 18 only)</u>	
Do, in association with Child Identification Program	45
Do, informally or other	4
Do not	<u>51</u>
	100

had their valuables engraved through some other means. One of more striking findings presented in Table 4 concerns child fingerprinting. Although this is a relatively new program, it has reached a high percentage of the population. Nearly 45 percent of respondents living with someone under 18 reported that they have had children fingerprinted through the Child Identification Program. An additional 4 percent have done this through some other means.

In closing this section, the importance of crime prevention should be considered in the context of findings concerning the aftermath of victimization (particularly the lasting fear victims experience), the currently low use among victims of formal services, and the high risk that victims will be victimized again. Taken together, these findings point to the importance of providing crime prevention services to victims. Such programs might reduce their risk of being victimized again. In addition, by learning concrete precautions to take against crime, victims may come to feel more in control of what happens to them, and consequently less vulnerable. This, in turn, may help to reduce their feelings of depression and fear.

USE AND APPLICATION OF THE FINDINGS

This longitudinal study addresses a variety of policy questions concerning crime and its impact, over time, on citizens of Kentucky. The answers to these questions may be used in a variety of ways. For example, results of the study may be used to (1) justify allocation of funds to control and prevent crime or to increase the support and service for victims of crime; (2) influence criminal justice officials to examine existing policies and practices that may relate to potential problems concerning victims of crime; (3) suggest a program or service modification that could potentially benefit crime victims; (4) lead to development of new programs that directly relate to victims; or (5) suggest additional policy questions to be addressed in future research. Each of these types of uses are illustrated below. Suggestions are preceded by the particular findings that have been extracted from the text of this report.

- o Results show that household victims, particularly respondents in households touched by violence, are much more likely to be victimized again. Crime prevention services offered in the state should be custom-made to reduce recurring victimization. Victims themselves might play a significant role in these crime prevention services.
- o Criminal victimization, especially violence, has a significant short-term effect on depression and fear of crime among victim households and a lasting effect on fear of crime. Victim programs should recognize and attempt to alleviate the different forms of psychological distress experienced by victims, i.e., both the depression and fear. With regard to the fear of crime, programs should be designed to impact the long-term effects resulting from criminal victimization.
- o A substantial percentage of respondents from victim households reported that their experience with the police was only "somewhat positive" or "not positive" at all and an even higher percentage viewed their experiences with prosecutors as only somewhat or not at all positive. These findings strongly suggest that criminal justice agencies, particularly the law enforcement agencies and the commonwealth attorney and county attorney offices, should evaluate the quality of contact between citizens of victim households and agency personnel. Further, it is recommended that the state designate special funds to develop, implement, and evaluate a new training program to improve the quality of contact between victims and the criminal justice agencies in Kentucky.
- o Few citizens are aware of victim/witness assistance programs that operate in the Kentucky Office of the Attorney General and a number of commonwealth attorney offices in the more densely populated judicial districts. A special public relations program should be

designed to increase the awareness and use of these services. The service might also be expanded so as to be available in all judicial districts in the state.

- o Longitudinal research should be conducted to determine the effectiveness of crime prevention services. Research is needed also that identifies the effect, if any, on victims which results from undesirable contact with the criminal justice system. A victims' needs assessment should be conducted to elicit information on the extent and type of needs of victim by regions of the state. Data should also be obtained that can be used to promote greater utilization of existing victim services.

Research findings can be used in various ways, but it is more difficult to use research for some purposes than for others. On the one hand, for instance, it is easy to use an available research finding to justify the need to increase funding in critical program areas. Research results are also easy to use in speeches to drive home a specific point. On the other hand, the use of research to change particular aspects of an organization or program or to develop new initiatives is much more complex and therefore more difficult. To facilitate the application of the findings of this study to program change and development, we offer an application design focusing on systematic action within a specified time schedule. Figure 12 below presents a schematic of this design.

Type of Application	Application Stages		
	Prescription Specification	Action Plan	Goal Achievement Assessment
Problem Identification			
Programs/Services Modification			
Programs/Services Development			

Figure 12: Application design for translating victimization results

The design is two dimensional. One dimension consists of three distinct types of uses or applications of research findings which are known to be difficult: identification of potential problems; modification of programs and/or services; and, development of new programs and/or services. The second dimension comprises a three-stage application design made up of distinct, but highly related sets of activities. They include (1) specification of prescriptions in terms of goals, objectives, and strategy design; (2) creation of an action plan that specifies the development and implementation activities, identifies personnel funding needs, establishes the time schedule by activity, and presents procedures for monitoring how the prescriptions are implemented; and (3) assessment of each prescription by collecting, analyzing, and interpreting goal achievement data.

This design should be especially useful to agencies or programs in Kentucky which provide services for crime victims in helping them to use the findings presented in this report. In Stage I, the application process is initiated by thinking of each result and the type of application or use it suggests. (See the three types of applications illustrated in Figure 12.) Once particular results have been identified, the prescription must then be specified. The essential activities in Stage I include setting the goal or goals, specifying the objectives, and designing the application strategy. The goals should evolve naturally from the specified results. Specific objectives will emerge as one begins to ask questions about how to achieve the identified goals. In specifying the objectives, it is important to know or decide how they will be measured; i.e., how you will be able to determine whether the objectives have been achieved.

Next, in Stage II, outline the action plan by identifying steps in the implementation of the strategy: the personnel and cost requirements and the time scheduling of each of the implementation activities. If the strategy design requires too much time or money, it must be rethought; otherwise, a special proposal may have to be prepared to acquire extramural funds before the idea can be implemented. If the personnel and cost requirements appear reasonable, it is important to monitor the implementation of the strategy to ensure that it is actually implemented as designed.

It is also important to assess the extent to which goals set in Stage I were achieved. Therefore, Stage III must focus on collecting follow-up data on the entire operation and on analyzing and interpreting these data to determine

changes, if any, that should be made. At some point, the preliminary results will also require an update.

In conclusion, a review of this report and its findings is highly recommended for agencies in Kentucky, and elsewhere, whose concerns are to help crime victims. The application design should be viewed as a guide to optimizing the potential use of this research. Members of the Kentucky SAC staff are available to assist agencies in translating into practice the results presented in this report.

REFERENCES

- Atkinson, B., Calhoun, K., Resick, P., and Ellis, E. (1982). Victims of rape: Repeated assessment of depressive symptoms. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 50, 96-102.
- Gottfredson, M. (1981). On the etiology of criminal victimization. In Victims of Crime: A Review of Research Issues and Methods. National Institute of Justice.
- Janoff-Bulman, R. (1979). Characterological versus behavioral self-blame: Inquiries into depression and rape. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37, 1798-1809.
- Peterson, C., and M. Seligman. (1983). Learned helplessness and victimization. Journal of Social Issues, 2, 103-116.
- Radloff, L.S. (1977). The CES-D Scale: A self-report depression scale for research in the general population. Applied Psychological Measurement, 1, 385-401.
- Sales, E., Baum, M., and Shore, B. (1984). Victim readjustment following assault. Journal of Social Issues, 40, 117-136.
- Sparks, R. (1981). Surveys of victimization: An optimistic assessment. In M. Tonry and N. Morris (Eds.) Crime and Justice: An annual review of research. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1-60.
- U.S. Department of Justice. (1986). Households Touched by Crime, 1985. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Waksberg, J. (1978). Sampling methods for random-digit dialing. Journal of the American Statistical Association, 75, 40-46.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

Crime Incident Battery

Center for Epidemiologic Depression Scale

Urban Studies Center Fear of Crime Scale

CRIME INCIDENT BATTERY

Each of the following questions had a one-year report period, and was followed by probes asking "In what month did this happen?" and "How many times?"

During the last 12 months . . .

1. Did anyone break into your apartment/home, garage, or another building on your property?
2. Did you find a door jammed, a lock forced, or any other signs of an ATTEMPTED break-in?
3. Did anyone steal or TRY TO STEAL A VEHICLE OR PART OF (it/any of them), such as battery, hubcaps, tape-deck, etc. from you or anyone else in your household?
4. Have people in your household had their pockets picked or purses snatched?
5. Did anyone TRY to rob you or anyone else in your household by using force or threatening to harm you?
6. Did anyone beat up, sexually attack, or hit you or anyone else in your household with something?
7. Were you or anyone else in your household knifed, shot at, or attacked with some other weapon by anyone at all?
8. Did anyone THREATEN to beat you up or attack you or anyone else in your household with a knife, gun, or some other weapon not including telephone threats?
9. Did anyone TRY to attack you or anyone else in your household in some other way?
10. Did anyone steal things that belonged to you or anyone else in your household from inside any car or truck, such as packages or clothing?
11. Was anything stolen from you or anyone else in your household while somewhere other than at home, for example, at work, in a theatre or restaurant, or while traveling?
12. Was anything (else) stolen from you or anyone else in your household?
13. Did you find any evidence that someone ATTEMPTED to steal something that belonged to you or anyone else in your household?

14. Did anything else happen during the last 6 months that you thought was serious enough to report to the police--such as a car accident involving a drunken driver, or something else you haven't mentioned yet?

a. What happened? _____

b. During this/these incident(s), was a household member injured, attacked or threatened, or was something damaged or stolen or an attempt made to damage or steal something that belonged to him/her?

15. Did anything else happen during the last 6 months which you thought was a crime, but did NOT report to the police?

a. What happened? _____

b. During this/these incident(s), was a household member attacked or threatened, or was something damaged or stolen or an attempt made to damage or steal something that belonged to him/her?

CENTER FOR EPIDEMIOLOGIC STUDIES DEPRESSION SCALE

Each of the following questions is answered on a four-point scale for the past week: (1) less than 1 day, (2) 1-2 days, (3) 3-4 days, and (4) 5-7 days.

1. During the last week how many days were you bothered by things that don't usually bother you?
2. How many days did you not feel like eating; that is, your appetite was poor?
3. How many days did you feel that you could not shake off the blues even with help from your family and friends?
4. How many days did you feel that you were just as good as other people?
5. How many days did you have trouble keeping your mind on what you were doing?
6. How many days did you feel depressed?
7. How many days did you feel that everything you did was an effort?
8. How many days did you feel hopeful about the future?
9. How many days did you feel your life had been a failure?
10. How many days were you fearful?
11. How many days was your sleep restless?
12. How many days did you feel happy?
13. How many days did you talk less than usual?
14. How many days did you feel lonely?
15. How many days did you feel that other people were unfriendly?
16. How many days did you feel that you were enjoying life?
17. How many days did you have crying spells?
18. How many days did you feel sad?
19. How many days did you feel that people disliked you?
20. How many days did you feel as if you could not "get going"?

URBAN STUDIES CENTER FEAR OF CRIME SCALE

1. How safe do you feel walking alone in your neighborhood during the day?
Would you say you feel . . .
 - Very safe
 - Somewhat safe
 - Somewhat unsafe, or
 - Very unsafe
2. How safe do you feel outside in your neighborhood at night?
 - Very safe
 - Somewhat safe
 - Somewhat unsafe
 - Very unsafe
3. How much does fear of crime prevent you from doing things you would like to do?
 - Very much
 - Somewhat
 - Rarely, or
 - Never (not at all)
4. When you leave your house or apartment, how often do you think about being robbed or physically assaulted?
 - Very often
 - Sometimes
 - Rarely, or
 - Never
5. When you leave your house or apartment, how often do you think about it being broken into or vandalized while you're away?
 - Very often
 - Sometimes
 - Rarely, or
 - Never
6. When you're in your home, how often do you feel afraid of being attacked or assaulted by someone that you know such as a relative, neighbor, or acquaintance?
 - Very often
 - Sometimes
 - Rarely, or
 - Never

**KENTUCKY CRIMINAL JUSTICE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS CENTER
STEERING COMMITTEE**

Ernie Allen
Chief Aide
County Judge Executive's Office
Jefferson County

E. Austin, Jr.
Secretary
Cabinet for Human Resources
Commonwealth of Kentucky

David H. Bland
DHB Consulting
Versailles, Kentucky

Robin Grigler
Director
Kentucky Commission on Women
Commonwealth of Kentucky

William "Bill" Dillard
Sheriff
Christian County
Commonwealth of Kentucky

Morgan T. Elkins
Commissioner
Kentucky State Police
Commonwealth of Kentucky

J. Price Foster
Dean
College of Urban & Public Affairs
University of Louisville

Larry Hayes
Secretary of the Cabinet
Governor's Office
Commonwealth of Kentucky

Vic Hellard
Director
Legislative Research Commission
Commonwealth of Kentucky

Paul F. Isaacs
Public Advocate
Department for Public Advocacy
Commonwealth of Kentucky

John Kearns
Circuit Court Clerk
Harrison County
Commonwealth of Kentucky

Robert M. Kirtley
County Attorney
Daviess County
Commonwealth of Kentucky

James Knauf
Jailor
Kenton County
Commonwealth of Kentucky

Ronald W. McBride
Chief
Ashland Police Department
Ashland, Kentucky

Gentry McCauley, Jr.
Commonwealth's Attorney
Fourteenth Judicial District
Commonwealth of Kentucky

Ron Simmons
Chairman
Parole Board
Commonwealth of Kentucky

Pat Sims
Administrative Office of Courts
Commonwealth of Kentucky

George W. Wilson
Secretary
Corrections Cabinet
Commonwealth of Kentucky