

Use, Non-Use and Efficacy of Pennsylvania's Victim Service Programs Final Report

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INTRODUCTION

The need for a comprehensive assessment of the state's victim service programs is evidenced in at least three ways. First, there has been explosive growth in the development and funding of victim service programs since the late 1970s through both federal and state programs (Sims, 1999). In Pennsylvania, victim compensation and services are available under the state Victims Compensation Program, the state Victim/Witness Assistance Program, the federal STOP Violence Against Women Program, and the state Victim Services Training and Technical Assistance Project. Altogether, these programs expended nearly 20 million dollars in 1998.²

Second, the literature indicates that many victims do not take advantage of victim service programs. The literature suggests that many victims seek and receive help from other, more informal sources. For example, financial assistance and housing aid often come from family or friends. Victims who do not seek assistance report limiting factors, including hearing negative feedback about the performance of victim services staff members, having a lack of time to get involved, or feeling that help was unnecessary (Skogan, Davis, and Lurigio, 1990). Whatever the reasons, data from the Pennsylvania Crime Victimization Survey (PA CVS) show that crime victims infrequently take advantage of victim service programs. Only about one in ten crime victims who reported their crime to the police were told that victim services were available for them. Of those notified, only about one in seven (15%) availed themselves of

¹ Project team member Barbara Sims completed a thorough review of the existing literature on the efficacy of victim service programs on behalf of the Pennsylvania Commission on Crime and Delinquency in 1999.

those services. This means that of those who had a crime they considered serious enough to report to police, only one percent had used a victim service program.

Finally, there has been little or no empirical evaluation of how victim service programs affect the victims themselves. According to Sims (1999), there is a paucity of literature on the evaluation of victim service programs, and what little evaluation has been completed suggests that most victim service programs do not meet their established goals. In fact, past efforts conclude that there is no evidence that those who take advantage of victim service programs recover any faster than those who do not receive such assistance.

Project Objectives/Research Questions

The need for a review of the state's victim service programs is obvious when considered in light of these identified trends. This evaluation seeks answers to the following three research questions:

- 1. What are the established goals of the state's victim service programs?
- 2. Why are victim service programs used infrequently by victims of crime?
- 3. Do victims of UCR Part I crimes who make use of victim service programs have different outcomes than victims who do not use these services?

² Source: Pennsylvania Crime Victims Compensation Program Annual Report, Fiscal Year 1997/98 and Pennsylvania Commission on Crime and Delinquency 1998 Annual Report.

Report Overview

This report first reviews the findings from published evaluations of victim service programs. This review provides the methodological basis for an evaluation of Pennsylvania's victim service programs. The purpose of this review is to identify: 1) what is known about the effectiveness of victim service programs, and 2) to identify methodological approaches used to study victim service programs. The report goes on to identify the psychological effects of crime on victims of different criminal offenses and how best to measure those effects. This section provides information that guided the research team in designing a survey instrument to evaluate the efficacy of victim service programs. Section Three details findings from the Pennsylvania Victim Service Program Survey. The main objective of the survey was to collect program information that could be used to develop a plan for producing a representative sample of the state's victim service programs. Section Four begins with a description of the methods used to develop both samples of users and provides an overview related to the design of the survey instrument. The report concludes with findings on the use, non-use and efficacy of Pennsylvania's Victim Service Programs.

SECTION ONE: VICTIM SERVICE PROGRAM EVALUATIONS

The victim services movement has done well to make us aware that crime victims suffer many effects of their victimization--financial, emotional, and psychological. Because there is ample evidence that crime victims frequently require assistance in dealing with their experiences, many victim service programs have sprung up during the last 20 years. Given the increasing number of programs and their concomitant costs, it is appropriate to consider how effective these programs are in ameliorating the financial, emotional, and psychological effects of crime victimization.

The purpose of this section of the report is to present the findings from published evaluations of victim service programs. This review provides the methodological basis for an evaluation of Pennsylvania's victim service programs. The purpose is this review is to identify: 1) what is known about the effectiveness of victim service programs, and 2) to identify methodological approaches used to study victim service programs.

This review categorizes each evaluation as either a process evaluation or an impact evaluation. This classification scheme is used because it is recognized in the evaluation literature and in the victim services literature as appropriate.³ Process evaluations try to answer questions about a program's efforts, operations, and types and amounts of services offered without making

³ National Institute of Justice (1997). *Serving Crime Victims and Witnesses*, (2nd ed.), 113-120. Another common type of evaluation, program monitoring, which provides basic information about how a program operates, is not considered here because it is outside the scope of our proposed research project.

direct comparisons about program impacts. 4 Impact evaluations determine the direct effects of the program on victims and witnesses, including studies of marginal effectiveness, relative effectiveness, and cost effectiveness. Program effectiveness is generally thought of as the extent to which a policy or program is achieving its goals and purposes.⁵ Consequently, impact evaluations determine whether a program has produced any desired changes.

Section 1.01: Impact Evaluations of Victim Service Programs

This section presents the methodological approaches employed by researchers who conducted impact assessments of victim service programs. Each document has been reviewed with an eye toward identifying and understanding the methodological approaches employed.

Half of the twelve evaluations reviewed attempted to use rigorous techniques in the form of experimental control groups or quasi-experimental designs to compare victims who used victim service programs with those who did not. In every instance, the researchers conducted interviews with the users of victim service programs, usually over the telephone, to ask them questions about their experiences. Interestingly, we found that no impact evaluations have been conducted since 1990. What difficulties did these researchers encounter, or what findings did they uncover, that may have discouraged other researchers seeking to examine impacts?

⁴ This definition is slightly different from the definition provided in the NIJ handbook. The NIJ handbook emphasizes that the process evaluation is an indepth look at the program's operations to see if the program is reaching expected levels of achievement.

⁵ Berk, R. & Rossi, P. (1990). Thinking about program evaluation. Sage Publications, Newbury Park: 15-16.

The most rigorous effort to examine the impact of victim service programs was undertaken by Davis (1987).⁶ In this research project, Davis randomly assigned victims to one of four treatment groups: 1) crisis intervention with supportive counseling, 2) crisis intervention with cognitive restructuring, 3) material assistance only, and 4) no services. Respondents were randomly selected from felony complaint records in eight New York City precincts. Respondents were interviewed twice, face-to-face, one month after the crime, and again three months later. A total of 249 victims (burglary, robbery, assault, or rape victims) completed the first interview and 181 completed the second interview, which is a relatively high rate of panel mortality. There is no mention of how many victims were asked to participate but refused. Davis does not note any methodological difficulties, and apparently both victims and police precincts were willing to participate at an acceptable rate. He offers no assistance in understanding how to motivate respondents to participate, or to increase our understanding of different participation rates by type of crime or type of victim service received. Nor does he consider what impact face-to-face interviewing could have had on the reliability of respondent reporting. Davis does identify a number of scales that may be useful to assess mood, posttraumatic stress, general psychopathology, fear of crime, and social readjustment, but found no benefits for victims in their psychological adjustment as a result of the services they received.

⁶ Davis, R. C. (1987). Studying the Effects of Services for Victims in Crisis. *Crime & Delinquency*, *33* (4), 520-531.

Davis et al (1990) conducted another well-designed experiment to assess the effects of victim impact statements. These authors interviewed 293 victims processed through the Bronx Supreme Court system. Victims were randomly assigned to one of three treatment groups: 1) victims were interviewed and their impact statements were sent immediately to the assistant district attorney, district attorney, and judge; 2) victims were interviewed but no statements were forwarded; and 3) victims received no interviews. Individuals is groups one and two were interviewed again one month after their initial interviews. The study found, "no indications that impact statements caused greater feelings of involvement, greater satisfaction with the justice process, or greater satisfaction with dispositions" (Dave, 1990, p. 48). Davis also noted that many assistant district attorneys were against the project, and others simply forgot or found it too inconvenient to bring in victims for initial interviews.

Like Davis, Rosenbaum's (1987) research also employed an experimental design. 8 Rosenbaum designed a study to evaluate whether policevictim interactions after victimization can mediate the psychological impact of the experience. Rosenbaum's respondents had experienced either an aggravated assault, robbery, or residential burglary. The Detroit Police Department provided the research team with the names and telephone numbers of victims who had been in contact with specially trained police officers. Victims were interviewed using a 30-minute telephone survey instrument. Rosenbaum measured emotional and psychological impact, social cognition, fear and vulnerability, crime victim

⁷ Davis, R. C., Smith, B. E., & Henley, M. (1990). Victim Impact Statements: Their Effects on Court Outcomes and Victim Satisfaction. Report by the New York State Victim Services Research Department.

prevention awareness and behavior, and response to the criminal justice system. The study found that there were no differences in emotional trauma, problems with relationships or daily activities, stress, or cognitive interpretation of the incident between the groups. Rosenbaum does not note any difficulty in securing cooperation from either victims or the police department.

In 1985, the Victim Impact Demonstration Project of New York issued its first year evaluation. This evaluation used telephone interviews and a control group to measure client satisfaction. The authors did notice a problem in their attempts to create an experimental control group. Many of the victims in the experimental group were never brought to their counselors by district attorney staff because they subjectively determined which of the most serious cases would receive counseling. Clearly, there was too much leeway given to victim service staff members. 10 This quasi-experimental design suffered from several other problems as well. First, only 154 victims were included in the sample. Second, there was a serious non-response problem, estimated to be about 42 percent. Third, the approach was not a true experimental design in that individuals were selected from one of two existing clusters of cases. The study found no significant differences between keeping victims informed and how they perceived their treatment by the system.

⁸ Rosenbaum, D. P. (1987). Coping with Victimization: The Effects of Police Intervention on Victims' Psychological Readjustment. Crime & Delinquency, 33 (4), 502 - 519.

⁹ New York Victim Services Agency (1985). First Year Evaluation of the Victim Impact Demonstration Project.

¹⁰ This echoes a sentiment expressed in our focus group with victim services advocates.

Finally, Davis et al (1980) conducted an evaluation of the state of New York's Victim Involvement Project (VIP). 11 The evaluation used court records, in-court evaluations, and interviews with victims to collect data about two groups of subjects. The treatment group was selected from court areas where VIP staff were stationed (n=96) and the control group members were selected from a different court area that had no VIP staff but handled similar types of cases (n=86). A primary motivation for the study was to determine if the program increased victim satisfaction with the disposition process. According to Davis, the evaluation found that "VIP staff comforted victims, explained the court process, eased the ordeal of coming to court for victims in numerous ways, represented their interests to prosecutors, and made sure victims understood what had happened in their cases before they left. VIP's activities did give victims a sense that they were treated better in court... They did not, however, give victims a greater sense of involvement in their cases, a greater feeling that the court was responsive to their needs, or a greater sense of satisfaction with the outcomes of their cases."

Taken together, these evaluations point to few positive impacts as a result of victim service programs. As noted, Davis (1980) reports that victim witness programs make the process less costly and complicated for victims, increase victim attendance, help victims get release of property, keep victims separate from offenders and help improve communication with prosecutors. On the other hand, the literature did not reveal:

An increase in guilty pleas (Davis, 1980)

¹¹ Davis, R. C., Tichane, M., Connick, E. (1980). First Year Evaluation of the Victim Involvement Project. Report to the New York State Division of Criminal Justice Services.

- An increase in jail sentences (Davis, 1980)
- Improvement in victims' attitudes toward the system (Davis, 1980, 1990)
- That victims felt better informed (New York, 1985)
- That victims felt better about how they were treated by the system (New York, 1985)
- That victims had any improvement in psychological adjustment (Davis, 1987)
- That sentencing decisions included thoughts about the crime's effect on the victim (Davis, 1987)

There could be at least three possible explanations for these findings. First, one could argue that victim service programs fail to be efficacious. Second, it may be that programs are not properly funded or implemented to have the desired effects. Finally, it may be that methodological difficulties preclude positive findings. We will make no arguments about the first two possibilities and instead focus on what may be the methodological implications of the studies we reviewed.

One possible difficulty may arise from self-selection in who agrees to participate in the studies or in the kinds of people who choose to actually use victim service programs. Perhaps the most traumatized individuals who would benefit most from interventions have low participation rates or may not be selected to participate. Studies find that different types of crime have different impacts, require different interventions, and require more time to heal. If the most traumatized individuals are not included in these studies either because of a failure to include them or a failure to participate, then it should not be surprising that few positive effects are discovered. On the other hand, perhaps those best suited to cope with their experiences opt out of using victim services altogether,

meaning those who seek assistance are less likely to have the support systems in place which they need to cope. Theoretically, experimental designs can handle this second problem, but only if self-selection into the study is not a problem.

A second consideration is the limited statistical power of most of the evaluations. The most rigorous experimental designs had such small sample sizes that it is virtually impossible to detect even a moderate-sized program effect.

We also know that in at least one instance the victim service programs staff that were involved in selecting respondents had too much leeway in their selection protocols. In fact, every impact evaluation relied on someone outside of the research team to assist in sample selection. It could be that more control over the sample selection by trained researchers as opposed to untrained volunteers would have produced better samples. This raises an important point. In none of the studies do we know how well the study sample represented the population of victim service programs users. We also know that very few victims ever take advantage of victim service programs. Perhaps it is this selfselection that produces these results.

Section 1.02: Process Evaluations and Victim Service Programs

Studies reviewed in this section are classified as process evaluations. This type of evaluation is designed to understand whether a particular program is implemented according to its intended outcomes. For example, the Denver Victim Services Assessment (2000) was conducted to determine the needs of victims and to understand how well those needs were being met. 12 Specifically, the survey asked questions about the types of services used by the victim,

satisfaction with those services, and services that could have been helpful but were not received. The survey included clients who were receiving services from Denver victim services agencies. The survey was sent to the victim services agencies who were to distribute between five and fifteen surveys to their clients. Only 11 of the 70 victim services agencies were represented in a final sample that contained only 80 surveys. The victim services agencies were uncooperative in distributing the surveys because the project was thought to be burdensome and intrusive. The Denver Client Satisfaction Survey indicated that victims were satisfied with the services they had received and that services were affordable and easily accessible. Victims' primary unmet needs were crisis intervention at the crime scene, victim assistance at the crime scene, victims' rights information, protection services, and updates on the status of cases. Of course, these findings should be viewed with care due to an extremely low rate of response.

The Office of Attorney General in Texas produced a baseline study on program service delivery in 1998. 13 The study included interviews with crime victims and survivors to identify victims' attitudes on the types and delivery of the services they received and to rate the effect of crime on five different aspects of their lives: financial, physical, psychological, spiritual, and social. The researchers used prosecutors' files to generate the sample of victims and homicide survivors. They had originally intended to use police records but found that those records were often not up-to-date. The survey included those 17 years

¹² US Department of Justice. (2000). Denver Victim Services 2000 Needs Assessment. Office for Victims of Crime, Washington, D.C.

¹³ Crime Victims Institute (1998). The Impact of Crime on Victims: A Baseline Study on Program Service Delivery Final Report. Office of Attorney General. State of Texas.

or older who had been the victim of a serious adult crime. Surveys were mailed to each participant. Only 17 percent of the participants returned their survey forms. In fact, nearly one-third of the initial mailing was returned as undeliverable. The survey found that more than half of victims suffered disabling psychological conditions as a result of their victimization/experiencevictims reported being more affected psychologically than in any other way. Just under half of the victims said they had physically disabling conditions as the result of crimes committed against them. Once again, a low response rate requires this data to be viewed with caution.

Skogan, Davis, and Lurigio (1990) provided a report on victims' needs and victim services in a report to the National Institute of Justice. 14 The survey was completed by 240 users of victim services and 240 non-users of four state programs. Robbery victims, assault victims and burglary victims were interviewed by telephone. The survey had a response rate of 44 percent. This low rate of response is worsened by the fact that victims were sampled from the records of victim assistance programs, so only victims with known telephone numbers were included in the sample. There is no indication of the proportion of clients who had telephone numbers. The survey inquired about the needs of victims, where victims seek assistance, the kind of assistance victims receive, and victims' problems that do and do not get solved. The survey reported five primary needs among victims: someone to talk to about their feelings, information about how to avoid being a victim again, protecting themselves from offenders, repairing broken doors or locks, and installing better locks or

¹⁴ Skogan, W., Davis, R. C. & Lurigio, A. J. (1990). Victims' Needs and Victim Services: Final Report to the National Institute of Justice. U.S. Department of Justice.

improving security. The survey found that most people get the help they need from sources that are not part of the formal victim service structure, e.g., family or friends. The survey also found police informed few victims about the availability of victim services. Individuals who did receive services, however did report being satisfied with them.

Four additional process evaluations were also reviewed, but these evaluations had a slightly different approach. Instead of speaking directly to the users of victim service programs, these studies interviewed the providers of victim service programs. For this reason, this document does not include a detailed review of these articles.

These process evaluations, like the impact evaluations noted before, point to a number of serious methodological difficulties. First and perhaps most important, response rates to these surveys are woeful. The response to these surveys is so low that they are of little scientific worth. Second, the low response rates are created by at least two important factors: agency staff is often uninterested or unwilling to assist in research efforts and the client contact information kept by many agencies is often outdated. One finding here is noteworthy, even if it must be viewed carefully—victims report being more affected psychologically by their experience than in any other way.

Section 1.03: Summary

The background materials gathered for this section reveal that victim service programs can demonstrate few positive outcomes for victim service program users. These same materials also show that most studies that attempt to evaluate victim service programs suffer from serious methodological limitations, the most common of which is self-selection. Most also suffer from low response

from selected users. Finally, these evaluations often encounter victim service programs and staff that are frequently unwilling or uninterested in assisting researchers in evaluations. As we describe later, foreknowledge of these issues did little to help us avoid them.

SECTION TWO: MEASURING THE PSYCHOLOGICAL IMPACT OF CRIMINAL VICTIMIZATION

This section of the reports identifies the psychological effects of crime on victims of different criminal offenses and how best to measure those effects.

This section provides information that guided the research team in designing the survey instrument used to evaluate the efficacy of victim service programs.

Section 2.01: Psychological Impact on Crime Victims

In 1987, Lurigio¹⁵ conducted a study to explore the generalized effects of crime by comparing victims against nonvictims and the differential effects of crime by comparing separate groups of burglary, robbery, and non-sexual crime victims. In Detroit, phone interviews were conducted with 277 crime victims (the experimental group) who were victimized during a four-month period and 104 randomly selected nonvictims (the control group). The Detroit police department provided the names and phone numbers for the crime victim sample. The victims selected had experienced one of three types of crimes: residential burglary, robbery, or felony assault during a prescribed four-month period. Researchers were most interested in the immediate impact of crime, thus contact with victim respondents was attempted within two weeks after they filed an incident report with the police. If contact had not been made within a three-week period, individuals were dropped from the study.

Respondents in the control group were selected via random digit dialing. The nonvictim sample was screened to ensure that the participant (1) had not been a victim of personal or property crime in the preceding twelve months, (2) was a resident of Detroit, and (3) was 18 years of age or older. The

researchers also attempted to match the victims and nonvictim samples on race and income by selecting telephone prefixes for the nonvictim sample telephone numbers that covered roughly the same geographic areas from that the crime victim samples originated.

Two survey instruments were used in this study. The first instrument, the crime victim survey, was developed to test the effectiveness of two interventions designed to alleviate the adverse psychological impact of criminal victimization, to facilitate victim participation in the criminal justice system, and to increase victim satisfaction with police services. The second instrument, the nonvictim survey, was identical to the victim survey except for the items designed to describe the crime incident and its direct consequences (how many offenders were present, was a weapon used, extent of victim injury) and elicit the victim's perceptions of the two interventions (did they feel better after contact with the police, were police attentive, sensitive, responsive).

Researchers found that victims were more likely to report higher levels of vulnerability, fear, and distressing symptomology such as anxiety, unpleasant thoughts, and upset stomach, and lower levels of self-efficacy than were nonvictims. Victims were also more likely to engage in protective behaviors such as looking out for suspicious people, avoiding strangers during walks, and checking behind the front door of their apartment or home as they enter.

Burglary victims were more likely to report feeling vulnerable and fearful, while assault victims were more likely to express more negative views of the police.

¹⁵Lurigio, A. J. (1987). Are All Victims Alike? The Adverse, Generalized, and Differential Impact of Crime. *Crime and Delinquency*, *33* (4), 452-467.

Kilpatrick et al. (1987)¹⁶ conducted a similar study to identify both the immediate and long-term psychological impact of criminal victimization on women. The study's sample consisted of 391 female residents of Charleston County, South Carolina selected via random digit dialing. Two structured interviews were administered to determine lifetime criminal victimization experiences, crime reporting, and psychological impact. The crime types studied in this research included completed and attempted rape, completed and attempted sexual molestation, other types of sexual assault, aggravated assault, robbery, and burglary. Results showed that 75% of the women in the sample had been a victim of crime and that 53% had been victims of at least one sexual assault, specifically. The mean length of time postcrime for all crimes was 15.0 years. Only 41% of all crimes were reported to police by either the victim or by someone other that the victim. Burglary had the highest reporting rate and sexual assault the lowest.

One of the interviews was a modified version of the Diagnostic

Interview Schedule which was administered by specially trained clinical psychologists or clinical psychology interns. The Diagnostic Interview

Schedule is a structured interview designed to determine objectively whether a respondent meets the diagnostic criteria based upon the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders 3rd edition for current and lifetime presence of several mental health disorders, including Post Traumatic Stress

Disorder (PTSD). Twenty-eight percent of victims had developed PTSD at some point after the crime. Lifetime prevalence rates were highest for completed rape,

¹⁶ Kilpatrick, D.G., Sauders, B.E., Veronen, L.J., Connie, Best, L., & Von, J. M. (1987). Criminal Victimization: Lifetime Prevalence, Reporting to Police, and Psychological Impact. *Crime and Delinquency*, *33* (4), 479-489.

aggravated assault, completed molestation, and burglary. Eight percent of the respondents were experiencing PTSD at the time of the assessment.

In another study with female crime victims, Riggs et al.¹⁷ examined feelings of anger and the relationship of anger to the development of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD). A total of 166 women participated in the study. One hundred sixteen of the women were victims of criminal assaults, 49 were victims of rape, 67 were victims of robbery, simple assault, and aggravated assault, and 50 were community volunteers who had not experienced a victimization during the preceding year. The nonvictim sample was matched to the victim sample on age, race, education, and income. Victims were excluded from the study if the crime was committed by a spouse or family member or as part of an ongoing abusive relationship.

Crime victim participants for the study were self-selected.

Advertisements were placed in the local newspapers, and police officers and hospitals made referrals. The nonvictim participants were recruited from local newspapers and referrals from crime victims already involved in the project. Subjects were rewarded monetarily for their participation. Initial assessments were completed approximately one week after the assault. Assessments were again completed one month later. Only 86 participants completed the second assessment. A formal diagnosis of PTSD could only be made for those respondents.

Researchers used four instruments in the study. The first was the Structured Initial Interview, a 147-item interview that assesses assault

¹⁷ Riggs, D. S., Daneu, C. V., Gershuny, B. S., Greenberg, D., & Foa, E.B. (1992). Anger and Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder in Female Crime Victims. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, *5* (4), 613-625.

characteristics, as well as basic demographic information, abuse history, physical and emotional symptomatology, lifestyle changes, and drug use. The interview was administered face-to face to all crime victims. A shortened version of the interview was administered to the control group. To evaluate feelings of anger, the State-Trait Anger Inventory (STAX) was administered. STAX is a 20-item questionnaire, comprised of a 10-item state anger scale that evaluates the intensity of anger at the time the instrument is completed, and a 10-items trait anger scale that evaluates general feelings of anger. A second anger scale was administered to evaluate the extent to which feelings of anger are held in and the extent to which feelings of anger are expressed outwardly (Anger Expression Scale, AX). The final instrument was the PTSD Symptom Scale (PSS). The PSS is a standardized questionnaire consisting of 17 questions that correspond to the DSM-IIIR symptoms of PTSD.

Researchers found that there were no significant differences between the anger scores of rape victims and victims of nonsexual assault and that victims exhibited more anger than nonvictims, both at the initial assessment and at the 1-month follow-up. Analysis also showed that the level of anger experienced by victims, and the manner in which it was expressed, was related to characteristics of the assault such as severity and victim's response.

Researchers also explored the role of anger in the development of PTSD. Results revealed that both the PTSD and non-PTSD victims had higher anger scores at the initial assessment than nonvictims. In addition, PTSD victims scored higher than non-PTSD victims and nonvictims on the anger-in scale.

Thus, intense feelings of anger shortly after the victimization and holding angerin, were associated with the development and maintenance of PTSD symptoms.

The most comprehensive work found on the psychological impact of crime on victims was by Markesteyn. ¹⁸ Markesteyn recognized the many limitations to the victimization research conducted and attempted to review and incorporate what he found in his work. He found that many researchers had a narrow focus to their work, the work was primarily exploratory, and many of the psychological instruments used in the research were not standardized which limited generalizability and prevented cross-study comparisons. Markesteyn also noted that many researchers recruited participants by placing advertisements in the newspaper, drawing a sample from police files, or from victim crisis programs. These methods of sample selection prevent a great number of crime victims who have not sought assistance from participating.

While Markesteyn agreed that the existing literature on the impact of crime victimization has provided a wealth of information on the psychological, behavioral, physical, and financial affects of crime, his goal was to study a broader view of crime victimization. The first step of his research was to integrate the findings from various areas of victimology into a general model predictive of victims' reactions to crime. In others words, he attempted to identify factors that mediate the degree of harm experienced. Borrowing from other researchers, Markesteyn's model includes the following factors: (1) previctimization characteristics of the victim, (2) characteristics of the crime event, and (3) victims' postvictimization abilities to cope. His assumption was

¹⁸ Markesteyn, T. (1992). *The Psychological Impact of Nonsexual Criminal Offenses on Victims*. Prepared on contract for the Corrections Branch, Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada.

that "these three sequential classes of variables span the period before the crime to months, even years following the victimization and that each set of factors may influence later variables, as well as the overall outcome" (p. 10).

Pre-victimization factors were a set of variables that refer to relatively stable aspects of a crime victim's life that affect his or her ability to cope. These variables include income, occupation, education, gender and age. Research has shown that compared to those less fortunate, victims with more education, better jobs and higher incomes demonstrate the strongest ability to recover from victimization. Research also shows that female victims suffer more than men and that elderly victims experience worse economic, psychological, physical and social effects than younger victims. (cited in Markesteyn, 1992).

Crime characteristics include information about the crime event itself.

For example, the violence of the crime (e.g., weapon use, injury incurred) or the location of the victimization. Research has shown that there is a positive relationship between the overall degree of violence associated with the victimization and the severity of distress later experienced by victims.

The post-victimization characteristics incorporate several coping mechanisms, behavioral and cognitive, available to crime victims that, if utilized, may lessen the psychological impact of the crime victimization. For example, studies have shown that victims can eliminate or at least minimize the extent of their misfortune by evaluating themselves and their misfortune against selected standards of comparisons. Similar work has shown that victims who feel uniquely vulnerable are at higher risk than those who feel universally vulnerable to experience greater psychological distress. In addition, Markesteyn

stated that one's social support system, the support received from law enforcement and victim services intervention, and re-victimization may influence how crime victims react. After reviewing the research, Markesteyn found that "depending on its quality, the support provided by police and other victim assistance personnel, including those in the criminal justice system, can either facilitate or impede the ability of victims to overcome their ordeal" (p.15).

Section 2.02: Summary

The literature suggests that criminal victimization, like other harmful life events such as paralyzing accidents, fatal illness, and natural disasters, can have profound effects on a person's emotional well being and psychological adjustment (Lurigio, 1987). Research shows that crime victims experience a wide range of symptoms from mild reactions such as minor sleep disturbances, irritability, worry, interpersonal strain, attention lapses, and the exacerbation of prior health problems to more severe reactions which warrant the diagnosis of Post Traumatic Stress Disorder. Markesteyn concluded that the psychological impact of crime is not qualitatively dissimilar for victims of different criminal offenses, but rather a matter of degree. In other words, although the psychological symptoms experienced by victims of sexual assault, robbery, burglary, and kidnapping vary in intensity, the nature of their distress is the same.

This information is useful for selecting a tool or combination of tools to measure the psychological impact of crime on victims in many ways. First, since the symptoms of psychological impact have been shown to be similar for victims regardless of the type of crime, one survey instrument should suffice for all crime victims. Second, because crime victims exhibit a multitude of

symptoms following victimization, the measurement selected should measure global functioning and patterns of psychological distress, as opposed to only one dimension of distress such as anxiety.

In addition to selecting the measure of psychological impact on crime victims, Markesteyn suggests that there are a number of factors that mediate the degree of harm experienced by the crime victim such as age, gender, education, the violence of the crime, and coping mechanisms. That is, one person may experience greater psychological stress as a result of a crime victimization than someone else, even if both experience the same type of crime. These factors could also influence whether or not a victim seeks the assistance of victim service programs, and thus should be included in any study seeking to measure the psychological effects of criminal victimization.

SECTION THREE: PENNSYLVANIA VICTIM SERVICE PROGRAMS

The Pennsylvania Victim Service Programs Survey was conducted at the suggestion of the Victim Services Evaluation Project Advisory Group to provide answers to questions about sample construction. The main objective of the survey was to collect program information that could be used to develop a plan for producing a representative sample of the state's victim service programs. The survey was also necessary for achieving one of the present study's goals: better understanding the established goals of the state's victim service programs. Presented here is a discussion of the survey's methodology, findings that indicate the types of services offered by the programs as well as type of victims served, and a discussion of program goals. Also presented is information about the descriptive characteristics of the programs (staffing levels, budgets, etc.). This section concludes with a comparison of program types and their respective programmatic characteristics.

Section 3.01: Methods

Millersville University's Center for Opinion Research designed a survey questionnaire with direction from the advisory group (see Attachment A). A survey form was mailed to every victim service agency listed in the Pennsylvania Commission on Crime and Delinquency's Victim Service Program Referral Handbook 2001. This Handbook provides the most exhaustive list of the state's victim service programs available. Surveys were mailed to 211 victim service programs; a total of 166 (79%) organizations completed the survey.

Section 3.02: Services

The state's victim service programs define victims very broadly. Most (86%) define a victim as anyone impacted by a crime. Another two in five (39%) programs include anyone who witnessed a crime in their definition of victim.

Not only is the definition of victim broad, so are the services that these programs offer. On average, respondent agencies reported offering 13 of the 26services mentioned (mean = 12.8, standard error = \pm 0.29). As Table 3-1 shows, court accompaniment (95%), justice support/advocacy (89%), follow up services (87%), crisis intervention/counseling (86%), community outreach (85%), and crime victims' compensation (81%) are the most commonly offered services.

Table 3-1. Services Provided to Crime Victims during the Last Fiscal Year, Pennsylvania Victim Service Programs

Service	Percent Responding "Yes"	
Court Accompaniment	95%	
Justice Support/Advocacy	89%	
Follow-up Services	87%	
Crisis Intervention/Counseling	86%	
Community Outreach	85%	
Crime Victims' Compensation	81%	
Transportation	79%	
Victim Impact Statement	77%	
Hotline	61%	
Peer Counseling	61%	
Hospital Accompaniment	60%	
Notification of Offender/Case Information	58%	
Bilingual Services	53%	
Emergency/Legal Advocacy	52%	
Victim Restitution	39%	
Shelter Services	36%	
Victim Impact Panels	35%	
Parenting Classes	28%	
Medical Services	27%	
Child Care	19%	
Therapy- Family or Victim	18%	

Transitional Housing	15%
Death Notification	13%
Employment Services	11%
Substance Abuse Services	10%
Spiritual/Religious Counseling	5%

Section 3.03: Clients

In addition to providing a wide range of services, the programs represented within the survey also service a wide range of clients, serving on average about four different categories of clients (mean = 4.4 client categories, standard error = \pm 0.18). Table 3-2 displays the types of victims served by the state's victim service programs. Approximately seven in ten victim services agencies provide assistance to victims of domestic violence (74%), family members of crime victims (71%), and victims of sexual assault/abuse (70%).

Table 3-2. Types of Clients Pennsylvania Victim Service Programs Serve			
Type of Client	Percent Responding "Yes"		
Victims of domestic violence	74%		
Family members of crime victims	71%		
Victims of sexual assault/abuse	70%		
Victims of juvenile offenders	58%		
Victims of child abuse	57%		
Victims of non-sexual crimes or non-domestic violence	55%		
Survivors of homicide victims	52%		
Other	18%		

Victims are notified about the availability of victim services in many ways. Police (44%), social service agencies (43%), employees within the justice system (36%), mailings (32%), and medical personnel (25%) are each mentioned as referral sources for victim service programs.

Section 3.04: Characteristics of State Victim Service Programs

The victim service programs survey also provided a picture of the typical victim service programs in the Commonwealth. Table 3-3 identifies the key characteristics of state victim service programs, including number of clients served, annual budget, full-time staff, part-time staff, volunteer staff, number of services offered, and types of clients served.

Table 3-3. Characteristics of State Victim Service Programs				
Program Characteristic	Average (Standard Error)	Median		
Clients served in prior year	$1,650 (\pm 145.3)$	1,120		
Budget in prior year	$$821,278 (\pm 163,738)$	\$353,500		
Full-time employees	$8.5 (\pm 0.7)$	6		
Part-time employees	$2.8 (\pm 0.29)$	1		
Volunteers	$20.7 (\pm 3.3)$	8		
Number of different services offered	$12.8 (\pm 0.29)$	12.5		
Number of client types served	4.4 (± 0.18)	5		
	. ()			

The state victim service programs describe themselves in a variety of ways. About one in three (31%) describe themselves as a victim/witness program, one in four describe themselves as a community-based victim services agency (28%) or domestic abuse center (24%). Only about one in twenty (4%) agencies classify themselves as rape crisis centers. Yet, this disparate set of labels belies many similarities in program goals. Two-thirds (67%) of victim service programs have a goal of providing direct services to victims, about three in five (59%) say that education is a goal of the organization, and half (50%) report that advocacy is a key organizational goal.

Section 3.05: Comparing Program Types

One question of interest is how the different categories of victim service programs differ from one another on their key characteristics. Table 3-4 compares the different type of agencies by their key attributes. The program types differ significantly on the number of full-time, part-time, and volunteer

staff, total services offered, and types of clients served. Table 3-5 lists the types of services offered by each program type.

Table 3-4. Comparison of Agencies by Key Attributes				
	VWP	CBVSA	DA	RC
Clients served	1501	1632	1996	1564
Client types served*	5.7	4.4	2.8	2.7
FT Staff*	3.5	10.1	14.6	7.4
PT Staff*	0.8	2.6	5.9	1.6
Volunteer Staff*	1.7	23.2	37.1	55.7
Budget	\$980,152	\$505,316	\$809,327	\$633,240
Total Services*	11.3	13.4	15.4	11.3

Table 3-5. Types of Services Offered by Each Program Type				
	VWP	CBVSA	DA	RC
Court Accompaniment	98%	92%	100%	100%
Victims' Compensation	94%	89%	67%	57%
Legal Advocacy	25%	49%	100%	14%
Justice Advocacy	96%	87%	90%	86%
Offender Information	96%	57%	28%	14%
Impact Panels	35%	53%	21%	14%
Impact Statements	98%	85%	59%	14%
Victim Restitution	81%	32%	5%	0%
Crisis Counseling	79%	94%	97%	100%
Hotline	17%	83%	97%	100%
Peer Counseling	17%	77%	95%	100%
Spirit Counseling	2%	11%	8%	0%
Therapy	15%	15%	13%	29%
Hospital Accompaniment	27%	68%	95%	100%

Section 3.06: Summary

The victim service programs survey painted an interesting picture of the state's victim service programs. What is most interesting is how similar the different types of programs seem to be. They each serve a variety of clients (that is, victims of different types of crime), offer a wide range of services, and have similar goals. They also tend to define a victim quite broadly.

SECTION FOUR: EVALUATION OF PENNSYLVANIA'S VICTIM **SERVICE PROGRAMS**

This evaluation project attempts to answer three primary research questions: 1) What are the established goals of the state's victim service programs?, 2) Why are victim service programs used infrequently by victims of crime?, and 3)Do victims of UCR Part I crimes who make use of victim service programs have different outcomes than victims who do not use these services?

Developing answers for these questions requires several specific methodological considerations. First, this research requires the use of two samples of individuals to quantify and explain differences in behaviors and functioning: crime victims who never used any victim service programs and victim service program users themselves. Second, the development of a survey questionnaire that adequately captures important attitudes, behaviors, experiences, and outcomes is essential. Section Four provides an overview of both the methodology for the program evaluation and questionnaire development.

Section 4.01: Sampling Victim Services Users and Non-Users

Creating the sample of crime victims who did not use one of the state's victim service programs was relatively straightforward. The approach employed to create a sample of crime victims was, in fact, identical to the sampling strategy used for the Pennsylvania Crime Victimization Survey (PA CVS) with one important exception. Whereas the present study interviewed only adults, the PA CVS also interviewed those between 12 and 17 years of age. 19 Readers who desire more detail about the sampling strategy are encouraged to review the technical documentation for the PA CVS. In brief, the sampling strategy used

for non-program users involved first creating a random sample of telephone numbers that was representative statewide. After a telephone number was identified as representing an eligible household, one adult from the household was randomly selected for the interview. At this point, the randomly selected individual was asked a series of screening questions to determine whether they had experienced any criminal victimizations during the preceding 12 months. Anyone who had experienced a victimization in the preceding 12 months was asked to complete the interview. The research team knew from the PA CVS study that only a very small proportion of crime victims statewide would have availed themselves of any victim service programs; less than one in twenty (3%) respondents in this sample said they had ever used the services offered by a victim service program.²⁰ The final sample included 654 crime victims.

Creating a representative sample of victim service program users was much more complicated than creating the sample of victims. The process for identifying program users was a multi-phased process that is best described as a multi-staged cluster sample. The first step in creating the sample was to identify a strategy for sampling victim service programs. To accomplish this, a statewide survey of the state's victim service programs was conducted (see Section Three). The survey was necessary to identify the differences in clients, goals, and services that exist between the four major categories of victim service programs (i.e., rape crisis centers, community-based victim services agencies, domestic abuse centers, and victim/witness programs).

¹⁹ Citation from PA CVS Methodology Report.

²⁰ The proportion of victims who used victim service programs is higher in this sample than in the PA CVS. This difference is most likely created by the exclusion of those under the age of 18 in the present sample.

The survey of victim service programs indicated that each of the four major types of victim service programs should be included in the sample. We included each type of program to provide the most comprehensive assessment of these programs and because agencies representing each type of program agreed to participate in future research. In fact, the survey of victim service programs was used to identify which programs were interested in being involved in more research. Programs that agreed to participate in further research and indicated that they had an automated client database were asked to participate in the next phase of the research, creating a sample of users. Based on the victim service programs survey, the Center's staff identified 14 victim witness programs, 25 community-based victim service programs, 14 domestic abuse centers, and 4 rape crisis centers were identified and asked to continue with the next phase of the research project.

The research team thought it was essential to sample from those programs that have automated databases in order to maintain more control over the sample selection process. As Section I shows, many program evaluation efforts have failed or been severely limited by victim service programs staff. Using the programs with an electronic database gave program staff far less leeway in selecting participants. Each participating agency provided the Center for Opinion Research staff with a database of all clients served during the 2001-2002 fiscal year. (Since confidentiality was a major concern for all involved, the original list of clients sent to the Center from each program contained only identification numbers and no personal information for each client). Random samples for each agency were generated and returned to the victim service programs. The programs themselves then contacted each selected individual to

see if they were willing to participate in the research and to determine whether individuals thought they would be in any danger should they decide to participate. Those victims who gave their consent or were not considered to be at risk by the program staff were then contacted by the Center's interviewing staff to complete the survey. We are grateful to those programs that took the time to participate.

The decision to use programs with automated databases that had agreed to participate in additional research was made because there were few significant differences between the programs that had an automated database and who agreed to participate, and those not included in this group. The average number of clients served, the average number of services provided, the average number of victim types, and the average budget did not differ between these two groups. Therefore, as our agency sampling process began we felt that the selection criteria would provide an adequate representation of the population of victim service programs in Pennsylvania, and ultimately, users.

The final sample of victim service program users included in this study is 206. Unfortunately, far fewer victim service programs were willing to provide samples than was expected. Center for Opinion Research staff contacted 63 agencies that met the sampling criteria. The process for contacting these agencies began with an initial letter mailed from the PCCD that explained the project and provided a copy of the Pennsylvania Victim Service Programs Survey Report. The initial letters were followed by a phone contact made by Center for Opinion Research staff. A project information packet was next mailed to all agencies after the initial contact was made. The packet contained a detailed description of the project, guidelines for generating sample, and guidelines for

contacting clients. The sample of program users was drawn from the 12 programs that agreed to participate in the survey.²¹ The eight participating programs include three community-based victim services agencies, two domestic abuse agencies, two victim witness programs, and one rape crisis center.²² A comparison of the key attributes of the victim service programs in our sample and of the non-sampled agencies shows there are no statistically significant (p<. 05) differences between the two groups with the exception of number of full-time staff.

²¹ Four agencies agreed to participate and provided user data to the Center. Center staff returned a sample to these agencies, but they never returned any names to the Center to interview.

²² Participating agencies included: Center for Victims of Violent Crime, Havin, Inc., Family Services of Blair County, Cambria County Victim Services Unit, YWCA of Carlisle, Senior Victim Services, Inc., YWCA of Greater Harrisburg, Northumberland County Victim Services Unit.

Table 4-1. Comparison of Sampled Agencies by Key Attributes					
	Sampled Agencies	<u>-</u>		Sig.	
Clients served	2,249	1,628	3.784	.054	
Client types served	5.3	4.3	3.075	.081	
FT Staff	13.1	8.2	6.770	.010	
PT Staff	2.0	2.8	2.940	.088	
Budget	593,007	832,611	0.162	.688	
Total Services	12.9	12.8	0.271	.603	

Section 4.02: Questionnaire Development

The survey instrument included six domains: (1) victim demographics, (2) characteristics of the crime event, (3) reported use and non-use of victim service programs, (4) victims' use of social services, (5) psychological coping mechanisms, and (6) psychological functioning. The survey instrument is included as Attachment B.

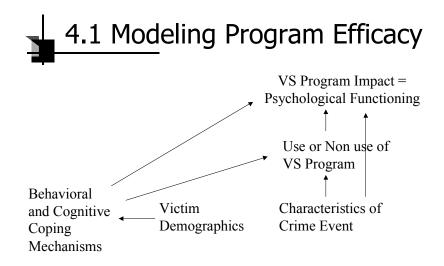
The literature suggests that criminal victimization, like other harmful life events such as paralyzing accidents, fatal illness and natural disasters, can have profound effects on a person's emotional well being and psychological adjustment (Lurigio, 1987). Research shows that crime victims experience a wide range of symptoms from mild reactions such as minor sleep disturbances, irritability, worry, interpersonal strain, attention lapses, and the exacerbation of prior health problems to more severe reactions that warrant the diagnosis of Post Traumatic Stress Disorder. The psychological impact of crime is apparently not qualitatively dissimilar for victims of different criminal offenses, but rather a matter of degree. In other words, although the psychological symptoms experienced by victims of sexual assault, robbery, burglary, and kidnapping vary in intensity, the nature of their distress is the same. Since the symptoms of psychological impact have been shown to be similar for victims regardless of the type of crime, one survey instrument should suffice for all crime victims. Second, because crime victims exhibit a multitude of symptoms following victimization, the measurement selected should measure global functioning and patterns of psychological distress, as opposed to only one dimension of distress such as anxiety.

In addition to selecting the measure of psychological impact on crime victims, we must consider other factors that can work to lessen the impact of crime.²³ The literature suggests there are a number of factors that mediate the degree of harm experienced by the crime victim such as age, gender, education, the violence of the crime, and coping mechanisms. That is, one person may experience greater psychological stress as a result of crime victimization than someone else, even if both experience the same type of crime. These factors could also influence whether a victim seeks the assistance of victim service programs.

Figure 4.1 depicts a theoretical model for program efficacy developed by the research team. As stated previously, one presumption of the model is that stable aspects of a victim's life mediate his or her behavioral and cognitive coping abilities which, in turn, influences whether a victim avail themselves to services provided by victim service programs. In addition to coping skills, the type and severity of crime may impact one's decision to use or not use victim services. Finally, the model predicts that one's behavioral and cognitive coping mechanisms, the crime event itself, and/or the use or non use of victim service programs affects one's psychological functioning post victimization.

²³ Markesteyn, T. (1992). The Psychological Impact of Nonsexual Criminal Offenses on Victims. Prepared on contract for the Corrections Branch, Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada.

Figure 4.1 Modeling Program Efficacy



Section 4.02a: Psychological Coping Mechanisms. The survey items used to measure psychological coping resources were devised by Pearlin and Schooler.²⁴ The authors identify coping as, "any response to external life strains that serves to prevent, avoid, or control emotional distress."²⁵ Coping resources are, "the personality characteristics that people draw upon to help them withstand threats posed by events and objects in their environment" (p. 5). The coping items have three sub-scales measuring self-denigration, mastery, and self-esteem, which can be combined to create a total coping resources score. Self-denigration is the extent to which one holds negative attitudes towards one's self. The higher the score on the self-denigration scale, the more positive the attitude the respondent has towards himself. Mastery is the extent to which one

²⁴ Pearlin, L. & Schooler, C. (1978). The Structure of Coping. *Journal of Health* and Social Behavior, 19, (1), 2-21.

feels that their life chances are under one's control, as opposed to being fatalistic. Self-esteem is the positiveness that one has towards one's self. Higher scores on both the master and self-esteem sub-scales indicate higher mastery and self-esteem. Taken together, the combined scores for the three sub-scales indicate a respondent's overall psychological coping resources. The higher the score the greater the respondent's coping resources.

Section 4.02b: Perceived Social Support. Social support is generally understood as support "accessible to an individual through social ties to other individuals, groups, and the larger community." It is understood that the ability to cope with stress is enhanced by the social support an individual has available. The current survey uses three items from the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support. The three items represent support available from family, friends, and significant others. The item is scored so that higher scores mean increased perceived social support.

Section 4.02c: Psychological Functioning. Respondent's current psychological functioning, our key dependent variable, is measured with the Outcome-Based Evaluation Tools (OBETS) scale developed by the Pennsylvania Coalition Against Rape. The instrument was designed to measure behavioral and physical areas of functioning that adequately capture the impact of a victimization on a person's life. The instrument contains 42 items that

²⁶ Lin, Simeone, Ensel, & Kuo (as cited in Cooke, B. D., Rossman, M. M., McCubbin, H. I., & Patterson, J. M. (1988). Examining the definition and assessment of Social Support: A resource for individuals and families. *Family Relations*, *37* (2), 211-216.)

²⁵ Ibid, p. 3.

²⁷ Zimet, G. D., Dahlem, N. W., Zimet, S. G., & Farley, G. F. (1988). The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *52* (1), 30-41.

measure activities in the following domains: maintaining personal relations, leisure activities, maintaining household responsibilities, sleeping habits, physical trauma manifestations, substance abuse, sexual functioning, aggressive behavior, maintaining scheduled activities, trauma manifestations, communicating the impact of trauma, dissociation, risky behaviors, personal hygiene, physical and behavioral trauma manifestations, self harm, eating habits, work and school performance, and parenting skills. The scale is scored in such a way that a higher score indicates improved psychological functioning.

Section 4.02d: Characteristics of the Crime Event. Survey items relating to the crime events themselves were adapted from the Pennsylvania Crime Victimization Survey. These questions were used to identify the location of the victimization, the severity of the crime event (i.e., whether a weapon was used, whether the victim suffered physical injuries, etc.), information about the offender or offenders, and whether or not the police had been notified. Information from these questions was also used to code the type of crime experienced.

Section 4.03: Summary

The limited sample of victim service programs was, frankly, a disappointment. Victim service programs are deeply concerned about the impact that such evaluations will have on their users, so many are reluctant to participate in such activities. Until those agencies that fund victim service programs demand outcome assessments, this situation should not be expected to change. There are simply few incentives to assess outcomes from the perspective of many programs. Concern about client confidentiality is a primary reason that agencies did not get involved in this study, but there were other

reasons as well. Many agencies lack the staff resources to compile the client information necessary to draw a sample. This is supported by the differences in staff between participating and non-participating agencies. Those agencies with more staff were more likely to participate. Other agencies lacked a sophisticated database that could produce the information necessary. It is likely that funding agencies themselves who are interested in outcome and accountability measures are the only organizations that can change the current state of affairs. If valid evaluation procedures are important, funding organizations must require outcome assessments and help these organizations assemble the necessary infrastructure to conduct valid and reliable outcome assessments.

The questionnaire was designed to measure the psychological impact of crime on crime victims. In doing this, the instrument also contains measures that are hypothesized to mediate the psychological harm victims experience. These additional measures include victim demographics, characteristics of the crime, and psychological coping mechanisms.

SECTION FIVE: USE OF VICTIM SERVICE PROGRAMS BY CRIME VICTIMS

One of the goals of this research project is to identify the reasons that crime victims use victim service programs so infrequently. According to the 1999 Pennsylvania Crime Victimization Survey, only about one percent of all crime victims visited a victim service program. Section Five provides data about why crime victims do not use victim service programs more often. The section begins by discussing data gathered from the random sample of crime victims in an effort to understand what they know about the state's victim service programs, suggesting reasons they do not make greater use of them. The section continues by identifying differences between program users and non-users by comparing key characteristics of these groups. Finally, the section discusses victim services users' satisfaction with the services they received. Taken together, this information should be helpful in developing strategies to encourage greater use of the state's victim service programs.

Section 5.01: Reasons for Not Using Victim Service Programs

Fewer than one in twenty-five (3%) crime victims in the random sample reported ever using any victim service programs. Why? To begin, very few victims are ever notified about victim service programs. Less than half (43%) of the victims were notified about victim services in the first place, although respondents who filed a complaint (30%) were more likely than those who did not (18%) to be told of victim service programs. Of course, less than half of all crime events captured in the survey were ever reported to the police so responsibility for this does not belong solely to law enforcement. The victim service programs survey indicates that many other organizations and people besides police make such referrals (see Section Three).

Second, few crime victims really understand the range of services that victim service programs can provide. About one in four (27%) victims say that victim service programs offer crisis intervention or counseling, but no other service is mentioned by more than four percent of victims. In fact, two in five (40%) crime victims say they do not know what kinds of services are offered by the state's victim service programs.

Third, reflecting a general lack of knowledge about what victim service programs do, citizens see very limited reasons to use those services. Respondents who did not use any victim services were asked why some people do choose to use them. Almost everyone suggested that victim services provide emotional support and counseling for those who are seriously traumatized. There seems to be almost no other reason, in the public's mind, to access these services. Mentions of using victim services for compensation, court accompaniment, legal advocacy or any of the other myriad services offered by these programs do not appear.

Finally, crime victims who do not use victim services believe they can rely on their families or themselves for the support they need. Table 5-1 lists the responses given by those who did not use any victim services as to why they did not use them. Nearly half of all non-users felt that family and friends could give them the help they needed, that they did not need any help, or that they can solve their own problems. Many also admitted that they did not know what services were available.

Table 5-1. Crime Victims' Reasons for Not Using Victim Service Programs				
Family and friends gave me the help I needed	49%			
I did not need any help.	48%			
No one told me what programs are available.	47%			
I can solve my own problems.	45%			
Did not have the time to get involved	27%			
Victim service programs cannot help someone like me.	20%			

Section 5.02: Comparing Victim Services Users and Non-Users

As noted in Section Four, this evaluation project includes two samples of crime victims. The first is a random survey of victims from throughout the state. The second random sample consists of crime victims who are known to have used the state's victim service programs. This section combines data from both samples to better understand the differences between these two groups.

We hypothesized that several factors relate to the use of victim service programs. The variables we considered, and the reasons for their consideration, appear below.

Section 5.02a: Type of crime. More violent criminal actions cause more intense trauma that may encourage people to seek help. Also, crimes that are thought to require counseling are probably more likely to attract individuals because victim service programs are most commonly known to provide such services. Finally, police are most likely to tell victims of violent crimes about the availability of such services.

Section 5.02b: Stable aspects of victim's life. Past studies indicate that the stable aspects of a victim's life, what are usually considered demographic variables, are predictors of ability to recover from trauma. By making recovery more likely, we believe that these variables reduce the likelihood of using victim services.

- Marital status. Married individuals may be more likely to have the support they need to deal with their victimization. As such, we expect married individuals would be less likely to use victim service programs.
- Occupation. Individuals who are employed full time may feel they are too busy to use victim service programs. People with better jobs have been shown to have greater ability to recover from crimes.
- Race. Past studies have found that race is related to one's ability to recover from trauma.
- **Gender**. Males may be less likely than females to use victim service programs because of social stigma. Men also appear to suffer less as a result of victimization than women.
- **Religiosity**. Religious participation could indicate greater social support, which could reduce the trauma of crime and thus the need for victim services.
- **Education**. Increased education increases one's ability to recover from crimes.
- Age. The elderly have been shown to suffer more than younger persons as a result of crime.

Section 5.02c: Use of government assistance. Individuals who are accustomed to accessing governmental services may be more likely to also use victim service programs because they are more comfortable asking for and receiving outside assistance to deal with their problems.

Section 5.02d: Coping skills. Individuals with well-developed coping skills are probably less likely to feel they need access to victim service programs.

These individuals are more likely to believe they can handle their problems by themselves.

Section 5.02e: Social support. Individuals who have a well-developed social support network are probably less likely to feel they need access to victim service programs. These individuals are more likely to believe they can handle their problems with the assistance of the friends and family members who comprise their social support network.

Section 5.03: Use of Victim Service Programs

One in three (34%) respondents from the combined sample have used services provided by a victim service program. Use of victim service programs is related to several variables in terms of standard bivariate analyses. Although the differences in use differ significantly between many of the independent variables, the values of tau reported in Table C show that these relationships are quite weak (see Attachment C).

A better approach for determining the relative importance of these variables is to consider them using a multivariate approach. A logistic regression model was used to estimate the factors that influence use of victim service programs. The dependent variable that measures use is equal to one if the respondent had used a victim service program and is equal to zero if the respondent did not use any victim services. There were 524 cases used in this analysis. The results of the logistic regression can be seen in Table D (see Attachment D). The coefficient for the type of crime variable (VIOLENT) shows that those who experienced a violent crime are significantly more likely to have used a victim service program. The coefficient for religious service attendance (RELSERV) shows that those who attend religious services regularly

are more likely to use victim service programs. The coefficients for educational attainment (EDUC) show that each educational group (with the exception of those without a high school diploma) is more likely than those with a postgraduate degree to have used a victim service program. Finally, the coefficients for age (AGERANGE) reveal that every age group is less likely than those above 65 years of age to have used a victim service program. None of the other variables in the equation are significant. The overall model is significant at the .01 level according to the model chi-square statistic. The model correctly predicts 77 percent of cases. The Nagelkerke R-squared is .34.

The multivariate analysis indicates that the greatest increase in the use of victim service programs comes from those who suffered a violent crime. These individuals are about nine times more likely, all other things being equal, to have used a victim service program. Interestingly, those who regularly attend religious services are about twice as likely to use victim service programs as those who do not attend regularly. Finally, education and age also predict program use. The oldest crime victims are most likely to use victim service programs. The most educated are least likely to take advantage of victim service programs. Surprisingly, coping skills or available social support does not appear to make a difference in program usage. One operative hypothesis is that those who experience a violent crime, are members of a church group, or are seniors are more likely to be told about victim service programs, either by police (in the case of victims of violent crimes) or by virtue of some group membership (for church members and the elderly), and are thus more likely to use these services.

Section 5.04: Satisfaction With Victim Services

Most (61%) victim service programs users say they are "very satisfied" with the services they received. Most (63%) of those who were satisfied with the services they received felt that the programs they used were helpful in some way. Dissatisfied respondents said not getting the help they needed (37%) and delays (16%) made them dissatisfied with the services they received.

Section 5.05: Summary

This section provides solid information about why so few crime victims make use of victim service programs. Crime victims do not use victim service programs more frequently because they simply are unaware of what these programs have to offer. If citizens know anything, they view these agencies primarily as places to go for counseling. Few victims understand the range of services available to them.

The multivariate analysis also hints at the importance of being told about these programs. Violent crime victims, regular church attendees, and seniors are all more likely to use victim service programs because, we suspect, they were more likely to have been told about their existence.

More people would make use of these programs if they know more about them. Creating broad public awareness of these programs and emphasizing the variety of services offered will most certainly increase use. The implications of these findings are discussed in the Summary and Conclusion section of this report.

SECTION SIX: EFFICACY OF VICTIM SERVICE PROGRAMS

This section addresses the final goal of this research project, measuring the efficacy of the state's victim service programs. It begins by discussing differences in functioning among different population groups and among victim service program users. The section then goes on to consider functioning using a multivariate approach. The need for a multivariate approach is discussed because of differences in functioning and use of victim service programs among specific population groups.

Section 6.01: Psychological Functioning Among Population Groups

The primary dependent variable for this analysis is psychological functioning as measured by the Outcomes Based Evaluation Tools developed by the Pennsylvania Coalition Against Rape. Attachment E presents a comparison of the psychological functioning score with twelve variables that were expected to have some relationship to overall functioning. The rationale for including each variable as a predictor was discussed in Section Five. The tests used to measure significance were either t-tests or correlation coefficients. Each of the variables tested yields significant differences between the subgroups in question, with the exception of having used victim services. Victims of violent crime, for example, have lower functioning scores than those individuals who did not experience a violent crime.

As Table E reveals, having used a victim service program does not result in higher functioning scores (see Attachment E). Simply put, there are no difference in functioning between those crime victims who used a victim service program and those who did not. Yet, there is some reason to think that the actual benefits of victim service programs may be hidden when simple bivariate

analyses are conducted because of the differences in the types of individuals who actually use victim service programs. As Section Five showed, victims of violent crime are more likely to use victim services. We have also shown that victims of violent crime have lower functioning scores. This differential selection into victim service programs has the likely effect of making bivariate comparisons specious. To control for these potential differences and better understand the efficacy of using victim service programs, it was necessary to conduct a multivariate analysis.

Table F displays the results of our multiple regression analysis on functioning scores (see Attachment F). This analysis finds only two of the twelve variables tested have a significant effect on psychological functioning scores. The analysis shows that increasing coping resources and age are the best predictors of psychological functioning among crime victims. Other variables hypothesized to affect functioning scores turn out to have a non-significant impact. Most importantly, this analysis finds that the use of victim service programs by crime victims has no significant affect on their psychological functioning scores, all other things being equal.

An additional analysis was conducted with only those crime victims who suffered a violent crime (n=124). Two-thirds (63%) of violent crime victims had used a victim service program. This analysis did not find that the psychological functioning of violent crime victims was improved by having used a victim service program. The implications of these findings are discussed below.

Section 6.02: Summary

This Section attempted to identify whether or not the use of victim service programs has any significant relationship to the psychological functioning of crime victims. Neither bivariate analyses or multivariate analyses could offer any support for the notion that crime victims who use victim service programs, even victims of violent crime, are better off psychologically than those who do not. That is not to say, of course, that these programs do not have other significant benefits for crime victims.

SECTION VII: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The present study was conducted to provide PCCD with information about the efficacy of the state's victim services programs. It accomplished this task, first, through a survey of all victim services programs currently on file with the PCCD, and second, by way of a quasi-experimental design in which users and non-users of victim service programs were compared on a number of critical characteristics. This section of the report summarizes the major findings from both phases of the study and discusses their implications. It also discusses the limitations of this study.

Section 7.01: The Nexus Between the Pre-Study Survey of Victim Services Programs and the Survey of Crime Victims

The pre-study survey of victim service providers revealed more common than unique characteristics across the programs. Further, the programs self-describe similar agency missions: (1) to provide direct services to crime victims; (2) to educate the public about the services they provide; and, (3) to serve as an advocate for victims. Significant differences were discovered across the four types of programs (victim witness program, community-based victim services agency, domestic violence-related agency, and rape crisis center) when it comes to types of clients served and staffing issues. Whereas victim witness programs handle significantly more types of crime victims (that is to say, victims of many different types of crimes) than do the remaining three program types, they are more likely to report fewer full time, part time, or volunteer employees. The understaffing of victim witness programs could be one reason that few victims make use of the services available to them. Understaffed programs cannot do much to increase their visibility among crime victims about

the services they offer. Nor can understaffed offices maintain a desirable level of contact with crime victims who seek out their services. Clearly, victim services programs that are understaffed will not be able to provide timely and critical assistance to those who are most in need of assistance. One such example is described below.

Not much has changed from the early 1980s when it comes to findings from victim surveys. In 1999, for example, Davis et al. reported that victim services programs appeared to be failing to meet the immediate and practical needs of victims, e.g. short-term security and financial assistance. Their findings were based, in short, on a meta-analysis of studies that were conducted primarily in the 1980s. In one study included in the analysis, it was shown that most victim service programs do not provide victims with the top two areas identified by victims as being the most pressing (see Freidman et al., 1982). First, victims reported needing immediate help with repairing or upgrading locks and doors. Second, they reported needing financial assistance. It was also found that victims were least likely to request assistance from family and/or friends in both of these areas.

In the present study, 40% of crime victims said that they did not know what kinds of services are offered by victim services programs, with no mention at all of the type of immediate services noted above. Further, crime victims who did not use victim services programming reported that they relied on families or took care of matters themselves, as previous studies have found. If earlier studies are correct about crime victims' reluctance to go to families or others for immediate help with security and financial needs, it could be that Pennsylvania

crime victims are not getting the type of assistance they most need following their victimization.

Section 7.02: The Psychological Impact of Victim Services

As previously pointed out, one of the major goals of victim services is to improve the ability of the victim to deal with the stressors associated with the victimization experience. According to Davis (1987), the 1970s saw the beginning of closer attention being given to the "psychosocial adjustment problems" that many victims face. In his 1987 report on a study that randomly assigned victims to four different groups (crisis intervention, crisis intervention with cognitive restructuring, material assistance only, and no services), no significant differences were found related to the impact of crisis intervention on victims' psychological well being. He concluded that the typical and short-term intervention often associated with crisis intervention was not enough to have much of an impact. Too, whatever effects might be found to be associated with crisis intervention treatment could be "swamped by the healing effects of time" (Davis, 1987, p. 16).

Recall that in the present study, no statistically significant differences were found between users and non-users of victim services when it comes to the psychological functioning scores of victims, a finding that supports Davis' claim of fifteen years prior. Rather, it was the degree to which victims reported possessing adequate and sufficient coping skills in their day-to-day living that significantly predicted higher scores on victims' well being. The victim services program survey determined that crisis intervention counseling was the most common type of counseling provided by victim witness programs (79%), while almost all community-based programs, domestic abuse shelters, and rape crisis

centers reported offering this type of counseling. It may be time to re-consider the overall goals of crisis intervention. First, it is evident that two of the most pressing needs of victims are not being met early on in the aftermath of the victimization (security needs and financial assistance). Second, this short-term approach to counseling (most often consisting of one to two sessions) cannot have much of an impact on the psychological functioning of victims.

Although through crisis (e.g. immediate) intervention for victims of domestic violence or sexual assault, for example, victims can be brought to safety, this might just be the extent to which this type of assistance can aid them. Domestic violence shelters and rape crisis centers both provide a safe haven for victims of these types of crimes, but more often than not, they simply are not equipped to handle the long-term counseling needs of the people they serve. Along with a shortage of staff, the staff that are employed by these agencies or organizations often do not have the proper training and practical experience necessary to meet the counseling needs of victims. Jerin and Moriarty (1998) pointed out this fact and called upon colleges and universities to begin offering programs designed to meet the unique needs of the field of victimology. They also called upon victim services programs to simultaneously begin to set educational and training requirements for their personnel.

Further, the main goal of victim-witness programs is to gain the victim's cooperation in the court proceedings against the defendant. Although there are some victim-oriented programs in existence they appear to be the exception rather than the rule. According to a study conducted by Jerin, Moriarty, and Gibson (1995), staff members of victim-witness programs reported being more witness-oriented, e.g. emphasizing the importance of

securing victims cooperation as witness for the prosecution. Many victims who avail themselves of services through these types of programs might come to view those services as being more "self-serving" in nature, a phrase coined by Jerin et al. (1995).

The Relationship Between Individual Coping Skills and Psychological Well Being

Yet another mediating factor related to the psychological well being of victims is the possession of a variety of personal coping skills. As indicated in the present study, although receiving assistance from victim services program had no effect on victims' score on the OBETS scales used to measure individuals' psychological function, respondents' ability to cope with problems in everyday life did. Statistical analysis revealed that as respondents' scores on the coping resources scale increased, so too did scores on respondents' psychological functioning scale. Pearlin and Schooler's (1978) notion that some people are more equipped to handle stress and strife brought on by an unsettling event than are others certainly finds support here. The present study is limited, of course, in that it measures perceptions only, but it is victims' sense of their world that is of utmost importance to agencies and/or organizations that try to provide them with appropriate services.

Section 7.03: Increasing the Odds of Victims' Use of Services

Perhaps the major finding of the present study is twofold in nature. First, only 3% of victims in the statewide random telephone survey said that they had used victim services programs. Second, when compared with a sample of victims who did use services, those who did not differed only by age, education level, and type of crime experienced. That is to say, the less educated,

older victim of a violent crime was more likely to make use of victim services programming than was his/her more educated, and younger victim of a property crime.

As for the fact that so few victims in the random telephone survey reported using victim services, the data suggest that this can be attributed to a variety of factors, as reported earlier: (1) a majority of victims report not having been notified about services; (2) 40% of respondents report not knowing what type of services are offered; (3) victims did not see any compelling reason to avail themselves of services; and, (4) respondents relied, instead, on families or themselves for the type of assistance they needed. These findings suggest that if providers want to increase the odds of victims seeking out their services, they need to put greater effort into educating the public about those services. Further, they are also going to have to better address the specific needs of victims, offering services that are broader in scope, thus making any effort on the victims' part worth their time, energy, and the exhaustion of any personal resources they might have available to them.

Much of the same can be said about the major statistically significant differences between those who did use services and those who did not. It is interesting to note that older victims sought the aid of services for a violent crime when, in fact, it is younger individuals who are much more likely to be the victim of a violent crime. This narrows considerably the scope of services rendered to victims. Not only are younger people more likely to be the victim of a violent crime, but more generally speaking, individuals of any age are more likely to experience a property crime than a violent crime. It might be worth noting that providers of services to victims ought to consider putting greater

effort into targeting younger victims. Further, the data suggest that also targeting victims of property crimes might increase the odds of victims availing themselves of services, but again, only if programs can offer victims the type of assistance they need in order to make it worth their while to seek them.

In sum, even increasing the odds that victims will avail themselves of services does not guarantee, as the present study suggests, that they will be better off than those who did not. As has been suggested here and in past studies (Freidman, et al. 1982; Davis et al., 1999), the immediate needs of victims are not being met by victim services programs, rather, they are being met by family and/or friends, or by victims themselves. Days, sometimes weeks, go by before any type of assistance is given to crime victims. When assistance does take place, more likely than not it is through some type of counseling, much of which is short term in nature. It has been shown, however, that the intent of this type of programming, e.g. to assist victims in overcoming the psychological trauma of the criminal event, misses its mark because it is not, given the resources of most programs, sustainable.

Davis et al. (1999) suggest that the current emphasis of victim services programs might be misplaced. In the end, programming could be more successful at meeting victims needs if it were more timely and if it were tailored to each victim, especially when it comes to immediate safety and financial needs. Too, because the research shows that people once victimized by crime are at an increased risk for future victimization (Anderson et al., 1995; Davis et al., 1997), it could be important for victim services programs to think about introducing a module of crime prevention, a component that has been, at least for the most part, overlooked.

Section 7.04: Limitations of the Present Study

There is no doubt that a great deal of resources goes into victim services programming across the Commonwealth. Measuring the impact of these programs is a necessary step if policy makers are going to have any real sense of how they are, or are not, improving the lives of people who have been traumatized by crime.

Reliable and valid data on the extent and nature of victim services programming are necessary if program evaluations are ever going to have any real meaning. Steps were taken in the present study to do just that, to collect and assess reliable and valid data. As is the nature of any public opinion research, measuring attitudes, opinions, and or perceptions is not without its problems. The first major obstacle is identifying a sample of respondents that is bias free and thus closely represents the population from which it was drawn. The research team worked diligently to first convince service providers of the importance of the present study and to obtain their consent to cooperate with the identification of victims who were willing to participate in the study. In the end, some service providers who originally agreed to participate, did not, at least not to the extent it was indicated that they would. This resulted in a lower number of participants in the treatment group (i.e., those victims who actually used the services provided by the targeted victim services providers) than was expected. Although the 200-member sample of services users was sufficient to allow for a statistical examination of the major research questions for the study, those tests would have been more powerful, and thus more reliable, had there been a higher number of respondents.

A second limitation of public opinion research is operationalization of key concepts. The introduction of bias can be greatly reduced through careful instrumentation. Previously tested questions that are part of recognized and reliable scales were included in this study's questionnaire, and no single question was used to capture any of the several domains of the instrument. For example, we did not rely on a *single* question to measure respondent's psychological functioning. Rather, a series of questions were used in that regard, and scale reliability analysis conducted here was in congruence with past studies. This means that greater confidence can be placed in our efforts to produce a valid measure of psychological functioning. There are other examples as well, such as the questions used to measure individual's coping skills.

These limitations aside, the major goal of the research team to produce a methodologically-sound evaluation of Pennsylvania's victim services programs was realized. The findings from the present study support those of the past conducted in other regions of the country, lending more credence to the reliability of those reported here. The evidence of both suggest that there is a need to re-examine the goals and major objectives of victim services programming.

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ATTACHMENT A: PENNSYLVANIA VICTIM SERVICE PROGRAMS SURVEY INSTRUMENT

ATTACHMENT B: EVALUATION OF PENNSYLVANIA'S VICTIM SERVICE PROGRAMS SURVEY INSTRUMENT

ATTACHMENT C: TABLE C. BIVARIATE COMPARISONS RELATED TO USE OF VICTIM SERVICE PROGRAMS

Table C. Bivariate Comparisons Related to Use of Victim Service Programs					
Variable	VARIABLE NAME	IABLE NAME Coding Scheme			
Type of crime	VIOLENT	0=Other crime 1=Aggravated assault, rape	55.926 (1) *** tau=.09		
What is your current marital status?	MARRIED	0=Not married 1=Married	5.152 (1) * tau=.01		
Do you currently receive any type of governmental assistance such as food stamps, employment, compensation, or health care assistance?	GOVASST	0=No, Don't know 1=Yes	1.417 (1) tau<.01		
Are you currently working full-time, part-time, going to school, keeping house, or something else?	FT	0=Not working full-time 1=Working full-time	20.442 (1) *** tau=.03		
Which of the following categories best describes your racial background?	WHITE	0=Non-white 1=White	28.293 (1) *** tau=.04		
Do you attend religious services on a regular basis?	RELSERV	0=No 1=Yes	.201(1) tau<.01		
Gender	MALE	0=Female 1=Male	13.031(1) *** tau=.02		
Coping Score	COPING		F=.464 eta=.001		
Social support scale	SOCSUP		F=.531 eta=.001		
What was the last grade level of schooling you have completed?	EDUC	1=Non HS grad 2=HS grad 3=Some college 4=Two-yr college 5=Four-yr college 6=Postgraduate	6.677 (5) tau=.01		
What was your age on you last birthday?	AGERANGE	1=18-24 2=25-34 3=35-44 4=45-54 5=55-64 6=65 and over	67.878(5) *** tau=.11		

^{***} p<.001 ** p<.01 * p<.05

ATTACHMENT D: TABLE D. LOGISTIC REGRESSION RESULTS FOR USE OF VICTIM SERVICE PROGRAMS

Table D. Logistic Regression Results for Use of Victim Service Programs							
	ß	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(ß)	
VIOLENT	2.200	.294	56.171	1	.000	9.028	
MARRIED	.086	.244	.123	1	.726	1.089	
GOVASST	.366	.328	1.246	1	.264	1.442	
FT	.182	.274	.443	1	.506	1.200	
WHITE	149	.295	.254	1	.614	.862	
RELSERV	.626	.239	6.856	1	.009	1.870	
MALE	331	.252	1.728	1	.189	.718	
COPING	.018	.020	.859	1	.354	1.018	
SOCSUP	129	.077	2.836		.092	.879	
EDUC			8.528	5	.129		
Non HS grad	.836	.613	1.861	1	.173	2.307	
HS grad	1.290	.476	7.352	1	.007	3.632	
Some college	1.319	.518	6.496	1	.011	3.741	
Two-yr college	1.117	.553	4.083	1	.043	3.056	
Four-yr college	1.062	.500	4.514	1	.034	2.893	
AGERANGE			54.689	5	.000		
18-24	-3.785	.549	47.500	1	.000	.023	
25-34	-2.427	.497	23.837	1	.000	.088	
35-44	-2.752	.457	36.277	1	.000	.064	
45-54	-2.129	.456	21.758	1	.000	.119	
55-64	-2.076	.481	18.604	1	.000	.125	
Constant	025	1.106	.001	1	.982	.976	

ATTACHMENT E: TABLE E. BIVARIATE COMPARISONS RELATED TO PSYCHOLOGICAL FUNCTIONING SCORES

Table E. Bivariate Comparisons Related to Psychological Functioning Scores						
Dependent Variable = OBETS	VARIABLE NAME	Coding Scheme	Use Chi- square (df) or F-test value			
Type of crime	VIOLENT	0=Other crime 1=Aggravated assault, rape	F=8.569**			
What is your current marital status?	MARRIED	0=Not married 1=Married	F=43.51***			
Do you currently receive any type of governmental assistance such as food stamps, employment, compensation, or health care assistance?	GOVASST	0=No, Don't know 1=Yes	F=31.551***			
Are you currently working full-time, part- time, going to school, keeping house, or something else?	FT	O=Not working full-time 1=Working full-time	F=4.794*			
Which of the following categories best describes your racial background?	WHITE	0=Non-white 1=White	F=6.800**			
Do you attend religious services on a regular basis?	RELSERV	O=No 1=Yes	F=24.506***			
Gender	MALE	0=Female 1=Male	F=5.951*			
Coping Score	COPING		$r=.49^{***}$			
Social support scale	SOCSUP		r=.33***			
Used victim service program	USEDVS		F=.112			
What was the last grade level of schooling you have completed?	EDUC		F=3.767**			
What was your age on you last birthday?	AGERANGE		r=.17***			

^{***} p<.001 ** p<.01 * p<.05

ATTACHMENT F: TABLE F. MULTIPLE REGRESSION RESULTS FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL FUNCTIONING SCORE

Table F. Multiple Regression Results for Psychological Functioning Score						
	В	Std.Error	Beta	t	Sig.	
VIOLENT	-2.690	2.019	061	-1.332	.183	
AGERANGE	.119	.052	.104	2.285	.023	
EDUC	.169	.465	.016	.363	.717	
MALE	1.856	1.441	.056	1.288	.198	
MARRIED	2.724	1.456	.083	1.871	.062	
GOVASST	-1.589	1.961	037	810	.418	
FT	764	1.469	023	520	.603	
WHITE	1.993	1.851	.047	1.077	.282	
RELSERV	2.519	1.443	.077	1.746	.082	
COPING	.861	.124	.366	6.962	.000	
SOCSUP	.590	.467	.066	1.262	.208	
USEDVS	.478	1.714	.013	.279	.780	
Constant	93.954	5.985		15.697	.000	