HOMELESS ENCAMPMENTS ON RAILROAD PROPERTY AND THEIR EFFECT ON CRIME RATES: A MULTIPLE METHODS ANALYSIS

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by

Michael Everett Jones

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Michael Everett Jones

Dr. Jie Xu

ABSTRACT

HOMELESS ENCAMPMENTS ON RAILROAD PROPERTY AND THEIR EFFECT ON CRIME RATES: A MULTIPLE METHODS ANALYSIS

Michael Everett Jones

The U.S. homeless population's size, vulnerability, and crime victim and offender risk merit further investigation. Valuable studies relating to homelessness and crime have been completed. However, there are missing notes in which a sample populace of homeless encampment sites, and subject matter expert opinions are combined into one study. A relationship tradition exists in the criminology research arena between appearance and esthetics levels in areas as visual cues and criminality. Through the decades, variations in crime rates across different settings have resulted in research about setting appearance and changes in frequency of crimes committed there. The purpose of this study is to fill the void by connecting the presence of homeless encampments to frequency changes in area crime rates in that location. In order to display this relationship, multiple modes of research and data analysis have been completed. A Study of twelve homeless encampments on railroad property are utilized in this multiple methods analysis**,** to display foundational criminal justice theories. These theories include theories of choice, behavior, patterns, environmental criminology, collective efficacy, and the spatial effect on crime rate**s** from a homeless encampment epicenter. Surveys were also completed with subject matter experts from the involved theoretical and practical

fields. Through a combination of data analysis and findings, this dissertation provides correlations between the effects of homeless encampments, vulnerable populace management, as well as the validation of Broken Windows and Social Decay/Disorder Theories involving homeless encampments on railroad properties and right of ways.

DEDICATION

To my wife and kids who sacrificed so much to allow me to pursue many educational endeavors. I appreciate all the support, help, prayers, and proofreading.

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I am honored to be a member of Cohort 3. Cohort 3 was accepted into the St. John's University doctoral program in Homeland Security Studies in the Fall of 2020. Our cohort is filled with formidable individuals who are practitioners in the diverse field of homeland security. We set a high bar as a true team in cohort support, communication, and collaboration. It is my honor to be associated with all of you, #Staying11. I hope our friendships and celebrating successes endures.

A special thank you to the police agencies that participated in this study.

Blessed are the peacekeepers, for they shall be called the children of God. (Matthew 5:9)

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

A 2022 U.S. Census Bureau reviewed study found that, by using 2010 Census, American Community Survey, and Homeless Management Information System to HUD's public-use point-in-time estimates, and the Housing Inventory Count at the national, city and county, and person level on any given night, there are about 500,000 - 600,000 people experiencing homelessness in the U.S. The same study noted that about one-third of this population are sleeping on the streets and the rest in shelters (Meyer et al., 2022, p. 40). This national homeless populace span is affirmed through annual reports from both the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (2022) and the National Alliance to End Homelessness (2021). People experiencing homelessness are those who do not have a permanent home, and instead are either sleeping outdoors, in improvised dwellings, sleeping in specialized homelessness shelters and boarding houses, living in supported accommodation, living in severely crowded conditions, or staying with different friends, relatives or acquaintances (Every & Thompson, 2014, p. 53). Based on their homeless circumstances the homeless often fall into criminal behaviors and are often also victimized. These behaviors often cause homeless encampments to be a bastion of criminal activity. Based on the trend of the homeless population, encampment subculture, and emergence of crime it is important to gain knowledge in this area.

While there's no official definition of "homeless encampment," most cities define it as a place where multiple people stay for a continuous time with built structures and personal belongings. Encampments vary in size, from a small group of people several hundred, and their residents have a diverse range of ages, races, and genders. Most,

however, are men with multiple barriers to housing. Encampments have negative implications for the health and safety of the people living in them and for neighboring businesses and residences (United States Interagency Council on Homelessness, 2021). The U.S. homeless population's size, vulnerability, and crime victim and offender risk merit further investigation including the relationship between the presence of homeless encampments and the possible effect on crime. There is also the concern that local level governments and their community based organizations do not have the resources in order to turn the tide of their local homeless issue which leaves their homeless population susceptible to crime in order to survive as well as being vulnerable to victimization.

The majority of located research on homeless related crime and victimization has been focused on the individual level and through the use of homeless shelter based surveys (Ellsworth (2019, pp. 103). Previous literature has identified that homeless individuals are both at high risk of victimization as well as offending. Using data from the National Crime Victimization Survey, Lee and Schreck found that homeless people are victimized excessively especially when compared to people who live in a residential setting (Lee & Schreck, 2005, p. 1074). This study aims to operationalize National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS) data in order to determine whether crime rates increase during the existence of a homeless encampment. This area of study appears absent regarding efforts to study the relationship between homeless encampments, affiliated theories of social decay, and crime.

Another example from Lee and Schreck (2005, p. 1065) found that different "risky lifestyle behaviors" (i.e. spending the night outdoors, in an abandoned building, or

in some other place not designed for sleeping; begging or panhandling; obtain money through illegal means; or engaging in survival eating (procuring food from trash cans), increases the risk of violent and property victimization factors in a cross-sectional survey. Diette and Ribar (2018, p. 1618) examine victimization in a longitudinal panel design and find that housing insecurity, meaning permanent or intermittent homelessness, increases future risk of violence, regardless of prior levels of risk. In a longitudinal study of 300 homeless 16 to 19 year old runaways, the findings appear similar for the homeless committing crime (Crawford et al., 2009, p. 963). Crawford, Whitbeck, & Hoyt (2009, p. 963) found that self-reported violent offenses committed among a sample of homeless juveniles were more likely among homeless youth that participated in "risky lifestyle behaviors" like selling drugs or being in a gang. While these studies document lifestyle behaviors, there is no data collection regarding the effects of encampment environments, nor collection from the social services and police professionals serving in the areas. Garnering data from these sources could help understand the cycle of a homeless encampment in relation to crime.

Studies concentrated on the area of the homeless populace and the risk of offending are hard to locate (Listwan et al., 2018, p. 96). Two prior analyses have conducted spatial analysis related to homeless crime. Berk & MacDonald (2010, p. 813-814) analyzed the Safer Cities Initiative, a widely publicized place-based policing intervention implemented in Los Angeles "Skid Row" that focused on crime and disorder associated with homeless encampments. Faraji, Ridgeway, and Wu (2018, p. 136) examined the impact that openings of seasonal emergency homeless shelters have on

nearby crime counts. Their results noted that when shelters are opened there is an increase in the number of crimes nearby, and that when shelters close nearby crime decreases. These studies all contain value to this field. This study continues in the same vein by displaying the possibility of crime rate changes during the existence of a homeless encampment.

Again, missing notes in studying the homeless and crime which include investigating sample homeless sites in which the populace is living unsheltered. This study focuses on the homeless in encampment settings that are congregated on railroad right of ways and properties. Interviews completed with subject matter experts will support prior study findings that homeless encampments are full of blight, tied to criminal behavior, various levels of crime, and victimology as well. These interviews hope to further illustrate results of a 2021 interview with United States Class I Railway Police Deputy Chief Israel Salazar. Salazar (2021) noted homeless encampments are full of blight, illicit drug use, crime perpetration, victimization, and often people wanted for the heinous crimes. Subject matter expert interviews will also support social and criminal theories based on the blight and plight of the homeless and their risk filled encampment lifestyle.

In a seminal article published in The Atlantic Monthly, George L. Kelling and James Q. Wilson (1982) first described Broken Windows Theory as a developing sequence of events in which unattended minor issues mount and produce harmful consequences for neighborhoods and settings. These unattended minor issues encompass physical conditions (e.g., abandoned structures/lots, graffiti, trash/rubbish/blight, and

overgrown vegetation) and social nuisances (e.g., panhandling, loitering, and public drinking) that signify neighborhood and setting decline, causing fear in residents. The spread of crime is a major concern regarding the spread of unattended issues that are minor in nature. The minor issues, as described above, are collectively known as disorder or social decay. Disorder has been linked to elevated levels of fear (Taylor & Shumaker, 1990, p. 619; Markowitz et al., 2001, p. 293), low levels of informal social control, and collective efficacy (Foster-Fishman et al., 2007, p. 92; Wickes & Hipp, 2018, p. 3-5).

Disorder, a component of social decay, has interested researchers and scholars since the early 1930s. Through sustained interest in this topic, our understanding of disorder and its varying perceptions has evolved. Published works build upon various perceptions of disorder's settings and other related topics. Researchers began examining how characteristics within a geographic area or neighborhood may contribute to increases in crime, violence, and other factors, while also undermining expectations of having physical and social control (Marco et al., 2015, p. 81-82; Sampson et al., 1997, p. 922-923). The connections between Broken Windows Theory and the facets of disorder are clear. However, there are some blurred lines and contesting theories when connecting Broken Windows Theory, disorder, and what the initial causes of changes in crime rates truly are.

Intertwined in this confusion is the theoretical basis of collective efficacy. Collective Efficacy is the social cohesion among neighbors, combined with their inclination to intercede on behalf of the common good. The effects of collective efficacy are linked to reduced violence. The correlation between concentrated disadvantage and

neighborhood instability with violence is mediated through collective efficacy (Sampson et al., 1997, p. 918). Collective efficacy will be identified within each facet of this study as a counterpoint to Broken Windows Theory and disorder/decay as appropriate.

This dissertation will capture the missing connection points between Broken Windows Theory, environmental criminology, disorder, collective efficacy and spatial changes in crime rates from specific sites that contain disorder, blight, and social decay. These specific sites are homeless encampments that form on railroad properties and right of ways. The focus of this study is to garner results that either prove or disprove elevated crime rates at homeless encampments on railroad property and document the effect that the presence of homeless encampments has on crime rates. Secondary data collection includes interviews with recognized experts in the field. Through a wider scope, the results may prompt further attention to the growing homeless encampment issues on a nationwide basis. To garner such attention, it is important to substantiate the sample of homeless encampments for this study and how that sample will be applied within data analysis.

Research Questions and Research Hypotheses

There is a need for research involving the homeless population including their heightened probability of victimization and well as their propensity to engage in crime. A relationship exists in the criminology research arena between appearance and esthetics levels in areas as visual cues and criminality. Through the decades, variations in crime rates across differing settings have resulted in research about setting appearance and changes in frequency of crime that occurs there. Homeless encampments contain a

prominent level of disorder. The purpose of this study is to provide a connection between the presence of homeless encampments to frequency changes in area crime rates. How this applies in the context of a homeland security will be explored as follows:

R_1: To what extent does the presence of a homeless encampment on railroad property impact crime rates there and within a 500 meter perimeter?

H_1 : Crime rates in the 500-meter areas surrounding homeless encampments are expected to be consistent with area numbers in the 6 month period prior to the establishment of homeless encampments making up the 12 site Study.

H_2 : Crime rates in the 500-meter areas surrounding homeless encampments are expected to increase following the establishment of homeless encampments in the 12 homeless encampment sites.

H_3: Crime rates in the 500-meter areas surrounding homeless encampments are expected to be consistent with area numbers in the 6 month period following the removal of the homeless encampments making up the 12 site Study.

R_2 : What is the input of subject matter experts from the completion of a study focused survey?

H_1 : Participant subject matter experts will agree that the presence of homeless encampments cause crime rates to rise within a 500 meter perimeter of the encampment.

H_2 : Participant subject matter experts will agree with there is a relationship between homeless encampments and the occurrences of crime due to disorder conditions.

In order to provide findings to the research questions and hypotheses above, it is important to relate this study to criminal and social theories.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Foundations

As part of Environmental Criminology, the Broken Windows Theory, and eventually model of policing, was first described in 1982 in a seminal article by James Q. Wilson and George L. Kelling. Briefly, the model focused on the importance of disorder (e.g., broken windows, rubbish, and blight) in generating and sustaining more serious crime (CEBCP, 2021, p. 1). Academia has often challenged the validity of Broken Windows and discredited it due to its debut in the Atlantic magazine, its lacking articulation of theoretical constructs, and the absence of conceptual clarity for specifics within the theory. However, law enforcement agencies, and to some extent political entities, viewed the practicality within the theory, and embraced it by establishing crime reduction programs. This "disorder-control policing" is still prevalent in many areas today and is utilized by law enforcement agencies as a control mechanism in neighborhood areas deemed at risk (Ren et al., 2019, p. 21).

Although disorder is not directly linked to serious crime, it instead leads to increased fear and withdrawal from residents, which then allows more serious crime to move in due to decreased levels of informal social control (CEBCP, 2021, p. 1). To add more depth**,** the theory focuses on communities (or neighborhoods), and the relationships between disorder and incivility that influences serious crime rates. Wilson and Kelling posit that the prevalence of disorder:

1) increases serious crimes,

2) encourages fear among residents and citizens, and

3) weakens informal relationships among residents and citizens within those communities.

In order to reduce crime, the police can play a key role in disrupting this process through a variety of means. When they focus on disorder and pettier crimes in neighborhoods not yet overtaken by more serious crime, they are able to reduce fear and resident withdrawal. Promoting higher levels of informal social control will then allow the residents themselves to take control of their neighborhood, and prevent more serious crime from infiltrating (CEBCP, 2021, p. 1).

In order to fight disorder, California is spending more than ever before on homelessness — $12 billion total spend projected between 2021 and 2023 alone — which also means there's more pressure to make an impact. The bulk of that money will go toward creating more living spaces and providing mental health resources for people who are now on the streets. This article contains current information about the explosion of California spending on the homeless and lends to the credibility of the issue at hand. The article provides interesting information regarding how the funding is divided up amongst projects for everything from housing to mental health care, and job placement (Tobias, 2021, p. 1).

The railroads also suffer from the plight of the homeless and have launched a program to prevent occupation of their property and the associated unwanted safety risks. Deputy Chief Israel Salazar (2021, Interview) of United States Class I Railway Police is a 24-year law enforcement veteran who accepted the cause of fighting the plight and blight of the homeless trespassers issue across the United States Class I Railway network.

Salazar has found that state legislatures and local governments take little to no action in dealing with their homeless population. Many businesses and governments often provide bribes to homeless groups, in order to incentivize them to stay away from their own properties. The camps often house both the mentally ill and individuals with a propensity for violent behaviors. Crimes often launched from camps can range from vandalism, theft, burglary, assaults, and even terroristic threats toward railroad employees. Criminal tools/weapons, evidence of drug use, and other criminal activity are almost always located in these types of homeless camps.

Salazar states that the camps are also highly dangerous due to the presence of biohazards such as illness, human waste, and the resurfacing of medieval diseases like trench disease and black plague. Camps are also typically set up with "booby traps" to keep out outsiders. Salazar (2021, Interview) provided the following reasons as to why the railroad takes on the cleanup of these sites:

1. Safety of railroad employees
2. Safety of community neighbors
3. Safety of the homeless themselves – keeping them away from the danger of passing trains.

The United States Class I Railway homeless management project promotes community safety by concentrating on the removal of homeless encampment material and blight, while also connecting the homeless with local outreach resources. The program always aims to facilitate outreach to those who want it and will accept it. Overall, the program is meant to help cities better the lives of all their residents. Unfortunately, the abundance of

resources made available are often refused by the homeless**,** due to the constraining rules associated with them. Ultimately, the United States Class I Railway's homeless management project attempts to make the railroads safer while also combating multiple factors of disorder that occur on railroad property and right of ways. Through cleaning up the disorder caused by the homeless encampments**,** a United States Class I Railway's homeless management project is also applying Broken Windows Theory, following the theory's influence on police operational strategies worldwide (Ren et al., 2019, p. 21). Now that there have been some connections between that study at hand and theory, it is important to further examine larger bodies of work and theory surrounding Broken Windows Theory and disorder. These include Opportunity Theories, the bodies of Environmental Criminology, as well as the relationship between the homeless, these theories, and their daily plight.

Rational Choice Theory

Rational Choice Theory purports that humans are rational beings who make choices in their own self-interest. This theory explores the role of rationality in human decision-making. Rational Choice Theory dates back to the work of Scottish political economist and philosopher Adam Smith; his 1776 essay *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* remains highly influential among economists and politicians (Siegel, 1992, p. 130). In Rational Choice Theories, individuals are seen as motivated by the wants or goals that express their 'preferences'. They act within specific, given constraints and on the basis of the information that they have about the conditions under which they are acting. At its simplest, the relationship between preferences and

constraints can be seen in the purely technical terms of the relationship of a means to an end. As it is not possible for individuals to achieve all of the various things that they want, they must also make choices in relation to both their goals and the means for attaining these goals. Rational Choice Theories hold that individuals must anticipate the outcomes of alternative courses of action and calculate which will be best for them. Rational individuals choose the alternative that is likely to give them the greatest satisfaction (Scott, 2000, p. 3).

For the purposes of a crime being committed, the offender needs to make rational choices in order to move from one step to the next as the crime unfolds. With practice, the decision-making becomes automatic, and eventually offenders are able to complete the complex sequence of actions instinctively, without the need for laborious deliberation. Crime scripts have proved a popular method of deconstructing crime events and have been applied to a wide range of offences, such as check forgery, organized crime, and international child sex trafficking (Sidebottom & Wortley, 2016, p. 165).

Routine Activities Theory

Routine Activities Theory was proposed by Cohen and Felson (1979). Cohen and Felson (1979, p. 602) argue that the structure of daily life following WWII and continuing through the 1960s created more opportunities—from residential burglary to violent crime—for motivated offenders to exploit. During this time, electronic appliances and cars became more costly, hence more valuable, and people spent more time outside the household, shifting their routine activities. The theory is an attempt to explain factors leading to criminal activity. This theory puts an emphasis on understanding certain

conditions and situations that create opportunities for offenders to commit crimes. According to Routine Activities Theory, the convergence of three factors assist in explaining why a person may become a victim of predatory criminal activity. The first factor is a potential offender being present and motivated to commit the crime. The second factor is a target being present affording the crime to occur. The third factor is the absence of a guardian. A guardian is someone who can guard, or in some manner prevent, the offender from committing a crime against the target. Examples of a guardian are a police officer, a friend of the target, or an active bystander who can intervene preventing the criminal activity (Cohen & Felson, 1979, pp. 604-605).

According to Cohen and Felson (1979, p. 605), changes in the routine activities that occur in a certain location or in the society as a whole may lead to an increase in the three factors, causing the crime rate to increase. For example, if a particular neighborhood or other location includes the presence of potential offenders who are motivated to take advantage of other people who live in or visit the area, crimes will more likely be committed if there is no one at the location who can function as a guardian against the crimes occurring (Tillyer & Eck, 2011, p. 185). The idea of a guardian extends beyond someone who has the responsibility of guarding the potential target from being taken advantage of. The concept of a guardian also includes people who have a supervisory relationship to the potential offender such as parents or school personnel, and to people who are responsible for overseeing a particular location, such as a facilities manager or a security guard (Miller, 2013, p. 392).

Specific to Routine Activities Theory, studies that examine land use focus on how a land's use affects the frequency and content of social interaction among people and how this social interaction places offenders and targets in proximity. Proximity is the physical distance between the locations where crime targets reside and where large populations of offenders are found (Meier & Miethe, 1993, p. 485). People are more likely to be victimized when they frequently associate with, or frequently come in contact with, offenders lacking guardianship (Meier & Miethe, 1993, p. 479). For example, living, working, or spending time in high crime areas increases the likelihood of coming in contact with a motivated offender. Without the presence of a capable guardian the risk of victimization increases (Meier & Miethe, 1993, p. 484).

As the theory has become more complex, Routine Activity Theory has had the addition of a handler and a place manager. The handler concept, which stems from Hirschi's Social Control Theory, suggests that behavior can be informally controlled through families, communities, and societal expectations. The control mechanism is a person's fear of what will happen to their relationships if they conduct themselves poorly (Costello, 2012, p. 141). A handler is a person who can exert some sort of influence over an individual's behavior. Further, an intimate handler is someone who knows the potential offender well (Madensen & Eck, 2012, pp.564-566). A place manager is a person who monitors and controls behavior at a specific place. A place manager can be the owner, or a representative of the owner with some level of responsibility, who can either mitigate or inadvertently facilitate crime. A place manager and a capable guardian are different. A place manager does not protect a target, but rather a place where suitable

targets and motivated offenders converge (Madensen & Eck, 2012, p.573).Routine Activity Theory has guided research on exposure to motivated offenders, target attractiveness, and guardianship, including proximity of targets and potential offenders (Meier & Miethe, 1993, pp. 482-483), accessibility and visibility of targets in risky environments (Cohen et al., 1981, pp. 655-656), and target attractiveness in terms of instrumental value (larceny, robbery, and burglary) and expressive value (physical assault) (Meier & Miethe, 1993, pp. 482). While defining Routine Activity Theory has not been without issue, its predictive validity has varying degrees of support when the theoretical constructs are applied to multi-, macro-, and individual-level research. The current body of research suggests that Routine Activity Theory has moderate predictive validity when applied to property victimization, criminal offending, and multilevel criminal opportunity. Mixed findings appear in studies of violent victimization, consistent with the criticism that depicting offenders as rational may not fit the impulsive nature of instrumental crimes (Madero-Hernandez & Fisher, 2012, p. 528-529).

Examples of crimes patterned by routine activity abound. There has not only been a general increase in daytime burglary as Cohen & Felson (1979) report, but burglaries tend to increase in pleasant weather when homeowners are more likely to be away (Hipp et al., 2004). Likewise, sexual assaults increase in warm weather when potential offenders and victims are more likely to be out socializing, often with one another (McLean, 2007). Rates of assaults involving juveniles (as both victims and perpetrators) peak in mid-afternoon on weekdays (but not weekends), coinciding with the release of students from school (Snyder et al., 1996). And young males have the highest rates of

physical victimization because they are more likely than other sociodemographic groups to lead risky lifestyles that place them in harm's way (Jensen & Brownfield, 1986) (Sidebottom & Wortley, 2016, p. 162).

Crime Pattern Theory

A motivated offender and a suitable target intersecting through movement patterns in the built environment are explained by Crime Pattern Theory (Brantingham & Brantingham, 1993, p. 21). This theory has four main assumptions: 1) crime templates that reflect target/victim assessment; 2) crime locations in spatiotemporal activity spaces based on routine daily movement geographies; 3) crime concentrations that are found along paths to major nodes and are largely restricted to neighborhood edges; and 4) crime attractors and crime generators (Brantingham, et al., 2017, p. 2). According to Crime Pattern Theory, particular elements must come together for a crime to occur; and when crime does occur, it concentrates. Additionally, offenders and victims have normal perceptions of their environment, just as non-offenders do; and they travel in the same spaces as non-offenders and use places normally. Through normal daily routine activities within the physical environment, potential offenders' perceptions are shaped to identify criminal opportunity (Brantingham, et al., 2017, p. 7-8).

Crime is strongly related to features of our physical environment. Urban populations move in predictable patterns because designated and available travel routes, or pathways like streets, roads, highways, transit lines, sidewalks, park paths shape our routine activities (Brantingham & Brantingham, 1995, p. 7). These high activity nodes, places central to our individual lives (e.g., homes, shopping centers, office spaces, gyms,

bars, entertainment districts, sports stadiums), are thus concentrated sites for crime, attracting or generating it (Brantingham & Brantingham, 1995, p. 15).

Crime attractors are those places known to offenders as "action" spots to commit specific crimes - bar districts, prostitution tracts, drug markets, and large parking lots near businesses, or specific street segments, specific businesses, and specific parks (Brantingham & Brantingham, 1995, p. 8). Crime generators are those places that draw large numbers of people for reasons unrelated to an offender's criminal motivation or the crime they might commit—generally shopping and entertainment areas (Brantingham & Brantingham, 1995, pp. 7-8).

The pathways between nodal points are settings conducive to property crimes like vehicle theft, burglary, and theft from vehicles, in particular (Brantingham et al., 2013, p. 3). Offenders tend to commit a criminal act close to pathways—main roads anywhere or travel routes in their home area that become familiar through their routine activities. Research suggests that criminal events also concentrate where two or more land uses converge forming an edge, with a change from one type of urban space to another. This concentration of property crime is said to occur because people have a decreased ability to identify who belongs and who does not. Edges can thus mark areas of territorial conflict between groups (Brantingham & Brantingham, 1995, p. 12-13). Edges represent an area in transition from one use to another (Brantingham et al., 2017, p. 6). Examples are land bordering a river, houses behind a commercial strip mall, a major roadway, or railroad track.

Crime Pattern Theory has been used to guide research on factors that structure criminal opportunities and events, ranging from events shaped by routine activities (Cohen & Felson, 1979, p. 604), to time and distance of criminal opportunities. Crime pattern theory argues that crimes, the decision to commit crimes, and the process of committing crimes are patterned (Brantingham et al., 2017, p. 3).

Offenders have daily routine activities and movement patterns through which they become familiar with and comfortable in their environment. This familiarity by offenders, and all people, of place is referred to as an "environmental backcloth" (Brantingham & Brantingham, 1993, p. 22). "Environmental backcloth" is a cognitive landscape of the built environment by which an offender recognizes criminal opportunities and can easily identify targets. This theory explains why crime concentrates in specific areas and why targets might draw the attention of offenders through patterned, routine activities.

A prediction that follows from crime pattern theory is that offenders generally will not travel far from their nodes in order to commit crime. So-called journey- to-crime research confirms this prediction. Snook (2004), for example, examining data from 41 serial burglars, found that the median distance travelled to commit a burglary was 1.7 kilometers. The rate of decay for crime trip distance was rapid, following an inverted J-curve; 33% of burglary sites were within one kilometer of offenders' homes, 25% between one and two kilometers, and 15% between two and three kilometers. Further, burglaries do not just offend close to home but typically do so along the path between home and another significant node (Rengert & Wasilchick, 1985). Similar distance–decay

patterns have been found for numerous other crime types. The routine activity approach and Crime Pattern Theory partner well in studies. The former describes the necessary conditions for crime to occur and the latter describes where and when these conditions are most likely to overlap as a function of peoples' routine activities (be they prospective offenders, victims and/or guardians). It should be stressed, however, that neither approach advances a deterministic model of crime causation. Put differently, it is not assumed that when the elements of the chemistry of crime meet in space and time that they inevitably produce crime. This is because environmental criminology depicts offenders as purposive decision-makers. It assumes that individuals who find themselves in criminogenic environments make situated decisions as to whether to exploit the crime opportunities on offer (Sidebottom & Wortley, 2016, pp. 163-164).

Defensible Space

Similar to opportunity theories, the defensible space concept also recognizes the importance of offender choice in crime opportunities and prevention by offering suggestions for specific environmental changes. Defensible space arose in the United States in the early 1970's from Oscar Newman's work on public housing. Defensible space refers to an environment where the physical attributes, including the design and layout of the building itself, can function as a means of security for residents (Newman, 1972). Newman believed that public housing was designed in such a way that it allowed for crime by enabling residents to not have to take responsibility for the shared, or common areas, of the structure. Additionally, Newman found that the sheer size of the building used in public housing created a situation where a resident would never be able

to recognize another resident from a stranger. This kept residents from being able to establish a sense of who belonged and who did not. Further, the size of these buildings also created a number of access points that could be utilized by criminals. These allowed for those committing crime easy access into the housing itself, in addition to an easy escape route after committing the crime.

Recognizing these problems, Newman applied defensible space as a way to not only address these problems in public housing, but also serve as a possible application to all types of residential areas and neighborhoods. The defensible space concept consists of four features that work together in an attempt to reduce the opportunities for the commission of crimes; these features being territoriality, surveillance, image, and milieu (Newman, 1972). First, Newman asserted the importance of the concept of territoriality. He proposed that there was an importance for residents to have a clear definition of what space belongs to them. This could be done through the use of physical barriers like gates or fences, in addition to symbolic markers like signs. When residents signal that an area is not made for public use it not only made clear that the area was off limits, but it was also believed that residents would be forced to take more responsibility/guard that area. Next, Newman (1972) stressed the importance of natural surveillance. This refers to the ability of residents to be able to regularly view the surrounding physical areas. Additionally, in conjunction with the territoriality aspect, residents cannot attempt to stop a crime from happening in their area if they cannot actually see it happening. Newman (1972) also argued that crime could be reduced if residents could create the sense that an

area was always being watched, so this could translate into an increase in the number and position of windows in housing for example.

Additionally, Newman (1972) also emphasized the image and milieu components. Image refers to an overall safe appearance of the residential structure and community, whereas milieu refers to location and proximity to other high crime areas. Newman proposed that when the appearance of a residential area was perceived as neglected or isolated, it would begin to negatively differentiate itself from surrounding areas and would thus become vulnerable to crime. Alternatively, when a residential area shows signs of being well maintained, it can serve as a deterrent to would-be offenders. This can also work together with the other aspects of defensible space. When the area is perceived positively it can create a sense of pride and ownership in residents, and the desire to keep the area well maintained. Furthermore, by keeping these areas well maintained it can also allow for more effective surveillance by ensuring proper care of structures.

In sum then, defensible space has the main goal of designing the physical layout of an area in a way that allows residents to better control their environment. These changes stress the importance of four key areas: natural surveillance, territoriality, image and milieu. By making changes that instill a sense of ownership and better visibility of an area, it creates an environment that reduces the opportunities for the commission of crime.

Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED)

CPTED emerged as an expansion of Oscar Newman's "Defensible Space" concepts. It sought to expand environmental prevention techniques to the school,

industrial, and residential contexts. At the most fundamental level CPTED is designed around "the proper design and effective use of the built environment [which] can lead to a reduction in the fear and incidence of crime, and an improvement in the quality of life" (Crowe, 2000, p. 46). In the first generation of CPTED, this is done through 6 concepts including: territoriality, target hardening, access control, surveillance, activity support, and image maintenance. Territoriality is the foundation of first-generation CPTED and is the concept that has helped to inform the other five (Cozens et al., 2005, p. 331). It is primarily concerned with helping to instill a sense of ownership of a space by making changes to the environment that reinforce ownership and thereby reduce and discourage opportunities for crime. This can be done through the use of both real and symbolic barriers and will typically be done in conjunction with other CPTED concepts like increased surveillance and access control (Crowe, 2000). At its most basic level then, territoriality is focused on defining both ownership and acceptable use of a space. When it comes to reducing the opportunity for burglary, the territoriality aspect of CPTED would likely come in the symbolic form of signs indicating the presence of a security alarm being used in the home, or signage indicating the use of some type of neighborhood watch program. In addition, it will also employ the use of physical barriers like fences or landscaping to help emphasize between public and private spaces, and thus reduce the opportunity for burglaries to occur. Target hardening is the concept that focuses on making changes to the environment that will cause an offender to need to make an increase in the effort needed to commit a crime and represents one of the oldest and most straight-forward approaches in crime prevention (Cozens et al., 2005, pp. 338-

339). In order to limit access to an environment, target hardening typically involves using physical objects like locks or security alarms. However, this use of physical deterrents can also snowball and create what is known as a "fortress mentality" (Grabosky, 1996, p. 575). As residents of an area begin to employ more and more physical barriers, it actually works against other CPTED concepts that focus on surveillance and the overall image of an area. In regard to burglary, target hardening strategies to reduce burglaries would likely include the installation of security measures like the addition of security alarms, deadbolt locks on doors, or adding locks to windows (Cozens et al., 2005, p. 328).

The concept of access control attempts to reduce crime opportunities by denying the offender access to a potential target and thereby create a perception that there is a higher likelihood of being caught (Cozens et al., 2005, pp. 335-336). At the individual level, access control will incorporate ideas from other CPTED concepts like placing locks on doors or using landscaping, but here it is employed as a means of keeping individuals and would be offenders out of an area they are not authorized to use. By keeping individuals out of areas, they are not supposed to be in, it is hoped that there will be less of an opportunity to commit crime. At the neighborhood level access control can reduce opportunities for crime by making use of neighborhood-based parking restrictions, as well as limiting what type of traffic is allowed in an area.

The surveillance concept of CPTED involves both natural surveillance opportunities, as well as formal surveillance (Cozens et al., 2005, pp. 331-332). The natural surveillance component involves the use of physical objects like the placement of windows, lighting, or landscaping that increase the resident's ability to see what is going

on in an area. By instilling in offenders the simple perception that they may be constantly under observation, it is hoped that it will lead to a reduction in offending. Formal surveillance refers to actions taken by organized groups of individuals like criminal justice actors (Crowe, 2000). This typically comes in the form of police patrols but can also include elements in the retail sector like security guards. Like natural surveillance methods, these methods are again used to create a sense of being constantly observed in would be offenders.

Activity support is the component that focuses on making efforts to ensure that a space is being used for an intended and safe purpose (Cozens et al., 2005, p. 337). When an area is being used by residents/other legitimate users and has a clearly defined purpose, it is less likely to attract non-legitimate users (Crowe, 2000). This can be done through a number of different strategies. One way could be with the use of proper signage to communicate what the area is intended to be used for such as a park or playground. Additionally, this can be reinforced in conjunction with the natural surveillance component of CPTED. By implementing features near these areas like sidewalks, it can increase the number of people that use an area, and subsequently the number of people that are observing the area and ensuring that it is being used as intended.

The final component of CPTED, image management, involves keeping up the appearance of an area (Cozens et al., 2005, pp. 337-338). It is hoped that by maintaining the appearance that an area is being properly kept up and cared for it will cause would-be offenders to reconsider the risk involved with committing a crime in that area. Similarly, by maintaining the environment of an area, it can help ensure that other components of

CPTED are also functioning properly. For example, keeping the landscaping around a home from overgrowing can allow for better surveillance opportunities.

To review, CPTED emerged as an expansion of defensible space. It is designed to reduce crime through a number of prevention techniques that ensure the environment is being utilized properly. To do this, CPTED utilizes six concepts: territoriality, target hardening, access control, surveillance, activity support, and image maintenance. When these components are used properly, it is believed that the chances of being targeted for crime will be lowered. Empirical Evidence for CPTED and Burglary As discussed in the previous section, CPTED is a crime prevention strategy that is designed around using specific environmental cues to lead to a reduction in the incidence of crime. Now with a solid foundation for what CPTED is, this section focuses on empirical evaluations of the components of CPTED. These evaluations range from looking at CPTED's overall ability to reduce crime in general, to looking at its ability to reduce individual crimes like robbery. Additionally, specific attention is paid to empirical evaluations of the effect of CPTED on burglary prevention.

After reviewing this existing evidence, the focus will then shift to recent qualitative findings. While overall there does appear to be consensus within these evaluations, recent qualitative research raises some questions about the need to further examine the effectiveness of certain CPTED components as they relate to burglary. In general, previous research has indicated that CPTED appears to offer an effective strategy for reducing crime. For example, Poyner (1993, pp. 10-11) reviewed over 120 different crime prevention programs in both the United States and the United Kingdom

utilizing various CPTED strategies. After analyzing and evaluating these programs, he found general success in all 6 areas of CPTED with the greatest success in reducing crime coming from strategies utilizing target hardening. Looking at more specific crimes, the implementation of CPTED strategies was also found to be associated with a decrease in the occurrence of robberies.

Casteel and Peek-Asa (2000, p. 99) conducted a systematic review of 16 studies evaluating the implementation of CPTED strategies in various retail and convenience stores. Their analysis of these studies found that the implementation of these strategies was associated with a decrease in the number of robberies ranging from 30 to 84 percent. While CPTED did appear to be associated with a general decrease in robberies, the large variety of ways it was implemented in each study made it difficult for them to draw conclusions on what specific strategies were most effective. Overall then, the above evidence does suggest that CPTED is an effective means of crime prevention. The limited existing research on CPTED and burglary also seems to show support for CPTED's effectiveness. A study conducted by Brown and Altmann (1983, pp. 216-218) for example, examined the characteristics of over 300 houses, paying particular attention to the differences between the homes that were burglarized and homes that were not burglarized. Their analysis revealed that there were significant differences when comparing the two. Burglarized houses typically showed a distinct lack of territoriality. The homes that were burglarized typically showed signs of poor maintenance or an unoccupied appearance. Houses that were not burglarized were found to make better utilization of surveillance. These non-burglarized homes were those that offered better

sightlines, and also had a closer proximity to neighbors. Overall then, these would fit in line with what CPTED asserts. Similarly, research conducted by Montoya and colleagues (2016, pp 536-537) on burglarized homes in the Netherlands also offers similar support for CPTED components. Their study looked at a sample of over 800 homes and utilized a sample of burglarized residences in addition to a random selection of non-burglarized houses. Their analysis of the characteristics of these homes once again found significant differences between those that were burglarized and those that were not. Overall support was found for the ability of the proper use of CPTED concepts to reduce the chance of burglary. Surveillance and image maintenance were found to be the strongest deterrents against burglary, with homes that offered higher visibility and signs of being properly cared for being less likely to be victims of burglary.

While early qualitative research conducted with burglars was not focused on CPTED per se, many of the features described in their target selection process can be applied and labeled with the components of CPTED. For example, Wright and Bennett (1984) conducted interviews with over 300 convicted burglars in England. These interviews revealed that burglars utilize environmental cues when choosing a target to burglarize. The majority of burglars indicated that they would not burglarize a target that appeared to be occupied. Additionally, the presence of certain measures like burglar alarms or dogs were actually not a deterrent to most burglars. Interviews conducted by Cromwell and colleagues (1991) of active burglars in Texas also indicated that burglars utilized environmental cues in target selection. The burglars in these interviews, however, stressed the importance of surveillability as the primary factor in determining a target.

These offenders discussed the importance of remaining unseen when committing the burglary and specified factors like the location of the home on the street, the proximity of neighbors, and level of traffic as crucial deterrents. One of the more important contributions to the qualitative literature involving burglary is Richard Wright and Scott Decker's (1996, V. Conclusions and Implications) groundbreaking book, Burglars on the Job. Their research involved in-depth, semi-structured interviews with a sample of over 100 active burglars in St. Louis, Missouri.

These interviews covered a number of topics including motivation, the commission of the burglary itself, and what items they typically take. Of particular relevance to the current study is their discussion of target selection. Like the previously mentioned studies, while not explicitly discussing CPTED components much of their discussion relates to the prevention strategies involved with CPTED. For example, the burglars they interviewed overwhelming discussed the importance of potential rewards. In order to construct a potential reward from the burglary, burglars would utilize specific wealth cues. These would include a number of factors including larger sized homes, well-maintained landscaping, and any cars/vehicle parked at the home. Essentially, the nicer the home, the greater the potential reward. Burglars also stressed the importance of not being seen or heard as they commit their crime. In order to minimize their risk, burglars would often target homes with an abundance of landscaping as the trees/bushes offered places of concealment, and/or homes that were not in close proximity to other residences.

Additionally, for a portion of the burglars they interviewed this also meant that they would altogether avoid committing burglaries in apartment complexes or public

housing. Ease of access also factored into their target selection process. Interestingly, burglars seemed to not factor the presence of measures like locks on windows/doors into their target selection process. Burglars viewed locks as something to be easily overcome and seemed to only be dissuaded by measures like security bars on windows, as they were viewed to take too much time to remove. Overall then, their research would suggest the importance of potential rewards, visibility, and ease of access in the target selection process.

More recently, Rachel Armitage's work with burglars in England offers specific insight into how burglars view each of the components of CPTED. Armitage and Mochuk's (2017, pp. 16-18) sample involved interviews of 10 incarcerated, adult, male burglars, and 10 Designing Out Crime Officers in England and Wales. They used a combination of semi-structured interviewing and photographs of mock burglary targets to gain a better understanding of how burglars choose their targets. The results of these interviews found strong support for CPTED components like surveillance and access control. Offenders reported that they were unlikely to burglarize a target where there was a high chance of being seen. This translated to offenders being more likely to avoid homes that showed signs of being occupied, homes where there were large front windows, and homes with a close proximity to neighbors. Offenders regard for access control meant that they typically only chose targets where they knew they could escape easily and unseen. This typically meant they avoided homes on cul-de-sacs. Less support was shown for certain aspects of target hardening. Offenders indicated that most types of locks on doors or gates would not serve to deter them from a target, or even bars on

windows. Security alarms also did not appear to offer much of a deterrent, as offenders indicated that even when they go off, neighbors often ignore them. Some offenders even indicated that the use of excessive types of these target hardening measures served to strengthen the idea that they had something worth taking inside. Offender assessment of the image component of CPTED actually proved contrary to what was theorized. To offenders, properties that showed poor signs of maintenance and upkeep actually made targets unattractive because they indicated that there was little reward/money to be taken. Rather, offenders were attracted to properties that were well maintained as they offered valuable wealth cues for potential rewards. Armitage (2017, pp. 287-289) further supports the idea that while some CPTED concepts are working as intended, others seem too not be as effective. In a study of 22 incarcerated prolific burglars in England, she asked them to rate the attractiveness of 16 images of residential housing. Again, burglar responses supported the surveillance component of CPTED. Burglars consistently stated they would avoid places where they could be easily viewed by others, or properties that allowed them to be easily seen. Conversely, they would be attracted to targets that possessed features that obscured sight lines such as large shrubbery or fencing. Similar to the previous study, again certain target hardening measures like locks and burglar alarms were not viewed as particular deterrents. Burglars would regularly respond with methods on how to pick locks or disable alarms.

Additionally, like the previous study, burglars once again confirmed that they were more likely to target well maintained properties as opposed to those that appear rundown and neglected. What this body of qualitative evidence has shown is that when

burglars are asked about their target selection process, certain components of CPTED seem to be consistently working as intended. However, this research has highlighted aspects that may need to be re-examined. Even early work with burglars seems to show the importance of surveillance and access control. The ability of a burglar to remain unseen seems to be perhaps the most important factor in determining the suitability of a target. Additionally, the layout of the home and surrounding area are also important factors. When neighbors are close by, or escape points are limited, offenders will likely not select that area.

Multiple studies have also shown that certain factors associated with target hardening may also not be working as intended (Armitage, 2017; Armitage & Mochuk 2017). Burglar alarms and locks in particular seem to consistently be shown to not serve as an effective deterrent to burglars, and in some cases, an overabundance of these measures may even serve to attract burglars. Similarly, counter to what CPTED would assert about image, a well-maintained property may also serve as an attractive cue for burglars. These would all fit within the notion that offender choice and target selection involves an evaluation of the risk of being caught and risk versus reward. This chapter began with an explanation of the importance of offender choice. The subsequent discussion of opportunity theories like rational choice and routine activity theory elaborated further on the idea that offenders consider certain environmental and risk cues when deciding to commit a crime. Prevention strategies like Newman's defensible space also considered the importance of offender choice when discussing prevention strategies, and CPTED expanded even further on these ideas put forth by Newman. Subsequent

empirical evaluations of CPTED found support for its ability to reduce burglary occurrences (Brown & Altman, 1983; Montoya et al., 2016).

Broken Windows Theory

In the mid-1990s, New York's "Quality of life campaign," based on the Broken Windows Theory, decreased petty crime rates, and helped launch further application of broken windows theory approaches globally (Keizer, et al., 2008, p. 1681). Following this foundational study, a 2012 case study approach was used to identify the major technical and social non-technical deterrents of vandalism and graffiti on railroad owned properties and right of ways (Thompson, et al., 2012, p. 1281). This additional case study further highlighted the practical application of Broken Window Theory. In a different quantitative study, data from a program, justified through broken window theory, tracked municipal tickets delivered to homeless people as a reflection of tensions around the visibility of homeless people in public spaces (Chesnay, Bellot, & Sylvestre, 2013, p. 162). From this study appears the possibility of differential treatment of the populace, and criminalization of being homeless, as tied to citing versing warning for minor offenses. The conclusion can be drawn from these studies that there is a relationship between decay, or broken windows, and crime, as well as the possibility of greater enforcement bias based on the involved population.

Hinkle and Weisburd (2008, p. 503) suggest that perceived social disorder and observed levels of physical disorder have a strong impact on fear of crime. This reinforces the proposed relationship between disorder and fear, as hypothesized by the Broken Windows literature, and implies that police may be able to reduce fear of crime

by reducing apparent disorder. Empirical evidence supports reductions in fear of crime coupled with a growing sense of social control through place-based policing, which can be directed at social disorder within a "broken windows" framework by cracking down on street prostitution and open-air drug markets (Berk & MacDonald, 2010, p. 816). This statement ties into this project's research through the question of crime rates rising with the presence of a homeless encampment on railroad property, and whether crime rates then recede after the camp's removal.

The Broken Windows model, which describes a circle similar to the "criminal spin" theory, notes a cycle of increasing fear of crime related to disorder, leading to a growing reluctance among many citizens to use public space, which in turn reduces natural surveillance in local areas and heightens the risk of further increases in disorder (Ronel, 2011, pp. 1223-1224). In relation to Broken Windows, Price (2016, p. 210) theorizes that criminal activities heighten conditionally, based on the characteristics of a neighborhood that the criminal perceives, and measured by the extent to which that neighborhood cares about or tolerates criminal activity. In arguably the most complete examination of Broken Windows Theory to date, Steenbeek and Hipp (2011) examined 10 years of neighborhood data in a series of sophisticated longitudinal cross-lagged models and concluded:

> [T]he results suggest a cyclical model in which neighborhoods have relatively stable levels of disorder overtime, and the processes that lead to disorderly neighborhoods are difficult to turn around. Neighborhoods with high levels of disorder cause more people to move out, and higher residential instability leads to

> a lower percentage of people taking action to improve the livability and safety of the neighborhood. Neighborhood disorder thus has cumulative effects over and above the direct effect on residential instability by reinforcing itself via a weakening of community processes of social control. (p. 864)

Overall, they found considerable support for the longitudinal process of neighborhood decline hypothesized by Wilson and Kelling (1982) (Steenbeek & Hipp, 2011). This project's research endeavors to capture this same quantitative result in which elevated crime rates are shown in and around homeless encampments due to the perception of there being a lack of care, or a toleration of crime, during their existence.

Broken Windows Theory is not without its challengers. For example, the results of a study in the U.K. context contradict the broken windows, stating that no significant association exists between social cohesion and the poor quality of the physical environment (Stafford, et al., 2005, p. 1683). Stafford and colleagues (2005, p. 1690) concluded that the theory of Wilson and Kelling does not apply in the U.K. context because the items reflect an institutional rather than an informal lack of care over the physical environment. Harcourt and Ludwig (2006, p. 315) found no support for a simple first-order disorder– crime relationship as hypothesized by Wilson and Kelling. However, they argued that other factors could play a significant role in this relationship.

In spite of these few and many other challenges, academics and law enforcement practitioners alike still subscribe to Broken Windows Theory. In 2018, Erin Sheley proposed to decrease sexual assault by applying the lessons learned from Broken Windows policing to the related problem of assaultive street harassment (p. 510).

William Bratton, the former Boston and New York City police commissioner, told the New York Times he had been "the most profound influence on American policing in the last 40 or 50 years" (Jonas, 2019, p. 1). Keechant Sewell, the first female police commissioner of the NYPD, made the following statements in December of 2021: "You have to make sure you're using the Broken Windows Theory, the enforcement of those low-level crimes, in a way that's not discriminatory, in a way that addresses the problem and doesn't actually over-police it in some respect" (Marsh & McCarthy, 2021, p. 1).

Social Disorganization Theory

Social disorganization theory, originally formulated by Shaw and McKay in 1942 which in turn was based on older ideas by Park and Burgess, is one of the major theoretical perspectives in the study of deviance (Pratt and Cullen, 2005, pp. 422-423). Social Disorganization Theory has successfully been applied to explain violent crime (Sampson, Raudenbush, and Earls, 1997), delinquency (Sampson and Groves, 1989), and disorder (Sampson and Raudenbush, 1999). The basic premise of social disorganization theory is that neighborhoods with high population turnover, low socioeconomic status, and a high level of ethnic heterogeneity, experience more disorder than other neighborhoods. The underlying mechanism is that people in these neighborhoods are less able to organize themselves against threats, e.g., disorderly behavior, than other neighborhoods. The residents themselves may move to and from the neighborhood, but the characteristics at the neighborhood level persist, and thus these neighborhoods remain socially disorganized (Shaw and McKay, 1969).

Social Disorganization Theory further developed into the systemic model, which is a complex model of "friendship and kinship networks and formal and informal associational ties rooted in family life and on-going socialization processes" (Kasarda and Janowitz, 1974, p. 329). Additional work by Bursik and Grasmick (1993, pp. 16-18) identified formal and informal relationships of social control into three categories; private (e.g., close friendships), parochial (e.g., informal peer groups), and public (e.g., groups and formal institutions outside the neighborhood). They suggest it is through these networks that individuals within communities are able to come together and organize their neighborhood.

Social disorganization theory holds that neighborhoods with a greater population stability, higher socio-economic status and more ethnic homogeneity experience less disorder because these neighborhoods have higher social cohesion and exercise more social control (Steenbeek & Hipp, 2011, p. 2). Social disorganization theory (Shaw and McKay, 1969) argues that neighborhoods with greater population turnover, lower socioeconomic status, and more ethnic heterogeneity are more likely to experience disorder. An important explanation for this relationship is the differential ability of residents to organize themselves to achieve common goals like having a clean and safe neighborhood. Thus, the mechanism of informal social control and sanctioning is crucial for explaining the level of disorder in neighborhoods. Scholars argue that if neighborhood residents can organize themselves, this will result in 'informal social control'--the informal regulatory behavior of others--and therefore potential offenders will either refrain from offending or be stopped in the process (Steenbeek & Hipp, 2011, p.1). A

disorganized neighborhood is one that has specific risk factors, namely (a) high rates of poverty; (b) high rates of crime and delinquency; (c) high resident racial/ethnic heterogeneity; (d) high rates of residential mobility; (e) low numbers of two-parent households, an indicator of family disruption; and (f) proximity to industrialized urban areas (Sampson, 1986, pp. 271-272; Sampson & Raudenbush, 1999, pp. 637-638).

Previous research grounded in social disorganization theory generally draws similar conclusions, namely that cohesion and social control mediate the effects of structural neighborhood characteristics on deviance. However, there is considerable variation in how social cohesion and social control are measured in these studies. For example, Sampson and Groves (1989, pp. 779-780) found that neighborhoods with more 'social ties' and greater 'participation in organizations' experience less crime, while the presence of disorderly teenage groups was associated with more crime. Given that some would define the presence of teenagers hanging out on street corners as a measure of social disorder, we might have expected that social ties and organizational participation would have a causal effect upon the presence of such disorder. Bellair (1997, p. 697) found that neighborhoods with more 'social interaction' (i.e., visiting with their neighbors) had lower levels of disorder. Warner and Rountree (1997, p. 521) found that greater levels of 'neighboring activities' were related to lower assault rates but found no evidence that these mediated the relationship between neighborhood structural characteristics and assault rates. Sampson, Raudenbush, and Earls (1997, pp. 918-919) found that a combined measure of cohesion, mutual trust, and expectations of intervention by others which they labeled 'collective efficacy' reduced violent crime

rates, and this also partly mediated the effect of 5 neighborhood structural characteristics. Lastly, Markowitz et al. (2001, p. 311) found significant relationships between neighborhood structural characteristics and disorder, which were mediated by 'cohesion' and 'social control' (Steenbeek & Hipp, 2011, pp. 4-5). The ingredients of collective efficacy are topically important as they challenge theories that rely on disorder as a precursor to crime by adding further layers.

Social Disorganization: Systemic Variant and Collective Efficacy

Robert J. Bursik published a paper titled "Social Disorganization and Theories of Crime and Delinquency Problems and Prospects" (1988, p. 543), in which he addressed some of the serious criticisms leveled against social disorganization theory and its models of crime and delinquency. He noted five chief criticisms of Social Disorganization Theory (Bursik, 1988). In his article, he noted that one area of future research regarding social disorganization framework "must begin to pay greater attention to the role of educational institutions" (1988, p. 530). In their 1993 book, Neighborhoods and Crime: The Dimensions of Effective Community Control, Bursik and co-author Harold G. Grasmick proposed a systemic theory of neighborhood control. They viewed the systemic model as an extended version of Shaw and McKay's Social Disorganization Theory and argued that different types of networks between neighborhood individuals are needed to invoke informal social control, and that these networks were not included in Shaw and McKay's original model of social disorganization (Bursik & Grasmick, 1993, p. 181). They also argued that a control-theoretic approach of viewing Shaw and McKay's Social Disorganization Theory was needed to fully understand it, noting that Shaw and McKay

did not clearly explain a causal linkage between social disorganization and juvenile delinquency rates (Bursik & Grasmick, 1993, p. 33). Reviewing the previous works of other sociologists in their study of crime and urbanization, Bursik and Grasmick (1993, p. 33) found a common theme between rapid population turnover and heterogeneity. The theme was that each can decrease a neighborhood's ability to control itself in the presence of a lack of interest in the community. This was found to be a result of individuals wanting to leave as soon as they arrive, and the presence of racial and ethnic heterogeneity, which hinders communication and leads to neighborhoods being unable to discuss or solve common problems (Kornhauser, 1978, p. 78).

Bursik and Grasmick suggested that an understanding of how individuals within a neighborhood both are formally and informally connected to each other, how they are connected to local institutions, and how they are connected to external resources is needed to understand how structural conditions affect crime rates and control the community (Bursik & Grasmick, 1993, p. 58). Bursik and Grasmick then adopted Kasarda and Janowitz's systemic model of community attachment, which states that the community is a "complex system of friendship and kinship networks and formal and informal associational ties rooted in family life and on-going socialization processes" (Kasarda & Janowitz, 1974, p. 328, 333). In order to define formal and informal social control, Bursik and Grasmick borrowed the definition for social order from the work of Albert Hunter who in his study, Private, Parochial and Public Social Orders: The Problem of Crime and Incivility in Urban Communities, discussed that there were three types of social (informal controls) controls in a community: private, parochial, and public control

(Hunter, 1985, p. 233). Private control is rooted in the interpersonal relationships between family and close friends who control one another through the withdrawal of social support, esteem, and sentiment; parochial control is the informal control arising from institutional sources outside of the family, such as schools, churches, and voluntary organizations; and public control "focuses on the community's ability to secure the public goods that are allocated by agencies located outside of the neighborhood" (Bursik & Grasmick, 1993, p. 17). Bursik and Grasmick, by adding three types of informal controls, created a more robust version of social disorganization theory, which they label as a systemic social disorganization theory which stressed the importance of the indirect relationship between the mechanism of informal social controls (social networks) and crime rates (Bursik & Grasmick, 1993, pp. 42-45).

Adding to the work of Shaw and McKay's (1942) social disorganization theory, Robert J. Sampson, Stephen W. Raudenbush, and Felton Earls hypothesized that collective efficacy, which they defined as "social cohesion among neighbors and neighbors' willingness to intervene on behalf of the common good" (Sampson et al., 1997, p. 918). In addition, they hypothesized that social capital "is a form of social organization created when the structure of relations among persons facilitates action, making possible the achievement of certain ends that in its absence would not be possible" (Sampson et al., 1999, p. 634). To measure this variant of informal social control, they examined data for the Project on Human Development in Chicago Neighborhoods (PHDCN) and utilized the following questions as a measure of informal social control by using a Likert five-item scale (Sampson et al., 1997, p. 919).

To measure social cohesion and trust, respondents to the survey were asked were asked (utilizing a Likert five-item scale) if they strongly agreed or disagreed with these points: people in the community were willing to help their fellow neighbors; their neighborhood is close-knit; they can trust their neighbors; their neighbors generally do not get along; they and their neighbors share the same values (Sampson et al., 1997, pp. 919-920). They found a strong correlation between informal social control and social cohesion ($r = .80$, $p < 0.001$), suggesting that they were "tapping aspects of the same latent construct," and as a result, social control and social cohesion were combined to form a summary measure which they labeled "collective efficacy" (Sampson et al., 1997, p. 920).

Informal social control and social cohesion was then measured against violence. To measure violence, respondents were asked if the following events had occurred in the past six months: a fight involving a weapon, a violent argument amongst neighbors, a gang fight, a sex crime, and/or robbery. Respondents were also asked if they were or knew someone who was a victim of the previously mentioned crimes, and these surveyed measures of violence were tested against police recorded incidents of homicide (Sampson et al., 1997, p. 920). They found that collective efficacy was negatively related to violence ($t = -5.95$) with a standardized coefficient of -0.45 (Sampson et al., 1997, p. 922). In short, Sampson et al. (1997) concluded collective efficacy "is an important construct that can be measured reliably at the neighborhood level by means of survey research strategies, it mediates a substantial portion of the relationship between residential stability and economically disadvantaged with multiple measures of violence;

and the combined measure of informal social control and cohesion and trust is a robust predictor of lower rates of violence" (Maxwell, Garner, & Skogan, 2018, p. 262; Sampson et al., 1997, p. 923).

Collective efficacy, like informal social control, is not without its problems. Studies have found that collective efficacy weakens as neighborhoods perceive an increase in crime or disorder, which indicates that collective efficacy is constantly updating as neighborhood views change (Hipp, 2016, p.6). In contrast, collective efficacy can be increased with explicit, directed intervention (Schmidt et al., 2014, p. 10). It is the strengths and limitations found in both theories, the systemic variant of social disorganization theory and the social capital/collective efficacy framework that stresses the need of a third party within the community which can bridge the gap in neighborhoods with low informal social control and fluctuating collective efficacy.

Disorder and Crime

As identified in Broken Window theory, heightened criminality appears in distinct waves, when new opportunities to commit crimes that arise following changes in the environment of everyday life**,** often connected to disorganization (Ronel, 2011, p. 1223). In a later article Wilson and Kelling (1989) imply a direct relationship between disorder and crime:

> A rash of burglaries may occur because drug users have found a back alley or an abandoned building in which to hang out. In their spare time, and in order to get money to buy drugs, they steal from their neighbors. If the back alleys are cleaned up and the abandoned buildings torn down, the drug users will go away. (p. 47)

This is a more direct correlation than the duo's earlier article. Railroad encampments are full of trash, debris, and waste hazards that are not part of accepted living norms. This level of blight**,** and the appearance of a lack of care**,** leads to opportunities where criminals believe their actions are going to be more overlooked, ignored, or accepted. Specific to railroad properties, a 2021 study provides direct correlation between urban decay, homelessness, disorder and levels of crime in Fresno, California**,** using statistics from a United States Class I Railway's homeless management project to illustrate the growing homeless populations, the growing number of encampments on railroad right of ways, and its possible ties to trends in crime (Jones, Puchalsky, & Scott, 2021, p. 4).

Interestingly, Kelling and Coles (1996) provided an addition to the prior 1989 Wilson and Kelling definition of disorder:

> In its broadest social sense, disorder is incivility, boorish and threatening behavior that disturbs life, especially urban life . . . Most citizens have little difficulty balancing civility, which implies self-imposed restraint and obligation, with freedom. Yet, a few are either unable or unwilling to accept any limitations upon their own behavior. At the extreme are predatory criminals who murder, assault, rape, rob, and steal . . . Less extreme is disorderly behavior that, while not as serious as the crime noted above, nonetheless can threaten social order by creating fear and criminogenic conditions. (pp. 14-15)

They specifically indicated that disorder includes aggressive panhandling, street prostitution, drunkenness and public drinking, menacing behavior, harassment, obstruction of streets and public spaces, vandalism and graffiti, public urination and

defecation, unlicensed vending and peddling, unsolicited window washing of cars, and other such acts. Most state laws and city ordinances classify these behaviors as petty offenses or misdemeanors that are most often punishable only by fines or community service. The additions of incivility related behaviors add interesting perspective to this study regarding the plight of the homeless. Here we seem to see an addition of uncivil behavior to that which is criminal.

An affiliated predictor is the effect of neighborhood disability concentration, which can be enhanced by other ecological factors. This predictor forecasts that neighborhoods with higher levels of disadvantage, have a significant increase of neighborhood reported assaultive crimes (Bones & Hope, 2015, p. 312). This relates to the disadvantages faced by the residents within homeless encampments on railroad property. Regarding the appearance of a homeless encampment, a 2008 study suggests that perceived social disorder and observed levels of physical disorder have a strong impact on fear of crime, which corroborates the relationship between disorder and fear as hypothesized by the Broken Windows literature. This correlation also implies that police may be able to reduce fear of crime by reducing visible disorder (Hinkle & Weisburd, 2008, p. 503). This study's results correspond with the anticipated connection between crime rates during a homeless encampment's existence, when compared to the crime rate prior to and following that encampment's cleanup and removal.

It would be remiss not to provide an accounting of the multiple forms of disorder. Theorists and researchers break disorder into the two subcategories of physical disorder and social disorder. Skogan (1990, pp. 2-4) explains that whereas signs such as visible

decay and neglect refer to physical disorder, social disorder refers to behaviors including but not limited to prostitution, vandalism, public drunkenness, and graffiti. Others consider physical and social disorder as a consequence associated with specific behaviors. Graffiti and vandalism are explained by physical disorders (i.e., neighborhood decay and dilapidation, neglect of the environment by the community and law enforcement). This disorder then encourages stakeholders to not care about their surroundings and the conditions. Social disorder occurs when individuals are present for interactions, including loitering and panhandling, prostitution and solicitation, drug-dealing, and intimidation (Sampson, 2009, p. 9). In contrast to physical and social disorder definitions, other scholars refer to criminality and criminality alone as an indicator of disorder. For example, where Sampson (2009, p. 9) views loitering as a cue for social disorder, Felonneau (2004, p. 46) explains minor offenses like loitering are incivility versus disorder. Much of the debate around disorder versus incivility can be tied to jurisdictional differences, police practices, and even more directly to city ordinances and state law.

Adding to Skogan's (1990) research, Ross and Mirowsky (1999) defined disorder as "visible cues indicating a lack of order and social control in the community" (p. 413). The visible cues included both social and physical signs. Social disorder was defined as "signs indicating a lack of social control that involve people," which included fights and trouble among neighbors and the presence of people hanging out on the streets, drinking, taking drugs, panhandling, and creating a sense of danger (p. 413). Physical disorder was referred to as "overall physical appearance of a neighborhood," which contained noisy,

dirty, and rundown places, unrepaired or abandoned buildings, vandalism, graffiti, and litter, indicating that social control has broken down (p. 413). The continued pattern from these researchers of noting the value of visible cues ties directly into the appearances and notions regarding homeless encampments.

In their 2019 *Justice Quarterly* study**,** Ren, Zhao, and He had interesting findings regarding neighborhood resident recognition of disorder. After controlling for individual demographics, they found that the number of social nuisance crime/disorder incidents occurring within a .3-mile radius (482.803 meters) of a respondent's residence is a significant predictor of public perceptions of disorder. This finding indicates that residents "somewhat" take public safety cues from their immediate environment, or within a .3-mile radius (482.803 meters) of their residence. The researchers also noted perceptions of social disorder significantly increased residents' fear for personal safety (Ren et al., 2019, p. 18).

As society has changed and evolved, and the additional amount of research in this area has been conducted, our understanding of what is included under the broad umbrella of disorder grows. Charis Kubrin (2008) elaborates, "Variability in how disorder is understood and conceptualized across studies is the rule rather than the exception" (p. 205). An example of the variety involved can be found in the 2018 Australian based study by Rebecca Wickes and John R. Hipp. This study of neighborhoods and disorder provides multiple findings on disorder and decay. The most significant finding of the research indicates that neighborhood ties, expectations for action**,** and the exercise of informal social control do not operate to reduce crime as theorized in contemporary and

traditional social disorganization theories, and actually have different effects on crime depending on the crime type (Wickes & Hipp, 2018, pp. 301-302).

From these examples and combining the first two definitions by Kelling and Coles (1996) and Ross and Mirowsky (1999), homeless encampment disorder could be defined as visible social or physical cues that disturb life and threaten informal social control and that are classified as petty offenses or misdemeanors punishable only by fines or community service. This effort to clarify the meaning of disorder is expected to reduce measurement error. Essentially, through exploring the depth of research and analysis that has been completed within the disorder umbrella**,** it is key to stay in bounds with this theoretical genre and apply disorder in a sensible manner to this niche project.

The Homeless Snapshot

Dominant cultural values in the United States include independence, personal responsibility, and the concomitant belief that personal circumstances are a function of the choices people make. Savani, Stephens, and Markus (2011, p. 800) found that this orientation tends to reduce empathy for those in need, increase the likelihood of blaming the victim for negative outcomes an individual may experience, and may diminish support for public policies that may seek to address the needs of marginalized individuals. Basically, the process of victim blaming stems from the individual's belief that society is fundamentally just and that the negative outcomes experienced by another are a product of the victim's choices rather than as a result of systemic problems in the social environment (Turner et al., 2018, p. 4). This representation of cause is personified through the homeless population. The public individual may be more likely to dismiss or

minimize the relevance and impact of the social context as it may have contributed to another's victimization. Subsequently, the individual is less likely to support changes to the social context that may promote the public good (Turner et al., 2018, p. 4).

Victim precipitation and lifestyle theories underpin public views of homelessness that blame the victim. From this viewpoint the individuals that are homeless and victimized would not be if they had different behaviors or a different lifestyle. This is a more individualistic view of the causes and consequences of homelessness which may lead those who hold them to support, or not oppose, policies that effectively police the behaviors of people who are homeless (Turner et al., 2018, p. 4). In contrast, homeless related theories provide explanations that identify factors largely outside of the control of the individual. Individuals that hold these views is more likely to recognize the role of structure in the cause and consequences of homelessness and may be more likely to support (or less likely to oppose) changes that are systemic in nature (Turner et al., 2018, p. 5). In reality, the public expresses both individualistic and structural views in their explanations for the causes and consequences of homelessness. Individualistic views prove to be more influential in public policy responses to homelessness and how the vulnerable homeless population is managed and treated often through city ordinances.

One of the methods of managing the homeless population is to criminalize being homeless. This takes place in cities across the country. Governments at this level have turned to law enforcement and the criminal justice system to respond to quality of life issues such as people living in public spaces. Municipal codes against sleeping, standing, and eating in public have more than doubled since 1990, and anti-begging, anti-soliciting,

anti-peddling, vagrancy, loitering, and curfew laws effectively criminalize homelessness (Fisher, Miller, Walter, & Selbin, 2015, p. 31). Though they are more likely to be arrested for order maintenance and property offenses (i.e., misdemeanors) than for felonies, homeless arrestees have been incarcerated for low-level, nonviolent crimes (Fitzpatrick & Myrstol, 2011, p. 283).

Concerns about general public health, crime and safety, the economic impact of homelessness on business interests, and aesthetic and general quality-of-life concerns have largely driven these efforts (Foscarinis, Cunningham-Bowers, & Brown, 1999, pp. 155-156). Tourism remains among the primary motivators as local shop owners, chambers of commerce, tourism officials, and other business advocates have been frustrated by the presence of homeless individuals in their commercial districts perceiving their presence as a threat to their business interests (Culhane, 2010, p. 851). However, when these city ordinances are not coupled with a sufficient number of shelter beds and services, they effectively increase costs for the homeless and costs to public safety, are a misallocation of police resources, and ultimately fail to achieve the goal of removing the homeless from the streets (Saelinger, 2006, pp. 562-564).

These laws effectively control the poor living on the streets and are a way for municipalities to avoid confronting the root of the problem (Mitchell, 2012, pp. 469-470). Thus, they reinforce negative perceptions about the homeless and lead the public's to support more punitive policies. As a consequence, the homeless population have been further excluded and forced into increasingly deviant places where they are more susceptible to being victimized.

In the U.S., the current plight of the homeless ebbs and flows with the politics. Many municipalities are still treating homelessness as if it is a crime. Other cities fail to address the issue at all, leaving it to the community based organizations, charities, and corporate stewardship programs to address. Other government bodies promote treatment modeling for the homeless, blaming dependency issues. While other governments build more shelters that don't gain occupancy, and others build villages that cost an exorbitant amount of money per unit due to fiscal irresponsibility study (Dunton, et al, 2020). The current state of the homeless in the U.S. is truly all over the place. There is no unified plan for success, and so the homeless population continues to grow. The next four sections of this literature review delve into four major areas intertwined within the lives of the homeless populace. These sections include the relationships between the homeless and disorder, crime, victimization, and encampments.

The Homeless and Disorder

Disorder has been linked to high levels of fear (Taylor & Shumaker, 1990, p. 619; Markowitz et al., 2001, p. 293), low levels of informal social control, and collective efficacy (Foster-Fishman et al., 2007, p. 92; Wickes & Hipp, 2018, p. 3-5). Disorder, a component of social decay, has interested researchers and scholars since the early 1930s. Through sustained interest in this topic, our understanding of disorder and its varying perceptions has evolved. Published works build upon various perceptions of disorder's settings and other related topics. Researchers began examining how characteristics within a geographic area or neighborhood may contribute to increases in crime, violence, and other factors, while also undermining expectations of having physical and social control (

Marco et al., 2015, p. 81-82; Sampson et al., 1997, p. 922-923). There are clear connections between the wide net cast by disorder and the plight of the homeless population.

Dominant ideologies about homeless people create the framework in which they are characterized. Modern frameworks focus on their perceived degree of productivity, perceived degree of dangerousness, and assessment of personal culpability (Takahashi, 1996, p. 292). These ideologies of nonproductivity, being dangerous, and having placed themselves in their destitute situation connects the homeless with the varied definitions of disorder. These ideologies also focus on the ways the homeless are dependent on social services or the differing levels of government programming. These same ideologies associate homelessness with disorder, crime, and danger. The stereotypes about people that are homeless portray them as criminals, addicts, and irrational. Dominant ideologies about the homeless focus on "individual deficiencies" to portray them as a population that is undeserving of attention. These ideologies on their own are problematic. But when they are coupled with current intervention efforts they become more troublesome. The accepted deficiency view of the homeless facilitates clinically therapeutic solutions and displaces concerns with structural social inequalities actually leading to homelessness (Wright, 1997, p. 293). This treatment typology retains the values of the norm for society and stigmatizes the homeless population for falling outside of the norm.

As noted in the preceding sections, there is a relationship between the homeless and disorder. The relationship is often out of necessity, and stems from communal living in locations that are not the norm for habitation. In 2021, a study was completed

displaying the links between urban decay, homelessness, disorder and levels of crime in Fresno, California. Statistics from a United States Class I Railway Railway's homeless management project were used in the study to illustrate the growing homeless population in California, the growing number of homeless encampments on railroad right of ways, and its possible ties to trends in crime (Jones, Puchalsky, & Scott, 2021, p. 4).

Another key indicator of disorder is the mere presence of graffiti, which has been shown to more than double the number of people littering and stealing in those defaced public locations. This correlation leads to the conclusion that when norm-violating behavior becomes more common, it will negatively influence conformity to other norms and rules (Keizer, et al., 2008, p. 1684). A 2008 study garnered results suggesting that perceived social disorder and observed levels of physical disorder have a strong impact on fear of crime**,** which confirms the relationship between disorder and fear hypothesized by the Broken Windows literature and implies that police may be able to reduce fear of crime by reducing disorder (Hinkle & Weisburd, 2008, p. 503).

Local level governments do little to change funding levels for homeless shelters. The question to be answered here is why homeless shelters don't seem to work and why the homeless choose to sleep outside. Over the past 30 years, social science literature has made attempts to answer the question of why individuals experiencing homelessness continue to sleep unsheltered. The majority of these studies have utilized either qualitative interviews or investigative participation, with the consensus of their findings being unsafe shelter conditions. There is a prevailing understanding that the unsheltered homeless avoid shelters due to rampant rates of violence and theft as well as the presence

of an array of disorder. Interestingly, this phenomenon has been most often found in investigations of large shelters in New York City (Barrow et al., 1999, pp. 529-534; Marcus, 2003; Smith, 2019). These studies found that in the shelters under investigation lower level criminal offenses as well as theft, assault, and death were not uncommon occurrences (Marcus, 2003; Smith, 2019).

However, the frequency of criminal activity within shelters was dwarfed by the victimization and perpetration experienced when living unsheltered on the streets. Additional off-putting shelter factors included illness, drug use (Barrow et al., 1999, pp. 532-533), a lack of personal space, and degrading loss of identity (Donley and Wright, 2010, pp. 290-292; Pable, 2012, pp. 290-292; Stickel, 2017). This depersonalization is often compared to conditions seen in prison (Donley and Wright, 2012, p. 300; Marcus, 2003). The process of adapting to these dehumanizing shelter conditions is termed "shelterization," a concept mirroring "institutionalization," and has found mixed empirical support (Grunberg and Eagle, 1990, p. 523; Marcus, 2003, p. 134).

The Homeless and Crime

The majority of located research on homeless related crime and victimization has been focused on the individual level and through the use of homeless shelter based surveys (Ellsworth (2019, pp. 103). Previous literature has identified that homeless individuals are both at high risk of victimization as well as offending. Using data from the National Crime Victimization Survey, Lee and Schreck found that homeless people are victimized excessively especially when compared to people who live in a residential setting (Lee & Schreck, 2005, p. 1074).

Listwan, Hartman, and LaCourse (2018, p. 96) have further noted studies concentrated on the area of the homeless populace and the risk of offending are hard to locate. Jones, Puchalsky, and Scott's (2021, p. 4) study of urban decay, homelessness, disorder**,** and levels of crime in Fresno, California reveals the growing homeless population in California, the growing number of homeless encampments on railroad right of ways, and its possible ties to trends in crime. Berk & MacDonald (2010, p. 813-814) analyzed the Safer Cities Initiative, a widely publicized place-based policing intervention implemented in Los Angeles "Skid Row" that focused on crime and disorder associated with homeless encampments. They found social incivilities are common in areas with homeless encampments, which are often associated with public intoxication, drug use, prostitution, loitering, aggressive panhandling, and public urination (Berk & MacDonald, 2010, p. 815).

In a longitudinal study, Crawford, Whitbeck, and Hoyt (2009, p. 951) used event history analysis to assess factors associated with homeless adolescents' first act of violence during the course of a 3-year study, controlling for individual propensities and time-varying behaviors.

The authors concentrated on achieving an understanding of what factors contribute to violence on the streets. Noting that understanding is important for the well-being of runaway and homeless adolescents as well as their potential victims. In their longitudinal study of 300 homeless 16 to 19 year old runaways, Crawford, Whitbeck, & Hoyt (2009, p. 963) found that self-reported violent offenses committed among a sample of homeless

juveniles were more likely among homeless youth that participated in "risky lifestyle behaviors" like selling drugs or being in a gang.

From a congregational perspective, similar to a homeless encampment, the presence of a homeless shelter also appears to cause property crime to increase by 56% within 100 meters of that shelter. These crimes include thefts from vehicles, other thefts, and vandalism; driving the increase within 400 meters of a shelter and dissipating beyond 400 meters away from the shelter (Faraji, Ridgeway, & Wu, 2018, p. 136). This study and its results are a driving force for the use of a 500 meter perimeter around the GPS coordinates for each of the 12 homeless encampments on railroad property or right of ways making up the sample.

To carry this congregational perspective and its effects further, homeless encampments are also associated with a clustering of prospective crime perpetrators and victims, where homeless individuals themselves have significantly higher rates of criminal victimization than individuals who have a permanent place to live (Berk & MacDonald, 2010, p. 815). This ties back into the 2021 interview with a United States Class I Railway's homeless management project coordinator, in which he acknowledged railroad property homeless encampments to be locations where inhabitants are both perpetrators and victims, and camps are often a hiding place for a more highly organized level of criminal. Through the results of this study, it will be interesting to advance understanding of the relatively under-studied relations and social dynamics between law enforcement and the homeless. The data results should provide assessments of the

recognition that homeless contacts occur in every size of city and location, with differing interactional dynamics between the homeless and police (McNamara, et al, 2013, p. 358).

In this arena of research, crime should be understood as a separate concept from disorder. Otherwise, practical application would be less possible because the factors for cause and effect could be muted. Judging from the above research on disorder, therefore, it is obvious that crime as a variable in the disorder related literature must consist of serious enough offenses that "society almost uniformly condemns" and which are punishable by incarceration (Kelling & Coles, 1996, p. 15). Measuring crime is as important as measuring disorder, since they should be separate concepts. The measurement of change in crime rates therefore carry the same weight as the measurement of disorder within a homeless encampment setting.

The Homeless and Victimization

Over the past 20 years, the National Coalition for the Homeless (NCH) has documented 1,852 incidents of violence against people who were homeless with suspects of those offenses being non-homeless. At least 515 victims experiencing homelessness were ruled homicides (NCH, 2020, p.4). The homeless are frequent victims of nonfatal crimes as well, including burglary, petty larceny, motor vehicle theft, robbery, and physical assaults, and have been the target of offensive speech, threats, and insults (Wachholz, 2005). However, reports of victimization may be underreported. For instance, Novac, Hermer, Paradis, and Kellen (2009) found that only one in five homeless youth and adults reported being a victim of a crime including physical assaults, whereas only three in 10 of homeless women were found to report being assaulted to authorities

(Wesely, Mustaine, Wright, and Jasinski, 2010, p. 117). Many factors could play a role in underreporting. Examples include the harassment and brutality homeless individuals have experienced, their state of living in fear, their possible negative interactions with law enforcement or municipal code enforcement, or mental illness and other factors contributing to or as a consequence of being homeless (Simpson, 2015).

As noted in the prior section, Berk and MacDonald (2010, p. 815) illustrate that homeless encampments are associated with a clustering of prospective crime perpetrators and victims, and homeless individuals themselves have significantly higher rates of criminal victimization than individuals who have a place to live. The high victimization rates for homeless individuals imply that police concentrated efforts can have some direct benefits for the people living on the streets, as well as local shopkeepers, their customers, and residents in dwellings nearby. These interventions, however, do not solve the problem of homelessness, and can only address one of its possible manifestations (Berk and MacDonald, 2010, p. 836). This same type of result can be confirmed by this study if the results match the work of Berk and MacDonald.

Similar to Berk and McDonald, Lee and Schreck found that homeless people are victimized excessively especially when compared to people who live in a residential setting by using data from the National Crime Victimization Survey (Lee & Schreck, 2005, p. 1074). In order to differentiate homeless victims from nonvictims, Lee and Schreck employed multivariate logistic regression. This statistical technique allowed for estimation of the role that demographic attributes, disaffiliation, health problems,

traumatic events, and lifestyle play in determining the likelihood of victimization for the homeless (Schreck & Lee, 2005, p. 1068).

Another example from Lee and Schreck (2005, p. 1065) found that different "risky lifestyle behaviors" (i.e. spending the night outdoors, in an abandoned building, or in some other place not designed for sleeping; begging or panhandling; obtain money through illegal means; or engaging in survival eating (procuring food from trash cans), increases the risk of violent and property victimization factors in a cross-sectional survey. The authors also noted that due to these same lifestyle behaviors and their marginalization the homeless are just as likely to offend as they are to be victimized (Lee & Schreck, 2005, p. 1076).

Diette and Ribar (2018, p. 1618) examine victimization in a longitudinal panel design and find that housing insecurity, meaning permanent or intermittent homelessness, increases future risk of violence, regardless of prior levels of risk. Using national longitudinal data from the Australian Journeys Home survey, the authors examined how violence and housing insecurity in one period affect disadvantaged Australians' chances of experiencing violence and housing insecurity in subsequent periods. The Journeys Home survey interviewed 1,682 Australians who were initially homeless or at high risk of homelessness, asking about their housing, economic, health, and other circumstances, including their experiences with violence, through six semiannual survey waves from 2011 until 2014 (Diette & Ribar, 2018, p. 1603). Diette and Ribar (2018, p. 1605) noted violent homeless victimization consists of a theft being accompanied by a secondary offense of beating. Lee and Schreck's (2005, p. 1076) finding concur regarding homeless

victimization offenses occurring in pairs usually involving two differing forms of theft as well as some form of assault.

A contributor to victimization is collective efficacy. Academically, Sampson, Raudenbush, and Earls (1997) defined collective efficacy as "the linkage of cohesion and mutual trust with shared expectations for intervening in support of neighborhood social control" (p. 919). Collective efficacy is further defined as a combination of social cohesion and shared informal social control within the neighborhood environment. In more practical terms, collective efficacy is a neighborhood process affiliated with traditional social disorganization theory that confirms that the willingness of residents to intervene in neighborhood problems is a mediating factor between structural disorganization and neighborhood violent crime rates. In the U.S. context, aspects of Broken Windows Theory, collective efficacy, and territoriality all affect the worries of residents about their neighborhood (Pitner, Yu, & Brown, 2012, p. 44).

To elaborate further, as suggested by Sampson (2004), the arrangement of physical space, neat or messy, and its effects on resident's barometer for crime and fear of crime can be classified into five general terms:

(a) considerable social inequality existing within neighborhoods,

(b) a number of social issues grouped together at the neighborhood level,

(c) concentration of poverty, racial composition, single-parent families, and rates of home ownership,

(d) ecological differentiation by factors such as social class, and

(e) ecological concentration of poverty (Petesch, 2013, p. 10).

Along with this block of studies there are other affiliated theories of victimization that could play a situationally dependent role in the solitary or encampment lifestyle of the homeless.

Victim Precipitation Theory frames victimization as precipitated by or provoked by the victim's own behaviors. This framing means victims may either intentionally or inadvertently influence a perpetrator to victimize them (Wilcox, 2010). Precipitation or provocation of victimization arrives in two formats. Active precipitation means that the victim deliberately tries to provoke an attack. In contrast, passive precipitation means the victim unconsciously displays behaviors or characteristics that may prompt the victimization. For the homeless, there may be circumstances where they actively engage in verbal or physical altercations with others who, in turn, victimize them. In fact, an association between substance use, violence, and victimization amongst homeless youth has been found and homeless youth may use violence to resolve disputes only later to be similarly victimized by their peers (Baron, Forde, & Kennedy, 2007, p. 416; Heerde & Hemphill, 2014, p. 276). The implication here is that some victimization may be actively precipitated by the homeless themselves. However, it is important to note that based upon crime data reported by National Coalition for the Homeless (NCH) (2014, p. 5), no perpetrators of the violent crimes against the homeless state they were acting in self-defense. Implied is the likelihood that the victimization of the homeless described in the report was passively precipitated by the victim's unconscious behaviors or characteristics rather than as a result of their active engagement with their victimizers.

Under Lifestyle Theory, individuals may be victimized as a result of their lifestyle, which may expose them to situations where victimization may be more likely (Wilcox, 2010). This may include their length of time in public spaces, particularly at night, isolation from support networks, or heightened exposure to potential offenders. Lee and Schreck (2005, p 1065, p. 1076) hypothesized that homeless individuals' vulnerability to victimization is increased by their lifestyle, which is often a result of desperate choices. They may engage in activities born out of a need to survive such as panhandling, sleeping outside, prostitution, food scavenging, drug and alcohol use and distribution, which may in turn contribute to the likelihood of their victimization.

Deviant Place Theory, which is similar to lifestyle theory, posits that exposure to dangerous places makes an individual more likely to become the victim of a crime (Gaetz, 2009, p. 291). Unlike victim precipitation theory, victims do not actively or passively instigate crimes against them; rather, they are victimized because they are in an environment that increases their exposure to risks. Different from lifestyle theory, which suggests that victims choose the lifestyle that contributes to their vulnerability, victims may inadvertently find themselves in an unsafe environment with little to no opportunity to move to a different place to protect themselves. This is likely to be the case for homeless people who frequently find themselves in unsafe places where they are exposed (Gaetz, 2009, p. 284). This can include living in unsafe, abandoned buildings, areas of cities where there are higher crime rates, and less fortified structures such as tents and cars.

Social Exclusion Theory is connected to the restricted access to the social, economic, political, and cultural systems of a community may inhibit individuals' ability to integrate into their community (Gaetz, 2009, p. 285). As a result, the homeless may become disconnected from the very resources that would otherwise protect them from victimization. In the case of the homeless, having limited access to adequate housing, employment opportunities, social support and a healthy lifestyle renders them more vulnerable. Social exclusion could be a factor long before an individual becomes homeless but may be intensified when they are no longer housed. Due to their compromised safety, health, and opportunity, it is difficult for them to escape social exclusion. Whether precipitated by the victim, their location, their lifestyle, or as a consequence of social exclusion, people who are homeless are disproportionately victimized. Further, although coverage of homelessness has steadily increased over time, both newspapers and the professional literature have increasingly focused on individual rather than structural factors associated with the causes and effects of homelessness (Buck, Toro, & Ramos, 2004, p. 165). As a result, the public holds disparate views regarding the nature, causes, and consequences of homelessness (Agans et al., 2011; Buck et al., 2004, p. 165).

It is unknown as to whether or not homeless encampments carry the qualities attributed to a normal neighborhood by collective efficacy. It is also unknown how residents of a neighborhood bordering a homeless encampment would invest or care for the encampment residents with the same level of civility as they would a brick and mortar member of their own neighborhood.

Encampments and Crime

While there's no official definition of "homeless encampment," most cities define it as a place where multiple people stay for a continuous time with built structures and personal belongings. Encampments vary in size, from a small group of people several hundred, and their residents have a diverse range of ages, races, and genders. Most, however, are men with multiple barriers to housing. Encampments have negative implications for the health and safety of the people living in them and for neighboring businesses and residences (United States Interagency Council on Homelessness, 2021). Encampments, as the studies to follow illustrate, seem to be a location of criminality and victimization.

Price's 2016 (p. 218) study shows that overall crime increases with a neighborhood's level of vacant housing, housing stock age, and housing occupancy turnover. These parameter estimates indicate that consistent with the Broken Windows hypothesis, total neighborhood crime increases associated with changes in housing stock quality**,** resulting in neighborhood degradation. This degradation equivalent within a homeless encampment coincides with a lack of proper housing for the residents in total, the transient nature of camp inhabitants, and blighty conditions within a camp as a driver of dilapidation. Routine activities theory argues that some places are better suited for criminal opportunities than others. These places contain attractive targets, and have few or no guardians, thus they are at more risk for criminal activity (Cohen & Felson, 1979, p. 589). As noted, Broken Windows Theory argues that visible signs of disorder, such as graffiti, vandalism, and public drunkenness, promote more crime (Wilson & Kelling

1982). This idea evolved into a policing strategy which hypothesized that if police penalize "minor" crimes they can prevent major crimes from happening altogether. The environmental crime perspective argues that land use and physical features can affect crime levels depending on how we use and think about certain spaces and places, and whether a place might allow for the presence of a capable guardian (Brantingham & Brantingham 1993, p. 21). Crime pattern theory, which was heavily influenced by Newman's (1972) Defensible Space, also focuses on the physical features of neighborhoods (Brantingham & Brantingham 1995, p. 5). Physical spaces influence the type, timing, and opportunity for crime. The influence of the "place," meaning in this case an encampment community, and its cluster of residents can be negative, as community stakeholders in Chicago, Houston, and San Jose cited high levels of the use and sales of illicit drugs in these types of encampments.

Price's (2016, p. 218) study included an outreach worker conducted survey which noted the association of other crimes along with the use and sales of illicit drugs, and an almost universal substance use (93 percent) among camp inhabitants (Dunton, et al., 2020, p. 6). Associated criminal offenses leading to a Broken Windows effect also include vandalism and graffiti. On railroad owned properties and right of ways**,** vandalism and graffiti is a constant issue that was tackled by a 2012 paper using a case-study approach to overview the major technical, social, and non-technical deterrents to vandalism and graffiti (Thompson, et al., 2012, p. 1281).

Based on the theories discussed above and the locations of homeless encampments and their many times dense populace the possibility of criminal offenders

and victims intersecting could be high. There seems to be connections between these issues, Broken Window Theory, and the power "place" has in this relationship. Over the last 50 years the power of "place" has been studied within criminological research at all units of analysis, from street segments to national levels. This includes understanding how physical structures of space/place and human behavior are reciprocally related (Boessen & Hipp, 2015, p. 399), and are important and constantly evolving concepts. Much of the literature on this topic can be put into one of several categories, which are systematically reviewed in the following paragraphs.

Brantingham and Brantingham (1993, p. 3) developed some earlier foundational empirical studies on relationships between crime and the physical environment. They assert that some places, meaning physical locations, provide better opportunities for crime than others, and that offenders find opportunities through movement. The authors discuss land-use as an important factor associated with crime and note a land's use can have social disorganization indicators which assist in determining criminal activity (Brantingham & Brantingham, 1995, p. 14).

In 2015, Boessen and Hipp (p. 407) analyzed five indicators compiled from common land-uses across cities. These included residential, commercial, industrial, and office space. The authors used data from seven cities from around the year 2000 to test research questions using multilevel negative binomial regression models (N = 73,010 blocks and 8,231 block groups). Boessen and Hipp (2015, p. 421) found that land use was a strong predictor for crime locations. Boessen and Hipp (2015, pp. 400-401) also found that land's use type was a more significant predictor of crime than disorder indicators.

In a study examining thirty different land use categories, Stucky and Ottensmann (2009, p. 1223) specifically test whether the relationship between land use and violent crime is conditioned by socioeconomic disadvantage. The authors employed geocoded Uniform Crime Report (UCR) data from the Indianapolis Police Department and information on 30 categories of land use and demographic information from the 2000 U.S. Census. They used land use variables to predict violent crime counts in 1,000 x 1,000-feet grid cells using negative binomial regression models. They found that land use is independently related to violent crime. Commercial and high-density residential land uses were related to more violent crime. Cemeteries, water, and industrial land use were related to less violence. In addition, the authors found that the relationship between crime and several residential and nonresidential land uses were dependent on socioeconomic disadvantage, and vice versa (Stucky & Ottensmann (2009, pp. 1249-1252).

In another study examining social disadvantage, land use, and reporting of violent crimes to police, Lockwood (2007, pp. 206-208) found that land use and social disadvantage, in Savannah, Georgia, were associated with violent crime, independently of each other. Data was used from the U.S. Census and the county planning commission's geographical information office. The research design called for the geocoding of 26,467 violent reported crimes, which were aggregated by census block group. Variables in the analysis of these spatial units included frequency and characteristics of reported violent crimes, rates of violent crime, indicators of social disadvantage, housing types, housing values, and land use. Analysis employed multiple regression, with simple assault, aggravated assault, homicide, and robbery as the dependent variables. Variables helpful

in the prediction of violent crime rates were also placed as map layers on data maps. The study found violent crime rates were higher in mixed land use areas; these were also the areas in which social disadvantage was more extensive. We know that disadvantage is linked to crime, and these studies among others shed light on how land use can play an independent role.

Within this same arena, Wo (2019, p. 181) examined both effects of mixed land use on neighborhood crime in Los Angeles. The author used data on Los Angeles block groups, a Herfindahl index was constructed of eight specific land uses to capture mixed land use, and a series of negative binomial regression models were estimated to assess the main and moderating effects of mixed land use on neighborhood crime. Findings in the longitudinal study indicated that mixed land use was associated with higher robbery and burglary rates four years later, but that concentrated socioeconomic disadvantage moderated the effect of mixed land use on all crime. It was in more socioeconomically advantaged neighborhoods that mixed land use was related to higher crime levels, not in disadvantaged neighborhoods.

De Nadai et al., (2020, p. 7) compared the association between crime, land use, and mobility, across the four cities of Bogota, Boston, Chicago, and Los Angeles. The authors used a Bayesian model to explore how violent and property crimes are related not only to socio-economic factors but also to the built environment (e.g., land use) and mobility characteristics of neighborhoods. They found an explanation for the emergence of crime appears when socioeconomic conditions, mobility, and physical characteristics can be linked together, rather than appraised separately.

In studies focusing on land use diversity instead of mixed land use, one study found that increases in land use diversity were related to increases in aggravated assault and larceny, in Miami-Dade County (Cowen, Louderback, & Roy 2018, p. 264). The authors used a combination of OLS regression models, harmonic analysis of diurnal patterns, and geospatial statistical techniques to examine the spatial patterning of larceny and aggravated assault in 782 Census blocks in Miami-Dade County, Florida with long-term data from 2007 to 2015. Results from this study suggest that neighborhoods with higher levels of walkability had higher levels of aggravated assault. Examining both violent and property crime, another study analyzed the relationship between crime and the distribution of land uses in British Columbia. The authors found that types of human activity tend to cluster in certain land uses, thus different land use types can act as crime generators or attractors (Kinney et al., 2008, p. 63).

Frazier, Bagchi-Sen, and Knight (2013, p. 55) focused on land use change in terms of demolition policy. Authors performed cluster analysis performed to identify high and low hot spots of demolition and crime activity, specifically assault, drug arrests, and prostitution, over a 5-year period. They found that spatial patterns of crime change in relation to areas experiencing significant demolition. Crime showed a movement toward the edges of the city, in the direction of the suburbs. The authors note there must be an understanding of the effect that demolition has on socioeconomic disadvantage and its tight link to crime (Frazier, Bagchi-Sen, & Knight, 2013, p. 63).

In an examination of smaller units of analysis, O & Lee (2016, p. 208) analyzed the relationship between land use and crime within 500 sq. foot grid cells. Using 2013 crime data

geocoded on the 500-ft square grid cells overlaid on Pittsburgh, results from multivariate regression models showed that retail stores, schools, and bus stops were associated with higher crime within their grid cells (O & Lee, 2016, pp. 222-223).

A case study of Szczecin, Poland, a city with 405,0000 residents, also showed the importance of proximate areas around particular land uses (Sypion-Dutkowska & Leitner, 2017, p. 1). The authors' main research methods used were the GIS tool "multiple ring buffer" and the "crime location quotient (LQC)." Results from this study showed the effect that land use had on crime was limited to a 50-meter radius. Alcohol outlets, clubs/discos, cultural facilities, municipal housing, and commercial buildings were the strongest predictors of commercial crimes and property theft. Grandstands, cemeteries, green areas, gardens, depots, and transport bases were the strongest predictors of decreases in crime levels (Sypion-Dutkowska & Leitner, 2017, p. 20).

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

To examine the relationship between the homeless, encampments, and crime, the dissertation research draws from several data sources and generates measures related homeless encampments and crime. While the body of literature on the theories covering the homeless and crime is broad; there is little work linking or applying those theories to crime and homeless encampments. The following sections contain a comprehensive list of the data sources and study variables. This is followed by details in separate analytic sections, which describe empirical data testing results, and the results of a subject matter expert survey paralleling topics covered within this dissertation.

Research Questions and Hypothesis Acceptance

This dissertation attempts to answer two broad research questions, and 7 research hypotheses. Conclusions regarding the two research questions will be discussed in Chapter 5: Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations. Data analysis that supports acceptance or refusal of the hypotheses will be presented throughout this chapter.

There is a need for research involving the homeless population including their heightened probability of victimization and well as their propensity to engage in crime. A relationship exists in the criminology research arena between appearance and esthetics levels in areas as visual cues and criminality. Through the decades, variations in crime rates across differing settings have resulted in research about setting appearance and changes in frequency of crime that occurs there. Homeless encampments contain a high level of disorder. The purpose of this study is to provide a connection between the

presence of homeless encampments to frequency changes in area crime rates. How this applies in the context of a homeland security will be explored as follows:

R_1: To what extent does the presence of a homeless encampment on railroad property impact crime rates there and within a 500 meter perimeter?

H_1 : Crime rates in the 500-meter areas surrounding homeless encampments are expected to be consistent with area numbers in the 6 month period prior to the establishment of homeless encampments making up the 12 site Study.

H_2 : Crime rates in the 500-meter areas surrounding homeless encampments are expected to increase following the establishment of homeless encampments in the 12 homeless encampment sites.

H_3: Crime rates in the 500-meter areas surrounding homeless encampments are expected to be consistent with area numbers in the 6 month period following the removal of the homeless encampments making up the 12 site Study.

R_2 : What is the input of subject matter experts from the completion of a study focused survey?

H_1 : Participant subject matter experts will agree that the presence of homeless encampments cause crime rates to rise within a 500 meter perimeter of the encampment.

H_2 : Participant subject matter experts will agree with there is a relationship between homeless encampments and the occurrences of crime due to disorder conditions.

Research Methodology

In order to resolve the research questions, a mixed quantitative and qualitative research methodology was used. Pyrczak and Tcherni-Buzzeo (2019, pp. 140-141) identify five advantages of mixed methods research as 1) value added to quantitative data by qualitative information to illustrate the data, 2) increased ability to answer a wide range of questions by not being bound to a single mode, 3) enhanced specificity and generalizability of results, 4) the possibility of heightened validity and reliability, and 5) providing broader knowledge to present a more complete picture of the research. Leedy and Ormrod (2019) identify six reasons that researchers utilize mixed method designs: 1) completeness, 2) complementary, 3) hypothesis generation and testing, 4) development of appropriate research tools and strategies, 5) resolution of puzzling findings, and 6) triangulation (pp. 206-261).

Operationalizing and Conceptualizing Research

Revisiting the overarching research question from which the research questions are posed by this study, "Do homeless encampments on railroad property change the level of crime?" it is again necessary to distinguish key terms within. Control variables involved in the study include: 1) Poverty Rates, 2) Unemployment Rates, 3) Renter Rates, and 4) Single Parent Household rate within each unit of analysis of the 12 encampment Study. These census data categories will be illustrated for each encampment making up the Study. These socio-economic characteristics of cities affect homelessness situations. Due to the timeframes of the encampments it will be investigated as to whether or not the COVID 19 pandemic impacted homeless populations through government mandates.

Conceptualization is the process of specifying what we mean by a term in order to get to a testable hypothesis involving specific variables (Bachman & Schutt, 2020). In order to display possible connections of crime and homeless encampments this researcher anticipates using each encampment making up the 12 encampment Study to complete a mini-longitudinal study. This study will encompass using the National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS) report data for the city the camp is located in. Data with be gathered for each of the selected NIBRS crimes for 6 months prior to the camps documented existence. The same categorical data will also be gathered for the months during the encampment's existence, and for a 6 month span after the encampment's removal by a United States Class I Railway's homeless management project. The pre-, during, and post encampment data sets will consist of categorical criminal acts within a

500 meter perimeter for the GPS coordinates of the camp. As a control group set data outside of the 500 meter perimeter will also be collected at the local reporting level within the same span of time. This allows for each NIBRS selected offense to be compared. This will be completed by comparing the Paired-Samples t-Test results for each NIBRS selected crime for the pre-encampment period, the during-encampment phase, and post-encampments phase time spans. As a control a separate 500 meter perimeter will be selected within the same city and the same periods of time, and same offenses will be tabulated using Paired-Samples t-Tests. This will allow the control group results to be compared with those same pre-encampment, existing encampment, and post-encampment NIBRS crime specific data sets for each Study encampment.

Operationalization is the process of specifying the operations that will indicate the variable for each case (Bachman & Schutt, 2020). The following is an example of the operationalization of the process for the chosen NIBRS Group A and Group B offenses. Using the applicable law enforcement agency's monthly offense reporting data, via NIBRS, three sets of data will be comprised for each Group A and Group B chosen offense representing pre- (6months), during the camp's existence, and post-encampment (6months)-timeframes in which the offense occurred within 500 meters of the GPS coordinates for the encampment Study member. The same time span data sets will be achieved for a 500 meter perimeter area within the same reporting area for each offense outside of the 500 meter perimeter, or bubble, of the encampment Study member. Measures for central tendency (mean, median and mode) and frequency will be used in analyzing each data set collected. Analysis using Paired-Samples t-Tests for each dataset

relating to the NIBRS Group A and Group B chosen offenses and each encampment location's reporting agency will be completed. Therefore, comprising a mini-longitudinal study for each homeless encampment member of the Study.

To provide a clearer picture of these comparisons for the 500-meter-buffers around the 12 homeless camps and each Study members 500-meter Comparison group:

(1) Paired-Samples t-Tests completed to compare pre- and during-encampment results per Study member per NIBRS, Study member totals, Group A, and Group B offense groups.

(2) Paired-Samples t-Test completed to compare during- and post-encampment per Study member per NIBRS, Study member totals, Group A, and Group B offense groups.

(3) Paired-Samples t-Test completed to compare pre- and post-encampment per Study member per NIBRS, Study member totals, Group A, and Group B offense groups.

Comparison group (500 meter circumference area from same reporting entity, but separate from the Study):

(1) Paired-Samples t-Test completed to compare pre- and during-encampment timeframe results for Comparison per member per NIBRS, Study member totals, Group A, and Group B offense groups.

(2) Paired-Samples t-Test completed to compare during- and post-encampment timeframe results for Comparison per member per NIBRS, Study member totals, Group A, and Group B offense groups.

(3) Paired-Samples t-Test completed to compare pre- and post-encampment timeframe results for Comparison per Study member per member per NIBRS, Study member totals, Group A, and Group B offense groups.

In short a positive difference between the homeless encampment's existence and its pre- and post-encampment timeframes as well as its Comparison will stipulate a crime rate increase for that offense in that Study location. As stated this process will be completed for NIBRS offenses in total, Group A offenses and Group B offenses at each Study member encampment location and for each Comparison location.

To further these comparisons for the 500-meter-buffers around the 12 homeless camps and each Study members 500-meter Comparison group at each offense level:

(1) Paired-Samples t-Tests completed to compare pre- and during-encampment results per Study member per NIBRS single Group A and Group B offense.

(2) Paired-Samples t-Test completed to compare during- and post-encampment per Study member per NIBRS single Group A and Group B offense.

(3) Paired-Samples t-Test completed to compare pre- and post-encampment per Study member per NIBRS single Group A and Group B offense.

Comparison group (500 meter circumference area from same reporting entity, but separate from the Study):

(1) Paired-Samples t-Test completed to compare pre- and during-encampment timeframe results for Comparison per member per NIBRS single Group A and Group B offense.

(2) Paired-Samples t-Test completed to compare during- and post-encampment timeframe results for Comparison per member per NIBRS single Group A and Group B offense.

(3) Paired-Samples t-Test completed to compare pre- and post-encampment timeframe results for Comparison per Study member per member per NIBRS single Group A and Group B offense.

Data Collection

Primary data was collected from a 12 member Study of homeless encampments that lasted a minimum of 150 days from discovery to removal. This data was compared using statistical analysis with NIBRS Group A and Group B data. NIBRS Group A and Group B data analysis categories for each encampment member of the Study include the Group A offenses of:

Arson; Assault Offenses (Aggravated Assault, Simple Assault, & Intimidation); Burglary/Breaking and Entering; Destruction/Damage/Vandalism of Property; Drug/Narcotic Offenses; Human Trafficking (Commercial Sex Acts & Involuntary Servitude); Kidnaping/Abduction; Larceny/Theft Offenses (Pocket-picking, Purse-snatching, Shoplifting, Theft from Building, Theft from Coin-Operated Machine or Device, Theft from Motor Vehicle

Theft of Motor Vehicle Parts or Accessories, All Other Larceny); Motor Vehicle Theft; Prostitution Offenses (Prostitution, Assisting or Promoting Prostitution); Robbery; Sex Offenses, Forcible (Forcible Rape, Forcible Sodomy, Sexual Assault With An Object, Forcible Fondling);

Sex Offenses, Nonforcible (Statutory Rape); Stolen Property Offenses (Receiving, etc.); Weapon Law Violations. NIBRS data analysis categories for each encampment member of the Study include the Group B offenses of: Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy Violations; Disorderly Conduct; Drunkenness; Liquor Law Violations; Trespass of Real Property; and All Other Offenses.

In order to obtain a baseline Paired-Samples t-Tests will be completed for the 6 months prior to the encampment's existence for each member of the Study. The same test is completed for the months each Study member encampment existed, and for 6 months after the encampment's removal. Operationalizing in this manner provides a mini-longitudinal study for each city's crime rate over an acceptable period of time prior to and after the encampment's existence. This analysis will determine whether a change in crime rate exists during the existence of each encampment as compared to before and after the camp's existence for each location within the Study. A Comparison data set for statistical comparison will be discussed further in the next section. Use of an online survey platform substantiating the qualitative portion of this dual methods study will also be introduced.

Data Collection Methods and Instrument

Data

Data collection involves utilizing offense based crime statistics through the National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS) system in conjunction with documented homeless encampments. The primary focus of this study is to garner results that either prove or disprove elevated crime rates at homeless encampments on railroad property and document the effect that the presence of homeless encampments has on crime rates within a specified radius. Secondary data collection includes feedback from a constructed survey completed by subject matter experts from multiple professional areas that all operate in various forms with the homeless community. Through a wider scope, the results may prompt further attention to the growing homeless encampment issues on a nationwide basis. To garner such attention, it is important to substantiate the Study of homeless encampments for this study and how that Study will be applied within data analysis.

In order to obtain data for railroad homeless encampments, a Study has been formed from the extensive dataset available from a United States Class I Railway's homeless management project . The included United States Class I Railway is one of the largest Class I freight railroads in the United States. They operate in over half the states of the U.S. and in multiple Canadian provinces. A homeless management project was established by a United States Class I Railway in 2017. The purpose of this ongoing program is to ensure safe and continuous operations for the railway through areas in which homeless encampments are located by railway police on railway properties or right

of ways. The safest manner for the railroad to operate mandates that there are no obstructions to the train tracks or railroad right of way. This quest to keep trains moving and the track right of ways safe requires railway police officers to constantly patrol the track right of ways, keeping trespassers away for their own safety and for the good of the railroad. This objective of safety and operational continuity also involves removing encampments from the track right of way and other railroad properties when they are discovered.

Homeless encampments that are identified by railway police are found through police patrol, public complaints or calls, and reports made by passing train crews or other railroad operations personnel. Subsequent to a camp being located and confirmed to be on railroad property, there is a legal notification and removal process that occurs. Part of documenting the encampment is report completion that includes photographs of the camp to display its size, depth, and impact. This assists the railway and its contracted entities in proper cleanup assessments. In order to accomplish the removal of these camps, police go through a notification process with the camp's inhabitants to inform them that the camp is on private railroad property. The railway police then proceed to provide referrals to inhabitants for local support resources (Jones, Puchalsky, and Scott, 2021, p. 9). Homeless management project leaders have provided access to program records to date, which includes 2,394 homeless encampments located on railway property across the entire railway network between 2017 and 2021. The homeless management project data Study utilized in this project contains a subset of 12 specific homeless encampments with a minimum existence period of 150 days. Crime data preceding the camps' existence by 6

months**,** and data from after the camp's removal by 6 months, will also be statistically analyzed to garner the overall effect of the camp's existence on crime in that area.

Study

United States Class I Railway homeless management project data is made up of the field observations of railway special agents (police), as well as logs of each encampment site. Police observe, identify, and confront trespassers on railroad properties and right of way. More importantly, railroad right of ways are part of the railroad's private property, which often extend up to 50 feet from each side of the actual tracks themselves. Railroad property can also consist of other infrastructure elements like railroad yards (intermodal, automotive, general freight), bridges, tunnels, shops, and stations. Homeless camps get reported through a variety of means to the railroad police or are found directly through police patrol practices. Homeless encampments that are reported by railway police observations are confirmed through railroad real estate to ensure railroad property lines, and again confirm their field observations. Agents complete written reports that include the GPS location for the transient camp on railroad property and take photographs to record the blight and need for cleanup. The GPS coordinates of each encampment location are highly important, as this allows the study to have the same location exactness as address-based sampling. Having GPS capabilities will allow the investigation to append with other data types in an exact manner (Dillman, et. al., 2014, p. 64 – 66). This also applies to providing insight and reasoning to the various and differing threats present. For insight to and contemplation of the existing threats, the categorical assignment, and related impact,

the author will consult Shadish, Cook, and Campbell's Experimental and Experimental Designs for Generalized Causal Inference (2002, p. 33-102).

The homeless management project has made program data available. This makes up the dataset from which the Study of 12 homeless encampments was taken. The Study of 12 encampments all had spans of existence of 150 days or more. The existence of homeless encampments on railroad property for a time span of 150 days or more is anticipated to be directly correlated with increased crime rates, multiple criminal theories, and social decay.

There are formal steps and processes in place through which railway police report homeless camps on railroad property or right of ways. Based on these procedures, confirmation methods, the railway's encampment removal processes, and the compiled data available, purposive sampling has been chosen for this study. In the purposive sampling, sometimes referred to as judgement sampling, Study elements are selected with purpose because of their unique position (Bachman & Schutt, 2020, p. 135-136). Based on the multiple locations nature of this sampling method, this case study includes geographic diversity in the Study, and enables the crime rates of locations with the longest standing encampments to be studied.

Survey

Secondarily, to investigate research questions and substantiate hypotheses of this study an online survey hosted by SurveyMonkey © will be distributed, collected, and analyzed. The survey is preceded by a participation consent and waiver which can be found in the Appendix of this paper. The survey is made up of a mixture of multiple

choice and Likert scale questions with fill in the blank options being afforded on some questions. The survey will take approximately 12 minutes to complete. Note: the participants are provided a one sentence background statement regarding this study. This is purposeful as to not tip the researcher's hand and corrupt the answers of the participants. The survey's compiled results are distributed throughout the results and conclusions chapters in order to show academic and practitioner agreements or differences regarding the study's findings.

Ethical Issues

This study is a quasi-experimental design. A quasi-experimental design is an experimental design in which assignment of participants to an experimental group, or to a Comparison group, cannot be made at random for either practical or ethical reasons; this is usually the case in field research. Assignment of participants to conditions is usually based on self-selection or selection by an administrator (American Psychological Association, 2022). This is exemplified by the Study of homeless encampments from those that lasted a minimum of 150 days in order to establish greater spans of time for statistical variance. This also applies to the analysis of the three encampment time spans versus the Comparison of the rest of that Study member National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS) reporting area. Such designs introduce a set of assumptions or threats to internal validity that must be acknowledged by the researcher when interpreting study findings. A study using this design is called a quasi-experiment. Examples include studies that investigate the responses of large groups to natural

disasters or widespread changes in social policy (American Psychological Association, 2022). As such, there is minimal risk of conducting any breeches of ethical conduct.

Measurement

Homeless Encampments

For the purposes of this study, being homeless is defined as an individual or family who lacks a fixed, regular, and adequate nighttime residence, meaning their primary nighttime residence is a public or private place not meant for human habitation (HUD, 2019, p. 1). Encampment refers to the location in which these homeless people make their residence, or in least their nighttime residence. Specific to this study, the encampments are all located on railroad property. Homeless encampments have been confirmed to be on railroad property by the railroad police, as well as by the railroad's real estate office. Homeless encampments duration measurement will be from the date the camp was located through police patrol; through the date the camp was removed through the homeless management project. This measurement, in both specific dates and total number of days, will allow for study of crime rates for that location prior to the camps discovery, during the camp's existence, and after the camp's removal.

Railroad Property

The layperson's definition of railroad property is anywhere a railroad company owns tracks or a facility. However, defining railroad property has many more components and specifics that are significant to this research question. Proper definition of railroad property, the right of the private property owner, and note the documented

steps taken for confirming the homeless encampments as actually being on railroad property and right of ways is crucial.

According to the Federal Railroad Administration, as part of the Department of Transportation, state legislation model policy for trespass prevention on railroad property means: all tangible property owned, leased, or operated by a railroad carrier, including a right-of-way, track, bridge, yard, shop, station, tunnel, viaduct, trestle, depot, warehouse, terminal, or any other structure, appurtenance, or equipment owned, leased, or used in the operation of any railroad carrier including a train, locomotive, engine, railroad car, work equipment, rolling stock, or safety device. Railroad property does not include a railroad carrier's administrative building or offices, office equipment, or intangible property such a computer software or other information. Railroad right-of-way means the track or roadbed owned, leased, or operated by a railroad carrier, which is located on either side of its tracks and is readily recognizable to a reasonable person as being railroad property, or is reasonably identified as such by fencing or appropriate signs. Yard refers to a system of parallel tracks, crossovers, and switches where railroad cars are switched and made up into trains, and where railroad cars, locomotives, and other rolling stock are kept when not in use or when awaiting repairs (FRA, n.d., p. 3).

Defining railroad property also carries with it the legal rights and protections of a private property owner for the railroad company. These legal and crime-establishing definitions are imperative in establishing railroad property as being separate from public property. Trespassing on railroad property is illegal (DOT, 2013, p. 1). Trespassing on railroad property is the leading cause of all rail-related deaths in the United States.

Annually, more fatalities and injuries occur due to trespassing on railroad property than motor vehicle collisions with trains at highway-rail grade crossings. Total annual trespass-related pedestrian fatalities have increased 18 percent from 725 in 2012, to 855 in 2017. In calendar year 2018, 324 pedestrian trespass fatalities had occurred by July 31, 2018 (DOT and FRA, 2018, p. 1). In most states, trespassing is codified as a property crime and a general offense. Railroads own their right-of-ways and have a reasonable expectation of operating on their property without the presence or interference of unauthorized people. Any unauthorized person who enters or remains on a railroad right-of-way, equipment, or facility is trespassing. Trespassing on private railroad property, including a railroad's right-of-way, is illegal. Pedestrians and motorists are permitted on railroad property only where an authorized crossing (either roadway or pedestrian) intersects with the railroad right-of-way at a grade crossing, provided that highway traffic control signals and other signage are obeyed.

For the purposes of this study, the homeless encampment locations are accepted as being on property owned by the railroad. This is private property, which gives the owners the ability to remove those trespassing on it. This requires a notification and legal removal process similar to an eviction. By utilizing this location and its typical makeup, the goal is to convey the property as associated with multiple criminal theories and social decay, when encampments are allowed to establish themselves.

Level of Crime

This study involves determining if the presence of homeless encampments is a driver for crime to occur. Criminal activity will be defined through National Incident-

Based Reporting System (NIBRS) Group A and group B offense types. The crime rate or level of crime can further be defined as the number of specific crimes (i.e., burglary, theft, etc.) that were committed during a specified timeframe in a particular location. In the study we will compare National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS) Group A and Group B offense data from 6 months prior to the camps discovery, during the camp's existence, and 6 months after the camp's removal. By including phases before, during, and after the camp's existence, the dataset results should be tied to criminal theories and social decay and disorder. As a control data in the same categories will be applied in the same manner for the public library located within the same municipality as the Study member encampment. The libraries use as a Comparison keeps many things in the study on equal footing in regard to city ordinances, homeless populace management, police tactics, and also acknowledges the use of public libraries by the homeless populace as a central hub for activity and resources. This will allow for many statistical comparisons between each city's Study and Comparison member.

Conducting experimentation that observes occurrences that make up the possibility of evolving criminal theories and social decay typically takes time. It is important to note that there are no prompts or starters of decay that could be an instigator. More specifically, in relation to this, the natural occurrences following the establishment of a homeless encampment on the railroad property will allow for a realistic quantitative analysis.

Collective Efficacy

Collective Efficacy is the social cohesion among neighbors**,** combined with their inclination to intercede on behalf of the common good. The effects of collective efficacy are linked to reduced violence. The correlation between concentrated disadvantage and neighborhood instability with violence is mediated through collective efficacy (Sampson et al., 1997, p. 918). Collective efficacy will be identified within each facet of this study as a counterpoint to Broken Windows Theory and disorder/decay as appropriate.

Broken Windows

As part of Environmental Criminology, the Broken Windows Theory, and eventually model of policing, was first described in 1982 in a seminal article by James Q. Wilson and George L. Kelling. Briefly, the model focused on the importance of disorder (e.g., broken windows, rubbish, and blight) in generating and sustaining more serious crime (CEBCP, 2021, p. 1). In a seminal article published in The Atlantic Monthly, George L. Kelling and James Q. Wilson (1982) first described Broken Windows Theory as a developing sequence of events in which unattended minor issues mount and produce harmful consequences for neighborhoods and settings. These unattended minor issues encompass physical conditions (e.g., abandoned structures/lots, graffiti, trash/rubbish/blight, and overgrown vegetation) and social nuisances (e.g., panhandling, loitering, and public drinking) that signify neighborhood and setting decline, causing fear in residents. The spread of crime is a major concern regarding the spread of unattended issues that are minor in nature. The minor issues, as described above, are collectively known as disorder or social decay. Disorder has been linked to high levels of fear (Taylor

& Shumaker, 1990, p. 619; Markowitz et al., 2001, p. 293), low levels of informal social control, and collective efficacy (Foster-Fishman et al., 2007, p. 92; Wickes & Hipp, 2018, p. 3-5).

Railroad Police

Though not a unit of measurement in this study, it is important to understand the roles and differences between a public agency police officer (i.e., city, village, county) and the railroad police officers most often referred to as special agents. As illustrated above, through the homeless management project information, railroad police are different than local law enforcement agencies. Railroad police in the United States are privatized. privatization means that police officers work for a railroad corporation while being state certified as police officers. This is true of all of the U.S. Class I railroads which include BNSF Railway, Union Pacific Railway, Norfolk Southern Railway, Kansas City Southern Railway, Canadian National Railway, Canadian Pacific Railway, and CSX Transportation. Amtrak, the national federally subsidized passenger railway, also has a police team. Amtrak trains provide passenger services while running their trains on all of the Class I railroad's tracks across the country.

Railroad policing differs in that the agents, police officers, patrol railroad owned properties and railroad track right of ways that are owned by their employer. This means the agents are more vested in the community policing aspects of the railroad owned properties and track right of ways due to these properties, their internal and external stakeholders and customers bases directly make up the community aspect they serve. The concepts of procedural justice are also held in higher regard due to the aspects of risks

and vulnerabilities of policing under corporate ownership. The level of service regarding community policing and procedural justice is higher and more security based due to this private ownership versus community policing at a municipal level in which every resident is a property owner. In plain language railroad policing involves a great deal of caretaking for expansive geographic territories owned and operated on by railroad corporations. This caretaking aspect involves a great deal of personal interaction with all forms of stakeholders and subcultures that are a danger to have near the railroad. One of these subcultures is the homeless. Homeless encampments near railroad tracks are dangerous to those that inhabit them.

Limitations of Research Design

The primary limitation to this research lies within the constitution of the purposive Study which was confined to homeless encampments on railway properties and right of ways with a duration of existence of 150 days or more. This limited the study to states within the U.S in which the United States Class I Railway and the homeless management project operates as well as limiting the completed sample to 12 encampments lasting 150 days or more.

Limitations exist regarding the roles of railroad police in being a caretaker and guardian of privately owned railroad properties. These roles require railroad police to act many times in a social worker capacity assisting the homeless populace encountered on railroad properties. Unfortunately, there is very little research regarding railroad policing and its diverse requirements. Thus, interactions and dispositions of criminal acts by the

homeless may be dealt with in a manner other than through the black and white of criminal law or local ordinances.

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The Why's: Descriptive Analysis

This project began with over 20 city based candidates for the Study/Comparison group with the qualifier of having a homeless encampment existing for greater than 150 days. The duration of 150 days or greater was selected in order to provide the greatest depth of analysis for disorder and social decay while also keeping the project at a manageable level. The National Incident-Based Reporting System (NIBRS) was selected for the categorization of criminal offense for this project. NIBRS is a nationwide format for reporting and tracking crime. Importantly NIBRS provides capabilities for major and minor criminal offense tracking, locations, times, and dispositions which its predecessor the Uniform Crime Report (UCR) did not. This is vital when examining a vulnerable populace like the homeless. Minor offense tracking also allows for insight into enforcement efforts, procedural justice, and fairness by law enforcement. Had UCR been used for this same project only serious crime classifications would have been examined and dispositional information for each incident would be lacking. With the lack of categorical information UCR would not provide true insight to the effects of encampments or the plight of their residents.

Upon involving all of the municipal police entities, whose jurisdiction covered a Study encampment, disparities were found in whether the agency reporting was NIBRS compliant. At this time it was found that as of June 2022, 7% of the population in California were covered by law enforcement agencies compliant with NIBRS reporting standards, while Colorado, Washington, and Oregon have 100% coverage, and Illinois

comes in at 62 % of their state population being covered (U.S. BJS, 2022). There were also differences in which statistics were tracked, maintained, and whether or not the agency had the ability to dispense them in a usable fashion. Another problem came from the spatial analysis portion of this study. A few agencies were unable to encapsulate a 500 meter perimeter around the homeless encampment location and Comparison location. In fact, one agency advised that a freedom of information request would need to be completed for each address within the 500 meter perimeter. The issues of NIBRS compliance, data collection, and statistics capabilities quickly dwindled the Study set of cities with encampments down to 12 members.

Of these members some agencies were able to quickly and easily supply their statistics based on the Study and Comparison member locations (GPS coordinates), while others supplied call detail sheets with dispositions. These data were able to be transitioned into NIBRS-based tables for each site. Some of this agency data was in plain language while a few of the agencies supplied coded detail sheets and dispositions. The codes were the state specific law violation section numerics which had to all be looked up to create a categorization tool. This greatly extended the data collection process as well as the cleaning process for the data. This also led to the recognition of some agencies using certain NIBRS categories, while others did not make use of them at all. It appears these differences may be related to statute use, laws that are in place versus not, or simple user preference in the use of the NIBRS reporting tool itself. These intricacies are noted during the descriptive analytics section for each Study and Comparison member.

Study Sites: Descriptive Analysis for Homeless Encampments

After the disqualification of agencies for not meeting NIBRS reporting or data tracking capabilities for this project we arrived at a Study size of 12 encampments. Of these members, 11 were able to comply with the NIBRS-based data requests. Member #1- Aurora, IL – provided detailed spatial offense information regarding calls for service for the Study and Comparison location but were unable to provide further data. This data set will be used within the study to examine call volume differences and other dynamics to serve the project.

Table 1

Summary of City Data

City, State	Population	Days	Removal Cost	Discovery	Removal	Lat. Long.
Aurora , IL	Large	173	14,076	11/14/2018	5/6/2019	41.75 -88.33
Bend, OR	Large	161	4,975	6/4/2019	11/12/2019	44.08-121.30
Cashmere, WA	Small	154	5,356	7/10/2019	12/11/2019	47.52-120.47
Martinez, CA	Medium	191	1,925	3/17/2020	9/24/2020	38.00-122.11
Placentia , CA	Medium	194	5,025	6/25/2020	1/5/2021	33.87-117.88
Pueblo, CO	Large	150	6,145	5/4/2021	10/1/2021	38.27-104.62
Santa Fe Springs, CA	Small	338	19,054	6/24/2020	5/28/2021	33.89-118.04
Santa Fe Springs, CA	Small	297	3,950	3/23/2020	1/14/2021	33.93-118.06
Santa Fe Springs, CA	Small	267	4,950	6/24/2020	3/18/2021	33.90-118.03
Santa Fe Springs, CA	Small	231	3,800	6/24/2020	2/10/2021	33.90-118.04
Seattle, WA	Large	347	26,457	2/4/2021	1/17/2022	47.57-122.34
Stockton, CA	Large	269	1,120	3/27/2020	12/21/2020	37.94-121.27

It is important to note the dispersal of homeless encampments in relation to city population within the Study set. Table 2 displays the makeup of the Study cities by population. Interestingly, out of the 12 encampments in the Study set four camps were located within the same city during different timeframes and with different locations. It

will be interesting, from a micro perspective, to note the findings and impacts a small city has when having multiple encampments over extended periods of time.

Table 2

City Population Size Categories

City Population Size	Cities in Study	Percent
Small: <29,999	2	22.22%
Medium: 30,000 to 99,999	2	22.22%
Large: >100,000	5	55.56%

Important in relation to the exploration of social decay and disorder, the length of existence for a homeless encampment is relevant to this study. If a homeless encampment is in existence for a brief period of time there may be no effects on the area or signs of disorder/decay. By choosing homeless encampments that endured for greater than 150 days there is ample opportunity to either prove or disprove the effects of disorder / decay on the level of crime. Below, the figure displays the total number of days the camp was in existence from the date they were discovered by railroad police to the date the camp was professionally removed by contracted specialists and remediators. Six, or one-half, of the Study encampments lasted for 150 to 200 days from discovery to clean up. Two of the camps lasted nearly one year falling between 301 and 350 days. The other four camp's days of existence fall in between 201 days and 300 days in length. The differentiation allows for exploration over various timeframes, from varying city sizes in population, and can even consider varying weather or times of year. It is important to take into consideration factors that affect a vulnerable populace like the homeless, which can include weather, available resources, outreach efforts, etc.

Table 3

Categories of Days Camps Existed

Days Camp Existed	Camps in Study	Percent
150-200	6	50.00%
201-250	1	8.33%
251-300	3	25.00%
301-350	2	16.67%
351-400	0	0.00%

In relation to the length of existence for a homeless encampment we can see a difference in the cleanup cost. While there are many factors that affect the cost of a camp cleanup from contractors that do the work (i.e., biohazards, waterways, biomedical waste) it is also the blight of trash and waste brought on by the homeless. Table 4 below displays the relationship between the length of a camp's existence and the cleanup cost. Note that the two longest existing camps (347 days and 338 days) had the highest cleanup costs ($26,457.00 and $19,054.00 respectively). On the face value of these metrics it can be concluded that the longer a homeless encampment exists the higher the cleanup cost is. That cleanup cost can also be directly tied to the amount of trash, waste, and decay brought into that area via the encampment inhabitants.

Table 4

Descriptive Analysis for Study Data: Population Size, Days Existed, and Removal Cost

City, State	Population	Days	Removal Cost
Aurora, IL	Large	173	$14,076.00
Bend, OR	Large	161	$4,975.00
Cashmere, WA	Small	154	$5,356.00
Martinez, CA	Medium	191	$1,925.00
Placentia , CA	Medium	194	$5,025.00

Pueblo, CO	Large	150	$6,145.00
Santa Fe Springs, CA	Small	338	$19,054.00
Santa Fe Springs, CA	Small	297	$3,950.00
Santa Fe Springs, CA	Small	267	$4,950.00
Santa Fe Springs, CA	Small	231	$3,800.00
Seattle, WA	Large	347	$26,457.00
Stockton, CA	Large	269	$1,120.00

Comparison Sites: Descriptive Analysis for Public Libraries

Table 5 reports the locations used for the matched pairs. The relevant cities and states, Comparison locations and addresses, latitudes, and longitudes are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Descriptive Analysis for Comparison Data: Location, Address, Latitude, and Longitude

City, State	Name	Address		
Latitude/Longitude				
Aurora , IL	Aurora Pub. Library	101 S. River Street, 60506	41.45	-88.19
Bend, OR	Cen. Oregon Reg. Library	520 NW Wall St, 97701	44.03	-121.19
Cashmere, WA	Peshastin Comm. Library	8396 Main Street, 98847	47.31	-120.28
Martinez, CA	Martinez Library	740 Court St, 94553	38.01	-122.08
Placentia , CA	Placentia Library	411 E Chapman Ave, 92870	33.52	-117.51
Pueblo, CO	Pueblo City-Co. Library	100 E Abriendo Ave, 81004	38.15	-104.37
Santa Fe Springs, CA	Santa Fe Springs Library	11700 Telegraph Rd, 90670	33.56	-118.05
Santa Fe Springs, CA	Santa Fe Springs Library	11700 Telegraph Rd, 90670	33.56	-118.05
Santa Fe Springs, CA	Santa Fe Springs Library	11700 Telegraph Rd, 90670	33.56	-118.05
Santa Fe Springs, CA	Santa Fe Springs Library	11700 Telegraph Rd, 90670	33.56	-118.05
Seattle, WA	Seattle Public Library	1000 4th Ave, 98104	47.36	-122.20
Vernon, CA	L.H. Washington Jr. Library	4504 S Central Ave, 90011	34.00	-118.15

A Comparison location was selected within the same city in which each Study homeless encampment was located. The public library in each city was chosen as the Comparison. Public libraries are on public property and are of unrestricted access to everyone. For this reason libraries and the property surrounding libraries often become a congregational area. Homelessness advocates say there is a nationwide trend of homeless

people relying on public libraries as a safe haven where they can stay warm, use public restrooms, and avoid contact with law enforcement. A 2022 study in New Zealand found that the role of public libraries is changing from information repositories to community hubs. This change may be a response to customer needs evolving from those traditionally addressed by libraries. Indeed, the participants in New Zealand study reported dual motivations for their library use. While they regularly accessed the library's conventional information services, there was also an overarching perception of the library as a safe, warm, and quiet place in which to relax and escape difficulties related to experiencing homelessness (Adams and Krtalić, 2022, p. 787). The public library serves as a good location as a Comparison for testing disorder, decay, and crime due to it being public property, it being a place in which homeless congregate, but also place in which disorder and decay is controlled through the routine maintenance of a public property.

Control Variables

Control variables involved in the study include: 1) Poverty Rates, 2) Unemployment Rates, 3) Renter Rates, and 4) Single Parent Household rate within each unit of analysis of the 12 encampment Study. These census data categories will be illustrated for each encampment making up the Study. These socio-economic characteristics of cities affect homelessness situations. Due to the timeframes of the encampments it will be investigated as to whether or not the COVID 19 pandemic impacted homeless populations through government mandates. Results in Tables 6 and 7 below frame no outliers or extremes amongst the final participants in the study.

Table 6

Control Variables Representatives for Each Study Control Member

# City, State	Poverty Rate	Unemployment Rate	Female HH Rate	Median HH Income
1 Aurora, Illinois	11.40%	23.60%	13.60%	$71,749.00
2 Bend, Oregon	10.30%	19.30%	10.10%	$65.662.00
3 Cashmere, Washington	10.30%	19.30%	6.90%	$60,994.00
4 Martinez, California	5.10%	18.70%	12.40%	$62,843.00
5 Placentia, California	8.10%	15.60%	12.10%	$95,757.00
6 Pueblo, Colorado	23.50%	38.70%	15.40%	$40,450.00
7-10 Santa Fe Springs, CA	12.40%	28.70%	12.40%	$69,021.00
11 Seattle, Washington	11.00%	32.60%	51.80%	$92,263.00
12 Stockton, California	17.90%	33.40%	28.10%	$76,231.00

Metrics sourced from 2015-2019: ACS 5-Year Estimates Report: S1701, S2501, and S1901 (U.S. Census, 2019).

Table 7

Control Variables Representatives for Each Study Comparison Member Specific to COVID 19 Pandemic

# City, State	COVID Specific Orders/Information Timeframe Specific
1 Aurora, Illinois	Pre-COVID 19
2 Bend, Oregon	No Restrictions Located
3 Cashmere, Washington	No Restrictions Located
4 Martinez, California	Homeless exempt from County orders
5 Placentia, California	No homeless populace instructions by County
6 Pueblo, Colorado	No homeless populace instructions by County
7-10 Santa Fe Springs, CA	No homeless populace instructions by County
11 Seattle, Washington	Homeless exempt from stay home order
12 Stockton, California	No homeless populace instructions by County

Metrics sourced from multiple news articles and government websites. The World Health organization declared COVID 19 a pandemic in March 2020.

Assistance Requests

In order to obtain assistance and call data from police agencies department records data custodians were contacted, provided the NIBRS parameters of the requests,

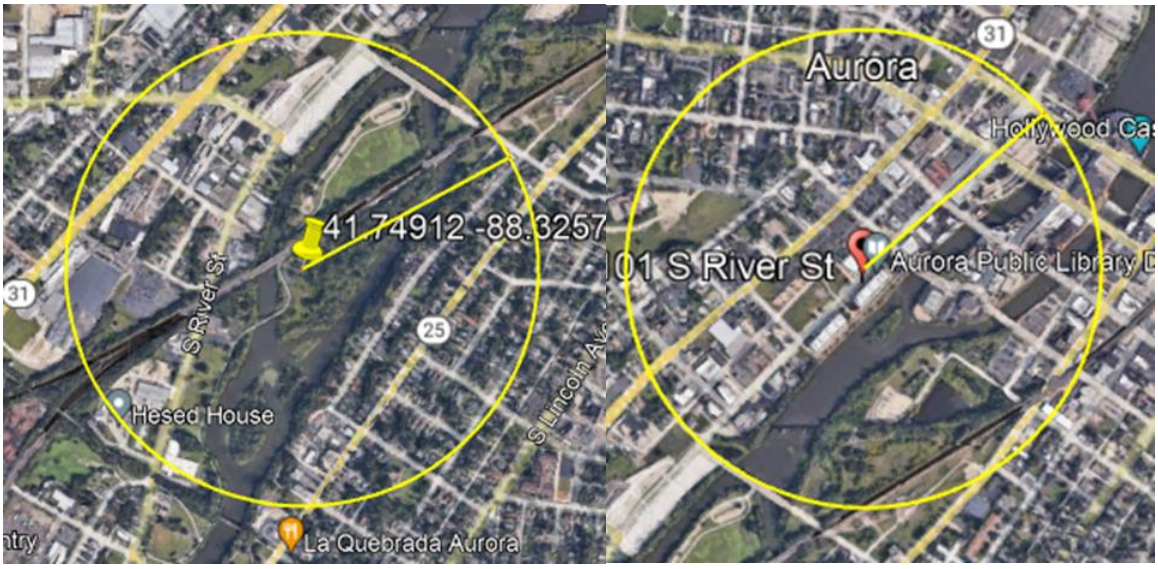
the date spans of the request for the encampment and Comparison, and importantly a Google Earth mapping image. The Ruler tool on Google Earth was utilized to measure a 500 meter perimeter around the GPS coordinate for each encampment and library Comparison. This imagery, included with each site within the paper, assisted the agencies to correlate their call data with the provided area to ensure the perimeter request for the project held true at 500 meters.

Study and Comparison #1 Aurora, IL

Aurora, Illinois is a large city in which the study's homeless encampment existed for 173 days. The cost of the encampment's cleanup was $14,076.00 Study and Comparison Set #1 from Aurora, Illinois provides an opportunity to lay out and further explain the process by which data was obtained from each city. The Aurora Police Department participated in the study and provided calls for service metrics for the Study homeless encampment identified by GPS coordinates and a 500 meter perimeter around that encampment as shown in the Google Earth image through the yellow GPS pin and yellow perimeter circle. The GPS coordinates correspond with a railroad subdivision and milepost which is similar to a street address. The yellow 500 meter perimeter circle surrounding the centered red street address GPS pin was obtained via the city's reported address for their library, a Google Earth search, and the GPS coordinates were obtained.

Figure 1

Study #1 – Aurora, Illinois and Comparison #1 - Aurora Public Library



The Google Earth mapping images above represent Study #1 – Aurora, Illinois homeless encampment on the left and Comparison #1 Aurora Public Library on the right. Please note the yellow thumbtack for the GPS coordinates of the homeless encampment location and yellow circle noting the 500 meter perimeter for the study. For the Comparison, the red pin is based on the Comparison member's street address. Note the same yellow circles forming the 500 meter perimeter for the study.

The total calls for police service for the Study and Comparison locations plus the 500 meter perimeters for each were organized into Tables 8 and 9. The first six months of the chart represents the pre-encampment timeframe and is unhighlighted on the chart. The center cells of the chart represent the timeframe in which the encampment existed (i.e., exist-phase). The total numbers in these cells will vary due to the duration of the homeless encampment existing at the Study member location. The six months reflected in the third column of the chart are the post homeless encampment timeframes of the study and are universal across this study (i.e., post-phase). In order to make the Study and Comparison set for each case study easily comparable these same formatting efforts hold true for all sets.

When comparing the charted call for service returns from both the police agencies with jurisdiction we see some interesting dynamics that lead to several possibilities. One, we can see over the duration of the date the area of the library experiences higher call volume than the homeless encampment area for the majority of the studied timeframe. We can also see that during the six month period of existence for the camp there was a surge in police calls during the second half with police calls practically doubling. The call volume continued to surge after the railroad police removed the encampment as well. These metrics lead to several ponderings. After the camp existed for three months what was the cause of the surge in police calls? Could this be a timeframe affiliated to disorder

and social decay? Why did the calls for service continue to surge in the area (500 meters) after the camp was removed? While the number of calls spiked in the Study set during the post encampment timeframe, during those same months the number of calls for the library-centered Comparison dropped.

Table 8

Study 1 Homeless Encampment, Aurora, Illinois Phase Totals

Phase	Pre-phase	Exist-phase	Post-phase
Length	6 months	6 months	6 months
Calls for Service	536	762	1385

Calls for service – metric specific to this member - specific to Study site and 500 meter perimeter in timeframes of encampment.

Table 9

Comparison 1 Aurora Public Library, Aurora, Illinois Phase Totals

Phase	Pre-phase	Exist-phase	Post-phase
Length	6 months	6 months	6 months
Calls for Service	1012	1016	798

Calls for service – metric specific to this member - specific to Comparison site and 500 meter perimeter in same timeframes as Study encampment.

Table10 provides insight into the monthly averages calls for service for the Study encampment and Comparison library. Utilizing the monthly average across the 3 phases of the study allows us to easily compare pre-, during-, and post-encampment phase to the same timeframes for the Comparison. At the library Comparison we see the monthly calls for service remain similar across the first phases and actually drop in the post-phase 21.46%. There could be many factors regarding the drop in offenses for the post-phase of

the Comparison. Though this study didn't delve into the many reasons that could have caused this drop in calls for service, one could speculate that it may have been from police initiatives, an ordinance change, or a resource/target drawing those generating call volume away from the Comparison area and its 500 meter perimeter. The average numbers across the Study encampment in the pre- and exist-encampment phase are congruent with the expectation of police calls for service rising during a camp's existence. Between the pre- and exist-camp police calls for service per month average we see a 42.16% increase between the pre- and exist camp phases. The oddity in this Sample/Comparison return is the post-encampment calls for service jumping from 127 calls per month during the encampment to 230.83 post-encampment. That is an increase in the average of 81.67%. Again, with this change there could be speculation of retaliatory offenses due to the camp being disbanded and cleaned up, but there is no data supporting that.

Table 10

Study 1 / Comparison 1 Monthly Average Call for Service Comparison - Aurora, Illinois

Phase	Pre-phase	Exist-phase	Post-phase
Average per Month	89.333 / 168.667	127 / 169.333	230.83 / 133
Location	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison

Monthly average call for service – metric specific to this member - comparison for Study and Comparison over 6 month Pre-phase, 6 month Exist-phase, and 6 month Post-phase.

According the 2020 U.S. Census the population of Aurora, Illinois was 180,542, and 4,010 persons per square mile. In 2023, the city reported 572 homeless residents (Aurora, City of, 2023). In 2020, City-Data.com (2023) placed the crime index for the

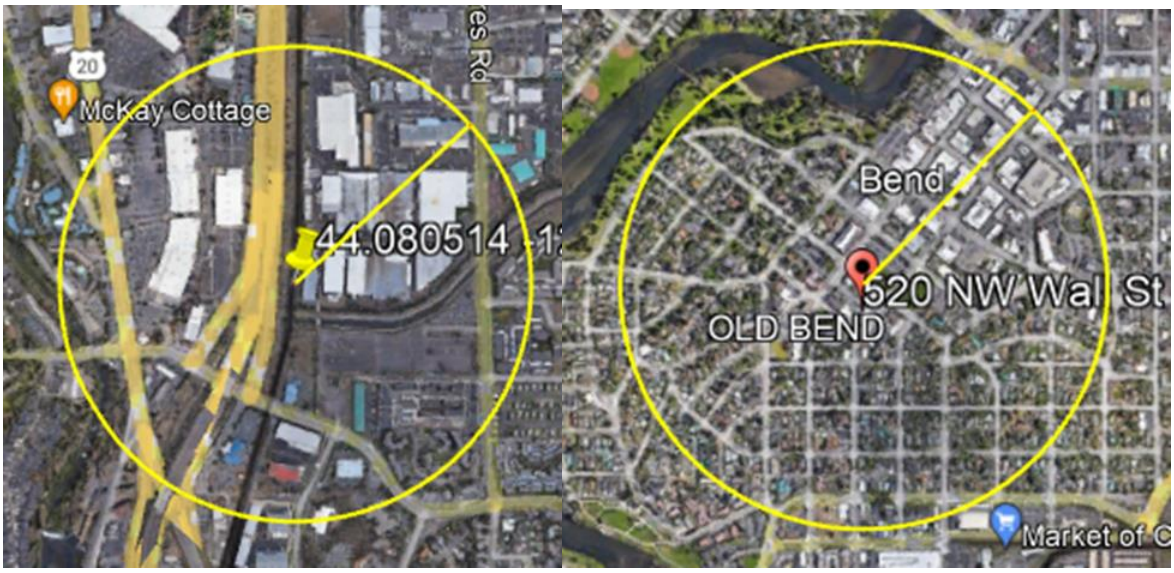
city at 154.3. The City-Data.com crime index weighs serious crimes and violent crimes more heavily. Higher means more crime, U.S. average is 254.8. The scale adjusts for the number of visitors and daily workers commuting into cities. The relationship between population density and could not be further explored with this member due to their limitations in providing more descriptive data about their agency's calls for service to and around the Study and Comparison locations.

Study and Comparison #2 Bend, OR

Bend, Oregon is a large city in which the studied homeless encampment existed for 161 days. The cost of the encampment's cleanup was $4,975.00.Bend Police Department provided NIBRS qualified data which were able to be transitioned into the Study and Comparison NIBRS-based spreadsheets.

Figure 2

Study #2 – Bend, Oregon and Comparison #2 - Bend Public Library



The Google Earth mapping images above represent Study #2 – Bend, Oregon homeless encampment on the left and Comparison #2 Bend Public Library on the right. Please note the yellow thumbtack for the GPS coordinates of the homeless encampment location and yellow circle noting the 500 meter perimeter for the study. For the Comparison, the red pin is based on the Comparison member's street address. Note the same yellow circle forming the 500 meter perimeter for the study.

Tables 11 and 12 represent the phase results for the NIBRS Group A and B offenses. Bend Police Department NIBRS metrics in conjunction with other police agency criminal incidents we can see differences in the number of criminal offenses during the encampment timeframe for the Study. While the property crime level does not

spike during the term of the encampment the offenses are committed at a more consistent monthly rate versus the timeframes before and after the encampment. We see the same frequency trend in the categories for Vandalism, Drug Offenses and Larceny/Theft (all). Specific to the Bend Study we see elevated numbers for Other Offenses during the duration of the encampment that are not present in the pre- encampment and post-encampment timeframes. Other offenses, for the purposes of NIBRS, are all crimes that are not Group A offenses and not included in one of the specifically named Group B offense categories listed (BJS, 2022). When comparing these results in the Study to the Comparison results from the library, there appears to be more comparable results through the three time periods of the study.

Table 11

Study 2 Homeless Encampment, Bend, Oregon Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (6 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	1	1	0
	Assault (All)	4	4	6
	Burglary	1	0	0
	Vandalism	5	14	5
	Drug Offenses	12	15	0
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	20	8	8
	Motor Vehicle Theft	3	3	1
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	3	2	0
	Robbery	1	0	0
	Sex Offenses (All)	2	0	0
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	0	1	0
	Stolen Property Offenses	0	0	0
	Weapon Law Violations	1	2	0

Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	1	1	1
	Drunkenness	0	0	0
	Liquor Law Violation	0	1	1
	Runaway	0	0	0
	Trespass of Real Property	18	57	28
	All Other Offenses	1	135	3

Table 12

Comparison 2 Central Oregon Regional Library, Bend, Oregon Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (6 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	0	0	0
	Assault (All)	25	28	7
	Burglary	0	7	0
	Vandalism	18	30	8
	Drug Offenses	22	7	2
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	53	43	23
	Motor Vehicle Theft	2	4	1
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Robbery	0	0	0
	Sex Offenses (All)	1	0	0
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	0	1	0
	Stolen Property Offenses	1	0	0
	Weapon Law Violations	1	4	1
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	22	18	3
	Drunkenness	2	1	0
	Liquor Law Violation	2	3	0
	Runaway	1	1	0
	Trespass of Real Property	21	16	3
	All Other Offenses	47	51	17

Table 13 provides insight into the monthly averages for police incidents/arrests for the Study encampment and Comparison library. Utilizing the monthly average across the 3 phases of the study allows us to easily compare pre-, exist-, and post-encampment phase to the same timeframes for the Comparison. At the library Comparison we see the monthly calls for service remain similar across the first phases for both NIBRS A category offense and NIBRS B category offenses. In the post-phase for the Comparison NIBRS A offenses drop 64.1% while the NIBRS B category offenses also drop 74.47%. There could be many factors regarding the drop in offenses for the post-phase of the Comparison. Though this study didn't delve into the many reasons that could have caused this drop in calls for service, one could speculate that it may have been from police initiatives, an ordinance change, or a resource/target drawing those generating call volume away from the Comparison area and its 500 meter perimeter. The average numbers across the Study encampment in the pre- and exist-encampment phase are congruent with the expectation of police incidents/arrests rising during a camp's existence. Between the pre- and camp existence returns for NIBRS offenses we see increase between the pre- and exist camp phases. However between pre- and existing-encampment phases for NIBRS Group A offenses we see a slight decrease of 5.66%. However in the same phases we see NIBRS Group B offenses increase 870.087%. Post encampment treatments by way of cleanup NIBRS Group A offense are reduced by 60% and NIBRS Group B offenses are reduced by 82.99%.

Table 13

Study 2 / Comparison 2 Monthly Average Comparison by NIBRS Group - Bend, Oregon

Offense Group	Pre-phase	Exist-phase	Post-phase
NIBRS A per Month Location	8.833 / 20.50 Study / Comparison	8.333 / 19.50 Study / Comparison	3.333 / 7.00 Study / Comparison
NIBRS B per Month Location	3.333 / 15.833 Study / Comparison	32.333 / 15.00 Study / Comparison	5.50 / 3.833 Study / Comparison

Monthly average offense comparison for Study and Comparison over 6 month Pre-phase, 6 month Exist-phase, and 6 month Post-phase.

According to the 2020 U.S. Census the population of Bend, Oregon was 91,178, and 2,949.80 persons per square mile. In 2022, the city reported 785 homeless residents (Harvel, 2023). In 2020, City-Data.com (2023) placed the crime index for the city at 140.8. The City-Data.com crime index weighs serious crimes and violent crimes more heavily. Higher means more crime, U.S. average is 254.8. The scale adjusts for the number of visitors and daily workers commuting into cities.

Table 14 presents the relevant city-level data for Bend, Oregon. Table 6 and all relevant similar tables all present the same data, which consist of "factor," determined as the extent to which the risk of being a victim of a crime increases or decreases during the active encampment period as compared with the baseline data for that city, as determined from city-data.com. This is a ratio of odds, that being the probability of becoming a victim of a crime under the relevant category during the encampment period divided by that same risk based on the baseline data. The "*N*," or sample size, relates to the number of crimes in question, while the rate consists of the rate per 10,000 derived from the baseline data, and with the adjusted rate being the rate multiplied by the factor, or the

relevant rate present during the encampment period. Any sections for a specific city in which this table was omitted was done so as no relevant data were available from city-data.com.

As shown in Table 14, small sample sizes accounted for factors of zero with respect to burglary and robbery, while the risk of assault and larceny/theft were reduced during the encampment period. The risk of motor vehicle theft remained the same, while the risk of arson doubled during the encampment period, as compared with the baseline data.

Table 14

City Data for Bend, Oregon

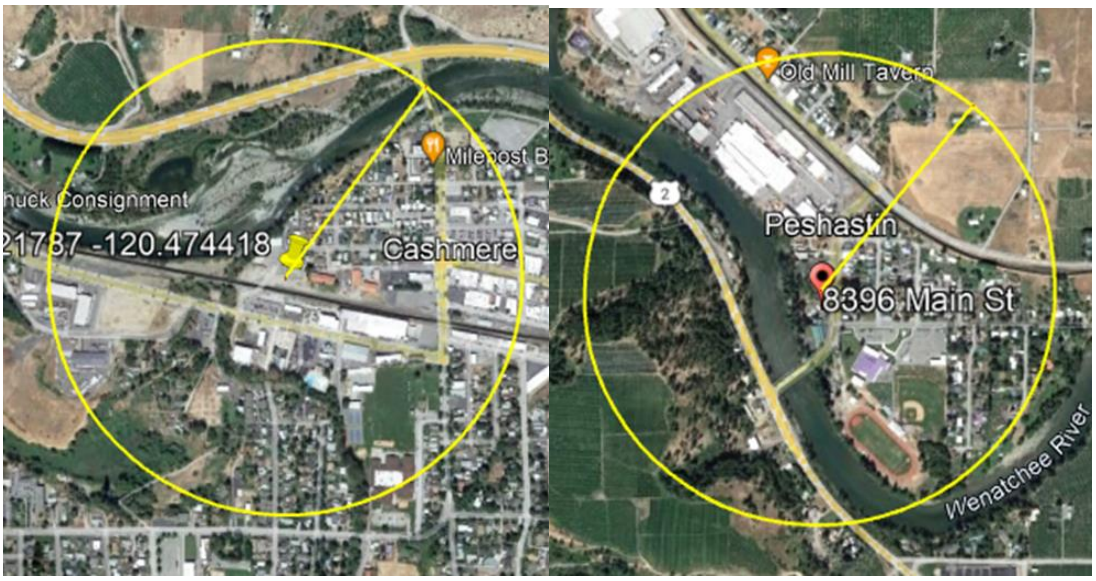
Crime	Factor	*N*	Rate	Adjusted Rate
Arson	2.00	37.00	35.80	71.60
Assault	0.80	115.00	111.10	88.88
Burglary	0.00	31.00	30.00	0.00
Larceny/Theft	0.57	1593.00	1539.00	879.43
Motor Vehicle Theft	1.00	165.00	159.40	159.40
Robbery	0.00	31.00	30.00	0.00

Study and Comparison #3 Cashmere, WA

Cashmere, Washington is a small city in which the studied homeless encampment existed for 154 days. The cost of the encampment's cleanup was $5,356.00. Cashmere Police Department provided NIBRS qualified data which were able to be transitioned into the Study and Comparison NIBRS-based spreadsheets.

Figure 3

Study #3 – Cashmere, Washington and Comparison #3 - Peshastin Library



The Google Earth mapping images above represent Study #3 – Cashmere, Washington homeless encampment on the left and Comparison #3 Peshastin Library on the right. Please note the yellow thumbtack for the GPS coordinates of the homeless encampment location and yellow circle noting the 500 meter perimeter for the study. For the Comparison, the red pin is based on the Comparison member's street address. Note the same yellow circle forming the 500 meter perimeter for the study.

Tables 15 and 16 represent the phase results for the NIBRS Group A and B offenses in Cashmere, Washington. Cashmere, Washington is an interesting place in which to study the homeless and an encampment as it is considered a small city and is agriculturally centered. Although the offenses were low in number for both the Study

encampment and the Comparison the number of offenses occurring throughout the duration of the camps is higher than the preceding six months or the six months post-camp periods, but only with slim differences between the three timeframes. In the three months following the camp's removal there are still elevated theft/larceny numbers in the area around the encampment. The offense of trespass of real property also trends during the camp's existence. Regarding the Comparison of Peshastin Library the offense levels pale in comparison. During the timeframe of the encampment the library and 500 meter perimeter experienced 22 offenses with the homeless encampment and its 500 meter perimeter experiencing 94 offenses.

Table 15

Study 3 Homeless Encampment, Cashmere, Washington Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (6 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	1	0	0
	Assault (All)	10	6	19
	Burglary	2	2	2
	Vandalism	9	14	7
	Drug Offenses	2	0	2
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	17	22	24
	Motor Vehicle Theft	0	2	0
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Robbery	0	0	0
	Sex Offenses (All)	1	2	4
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	1	0	0
	Stolen Property Offenses	1	0	0
	Weapon Law Violations	3	2	1
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	6	3	3

	Drunkenness	0	0	0
	Liquor Law Violation	3	1	0
	Runaway	0	4	0
	Trespass of Real Property	20	29	10
	All Other Offenses	4	0	0

Table 16

Comparison 3 Peshastin Library, Peshastin, Washington Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (6 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	0	0	0
	Assault (All)	3	2	2
	Burglary	0	2	0
	Vandalism	0	4	1
	Drug Offenses	0	3	0
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	1	2	2
	Motor Vehicle Theft	0	0	0
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Robbery	0	0	0
	Sex Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	0	0	0
	Stolen Property Offenses	0	0	0
	Weapon Law Violations	1	2	1
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	0	0	0
	Drunkenness	0	0	0
	Liquor Law Violation	0	0	0
	Runaway	0	0	0
	Trespass of Real Property	2	5	3
	All Other Offenses	0	0	0

Table 17 provides insight into the monthly averages for police incidents/arrests for the Study encampment and Comparison library. Utilizing the monthly average across the 3 phases of the study allows us to easily compare pre-, exist-, and post-encampment

phase to the same timeframes for the Comparison. At the library Comparison we see the monthly police incidents/arrests remain similar across the first phases for both NIBRS A category offense and NIBRS B category offenses. The average numbers across the Study encampment in the pre- and exist-encampment phase are congruent with the expectation of police incidents/arrests rising during a camp's existence. Between the pre- and camp existence returns for NIBRS offenses we see increase between the pre- and exist camp phases. Between pre- and existing-encampment phases for NIBRS Group A offenses we see a slight increase of 6.38%. In the same phases we see NIBRS Group B offenses increase 12.13%. Post encampment treatments, by way of cleanup, NIBRS Group A offenses actually increased by 18% and NIBRS Group B offenses were reduced by 64.86%. While the numbers are not at staggering as the statistical differences, it is here that we see the impact of crime at a suburban or lesser population density setting.

Table 17

Study 3 / Comparison 3 Monthly Average Comparison by NIBRS Group – Cashmere/Peshastin, WA

Offense Group	Pre-phase	Exist-phase	Post-phase
NIBRS A per Month Location	7.833 / 0.833 Study / Comparison	8.333 / 2.50 Study / Comparison	9.833 / 1.167 Study / Comparison
NIBRS B per Month Location	5.50 / 0.333 Study / Comparison	6.167 / 0.833 Study / Comparison	2.167 / 0.500 Study / Comparison

Monthly average offense comparison for Study and Comparison over 6 month Pre-phase, 6 month Exist-phase, and 6 month Post-phase.

According to the City of Cashmere (2023) the population of Cashmere, Washington is 3,721, and 3796.9 persons per square mile. In 2023, the city reported 17 homeless residents (Chelan County, 2023). In 2020, City-Data.com (2023) did not have

reported data from Cashmere or Chelan County, Washington. The City-Data.com crime index weighs serious crimes and violent crimes more heavily. Higher means more crime, U.S. average is 254.8. The scale adjusts for the number of visitors and daily workers commuting into cities.

Table 18 presents the relevant city-level data for Cashmere, Washington. While the relevant Study sizes, rates, and adjusted rates are all zero, the relevant factors indicated that the risk of assault was reduced during the encampment period, while the risk of burglary remained the same, and the risk of larceny/theft was slightly increased.

Table 18

City Data for Cashmere, Washington

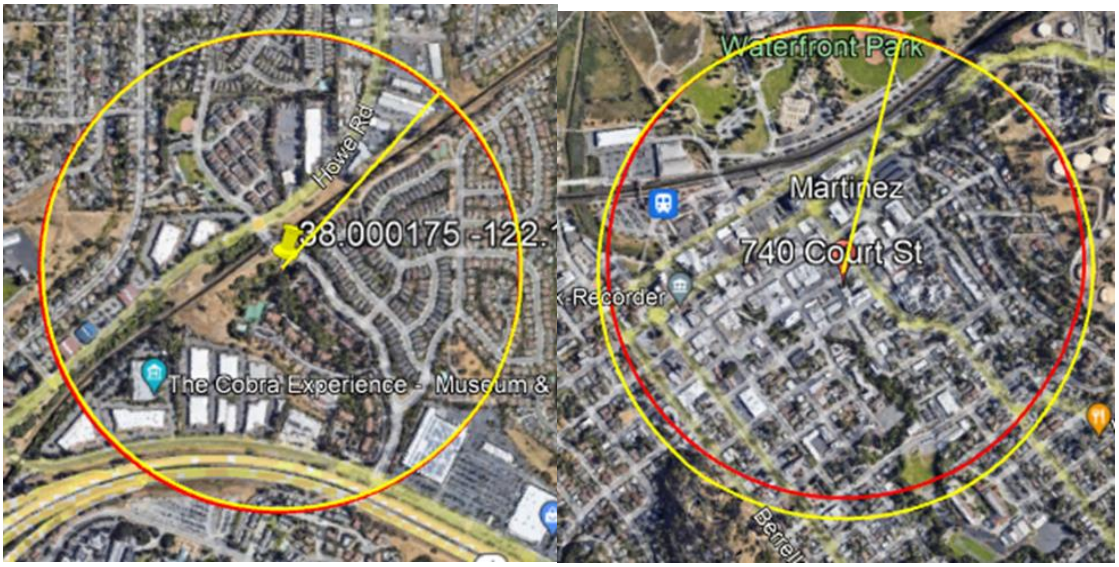
Crime	Factor	*N*	Rate	Adjusted Rate
Assault	0.40	0.00	0.00	0.00
Burglary	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Larceny/Theft	1.12	0.00	0.00	0.00

Study and Comparison #4 Martinez, CA

Martinez, California is a medium sized city in which the studied homeless encampment existed for 191 days. The cost of the encampment's cleanup was $1,925.00. Martinez Police Department provided NIBRS qualified data which were able to be transitioned into the Sample and Comparison NIBRS-based spreadsheets.

Figure 4

Study #4 – Martinez, California and Comparison #4 - Martinez Library



The Google Earth mapping images above represent Study #4 – Martinez, California homeless encampment on the left and Comparison #4 - Martinez Library on the right. Please note the yellow thumbtack for the GPS coordinates of the homeless encampment location and yellow circle noting the 500 meter perimeter for the study. For the Comparison, the red pin is based on the Comparison member's street address. Note the same yellow circle forming the 500 meter perimeter for the study.

Tables 19 and 20 represent the phase results for the NIBRS Group A and B offenses for Martinez, California. From a longitudinal perspective the Study homeless encampment in Martinez, CA provides a good example of the impact a camp can have on crime. In the six months prior to the encampment being located there were 30 criminal

offenses committed within 500 meters of the camp. During the seven months of existence the encampment area had 46 offenses. Post encampment removal the area had 13 criminal offenses over the studied six month timespan. Martinez is another example of All Other Offenses surfacing during the encampment and being nearly non-existent during pre- and post-encampment timeframes. For the Comparison of Martinez Library, we see much higher numbers and more consistency across the three timeframes. For the Comparison, the results show 135, 98, and 95 offenses, respectively. This speaks to the reference of a library as a community hub. Interestingly, All Other Offenses at the Comparison are nearly absent with one occurring throughout the 19 month timeframe.

Table 19

Study 4 Homeless Encampment, Martinez, California Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (7 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	0	0	0
	Assault (All)	0	0	0
	Burglary	8	6	0
	Vandalism	2	0	3
	Drug Offenses	1	0	0
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	8	8	2
	Motor Vehicle Theft	5	2	0
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	3	2	0
	Robbery	0	0	0
	Sex Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	0	0	0
	Stolen Property Offenses	1	2	0
	Weapon Law Violations	0	1	0
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	1	1	1

	Drunkenness	0	0	0
	Liquor Law Violation	0	0	0
	Runaway	0	0	0
	Trespass of Real Property	3	13	4
	All Other Offenses	2	14	4

Table 20

Comparison 4 Martinez Library, Martinez, California Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (7 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	2	0	0
	Assault (All)	17	7	11
	Burglary	10	7	0
	Vandalism	6	9	8
	Drug Offenses	16	16	10
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	18	15	15
	Motor Vehicle Theft	7	5	8
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	20	9	13
	Robbery	5	7	10
	Sex Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	0	1	0
	Stolen Property Offenses	1	1	0
	Weapon Law Violations	0	0	0
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	5	0	0
	Drunkenness	4	9	6
	Liquor Law Violation	0	0	0
	Runaway	0	0	0
	Trespass of Real Property	5	5	6
	All Other Offenses	1	0	0

Table 21 provides insight into the monthly averages for police incidents/arrests for the Study encampment and Comparison library. Utilizing the monthly average across the 3 phases of the study allows us to easily compare pre-, exist-, and post-encampment

phase to the same timeframes for the Comparison. At the library Comparison we see the monthly police incidents/arrests remain similar across all three phases for both NIBRS A category offenses and NIBRS B category offenses. At the Comparison NIBRS Group A offenses drop 33.33% between the pre- and exist- phases and 66.66% between the exist- and post- phases. NIBRS B offenses from pre- to exist- phase jump 300%, but then fall back 62.5% during the post-phase. The average numbers across the Study encampment in the pre- and exist-encampment phase are congruent with the expectation of police incidents/arrests rising during a camp's existence. Between the pre- and camp existence returns for NIBRS offenses we see increase between the pre- and exist camp phases. Between pre- and existing-encampment phases for NIBRS Group A offenses we see a decrease of 33.33%, which falls by 66.66% during the post-phase. From the pre- and exist-phases we see NIBRS Group B offenses increase 300%. Post encampment treatments, by way of cleanup, NIBRS Group B offenses are reduced by 62.5%.

Table 21

Study 4 / Comparison 4 Monthly Average Comparison by NIBRS Group – Martinez, California

Offense Group	Pre-phase	Exist-phase	Post-phase
NIBRS A per Month	4.50 / 15.33	3.00 / 10.143	1.00 / 12.50
Location	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison
NIBRS B per Month	1.00 / 2.50	4.00 / 2.00	1.50 / 2.00
Location	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison

Monthly average offense comparison for Study and Comparison over 6 month Pre-phase, 7 month Exist-phase, and 6 month Post-phase.

According to the 2020 U.S. Census the population of Martinez, California was 37,287, and 2,952.30 persons per square mile. In 2020, the city reported 127 homeless residents (CC News, 2023). In 2020, City-Data.com (2023) placed the crime index for the city at 147.7. The City-Data.com crime index weighs serious crimes and violent crimes more heavily. Higher means more crime, U.S. average is 254.8. The scale adjusts for the number of visitors and daily workers commuting into cities.

Table 22 presents the city-level data for Martinez, California. Focusing on the crime categories for which a factor could be calculated, the risk of becoming a victim of assault was reduced by 50% during the encampment period, while the risks of becoming a victim of a burglary, larceny/theft, or motor vehicle theft were all substantially increased.

Table 22

City Data for Martinez, California

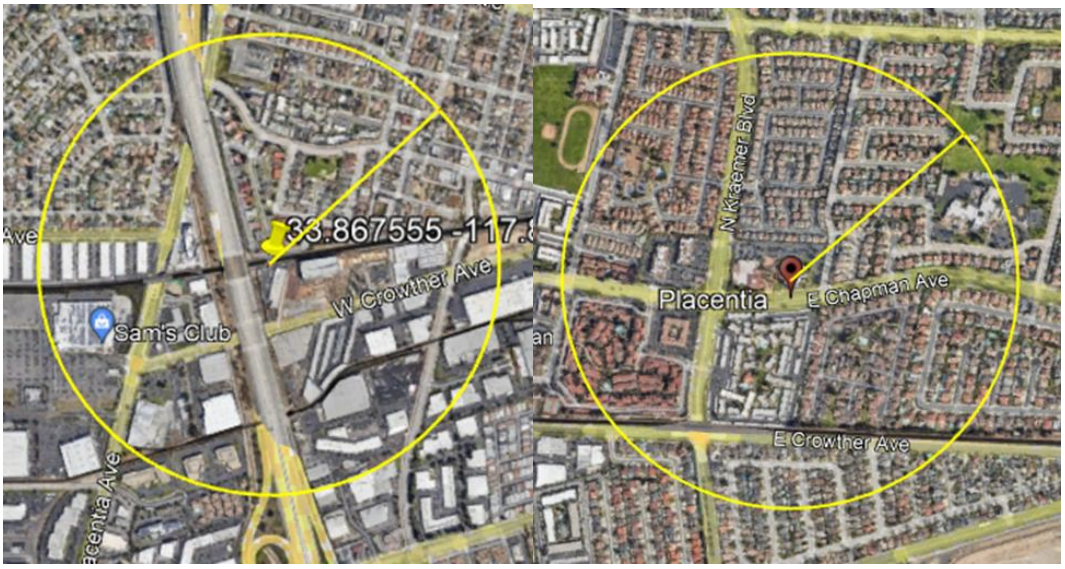
Crime	Factor	*N*	Rate	Adjusted Rate
Arson	.	22.00	57.10	.
Assault	0.50	39.00	101.20	50.60
Burglary	1.50	88.00	228.30	342.45
Homicide	.	1.00	2.60	.
Larceny/Theft	1.60	338.00	876.90	1403.04
Motor Vehicle Theft	1.43	133.00	345.10	493.00
Robbery	.	24.00	62.30	.

Study and Comparison #5 Placentia, CA

Placentia, California is a medium-sized city in which the studied homeless encampment existed for 194 days. The cost of the encampment's cleanup was $5,025.00. Placentia Police Department provided NIBRS qualified data which were able to be transitioned into the Study and Comparison NIBRS-based spreadsheets.

Figure 5

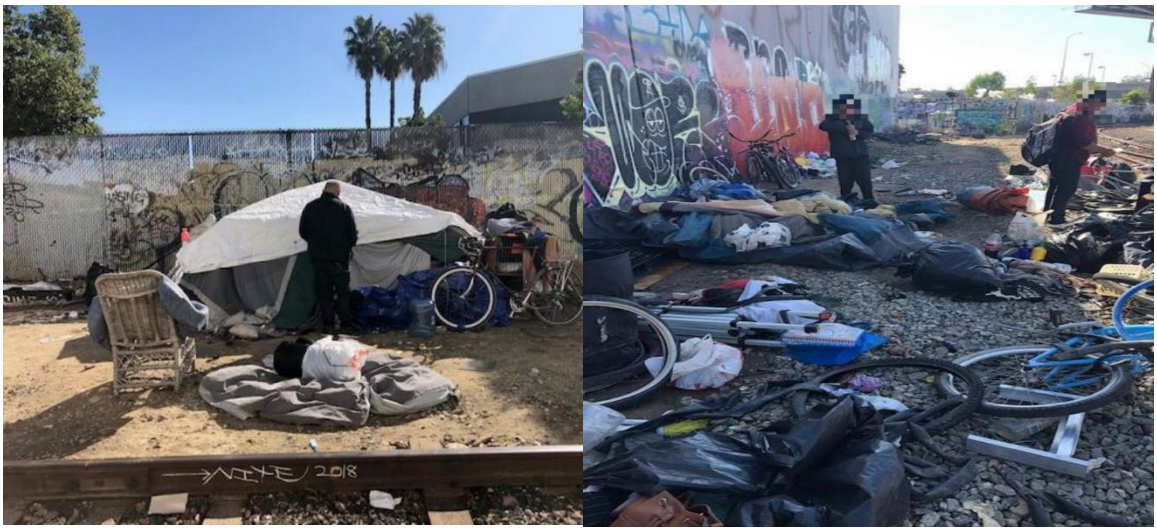
Study #5 – Placentia, California and Comparison #5 - Placentia Library



The Google Earth mapping images above represent Study #5 – Placentia, California homeless encampment on the left and Comparison #5 Placentia Library on the right. Please note the yellow thumbtack for the GPS coordinates of the homeless encampment location and yellow circle noting the 500 meter perimeter for the study. For the Comparison, the red pin is based on the Comparison member's street address. Note the same yellow circle forming the 500 meter perimeter for the study.

Image 1

Study #5 Placentia, California Homeless Encampment Photos



Photographs of a portion of the homeless encampment displaying ingredients of disorder and social decay.

Image 2

Study #5 Placentia, California Homeless Encampment After Removal Photos

Following the homeless camp's cleanup some signs of disorder and social decay remain.

Tables 23 and 24 represent the phase results for the NIBRS Group A and B offenses for Placentia, California. From a longitudinal perspective the Study homeless encampment in Placentia, CA provides a good example of the impact a camp can have on crime. In the six months prior to the encampment being located there were 153 criminal offenses committed within 500 meters of the camp. During the seven months of existence the encampment area had 171 offenses. Post encampment removal the area had 73 criminal offenses over the studied six month timespan. Based on the elevated offense levels during the pre-camp timeframe it appears the camp may have existed prior to it being located or reported by police. Assaults is the visual standout from this Study member. While the pre-camp and camp offense numbers are similar at 17 and 21 respectively the post-camp timeframe assaults dropped to 8 scattered over six months. For the Comparison of Placentia Library, we see much higher numbers and more consistency across the three timeframes. For the Comparison, the results show 177, 138, and 101 offenses, respectively. As noted earlier, this speaks to the reference of a library as a community hub. Interestingly, All Other Offenses at the Comparison are nearly absent with one occurring throughout the 19 month timeframe. In comparison the assault offense levels of the Study the Comparison display 18 during the pre-timeframe, 18 assaults occurring at the library and perimeter during the seven months of the encampment, and 11 offenses during the six month span representing the post encampment timeframe. Interestingly, we see no trespass of real property offenses for the duration of the study for the Comparison, and the Study only exhibits trespass of real property offenses during the seven months of the homeless camp's existence.

Table 23

Study 5 Homeless Encampment, Placentia, California Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (7 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	0	1	0
	Assault (All)	17	21	8
	Burglary	7	15	5
	Vandalism	19	20	15
	Drug Offenses	19	7	17
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	14	13	9
	Motor Vehicle Theft	2	11	1
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Robbery	5	7	10
	Sex Offenses (All)	1	1	1
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	0	0	0
	Stolen Property Offenses	1	1	0
	Weapon Law Violations	7	2	3
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	0	0	0
	Drunkenness	0	0	0
	Liquor Law Violation	0	0	0
	Runaway	0	0	0
	Trespass of Real Property	0	35	0
	All Other Offenses	44	22	4

Table 24

Comparison 5 Placentia Library, Placentia, California Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (7 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	0	0	1
	Assault (All)	18	18	11
	Burglary	36	17	2
	Vandalism	13	7	6

	Drug Offenses	6	5	5
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	52	44	36
	Motor Vehicle Theft	11	3	9
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Robbery	2	1	0
	Sex Offenses (All)	0	5	3
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	1	0	0
	Stolen Property Offenses	1	1	0
	Weapon Law Violations	4	0	1
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	0	0	0
	Drunkenness	0	1	0
	Liquor Law Violation	0	0	0
	Runaway	0	0	0
	Trespass of Real Property	0	0	0
	All Other Offenses	15	19	16

Table 25 provides insight into the monthly averages for police incidents/arrests for the Study encampment and Comparison library. Utilizing the monthly average across the 3 phases of the study allows us to easily compare pre-, exist-, and post-encampment phase to the same timeframes for the Comparison. At the library Comparison we see the monthly police incidents/arrests remain similar across all three phases for NIBRS B category offenses (2.5, 2.285, and 2.667). At the Comparison NIBRS Group A offenses are at a high of 24 per month during the pre-phase, dropping to 14.429 incidents/arrests per month , a 39.88% decrease, and further to 12.333 per month during the post-phases which is a 14.547% decrease. The average numbers across the Study encampment in the pre- and exist-encampment phase are congruent with the expectation of police incidents/arrests rising during a camp's existence. Between the pre- and camp existence returns for NIBRS offenses we see an overall increase between the pre- and exist-phases.

Between pre- and exist-phases for NIBRS Group A offenses we see a decrease of 4.65%, which falls by 17.51% during the post-phase. From the pre- and exist phases we see NIBRS Group B offenses increase 11.05%. Post encampment treatments, by way of cleanup, NIBRS Group B offenses are reduced by 91.81%.

Table 25

Study 5 / Comparison 5 Monthly Average Comparison by NIBRS Group – Placentia, California

Offense Group	Pre-phase	Exist-phase	Post-phase
NIBRS A per Month Location	14.833 / 24.00 Study / Comparison	14.143 / 14.429 Study / Comparison	11.667 / 12.333 Study / Comparison
NIBRS B per Month Location	7.333 / 2.50 Study / Comparison	8.143 / 2.285 Study / Comparison	0.667 / 2.667 Study / Comparison

Monthly average offense comparison for Study and Comparison over 6 month Pre-phase, 7 month Exist-phase, and 6 month Post-phase.

According to the 2020 U.S. Census the population of Placentia, California was 51,824, and 7,837.90 persons per square mile. In 2019, the city reported 55 homeless residents (Arrula, 2023). In 2020, City-Data.com (2023) placed the crime index for the city at 233.5. The City-Data.com crime index weighs serious crimes and violent crimes more heavily. Higher means more crime, U.S. average is 254.8. The scale adjusts for the number of visitors and daily workers commuting into cities.

Additionally, Table 26 presents the city-level data associated with Placentia, California. Factors were able to be calculated for the crimes of assault, burglary, larceny/theft, motor vehicle theft, and robbery. While the risk of being the victim of a robbery remained the same during the encampment period, the risks relating to the four

other crimes all substantially increased, with the risk of motor vehicle theft in fact increasing by over seven times during the encampment. period.

Table 26

City Data for Placentia, California

Crime	Factor	*N*	Rate	Adjusted Rate
Arson	.	4.00	7.80	.
Assault	1.68	178.00	347.20	583.30
Burglar	2.50	305.00	595.00	1487.50
Homicide	.	2.00	3.90	.
Larceny/Theft	1.13	531.00	1036.00	1171.13
Motor Vehicle Theft	7.33	230.00	448.70	3290.47
Robbery	1.00	45.00	87.80	87.80

Study and Comparison #6 Pueblo, CO

Pueblo, Colorado is a large city in which the studied homeless encampment existed for 150 days. The cost of the encampment's cleanup was $6,145.00. Pueblo Police Department provided NIBRS qualified data which were able to be transitioned into the Study and Comparison NIBRS-based spreadsheets.

Figure 6

Study #6 – Pueblo, Colorado and Comparison #6 - Pueblo Library

The Google Earth mapping images above represent Study #6 – Pueblo, Colorado homeless encampment on the left and Comparison #6 - Pueblo Library on the right. Please note the yellow thumbtack for the GPS coordinates of the homeless encampment location and yellow circle noting the 500 meter perimeter for the study. For the Comparison, the red pin is based on the Comparison member's street address. Note the same yellow circle forming the 500 meter perimeter for the study.

Tables 27 and 28 represent the phase results for the NIBRS Group A and B offenses for Pueblo, Colorado. The Study homeless encampment in Pueblo, CO provides a good example of the impact a camp can have on crime. In the six months prior to the encampment being located there were 294 criminal offenses committed within 500

meters of the camp. During the five months of existence the encampment area had 463 offenses. Post encampment removal the area had 407 criminal offenses over the studied six month timespan. Assaults, Larceny/Theft, Vandalism, Burglary and Sex Offenses are the visual standouts from this Study member. For this Study we see the widespread use of Drunkenness throughout the study timeframe. Its application and use by the police appear similarly at both the Comparison and Study locations. For the Comparison of Pueblo Library, we see much higher numbers and more consistency across the three timeframes. For the Comparison, the results show 193, 270, and 309 offenses, respectively. The escalation in the number of offenses is interesting across the three timeframes. One could conclude the possibility of winter weather escalating offenses. Interestingly, All Other Offenses use at the Comparison is nearly absent with one use occurring throughout the 17 month timeframe. While noting what is seen is important it should be also noted that there were no homicides noted at the Study or Comparison and only one arson committed at each location during the months of the study. Of course the arson from the Study did occur during the months of the homeless encampment's existence.

Table 27

Study 6 Homeless Encampment, Pueblo, Colorado Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (5 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	0	1	0
	Assault (All)	57	77	78
	Burglary	18	22	15
	Vandalism	9	42	37
	Drug Offenses	10	4	12
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0

	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	1	1
	Larceny/Theft (All)	43	66	84
	Motor Vehicle Theft	11	13	12
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Robbery	2	0	4
	Sex Offenses (All)	2	9	3
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	10	18	5
	Stolen Property Offenses	0	0	0
	Weapon Law Violations	11	28	21
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	6	4	2
	Drunkenness	36	36	28
	Liquor Law Violation	0	0	0
	Runaway	2	4	0
	Trespass of Real Property	26	59	27
	All Other Offenses	0	1	0

Table 28

Comparison 6 Pueblo Library, Pueblo, Colorado Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (5 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	0	1	0
	Assault (All)	15	37	38
	Burglary	26	33	38
	Vandalism	31	20	25
	Drug Offenses	7	1	0
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	1
	Larceny/Theft (All)	50	55	60
	Motor Vehicle Theft	10	13	26
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Robbery	2	1	4
	Sex Offenses (All)	5	2	4
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	4	10	2
	Stolen Property Offenses	0	0	1
	Weapon Law Violations	3	13	6
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	0	1	0

Drunkenness	4	17	16
Liquor Law Violation	0	0	2
Runaway	4	1	6
Trespass of Real Property	18	27	42
All Other Offenses	0	1	0

Table 29 provides insight into the monthly averages for police incidents/arrests for the Study encampment and Comparison library. Utilizing the monthly average across the 3 phases of the study allows us to easily compare pre-, exist-, and post-encampment phase to the same timeframes for the Comparison. At the library Comparison we see the monthly police incidents/arrests escalate and fall across the three phases for both NIBRS A and B offenses. At the Comparison NIBRS Group A offenses are at a low of 25.50 per month during the pre-phase, increasing to 37.60 incidents/arrests per month during the exist-phase, a 47.45% increase, and then slightly fall to 34.167 per month during the post-phases which is a 9.13% decrease. NIBRS B offense at the Comparison average 4.333 incidents/arrests per month during the pre-phase, increasing to 9.40 incidents/arrests during the exist-phase, an increase of 116.94%, and rise to 11 per month during post-phase an elevation of 17.02%. The average numbers across the Study encampment in the pre- and exist-encampment phase are congruent with the expectation of police incidents/arrests rising during a camp's existence. Between the pre- and camp existence returns for NIBRS offenses we see an overall increase between the pre- and exist-phases. Between pre- and exist-phases for NIBRS Group A offenses we see an increase of 94.92%, which falls by 19.63 % during the post-phase. From the pre- and exist phases we see NIBRS Group B offenses increase 78.28%. Post encampment treatments, by way of cleanup, NIBRS Group B offenses are reduced by 54.33%.

Table 29

Study 6 / Comparison 6 Monthly Average Comparison by NIBRS Group – Pueblo, Colorado

Offense Group	Pre-phase	Exist-phase	Post-phase
NIBRS A per Month	28.833/ 25.50	56.20 / 37.60	45.167/ 34.167
Location	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison
NIBRS B per Month	11.667 / 4.333	20.80 / 9.40	9.50 / 11.00
Location	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison

Monthly average offense comparison for Study and Comparison over 6 month Pre-phase, 5 month Exist-phase, and 6 month Post-phase.

According to the 2020 U.S. Census the population of Pueblo, Colorado was 111,456, and 2,020.10 persons per square mile. In 2022, the city reported 91 homeless residents (Colorado Coalition for the Homeless, 2022). In 2020, City-Data.com (2023) placed the crime index for the city at 599.9. The City-Data.com crime index weighs serious crimes and violent crimes more heavily. Higher means more crime, U.S. average is 254.8. The scale adjusts for the number of visitors and daily workers commuting into cities.

Table 30 presents the relevant city-level data for Pueblo, Colorado. As shown, with regard to the crimes that had valid and non-zero factors, risks increased for all five crimes, that consisting of arson, assault, burglary, larceny/theft, and motor vehicle theft.

Table 30

City Data for Pueblo, Colorado

Crime	Factor	*N*	Rate	Adjusted Rate
Arson	2.00	59.00	52.20	104.40
Assault	1.14	768.00	679.60	775.25
Burglary	1.39	896.00	792.90	1105.26

Homicide	.	16.00	14.20	.
Larceny/Theft	1.04	3399.00	3008.00	3126.43
Motor Vehicle Theft	1.60	938.00	830.10	1328.16
Robbery	0.00	198.00	175.20	0.00

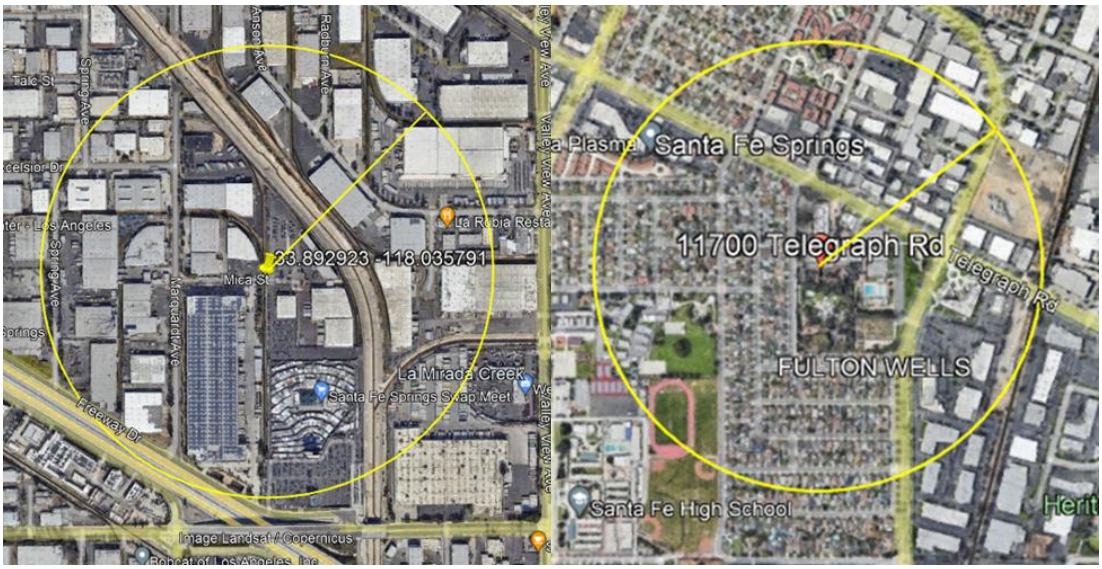
Study and Comparison #7 Santa Fe Springs, CA

Study and Comparison members #7 through #10 are from the same city, with differing locations, and timeframes. The four members allow insight into the pop-up nature of homeless encampments. These four encampments occurred between March 2020, and May of 2021 along a 4.7 mile stretch of railroad track inside the city. Though the statistics are not staggering for the set in total, it is important to recognize the influx of activity and drain on resources from these pop-up encampment populaces. For private property owners the management of these issues often becomes contentious, and removal overrides the assistance. A closer study of this group of encampments could be interesting regarding the victimization levels between residents of the different encampments. There are many angles this portion of the research can be driven.

Santa Fe Springs, California is a small city in which the studied homeless encampment existed for 338 days. The cost of the encampment's cleanup was $19,054.00. Santa Fe Springs Police Department provided NIBRS qualified data which were able to be transitioned into the Study and Comparison NIBRS-based spreadsheets.

Figure 7

Study #7 – Santa Fe Springs, CA and Comparison #7 – Santa Fe Springs Library



The Google Earth mapping images above represent Study #7 – Santa Fe Springs, California homeless encampment on the left and Comparison #7 – Santa Fe Springs Library on the right. Please note the yellow thumbtack for the GPS coordinates of the homeless encampment location and yellow circle noting the 500 meter perimeter for the study. For the Comparison, the red pin is based on the Comparison member's street address. Note the same yellow circle forming the 500 meter perimeter for the study.

Tables 31 and 32 represent the phase results for the NIBRS Group A and B offenses for Santa Fe Springs, California. This Study of a homeless encampment in Santa Fe Springs provides a good example of the impact a camp can have over a 10 month span. In the six months prior to the encampment being located there were 45 criminal offenses committed within 500 meters of the camp. During the 10 months of existence the encampment area had 147 offenses. Post encampment removal the area had 16 criminal offenses over the studied six month timespan. Larceny/Theft, Vandalism, Motor Vehicle Theft, and Trespass of Real Property are the visual standouts from this Study member. Railroad police often encounter stolen vehicles on railroad property. Part of

homeless encampment cleanup is often investigating the abandoned, often burned, vehicles. For the Comparison: Santa Fe Springs Library, we see much higher numbers and more consistency across the three timeframes. For the Comparison, the results show 47, 98, and 18 offenses, respectively. The de-escalation in the number of offenses is interesting across the three timeframes. There are many unknown factors that could have caused the change. Larceny/Theft is the most consistent Comparison offense throughout the 24 month timeframe. Other observations of this set will be checked in the other three Santa Fe Springs members to determine if the trend of numbers between the Comparison and Study member appear to flow in similar fashion. This could be reasoned for by many factors. A suggestion could be the small city population also denotes small size meaning criminals operate in a smaller area in total having greater effect. In the following three Studies it will be interesting to compare the trends between the Study and Comparison to investigate whether they trend the same.

Table 31

Study 7 Homeless Encampment, Santa Fe Springs, California Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (12 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	0	3	2
	Assault (All)	2	11	0
	Burglary	2	1	0
	Vandalism	4	17	0
	Drug Offenses	0	0	0
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	8	21	3
	Motor Vehicle Theft	4	18	2

	Prostitution Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Robbery	0	1	0
	Sex Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	0	0	0
	Stolen Property Offenses	1	1	0
	Weapon Law Violations	7	2	3
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	0	0	0
	Drunkenness	0	0	0
	Liquor Law Violation	0	0	0
	Runaway	0	0	0
	Trespass of Real Property	23	64	9
	All Other Offenses	0	0	0

Table 32

Comparison 7 Santa Fe Springs Library, Santa Fe Springs, California Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (12 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	0	0	0
	Assault (All)	17	21	8
	Burglary	7	15	5
	Vandalism	19	20	15
	Drug Offenses	19	7	17
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	27	46	11
	Motor Vehicle Theft	2	16	0
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Robbery	0	3	0
	Sex Offenses (All)	1	0	0
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	0	0	0
	Stolen Property Offenses	0	0	0
	Weapon Law Violations	0	0	0
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	0	0	0
	Drunkenness	0	1	0
	Liquor Law Violation	0	0	0
	Runaway	0	0	0
	Trespass of Real Property	0	0	0

All Other Offenses	0	0	0

Table 33 provides insight into the monthly averages for police incidents/arrests for the Study encampment and Comparison library. Utilizing the monthly average across the 3 phases of the study allows us to easily compare pre-, exist-, and post-encampment phase to the same timeframes for the Comparison. At the library Comparison we see the monthly police incidents/arrests escalate and fall across the three phases for both NIBRS A and B offenses. At the Comparison NIBRS Group A offenses are at a high of 15.333 per month during the pre-phase, decreasing to 10.667 incidents/arrests per month during the exist-phase, a 30.43% decrease, and then slightly fall to 9.333 per month during the post-phase which is a 12.51% decrease. NIBRS B offenses at the Comparison average 0.00 incidents/arrests per month during the pre-phase, increasing to 0.083 incidents/arrests during the exist-phase, and fall to 0.00 per month during post-phase. The average numbers across the Study encampment in the pre- and exist-encampment phase are congruent with the expectation of police incidents/arrests rising during a camp's existence. Between the pre- and camp existence returns for NIBRS offenses we see an overall increase between the pre- and exist-phases. Between pre- and exist-phases for NIBRS Group A offenses we see an increase of 69.62%, which falls by 78.94 % during the post-phase. From the pre- and exist phases we see NIBRS Group B offenses increase 39.13%. Post encampment treatments, by way of cleanup, NIBRS Group B offenses are reduced by 71.87%.

Table 33

Study 7 / Comparison 7 Monthly Average Comparison by NIBRS Group – Santa Fe Springs, CA

Offense Group	Pre-phase	Exist-phase	Post-phase
NIBRS A per Month	4.667 / 15.333	7.916 / 10.667	1.667 / 9.333
Location	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison
NIBRS B per Month	3.833 / 0.00	5.333 / 0.083	1.50 / 0.00
Location	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison

Monthly average offense comparison for Study and Comparison over 6 month Pre-phase, 12 month Exist-phase, and 6 month Post-phase.

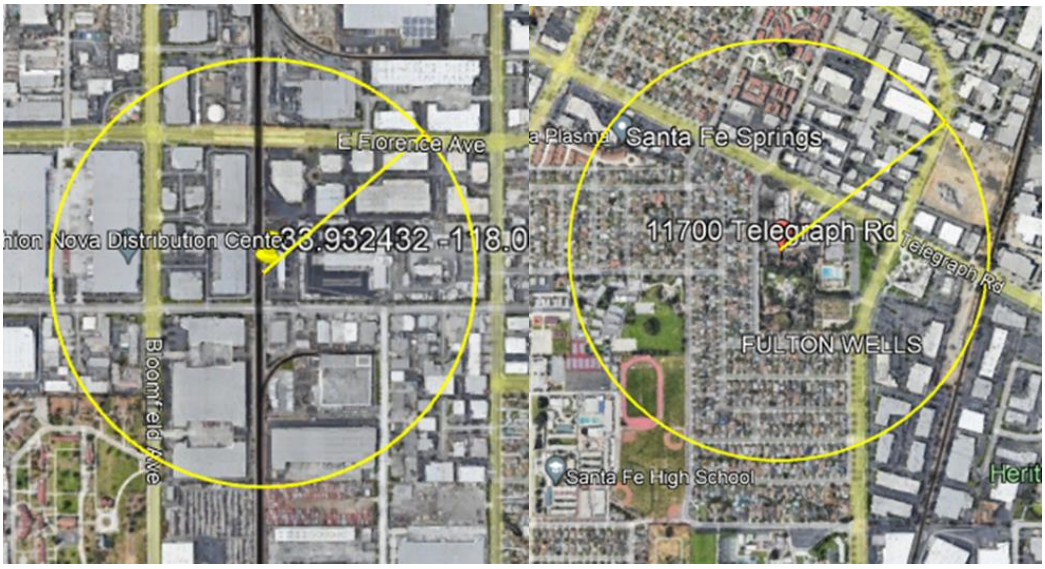
According to the 2020 U.S. Census the population of Santa Fe Springs, California was 19,219, and 2,169.20 persons per square mile. In 2020, the city reported 161 homeless residents (Colorado Coalition for the Homeless, 2022). In 2020, City-Data.com (2023) placed the crime index for the city at 464.7. The City-Data.com crime index weighs serious crimes and violent crimes more heavily. Higher means more crime, U.S. average is 254.8. The scale adjusts for the number of visitors and daily workers commuting into cities. Due to Santa Fe Springs making up data sets 7-10, relevant statistics for Santa Fe Springs are provided in Table 43 City Data for Santa Fe Springs, California following Study and Comparison #10 Santa Fe Springs, CA.

Study and Comparison #8 Santa Fe Springs, CA

Santa Fe Springs, California is a small city in which the studied homeless encampment existed for 297 days. The cost of the encampment's cleanup was $3,950.00. Santa Fe Springs Police Department provided NIBRS qualified data which were able to be transitioned into the Study and Comparison NIBRS-based spreadsheets.

Figure 8

Study #8 – Santa Fe Springs, CA and Comparison #8 – Santa Fe Springs Library



The Google Earth mapping images above represent Study #8 – Santa Fe Springs, California homeless encampment on the left and Comparison #8 – Santa Fe Springs Library on the right. Please note the yellow thumbtack for the GPS coordinates of the homeless encampment location and yellow circle noting the 500 meter perimeter for the study. For the Comparison, the red pin is based on the Comparison member's street address. Note the same yellow circle forming the 500 meter perimeter for the study.

Image 3

Study #8 Santa Fe Springs, California Homeless Encampment Photos

Photographs of a portion of the homeless encampment created from multiple tents.

Image 4

Study #8 Santa Fe Springs, California Homeless Encampment

After Removal/Mitigation Photos

After the camp's tents are removed and biohazards mitigated the signs of disorder remain via graffiti.

Tables 34 and 35 represent the phase results for the NIBRS Group A and B offenses for Santa Fe Springs, California. This Study homeless encampment in Santa Fe Springs existed over an 11 month span. In the six months prior to the encampment being located there were 30 criminal offenses committed within 500 meters of the camp. During the 11 months of existence the encampment area had 130 offenses. Post encampment removal the area had 25 criminal offenses over the studied six month timespan. Larceny/Theft, Vandalism, and Trespass of Real Property are the visual standouts from this Study member. For the Comparison: Santa Fe Springs Library, we see much more consistency across the three timeframes. For the Comparison, the results show 43, 93, and 36 offenses, respectively. Larceny/Theft, Motor Vehicle theft, and Drug Offenses are the most consistent Comparison offense throughout the 23 month timeframe. The trend of numbers between the Comparison and Study member appear to flow in similar fashion. This could be reasoned for by many factors. Again we see the possibility of the small city population also denoting small size meaning criminals operate in a smaller area in total having greater effect. In the following two Study/Comparison sets from Santa Fe Springs it will be noted if the Study and Comparison trend the same.

Table 34

Study 8 Homeless Encampment, Santa Fe Springs, California Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (11 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	0	1	0
	Assault (All)	3	5	2

	Burglary	1	1	0
	Vandalism	1	11	4
	Drug Offenses	2	6	1
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	3	12	2
	Motor Vehicle Theft	1	4	2
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Robbery	0	0	0
	Sex Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	0	0	0
	Stolen Property Offenses	0	0	0
	Weapon Law Violations	0	1	0
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	0	0	0
	Drunkenness	1	0	1
	Liquor Law Violation	0	0	0
	Runaway	0	1	0
	Trespass of Real Property	13	82	11
	All Other Offenses	0	0	0

Table 35

Comparison 8 Santa Fe Springs Library, Santa Fe Springs, California Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (11 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	0	0	0
	Assault (All)	3	6	4
	Burglary	6	0	1
	Vandalism	2	8	3
	Drug Offenses	2	9	0
	Homicide (All)	1	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	15	49	17
	Motor Vehicle Theft	2	12	2
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Robbery	2	2	1
	Sex Offenses (All)	3	0	0
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	0	0	0

	Stolen Property Offenses	1	1	0
	Weapon Law Violations	1	0	0
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	0	0	0
	Drunkenness	0	1	0
	Liquor Law Violation	0	0	0
	Runaway	2	0	0
	Trespass of Real Property	0	0	0
	All Other Offenses	0	0	0

Table 36 provides insight into the monthly averages for police incidents/arrests for the Study encampment and Comparison library. Utilizing the monthly average across the 3 phases of the study allows us to easily compare pre-, exist-, and post-encampment phase to the same timeframes for the Comparison. At the library Comparison we see the monthly police incidents/arrests escalate and fall across the three phases for both NIBRS A and B offenses. At the Comparison NIBRS Group A offenses are at 6.333 per month during the pre-phase, increasing to 7.909 incidents/arrests per month during the exist-phase, a 24.89% decrease, and then slightly fall to 9.333 per month during the post-phase which is a 12.51% increase. NIBRS B offenses at the Comparison average 0.333 incidents/arrests per month during the pre-phase, decreasing to 0.09 incidents/arrests during the exist-phase, and fall to 0.00 per month during post-phase. The average numbers across the Study encampment in the pre- and exist-encampment phase are congruent with the expectation of police incidents/arrests rising during a camp's existence. Between the pre- and camp existence returns for NIBRS offenses we see an overall increase between the pre- and exist-phases. Between pre- and exist-phases for NIBRS Group A offenses we see an increase of 103.31%, which falls by 50.82 % during the post-phase. From the pre- and exist phases we see NIBRS Group B offenses increase

223.40%. Post encampment treatments, by way of cleanup, NIBRS Group B offenses are reduced by 73.49%.

Table 36

Study 8 / Comparison 8 Monthly Average Comparison by NIBRS Group – Santa Fe Springs, CA

Offense Group	Pre-phase	Exist-phase	Post-phase
NIBRS A per Month	1.833 / 6.333	3.727 / 7.909	1.833 / 4.667
Location	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison
NIBRS B per Month	2.333 / 0.333	7.545 / 0.09	2.00 / 0.00
Location	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison

Monthly average offense comparison for Study and Comparison over 6 month Pre-phase, 11 month Exist-phase, and 6 month Post-phase.

According to the 2020 U.S. Census the population of Santa Fe Springs, California was 19,219, and 2,169.20 persons per square mile. In 2020, the city reported 161 homeless residents (Colorado Coalition for the Homeless, 2022). In 2020, City-Data.com (2023) placed the crime index for the city at 464.7. The City-Data.com crime index weighs serious crimes and violent crimes more heavily. Higher means more crime, U.S. average is 254.8. The scale adjusts for the number of visitors and daily workers commuting into cities. Due to Santa Fe Springs making up data sets 7-10, relevant statistics for Santa Fe Springs are provided in Table 43 City Data for Santa Fe Springs, California following Study and Comparison #10 Santa Fe Springs, CA.

Study and Comparison #9 Santa Fe Springs, CA

Santa Fe Springs, California is a small city in which the studied homeless encampment existed for 267 days. The cost of the encampment's cleanup was $4,950.00. Santa Fe Springs Police Department provided NIBRS qualified data which were able to be transitioned into the Study and Comparison NIBRS-based spreadsheets.

Figure 9

Study #9 – Santa Fe Springs, CA and Comparison #9 – Santa Fe Springs Library

The Google Earth mapping images above represent Study #9 – Santa Fe Springs, California homeless encampment on the left and Comparison #9 – Santa Fe Springs Library on the right. Please note the yellow thumbtack for the GPS coordinates of the homeless encampment location and yellow circle noting the 500 meter perimeter for the study. For the Comparison, the red pin is based on the Comparison member's street address. Note the same yellow circle forming the 500 meter perimeter for the study.

Tables 37 and 38 represent the phase results for the NIBRS Group A and B offenses for Santa Fe Springs, California. This Study homeless encampment in Santa Fe Springs existed over a 10 month span. In the six months prior to the encampment being located there were 22 criminal offenses committed within 500 meters of the camp.

During the 10 months of existence the encampment area had 93 offenses. Post encampment removal the area had 15 criminal offenses over the studied six month timespan. Burglary, Vandalism, Larceny/Theft, and Trespass of Real Property are the visual standouts from this Study member. For the Comparison: Santa Fe Springs Library, we see much more consistency across the three timeframes. For the Comparison, the results show 47, 82, and 27 offenses, respectively. Vandalism, Larceny/Theft, and Motor Vehicle Theft are the most consistent Comparison offense throughout the 23 month timeframe. The trend of numbers between the Comparison and Study member appear to flow in similar fashion. This could be reasoned for by many factors. Again we see the possibility of the small city population also denoting small size meaning criminals operate in a smaller area in total having greater effect. In the following Study/Comparison set from Santa Fe Springs it will be noted if the Study and Comparison trend the same.

Table 37

Study 9 Homeless Encampment, Santa Fe Springs, California Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (10 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	0	2	0
	Assault (All)	0	0	0
	Burglary	3	11	3
	Vandalism	6	5	5
	Drug Offenses	2	1	1
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	8	18	4
	Motor Vehicle Theft	2	2	2

	Prostitution Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Robbery	0	0	0
	Sex Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	0	0	0
	Stolen Property Offenses	0	0	0
	Weapon Law Violations	0	0	0
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	0	0	0
	Drunkenness	0	0	0
	Liquor Law Violation	0	0	0
	Runaway	1	0	0
	Trespass of Real Property	0	54	0
	All Other Offenses	0	0	0

Table 38

Comparison 9 Santa Fe Springs Library, Santa Fe Springs, California Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (10 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	0	0	0
	Assault (All)	2	7	3
	Burglary	3	0	1
	Vandalism	8	4	2
	Drug Offenses	2	9	0
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	27	39	14
	Motor Vehicle Theft	2	13	3
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Robbery	0	2	1
	Sex Offenses (All)	1	0	0
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	0	0	0
	Stolen Property Offenses	1	1	0
	Weapon Law Violations	7	2	3
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	0	0	0
	Drunkenness	0	1	0
	Liquor Law Violation	0	0	0
	Runaway	0	0	0
	Trespass of Real Property	23	64	9

All Other Offenses	0	0	0

Table 39 provides insight into the monthly averages for police incidents/arrests for the Study encampment and Comparison library. Utilizing the monthly average across the 3 phases of the study allows us to easily compare pre-, exist-, and post-encampment phase to the same timeframes for the Comparison. At the library Comparison we see the monthly police incidents/arrests escalate and fall across the three phases for both NIBRS A and B offenses. At the Comparison NIBRS Group A offenses are at 8.833 per month during the pre-phase, decreasing to 7.70 incidents/arrests per month during the exist-phase, a 12.83% decrease, and then fall to 4.50 per month during the post-phase which is a 41.56% decrease. NIBRS B offenses at the Comparison average 3.833 incidents/arrests per month during the pre-phase, increasing to 6.50 incidents/arrests during the exist-phase, a 69.58% increase, and fall to 1.50 per month during post-phase which is a 76.92% decrease. The average numbers across the Study encampment in the pre- and exist-encampment phase are congruent with the expectation of police incidents/arrests rising during a camp's existence. Between the pre- and camp existence returns for NIBRS offenses we see an overall increase between the pre- and exist-phases. Between pre- and exist-phases for NIBRS Group A offenses we see an increase of 11.43%, which falls by 35.90 % during the post-phase. From the pre- and exist phases we see NIBRS Group B offenses increase 3,133.53%. Post encampment treatments, by way of cleanup, NIBRS Group B offenses are reduced by 100% by falling to zero offenses per month.

Table 39

Study 9 / Comparison 9 Monthly Average Comparison by NIBRS Group – Santa Fe Springs, CA

Offense Group	Pre-phase	Exist-phase	Post-phase
NIBRS A per Month Location	3.50 / 8.833 Study / Comparison	3.90 / 7.70 Study / Comparison	2.50 / 4.50 Study / Comparison
NIBRS B per Month Location	0.167 / 3.833 Study / Comparison	5.40 / 6.50 Study / Comparison	0.00 / 1.50 Study / Comparison

Monthly average offense comparison for Study and Comparison over 6 month Pre-phase, 10 month Exist-phase, and 6 month Post-phase.

According to the 2020 U.S. Census the population of Santa Fe Springs, California was 19,219, and 2,169.20 persons per square mile. In 2020, the city reported 161 homeless residents (Colorado Coalition for the Homeless, 2022). In 2020, City-Data.com (2023) placed the crime index for the city at 464.7. The City-Data.com crime index weighs serious crimes and violent crimes more heavily. Higher means more crime, U.S. average is 254.8. The scale adjusts for the number of visitors and daily workers commuting into cities. Due to Santa Fe Springs making up data sets 7-10, relevant statistics for Santa Fe Springs are provided in Table 43 City Data for Santa Fe Springs, California following Study and Comparison #10 Santa Fe Springs, CA.

Study and Comparison #10 Santa Fe Springs, CA

Santa Fe Springs, California is a small city in which the studied homeless encampment existed for 231 days. The cost of the encampment's cleanup was $3,800.00. Santa Fe Springs Police Department provided NIBRS qualified data which were able to be transitioned into the Study and Comparison NIBRS-based spreadsheets.

Figure 10

Study #10 – Santa Fe Springs, CA and Comparison #10 – Santa Fe Springs Library

The Google Earth mapping images above represent Study #10 – Santa Fe Springs, California homeless encampment on the left and Comparison #10 – Santa Fe Springs Library on the right. Please note the yellow thumbtack for the GPS coordinates of the homeless encampment location and yellow circle noting the 500 meter perimeter for the study. For the Comparison, the red pin is based on the Comparison member's street address. Note the same yellow circle forming the 500 meter perimeter for the study.

Image 5

Study #10 Santa Fe Springs, California Homeless Encampment Photos

Photographs of a portion of the homeless encampment displaying ingredients of disorder and social decay.

Image 6

Study #10 Santa Fe Springs, California Homeless Encampment After Removal/Mitigation Photos

Following the homeless camp's cleanup no signs of disorder or social decay remain.

Tables 40 and 41 represent the phase results for the NIBRS Group A and B offenses for Santa Fe Springs, California. This Study homeless encampment in Santa Fe Springs existed over a nine month span. In the six months prior to the encampment being located there were 36 criminal offenses committed within 500 meters of the camp. During the nine months of existence the encampment area had 83 offenses. Post encampment removal the area had 31 criminal offenses over the studied six month timespan. Larceny/Theft, Burglary, Vandalism, and Trespass of Real Property are the visual standouts from this Study member. For the Comparison: Santa Fe Springs Library, we see much more consistency across the three timeframes. For the Comparison, the results show 47, 76, and 29 offenses, respectively. Larceny/Theft, Motor Vehicle Theft, and Vandalism are the most consistent Comparison offenses throughout the 21 month timeframe. The trend of numbers between the Comparison and Study member appear to flow in similar fashion. This could be reasoned for by many factors. Again we see the possibility of the small city population also denoting small size meaning criminals operate in a smaller area in total having greater effect. In the following two Study/ Comparison sets from Santa Fe Springs it will be noted if the Study and Comparison trend the same.

Table 40

Study 10 Homeless Encampment, Santa Fe Springs, California Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (9 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	0	1	1
	Assault (All)	0	1	1

	Burglary	5	8	5
	Vandalism	5	5	2
	Drug Offenses	1	0	1
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	4	13	8
	Motor Vehicle Theft	2	2	4
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Robbery	0	1	0
	Sex Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	0	0	0
	Stolen Property Offenses	0	0	0
	Weapon Law Violations	0	0	0
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	1	0	0
	Drunkenness	0	0	0
	Liquor Law Violation	0	0	0
	Runaway	0	0	0
	Trespass of Real Property	18	52	8
	All Other Offenses	0	0	0

Table 41

Comparison 10 Santa Fe Springs Library, Santa Fe Springs, California Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (9 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	0	0	0
	Assault (All)	2	7	2
	Burglary	3	0	1
	Vandalism	8	4	2
	Drug Offenses	2	9	0
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	27	35	16
	Motor Vehicle Theft	2	11	5
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Robbery	0	2	1

	Sex Offenses (All)	1	0	0
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	0	0	0
	Stolen Property Offenses	1	1	0
	Weapon Law Violations	7	2	3
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	0	0	0
	Drunkenness	0	1	0
	Liquor Law Violation	0	0	0
	Runaway	0	0	0
	Trespass of Real Property	0	0	0
	All Other Offenses	0	0	0

Table 42 provides insight into the monthly averages for police incidents/arrests for the Study encampment and Comparison library. Utilizing the monthly average across the 3 phases of the study allows us to easily compare pre-, exist-, and post-encampment phase to the same timeframes for the Comparison. At the library Comparison we see the monthly police incidents/arrests minimally rise and fall across the three phases for both NIBRS A and B offenses. At the Comparison NIBRS Group A offenses are at 8.833 per month during the pre-phase, decreasing to 7.889 incidents/arrests per month during the exist-phase, a 10.69% decrease, and then fall to 3.667 per month during the post-phase which is a 36.62% decrease. NIBRS B offenses at the Comparison average zero incidents/arrests per month during the pre-phase, increasing to 0.167 incidents/arrests during the exist-phase, and fall to zero per month during post-phase. The average numbers across the Study encampment in the pre- and exist-encampment phase are congruent with the expectation of police incidents/arrests rising during a camp's existence. Between the pre- and camp existence returns for NIBRS offenses we see an overall increase between the pre- and exist-phases. Between pre- and exist-phases for NIBRS Group A offenses we see an increase of 21.57%, which oddly increases again by

6.48 % during the post-phase. From the pre- and exist phases we see NIBRS Group B offenses increase 82.50%. Post encampment treatments, by way of cleanup, NIBRS Group B offenses are reduced by 76.93% per month.

Table 42

Study 10 / Comparison 10 Monthly Average Comparison by NIBRS Group – Santa Fe Springs, CA

Offense Group	Pre-phase	Exist-phase	Post-phase
NIBRS A per Month Location	2.833 / 8.833 Study / Comparison	3.444 / 7.889 Study / Comparison	3.667 / 5.00 Study / Comparison
NIBRS B per Month Location	3.166 / 0.00 Study / Comparison	5.778 / 0.167 Study / Comparison	1.333 / 0.00 Study / Comparison

Monthly average offense comparison for Study and Comparison over 6 month Pre-phase, 9 month Exist-phase, and 6 month Post-phase.

The four Study and Comparison data sets from Santa Fe Springs provide interesting interpretations due to being from the same city. The other eight Study and Comparisons provide similar insight regarding crime levels during pre-, during, and post-timeframes of the homeless encampment and use those same timeframes to examine the library as a Comparison, Santa Fe Springs is different. It is different because the setting is in the same jurisdiction, the law enforcement agency is the same for all four Study/ Comparison sets, and due to this we can substantiate duplication between the four test members which lends to a higher degree of accuracy for this study overall and this micro aspect of the study as well.

According the 2020 U.S. Census the population of Santa Fe Springs, California was 19,219, and 2,169.20 persons per square mile. In 2020, the city reported 161 homeless residents (Colorado Coalition for the Homeless, 2022). In 2020, City-Data.com

(2023) placed the crime index for the city at 464.7. The City-Data.com crime index weighs serious crimes and violent crimes more heavily. Higher means more crime, U.S. average is 254.8. The scale adjusts for the number of visitors and daily workers commuting into cities.

Table 43 illustrates the relevant city-level data for Santa Fe Springs, California. Five crimes had valid factors, that consisting of arson, assault, burglary, larceny/theft, and motor vehicle theft, with the risks associated with becoming a victim of each of these crimes increasing during the encampment period by a factor of two or more.

Table 43

City Data for Santa Fe Springs, California (Data set members 7-10)

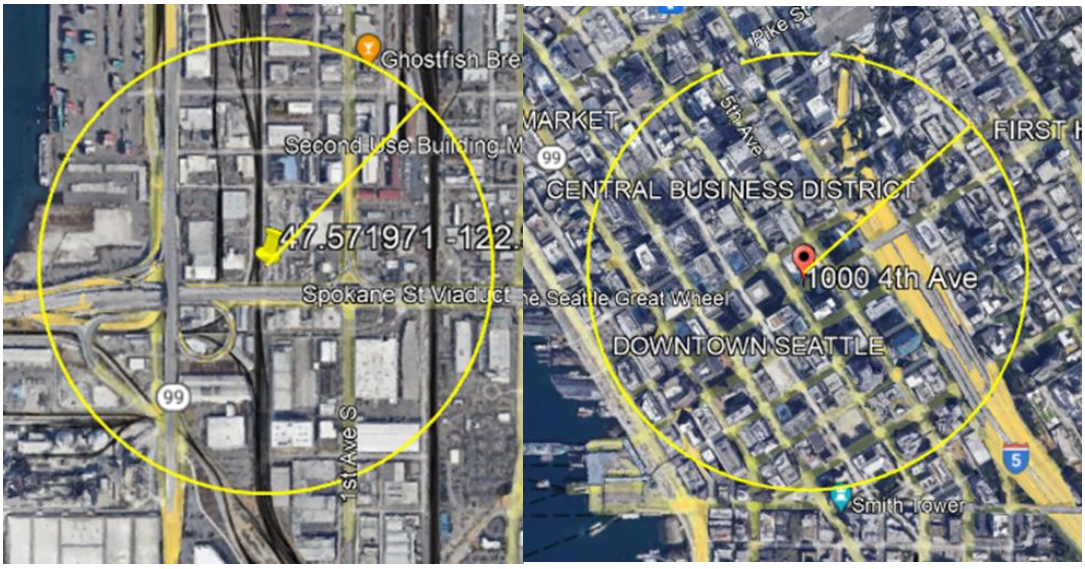
Crime	Factor	*N*	Rate	Adjusted Rate
Arson	2.50	1.00	5.60	14.00
Assault	5.00	56.00	314.80	1574.00
Burglary	2.07	195.00	1096.00	2265.07
Homicide	.	2.00	11.20	.
Larceny/Theft	3.45	635.00	3569.00	12299.53
Motor Vehicle Theft	2.42	209.00	1175.00	2839.58
Robbery	.	31.00	174.20	

Study and Comparison #11 Seattle, WA

Seattle, Washington is a large city in which the studied homeless encampment existed for 347 days. The cost of the encampment's cleanup was $26,457.00. Seattle Police Department provided NIBRS qualified data which were able to be transitioned into the Study and Comparison NIBRS-based spreadsheets.

Figure 11

Study #11 – Seattle, Washington and Comparison #11 – Seattle Public Library



The Google Earth mapping images above represent Study #11 – Seattle, Washington homeless encampment on the left and Comparison #11 – Seattle Public Library on the right. Please note the yellow thumbtack for the GPS coordinates of the homeless encampment location and yellow circle noting the 500 meter perimeter for the study. For the Comparison, the red pin is based on the Comparison member's street address. Note the same yellow circle forming the 500 meter perimeter for the study.

Tables 44 and 45 represent the phase results for the NIBRS Group A and B offenses for Seattle, Washington. This Study homeless encampment in Seattle, Washington existed over a 12 month span. In the six months prior to the encampment being located there were 62 criminal offenses committed within 500 meters of the camp.

During the 12 months of existence the encampment area had 423 offenses. Post encampment removal the area had 76 criminal offenses over the studied six month timespan. Assaults, Larceny/Theft, Motor Vehicle Theft, Burglary, Vandalism, and Trespass of Real Property are the visual standouts from this Study member. During the existence of the encampment there is a rise in Disorderly Conduct and Weapon law Violations that are not observed with the same frequency in the pre- and post-encampment phases. The homeless populace has historically been managed via these offense types. Regarding weapons, violations homeless often carry weapons. Some use those weapons for criminal acts, and some use them solely for self-protection. It is quite common to complete stops on homeless offenders, and they are in possession of holding saws, hatchets, hammers, or machetes. While these tools are incremental to their lifestyle, when carried on the belt they can be illegal, state law dependent. For the Comparison: Seattle Public Library, we see much more consistency across the three timeframes. For the Comparison, the results show 809, 2042, and 830 offenses, respectively. Assaults, Burglary, Larceny/Theft, Motor Vehicle Theft, Robbery, Weapons Law Violations, Vandalism, Sex Offenses (All), and Trespass of real Property are the most consistent Comparison offenses throughout the 24 month timeframe.

Table 44

Study 11 Homeless Encampment, Seattle, Washington Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (12 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	0	0	0
	Assault (All)	9	32	9

	Burglary	9	89	18
	Vandalism	5	46	4
	Drug Offenses	0	0	2
	Homicide (All)	0	0	0
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	11	36	6
	Motor Vehicle Theft	7	40	18
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Robbery	0	2	0
	Sex Offenses (All)	1	0	0
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	0	0	0
	Stolen Property Offenses	0	0	0
	Weapon Law Violations	1	4	2
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	0	14	2
	Drunkenness	0	1	0
	Liquor Law Violation	0	1	0
	Runaway	0	0	0
	Trespass of Real Property	9	126	6
	All Other Offenses	0	0	0

Table 45

Comparison 11 Seattle Public Library, Seattle, Washington Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (12 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	1	19	5
	Assault (All)	206	526	257
	Burglary	76	190	76
	Vandalism	64	166	79
	Drug Offenses	14	25	92
	Homicide (All)	17	4	2
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	1	1	1
	Larceny/Theft (All)	68	297	145
	Motor Vehicle Theft	62	106	52
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	4	0	0
	Robbery	33	92	47
	Sex Offenses (All)	27	36	20
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	0	0	0

	Stolen Property Offenses	0	0	0
	Weapon Law Violations	11	33	38
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	0	0	0
	Disorderly Conduct	0	0	0
	Drunkenness	0	0	0
	Liquor Law Violation	0	0	0
	Runaway	1	4	1
	Trespass of Real Property	24	17	14
	All Other Offenses	0	0	0

Table 46 provides insight into the monthly averages for police incidents/arrests for the Study encampment and Comparison library. Utilizing the monthly average across the 3 phases of the study allows us to easily compare pre-, exist-, and post-encampment phase to the same timeframes for the Comparison. At the library Comparison we see the monthly police incidents/arrests minimally rise and fall across the three phases for both NIBRS A and B offenses. At the Comparison NIBRS Group A offenses are at 101.50 per month during the pre-phase, increasing to 124.58 incidents/arrests per month during the exist-phase, a 22.74% increase, and then increase to 135.667 per month during the post-phase which is an 8.90% increase. NIBRS B offenses at the Comparison average 4.167 incidents/arrests per month during the pre-phase, decreasing by 58% to 1.75 incidents/arrests during the exist-phase, and rise to 2.50 per month during post-phase which is a 42.86% increase. The average numbers across the Study encampment in the pre- and exist-encampment phase are congruent with the expectation of police incidents/arrests rising during a camp's existence. Between the pre- and camp existence returns for NIBRS offenses we see an overall increase between the pre- and exist-phases. Between pre- and exist-phases for NIBRS Group A offenses we see an increase of 189.52%, which decreases by 52.6% during the post-phase. From the pre- and exist

phases we see NIBRS Group B offenses increase 688.87%. Post encampment treatments, by way of cleanup, NIBRS Group B offenses are reduced by 88.75% per month.

Table 46

Study 11 / Comparison 11 Monthly Average Comparison by NIBRS Group – Seattle, Washington

Offense Group	Pre-phase	Exist-phase	Post-phase
NIBRS A per Month	7.167 / 101.50	20.75 / 124.58	9.833 / 135.667
Location	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison
NIBRS B per Month	1.50 / 4.167	11.833 / 1.75	1.333 / 2.50
Location	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison	Study / Comparison

Monthly average offense comparison for Study and Comparison over 6 month Pre-phase, 12 month Exist-phase, and 6 month Post-phase.

According the 2020 U.S. Census the population of Seattle, Washington was 737,015, and 8,791.80 persons per square mile. In 2020, the city reported 8,166 homeless residents (Nguyen, 2020). In 2020, City-Data.com (2023) placed the crime index for the city at 440.8. The City-Data.com crime index weighs serious crimes and violent crimes more heavily. Higher means more crime, U.S. average is 254.8. The scale adjusts for the number of visitors and daily workers commuting into cities.

Table 47 presents the city-level data associated with Seattle, Washington. Four crimes had valid and non-zero factors, with these consisting of assault, burglary, larceny/theft, and motor vehicle theft. In all four cases, the risk of becoming a victim of one of these crimes was increased substantially during the encampment period. These factors varied from a minimum of 3.20 in the case of motor vehicle theft, to a maximum of 6.59 with regard to burglary. These results show a particularly substantial increase in

the risk of becoming a victim of crime in Seattle, Washington during the encampment period.

Table 47

City Data for Seattle, Washington

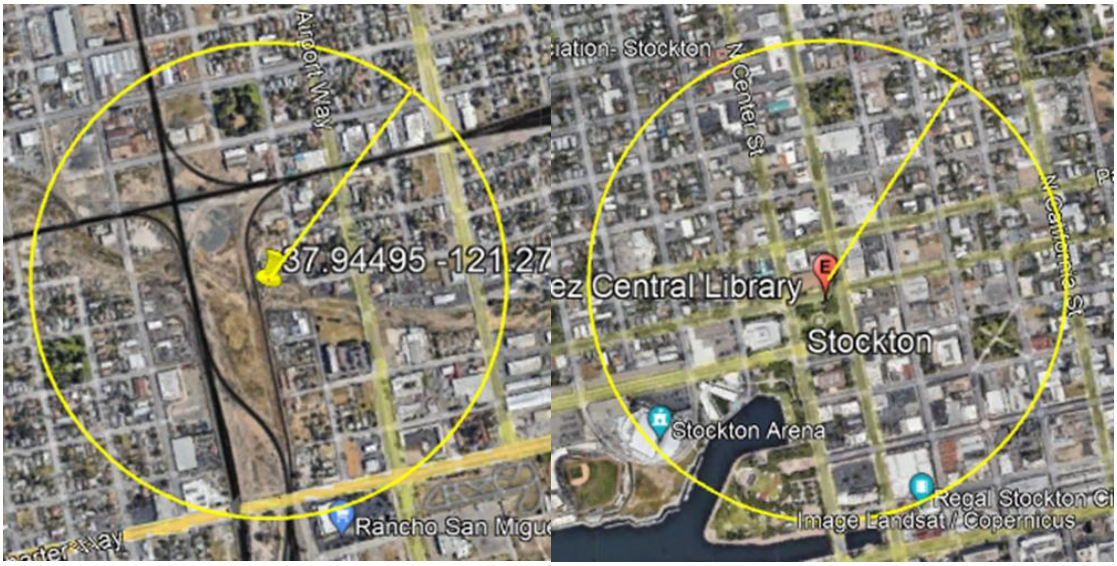
Crime	Factor	*N*	Rate	Adjusted Rate
Arson	0.00	208.00	27.00	0.00
Assault	3.56	3008.00	389.90	1386.31
Burglary	6.59	10427.00	1351.00	8906.59
Homicide	.	52.00	6.70	.
Larceny/Theft	4.24	22255.00	2885.00	12218.82
Motor Vehicle Theft	3.20	4911.00	636.50	2036.80
Robbery	.	909.00	288.60	.

Study and Comparison #12 Stockton, CA

Stockton, California is a large city in which the studied homeless encampment existed for 269 days. The cost of the encampment's cleanup was $1,120.00. Stockton Police Department provided NIBRS qualified data which were able to be transitioned into the Study and Comparison NIBRS-based spreadsheets.

Figure 12

Study #12 – Stockton, CA and Comparison #12 – Cesar Chavez Central Library



The Google Earth mapping images above represent Study #12 – Stockton, California homeless encampment on the left and Comparison #12 – Cesar Chavez Central Library on the right. Please note the yellow thumbtack for the GPS coordinates of the homeless encampment location and yellow circle noting the 500 meter perimeter for the study. For the Comparison, the red pin is based on the Comparison member's street address. Note the same yellow circle forming the 500 meter perimeter for the study.

Image 7

Study #12 Stockton, California Homeless Encampment Photos

Photographs of a portion of the homeless encampment. The advent of vehicles and even mail service have become a new norm. Identifying information from the photo software has been boxed and blurred.

Image 8

Study #12 Stockton, CA Homeless Encampment After Removal/Mitigation Photo

Following the homeless camp's cleanup some signs of disorder or social decay remain by way of unremoved graffiti. Identifying information from the photo software has been boxed and blurred.

Tables 48 and 49 represent the phase results for the NIBRS Group A and B offenses for Stockton, California. This Study homeless encampment in Stockton, California existed over a 10 month span. In the six months prior to the encampment being located there were 303 criminal offenses committed within 500 meters of the camp. During the 10 months of existence the encampment area had 755 offenses. Post encampment removal the area had 336 criminal offenses over the studied six month timespan. This Study and Comparison set displays a wide dispersal of criminal offense types. In fact the only offenses without representation are Human Trafficking, Kidnapping/Abduction, and Liquor Law Violation. During the existence of the encampment there is a rise in Disorderly Conduct and Weapon law Violations that are not observed with the same frequency in the pre- and post-encampment phases. Nor do we observe this fluctuation within the Comparison. For the Comparison: Cesar Chavez Central Library, a flow of consistency exists across the three studied timeframes for all of the criminal offenses. For the Comparison the results show 1,104, 1,834, and 1,118 offenses respectively. Again, similar to the Study, there is a wide range of offenses recorded with only a few not represented during the 22 month timeframe.

Table 48

Study 12 Homeless Encampment, Stockton, California Phase Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (10 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	3	19	0
	Assault (All)	44	56	42
	Burglary	10	9	14
	Vandalism	18	32	16

	Drug Offenses	4	2	2
	Homicide (All)	1	1	1
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	0	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	40	250	57
	Motor Vehicle Theft	12	10	15
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	0	0	0
	Robbery	13	10	14
	Sex Offenses (All)	0	1	0
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	6	7	13
	Stolen Property Offenses	1	7	1
	Weapon Law Violations	6	9	14
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	10	9	7
	Disorderly Conduct	39	69	30
	Drunkenness	5	5	11
	Liquor Law Violation	0	0	0
	Runaway	1	1	0
	Trespass of Real Property	32	188	43
	All Other Offenses	8	14	11

Table 49

Comparison 12 Cesar Chavez Central Library, Stockton, California Phase Offense Totals

NIBRS Offense		Pre-phase (6 months)	Exist-phase (10 months)	Post-phase (6 months)
Group A	Arson	4	4	0
	Assault (All)	107	203	96
	Burglary	32	41	39
	Vandalism	67	91	51
	Drug Offenses	26	31	25
	Homicide (All)	1	2	1
	Human Trafficking	0	0	0
	Kidnapping/Abduction	0	2	0
	Larceny/Theft (All)	154	126	168
	Motor Vehicle Theft	39	55	35
	Prostitution Offenses (All)	1	6	0
	Robbery	20	25	16
	Sex Offenses (All)	18	36	26
	Sex Offenses/Nonforcible (All)	5	4	1
	Stolen Property Offenses	5	4	1

	Weapon Law Violations	35	107	34
Group B	Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy	81	114	78
	Disorderly Conduct	284	514	297
	Drunkenness	24	34	19
	Liquor Law Violation	0	0	0
	Runaway	5	5	3
	Trespass of Real Property	90	211	123
	All Other Offenses	2	8	3

Table 50 provides insight into the monthly averages for police incidents/arrests for the Study encampment and Comparison library. Utilizing the monthly average across the 3 phases of the study allows us to easily compare pre-, exist-, and post-encampment phase to the same timeframes for the Comparison. At the library Comparison we see the monthly police incidents/arrests minimally rise and fall across the three phases for both NIBRS A and B offenses. At the Comparison NIBRS Group A offenses are at 85.667 per month during the pre-phase, decreasing to 73.70 incidents/arrests per month during the exist-phase, a 13.97% decrease, and then increase to 82.167 per month during the post-phase which is a 11.49% increase. NIBRS B offenses at the Comparison average 81.00 incidents/arrests per month during the pre-phase, increasing by 9.38% to 88.60 incidents/arrests during the exist-phase, and fall to 87.167 per month during post-phase which is a 1.62% decrease. The average numbers across the Study encampment in the pre- and exist-encampment phase are congruent with the expectation of police incidents/arrests rising during a camp's existence. Between the pre- and camp existence returns for NIBRS offenses we see an overall increase between the pre- and exist-phases. Between pre- and exist-phases for NIBRS Group A offenses we see an increase of 56.84%, which decreases by 23.73% during the post-phase. From the pre- and exist

phases we see NIBRS Group B offenses increase 50.53%. Post encampment treatments, by way of cleanup, NIBRS Group B offenses are reduced by 28.67% per month.

Table 50

Study 12 / Comparison 12 Monthly Average Comparison by NIBRS Group – Stockton, California

Offense Group	Pre-phase	Exist-phase	Post-phase
NIBRS A per Month Location	26.333 / 85.667 Study / Comparison	41.30 / 73.70 Study / Comparison	31.50 / 82.167 Study / Comparison
NIBRS B per Month Location	15.833 / 81.00 Study / Comparison	23.833 / 88.60 Study / Comparison	17.00 / 87.167 Study / Comparison

Monthly average offense comparison for Study and Comparison over 6 month Pre-phase, 10 month Exist-phase, and 6 month Post-phase.

According to the 2020 U.S. Census the population of Stockton, California was 320,804, and 5,157 persons per square mile. In 2019, the city reported 921 homeless residents (Chesire & Mendelson, 2022). In 2020, City-Data.com (2023) placed the crime index for the city at 505.2. The City-Data.com crime index weighs serious crimes and violent crimes more heavily. Higher means more crime, U.S. average is 254.8. The scale adjusts for the number of visitors and daily workers commuting into cities.

Table 51 presents the associated city-level data for Stockton, California. While the risk of becoming a victim of burglary, motor vehicle theft, and robbery in fact decreased during the encampment period, risks were very substantially increased with respect to arson with a factor of 12.67, and with risks also increasing with regard to assault and larceny/theft, and with no change indicated with respect to homicide.

Table 51

City Data for Stockton, California

Crime	Factor	*N*	Rate	Adjusted Rate
Arson	12.67	187.00	59.40	752.40
Assault	1.30	2869.00	910.80	1186.16
Burglary	0.75	1533.00	486.70	365.03
Homicide	1.00	56.00	17.80	17.80
Larceny/Theft	5.15	6362.00	2020.00	10412.37
Motor Vehicle Theft	0.74	1496.00	474.90	351.78
Robbery	0.71	909.00	288.60	206.14

Table 52 displays monthly averages for police incidents/arrests for the Study encampment and Comparison library across the involved 11 cities. Utilizing the conglomerated monthly average across the 3 phases of the study allows us to easily compare pre-, exist-, and post-encampment phase to the same timeframes for the Comparison. At the library Comparison we see the monthly police incidents/arrests remains nearly constant with little variance across the three phases for both NIBRS A and B offenses. At the Comparison NIBRS Group A offenses across the 11 members average 28.803 per month during the pre-phase, decreasing to 28.783 incidents/arrests per month during the exist-phase, a 0.069% decrease, and then decrease to 28.046 per month during the post-phase which is a 2.561% decrease. NIBRS B offenses across the 11 members at the Comparison average 10.439 incidents/arrests per month during the pre-phase, increasing by 10.346% to 11.519 incidents/arrests during the exist-phase, and fall to 10.106 per month during post-phase which is a 12.267% decrease. The average numbers across the 11 Study encampments in the pre- and exist-encampment phase are congruent with the expectation of police incidents/arrests rising during a camp's existence. Between

the pre- and camp existence returns for Type A and B NIBRS offenses we see an overall increase between the pre- and exist-phases. Between pre- and exist-phases for NIBRS Group A offenses we see an increase of 56.671%, which decreases by 28.59% during the post-phase. From the pre- and exist phases we see NIBRS Group B offenses increase 135.652%%. Post encampment treatments, by way of cleanup, NIBRS Group B offenses are reduced by 67.595% per month.

Table 52

Study 2-12 / Comparison 2-12 Combined Monthly Average Comparison by NIBRS Group

Offense Group	Pre-phase	Exist-phase	Post-phase
NIBRS A per Month Location	10.106 / 28.803 Study / Comparison	15.53 / 28.783 Study / Comparison	11.09 / 28.046 Study / Comparison
NIBRS B per Month Location	5.06 / 10.439 Study / Comparison	11.924 / 11.519 Study / Comparison	3.864 / 10.106 Study / Comparison

Monthly average offense comparison for Study and Comparison over 6 month Pre-phase, 10 month Exist-phase, and 6 month Post-phase.

Paired-Samples t-Tests

In order to pursue more robust results beyond the descriptive statistics and testing related to the individual Study and Comparison members it is important to involve other methods. In this section we will explore the application of Paired-Samples t-Tests to data sets. Paired-Samples t-Tests are made up of subjects that both experience the variable of interest (George and Mallery, 2019). In this case that variable of interest is made up of differing timeframes and criminal offenses for the Study and Comparison sites. Paired-Samples t-Tests will be utilized in many avenues to compare data set members.

With regard to the primary set of results from each city based Study site and Comparison site in the prior sections, these analyses consisted of the following: (a) comparing the pre-encampment, encampment, and post-encampment periods separately by group, or in other words, splitting the dataset into the Comparison sites (libraries) and Study sites(homeless encampments); (b) comparing these same three time periods but separately on the basis of group as well as the specific crime in question; and, (c) comparing the same time periods but separately on the basis of group as well as crime group or crime category.

The initial set of results presented here examine mean differences in crime when comparing the pre-encampment, encampment, and post-encampment periods, aggregating all crimes and crime categories from NIBRS, as well as aggregating all cities, and performing these analyses separately on the basis of group. These results, for both the Study sites and treatment Comparison sites (libraries), are presented in Table 53. As shown, four of these six Paired-Samples t-Tests were found to achieve statistical

significance at the .05 alpha level. First, with regard to the Study sites (homeless encampments), crime was found to be significantly reduced in both the pre-encampment and post-encampment periods as compared with the encampment period itself. Next, with regard to the Comparison sites (libraries), the same significant differences were found, with mean differences also found to be remarkably similar, between both the pre-encampment and post-encampment periods, and the encampment period itself. In addition, the same pattern was found, with a significantly increased incidence of crime found during the encampment's exist phase as compared with the periods of both the pre-phase and post-phase of the encampment. This result directly ties the homeless encampments existence to heightened rates of crime. In turn this elevation in crime can be related to the encampment's disorder based condition as presented through each Study encampment's city based sections as well as the photo evidence of various homeless encampment Study members.

Table 53

Paired-Samples t-Tests of All Crimes by Group

Group	Comparison	*M*	*SD*	95% CI		*t*	*p*
				Lower	Upper		
Comparison	Pre – Exist	-10.509	57.158	-17.295	-3.724	-3.049	0.001
	Pre – Post	0.345	18.896	-1.898	2.589	0.303	0.381
	Exist - Post	10.855	47.170	5.255	16.454	3.816	<0.001
Study	Pre - Exist	-11.233	44.004	-16.457	-6.009	-4.233	<0.001
	Pre - Post	0.655	13.842	-0.989	2.298	0.784	0.217
	Exist – Post	11.887	40.313	7.102	16.673	4.890	<0.001

df = 274.

The following set of Paired-Samples t-Tests examined these data on the basis of the type of NIBRS based crime in question. These allowed for the determination of

whether these patterns in the incidence of crime were consistent across all types of crime, and if not, for which types of crime the pattern held and for which types of crime it did not.

Table 54 presents these results specifically for the Study sites (homeless encampments). Only a few of these Paired-Samples t-Tests were found to achieve statistical significance, while it should be noted that this complete set of analyses only had a degrees of freedom equal to 10, indicative of the very small sample size present in these analyses when conducting analyses on a such a focused level of detail as the specific crime in question. This small sample size would be associated with a much lower statistical power, which would substantially increase the difficulty and decrease the likelihood of finding any one of these results to achieve statistical significance at the same .05 alpha level.

Of these analyses, statistical significance was indicated with respect to Motor Vehicle Theft, Drunkenness, the agglomeration of Group A crimes, as well as All Other Crimes, which consisted of a separate category. With regard to Motor Vehicle Theft, Drunkenness, and All Other Crimes, statistical significance was indicated in the comparison between the pre-encampment and encampment periods, with significantly reduced crime present in the pre-encampment period. Additionally, with regard to the sum of NIBRS Group A crimes, statistical significance was present in the comparison between the encampment period and the post-encampment period. Here, the encampment period was associated with a significantly increased number of crimes as compared with the post-encampment period.

Table 54

Paired-Samples t-Tests by Crime: Study Sites (homeless encampments)

Group	Comparison	*M*	*SD*	95% CI		*t*	*p*
				Lower	Upper		
All Others	Pre - Exist	-1.273	2.284	-2.807	0.262	-1.848	0.047
	Pre - Post	2.636	9.091	-3.471	8.744	0.962	0.179
	Exist - Post	3.909	10.114	-2.886	10.704	1.282	0.114
Arson	Pre - Exist	-1.545	5.502	-5.242	2.151	-0.932	0.187
	Pre - Post	0.091	1.921	-1.200	1.382	0.157	0.439
	Exist - Post	1.636	4.296	-1.250	4.522	1.263	0.118
Assault	Pre - Exist	-10.909	29.409	-30.666	8.848	-1.230	0.123
	Pre - Post	2.636	12.027	-5.444	10.716	0.727	0.242
	Exist - Post	13.545	31.697	-7.749	34.840	1.417	0.093
Burglary	Pre - Exist	-9.455	35.582	-33.359	14.450	-0.881	0.199
	Pre - Post	2.818	12.032	-5.265	10.901	0.777	0.228
	Exist - Post	12.273	34.226	-10.721	35.266	1.189	0.131
Vagrancy[a]	Pre - Exist	-3.000	9.950	-9.684	3.684	-1.000	0.170
	Pre - Post	0.273	0.905	-0.335	0.880	1.000	0.170
	Exist - Post	3.273	10.854	-4.019	10.565	1.000	0.170
Disorderly Conduct	Pre - Exist	-20.091	69.643	-66.877	26.696	-0.957	0.181
	Pre - Post	1.000	7.376	-3.955	5.955	0.450	0.331
	Exist - Post	21.091	65.131	-22.665	64.847	1.074	0.154
Drug Offenses	Pre - Exist	-2.091	7.726	-7.281	3.099	-0.898	0.195
	Pre - Post	-2.909	25.595	-20.104	14.286	-0.377	0.357
	Exist - Post	-0.818	22.167	-15.710	14.074	-0.122	0.452
Drunkenness	Pre - Exist	-2.818	4.600	-5.909	0.272	-2.032	0.035
	Pre - Post	-0.636	4.154	-3.427	2.154	-0.508	0.311
	Exist - Post	2.182	4.332	-0.728	5.092	1.671	0.063
Group A Total	Pre - Exist	-102.455	217.865	-248.818	43.909	-1.560	0.075
	Pre - Post	3.636	80.812	-50.654	57.927	0.149	0.442
	Exist - Post	106.091	155.801	1.422	210.760	2.258	0.024
Group B Total	Pre - Exist	-38.091	120.218	-118.854	42.672	-1.051	0.159
	Pre - Post	0.909	28.466	-18.214	20.033	0.106	0.459
	Exist - Post	39.000	109.505	-34.567	112.567	1.181	0.132
Homicide	Pre - Exist	1.182	3.945	-1.469	3.832	0.994	0.172
	Pre - Post	1.455	4.503	-1.570	4.479	1.071	0.155
	Exist - Post	0.273	0.647	-0.162	0.707	1.399	0.096
Human Trafficking	Pre - Post	-0.091	0.302	-0.293	0.112	-1.000	0.170
	Exist - Post	-0.091	0.302	-0.293	0.112	-1.000	0.170
Kidnapping/Abduction	Pre - Post	0.000	0.447	-0.300	0.300	0.000	0.500
	Exist - Post	0.000	0.447	-0.300	0.300	0.000	0.500
Larceny/Theft	Pre - Exist	-22.545	70.622	-69.990	24.899	-1.059	0.157
	Pre - Post	-1.455	28.083	-20.321	17.412	-0.172	0.434
	Exist - Post	21.091	48.343	-11.387	53.568	1.447	0.089
Liquor Law	Pre - Exist	-0.091	0.302	-0.293	0.112	-1.000	0.170
	Pre - Post	0.182	0.603	-0.223	0.587	1.000	0.170
	Exist - Post	0.273	0.905	-0.335	0.880	1.000	0.170
Motor Vehicle Theft	Pre - Exist	-9.000	13.711	-18.211	0.211	-2.177	0.027
	Pre - Post	-0.545	6.362	-4.819	3.728	-0.284	0.391
	Exist - Post	8.455	17.835	-3.527	20.436	1.572	0.073
Prostitution Offenses	Pre - Exist	0.909	3.910	-1.718	3.536	0.771	0.229
	Pre - Post	1.091	2.300	-0.454	2.636	1.573	0.073
	Exist - Post	0.182	2.272	-1.345	1.708	0.265	0.398
Robbery	Pre - Exist	-6.455	17.523	-18.227	5.318	-1.222	0.125
	Pre - Post	-1.455	4.741	-4.639	1.730	-1.018	0.166
	Exist - Post	5.000	13.646	-4.167	14.167	1.215	0.126
Runaway	Pre - Exist	0.182	1.471	-0.806	1.170	0.410	0.345
	Pre - Post	0.273	1.104	-0.469	1.014	0.820	0.216
	Exist - Post	0.091	1.973	-1.234	1.416	0.153	0.441
Sex Offenses	Pre - Exist	-1.091	4.230	-3.933	1.751	-0.855	0.206
	Pre - Post	0.636	3.042	-1.407	2.680	0.694	0.252
	Exist - Post	1.727	4.901	-1.565	5.020	1.169	0.135

Sex Offenses Nonforcible	Pre - Exist	-2.273	5.850	-6.203	1.657	-1.289 0.113
	Pre - Post	-0.364	2.618	-2.123	1.395	-0.461 0.327
	Exist - Post	1.909	3.833	-0.666	4.484	1.652 0.065
Stolen Property Offenses	Pre - Exist	0.182	0.405	-0.090	0.454	1.491 0.083
	Pre - Post	0.545	1.293	-0.323	1.414	1.399 0.096
	Exist - Post	0.364	1.027	-0.326	1.054	1.174 0.134
Trespass	Pre - Exist	-11.000	36.707	-35.660	13.660	-0.994 0.172
	Pre - Post	-2.818	14.155	-12.328	6.691	-0.660 0.262
	Exist - Post	8.182	27.232	-10.113	26.476	0.996 0.171
Vandalism	Pre - Exist	-11.727	33.362	-34.140	10.686	-1.166 0.135
	Pre - Post	2.909	9.596	-3.538	9.356	1.005 0.169
	Exist - Post	14.636	27.167	-3.615	32.888	1.787 0.052
Weapon Law Violations	Pre - Exist	-9.273	22.010	-24.059	5.513	-1.397 0.096
	Pre - Post	-2.182	8.352	-7.793	3.429	-0.866 0.203
	Exist - Post	7.091	22.047	-7.721	21.903	1.067 0.156

df = 10; [a]Includes Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy.

A substantially greater number of significant results were found here as were indicated with regard to the Study sites (homeless encampments). In this current set of analyses, significant differences in the incidence of crime were indicated with regard to Motor Vehicle Theft, Runaway, Stolen Property Offenses, Trespassing, and Vandalism, as well as both NIBRS Groups A and B. This result finds agreement with the descriptive increases of both NIBRS Group A and Group B found in each setting and goes further to provide specific crimes in which the offense at the encampment as comparable to the Library was a standout during the same time period comparison.

As indicated in Table 55 for the Public Library data, a significantly increased incidence of crime during the exist-phase was found as compared with the pre-phase period with regard to Group A crimes, Group B crimes, Trespassing, and Vandalism. Next, a significantly increased incidence of crimes was found in the post-phase period as compared with the encampment period with regard to both Groups A and B, Motor Vehicle Theft, Runaway, Trespassing, and Vandalism. Finally, in a few cases, significant differences in the incidence of crime were also found when comparing the pre- and post-phase periods. With regard to these significant results, a significantly higher incidence of

crime was found among the Group B total in the pre-phase period, with this also found to be the case with regard to Stolen Property Offenses. In both cases, mean differences were small, indicating a significant difference being present, but one that was exceedingly small in size. It is important to recognize these offense flows at the Comparison Public Libraries to recognize more consistency in the crimes occurring in the maintained setting.

This set of analyses also had a degrees of freedom equal to 10, as were present in the previous set of Paired-Samples t-Tests. As stated, the small sample size associated with this set of analyses substantially reduced the statistical power associated with them, thereby substantially increasing the difficulty of finding any of these mean differences to be statistically significant. These results should be understood with that limitation in mind.

Table 55

Paired-Samples t-Tests by Crime: Comparison Sites (libraries)

Group	Comparison	*M*	*SD*	95% CI		*t*	*p*
					Lower	Upper	
All Other Offenses	Pre - Exist	-9.545	36.895	-34.332	15.241	-0.858	0.205
	Pre - Post	5.364	14.009	-4.048	14.775	1.270	0.116
	Exist - Post	14.909	39.259	-11.466	41.284	1.260	0.118
Arson	Pre - Exist	-1.909	4.826	-5.151	1.333	-1.312	0.109
	Pre - Post	0.364	1.286	-0.501	1.228	0.938	0.185
	Exist - Post	2.273	5.587	-1.481	6.026	1.349	0.104
Assault	Pre - Exist	-5.091	10.074	-11.859	1.677	-1.676	0.062
	Pre - Post	-1.091	7.892	-6.393	4.211	-0.458	0.328
	Exist - Post	4.000	10.188	-2.845	10.845	1.302	0.111
Burglary	Pre - Exist	-9.000	23.829	-25.008	7.008	-1.253	0.119
	Pre - Post	0.364	4.225	-2.475	3.202	0.285	0.391
	Exist - Post	9.364	20.920	-4.691	23.418	1.484	0.084
Vagrancy[a]	Pre - Exist	0.091	0.302	-0.112	0.293	1.000	0.170
	Pre - Post	0.273	0.905	-0.335	0.880	1.000	0.170
	Exist - Post	0.182	0.603	-0.223	0.587	1.000	0.170
Disorderly Conduct	Pre - Exist	-3.455	9.893	-10.101	3.192	-1.158	0.137
	Pre - Post	1.364	3.009	-0.658	3.385	1.503	0.082
	Exist - Post	4.818	11.890	-3.169	12.806	1.344	0.104
Drug Offenses	Pre - Exist	1.727	4.197	-1.093	4.547	1.365	0.101
	Pre - Post	1.455	3.778	-1.083	3.993	1.277	0.115
	Exist - Post	-0.273	6.498	-4.638	4.092	-0.139	0.446
Drunkenness	Pre - Exist	0.000	0.447	-0.300	0.300	0.000	0.500
	Pre - Post	0.182	3.157	-1.939	2.302	0.191	0.426
	Exist - Post	0.182	3.188	-1.960	2.324	0.189	0.427
Group A Total	Pre - Exist	-94.000	160.383	-201.747	13.747	-1.944	0.040

	Pre - Post	2.273	64.767	-41.239	45.784	0.116 0.455
	Exist - Post	96.273	129.819	9.059	183.486	2.460 0.017
Group B Total	Pre - Exist	-62.909	65.819	-107.127	-18.692	-3.170 0.005
	Pre - Post	9.364	13.728	0.141	18.586	2.262 0.024
	Exist - Post	72.273	60.690	31.501	113.045	3.950 0.001
Kidnapping/Abduction	Pre - Exist	0.000	0.447	-0.300	0.300	0.000 0.500
	Pre - Post	0.000	0.447	-0.300	0.300	0.000 0.500
Larceny/Theft	Pre - Exist	-26.545	61.737	-68.021	14.930	-1.426 0.092
	Pre - Post	-2.818	14.898	-12.827	7.191	-0.627 0.272
	Exist - Post	23.727	57.427	-14.852	62.307	1.370 0.100
Liquor Law	Pre - Exist	-0.182	0.405	-0.454	0.090	-1.491 0.083
	Exist - Post	0.182	0.405	-0.090	0.454	1.491 0.083
Motor Vehicle Theft	Pre - Exist	-5.455	10.396	-12.439	1.529	-1.740 0.056
	Pre - Post	-0.182	4.423	-3.153	2.790	-0.136 0.447
	Exist - Post	5.273	8.039	-0.128	10.673	2.175 0.027
Prostitution Offenses	Pre - Exist	0.091	0.302	-0.112	0.293	1.000 0.170
	Pre - Post	0.273	0.905	-0.335	0.880	1.000 0.170
	Exist - Post	0.182	0.603	-0.223	0.587	1.000 0.170
Robbery	Pre - Exist	0.182	1.401	-0.760	1.123	0.430 0.338
	Pre - Post	-0.455	1.036	-1.150	0.241	-1.456 0.088
	Exist - Post	-0.636	2.063	-2.022	0.749	-1.023 0.165
Runaway	Pre - Exist	-0.545	1.368	-1.465	0.374	-1.322 0.108
	Pre - Post	0.364	0.674	-0.089	0.817	1.789 0.052
	Exist - Post	0.909	1.578	-0.151	1.969	1.910 0.043
Sex Offenses	Pre - Exist	-0.545	2.296	-2.088	0.997	-0.788 0.225
	Pre - Post	-0.091	1.221	-0.911	0.729	-0.247 0.405
	Exist - Post	0.455	1.968	-0.868	1.777	0.766 0.231
Sex Offenses Nonforcible	Pre - Exist	-0.818	2.442	-2.459	0.822	-1.111 0.146
	Pre - Post	-0.091	2.737	-1.930	1.748	-0.110 0.457
	Exist - Post	0.727	4.474	-2.279	3.733	0.539 0.301
Stolen Property Offenses	Pre - Exist	-0.545	1.864	-1.797	0.706	-0.971 0.177
	Pre - Post	0.273	0.467	-0.041	0.587	1.936 0.041
	Exist - Post	0.818	1.834	-0.414	2.050	1.480 0.085
Trespass	Pre - Exist	-49.273	46.883	-80.769	-17.776	-3.486 0.003
	Pre - Post	1.818	7.236	-3.043	6.680	0.833 0.212
	Exist - Post	51.091	45.353	20.622	81.559	3.736 0.002
Vandalism	Pre - Exist	-11.091	14.025	-20.513	-1.669	-2.623 0.013
	Pre - Post	-1.364	9.080	-7.464	4.737	-0.498 0.315
	Exist - Post	9.727	12.183	1.543	17.912	2.648 0.012
Weapon Law Violations	Pre - Exist	-2.000	6.033	-6.053	2.053	-1.099 0.149
	Pre - Post	-1.273	4.606	-4.367	1.822	-0.916 0.191
	Exist - Post	0.727	2.832	-1.175	2.630	0.852 0.207

df = 10; [a]Includes Curfew/Loitering/Vagrancy.

The following set of analyses examined the same data, but performed the analyses separately on the basis of crime group (NIBRS Group A vs. NIBRS Group B), as opposed to individual crime. As before, these analyses were run separately on the basis of group, which consisted of Study sites (homeless encampments) and Comparison sites (libraries). Crimes were categorized into either NIBRS Group A or Group B. These results importantly substantiate the levels of serious crimes in these encampments versus the

supposed risky lifestyle behaviors driving minor crime offenses making up the majority of Group B NIBRS offenses.

Table 56 presents these results for the Study sites (homeless encampments). As shown in Table 55, statistical significance was indicated with regard to both comparisons with the exist-period of the encampment with regard to NIBRS Group A, while with regard to NIBRS Group B, statistical significance was only indicated with respect to the comparison made between the encampment exist-phase and the post-phase period. First, with regard to NIBRS Group A, a significantly increased incidence of crime was found with regard to the encampment exist-phase as compared with both pre-phase and post-phase periods of the encampment. With regard to Group B, significance was only found when comparing the encampment period with the post-encampment period, with a significantly increased incidence of crime found during the encampment period as compared with the post-encampment period. Again these results solidify the descriptive statistical findings of crime rates rising during the encampments existence, not just for minor offenses but for serious NIBRS Group A offenses as well. Levity in the results for pre-encampments needs to be applied due to the inexact start date of the encampment based on its documented existence through police discovery or reporting.

Table 56

Paired-Samples t-Tests by Crime Group: Study Sites (homeless encampments)

Group	Comparison	*M*	*SD*	95% CI		*t*	*p*
				Lower	Upper		
A[a]	Pre - Exist	-12.480	64.732	-21.552	-3.408	-2.713	0.004
	Pre - Post	0.429	21.853	-2.633	3.492	0.276	0.391
	Exist - Post	12.909	52.878	5.498	20.320	3.435	<0.001
B[b]	Pre - Exist	-5.442	29.680	-12.178	1.295	-1.609	0.056
	Pre - Post	0.130	7.025	-1.465	1.724	0.162	0.436
	Exist - Post	5.571	27.109	-0.581	11.724	1.803	0.038

[a]*df* = X, [b]*df* = Y.

Next, Table 57 presents these results conducted on the Comparison sites (libraries). Of the six analyses, all were found to achieve statistical significance with the exception of the pre-phase and post-phase encampment comparison among Group A crimes. First, these results indicated a significantly increased incidence of crime during the encampment's exist-phase as compared with both pre-phase and post-phase in the cases of both NIBRS Group A and Group B crimes. In addition, a significant difference among Group B crimes was also found when comparing pre-phase and post-phase periods for the encampment. In this case, a slight significant increase in the incidence of crime was found in the pre-phase to the encampment as compared with the post-phase of the encampment. The importance of the testing from a Comparison standpoint is to prove that crime rates at the public libraries do not follow the form of the crime rates at homeless encampments with the key ingredient difference being that of disorder being present at the homeless encampment. Had the phases results been the same between the homeless encampment and public library locations, disorder in the encampment could be considered a non-factor.

Table 57

Paired-Samples t-Tests by Crime Group: Comparison Sites (libraries)

Group	Comparison	*M*	*SD*	95% CI		*t*	*p*
				Lower	Upper		
A[a]	Pre - Exist	-12.106	48.938	-18.965	-5.247	-3.481	<0.001
	Pre - Post	0.389	15.855	-1.833	2.611	0.345	0.365
	Exist - Post	12.495	44.166	6.305	18.685	3.981	<0.001
B[b]	Pre - Exist	-8.987	27.677	-15.269	-2.705	-2.849	0.003
	Pre - Post	1.338	6.206	-0.071	2.746	1.891	0.031
	Exist - Post	10.325	28.271	3.908	16.741	3.205	0.001

[a]$df = 197$, [b]$df = 76$.

An additional series of Paired-Samples t-Tests were conducted on crimes collectively, with this set of analyses conducted separately on the basis of city. These tests

were also conducted in two sets, with the Comparison sites (libraries) analyzed initially, followed by the Study group (homeless encampments). Table 58 presents the results of the Paired-Samples t-Tests conducted on the Comparison sites (libraries). Here, significance was indicated in numerous cases. A significantly higher number of crimes were found during the exist-phase as compared with the post-phase in the cases of Bend, Martinez, Placentia, Pueblo, Santa Fe Springs, Seattle, and Stockton. Next, a significantly reduced number of crimes were indicated in the pre-phase period as compared with the exist-phase period in the cases of Pueblo, Santa Fe Springs, Seattle, and Stockton. Again these tests on the public library settings are completed to assist in illustrating the flow of offenses increasing and decreasing within the homeless encampments over the same timeframes.

Finally, in a few cases, significant differences were also indicated with regard to the number of crimes comparing the pre-phase and post-phase periods for the Public Libraries. This pertained to Placentia, Santa Fe Springs, and Stockton, and in the first two cases, a significantly higher incidence of crime was associated with the pre-phase period, while with regard to the case of Stockton, a significantly higher incidence of crime was indicated in the post-phase period. It should also be noted that these mean differences in crime rates between the pre-phase and post-phase periods were substantially reduced as compared with those mean differences found when comparing either pre- or post-phase periods and the exist-phase period itself.

Table 58

Paired-Samples t-Tests of All Crimes by City: Comparison Sites (libraries)

Group	Comparison	*M*	*SD*	95% CI		*t*	*p*	
				Lower	Upper			
Bend[a]	Pre - Exist	-12.080	39.008	-28.182	4.022	-1.548	0.067	
	Pre - Post	5.400	18.706	-2.321	13.121	1.443	0.081	
	Exist - Post	17.480	42.938	-0.244	35.204	2.035	0.026	
Cashmere[a]	Pre - Exist	-1.040	3.824	-2.618	0.538	-1.360	0.093	
	Pre - Post	0.480	5.253	-1.688	2.648	0.457	0.326	
	Exist - Post	1.520	6.709	-1.249	4.289	1.133	0.134	
Martinez[a]	Pre - Exist	-0.120	7.955	-3.404	3.164	-0.075	0.470	
	Pre - Post	2.800	9.811	-1.250	6.850	1.427	0.083	
	Exist - Post	2.920	6.258	0.337	5.503	2.333	0.014	
Placentia[a]	Pre - Exist	0.000	10.786	-4.452	4.452	0.000	0.500	
	Pre - Post	7.680	18.823	-0.090	15.450	2.040	0.026	
	Exist - Post	7.680	16.357	0.928	14.432	2.348	0.014	
Pueblo[a]	Pre - Exist	-12.320	26.748	-23.361	-1.279	-2.303	0.015	
	Pre - Post	-7.680	26.236	-18.510	3.150	-1.464	0.078	
	Exist - Post	4.640	12.271	-0.425	9.705	1.891	0.035	
Santa Fe Springs[b]	Pre - Exist	-5.390	14.104	-8.189	-2.591	-3.822	<0.001	
	Pre - Post	1.220	3.754	0.475	1.965	3.250	0.001	
	Exist - Post	6.610	16.967	3.243	9.977	3.896	<0.001	
Seattle[a]	Pre - Exist	-35.840	89.076	-72.609	0.929	-2.012	0.028	
	Pre - Post	-4.480	19.946	-12.713	3.753	-1.123	0.136	
	Exist - Post	31.360	71.566	1.819	60.901	2.191	0.019	
Stockton[a]	Pre - Exist	-40.600	94.225	-79.494	-1.706	-2.154	0.021	
	Pre - Post	-1.880	5.239	-4.042	0.282	-1.794	0.043	
	Exist - Post	38.720	91.301	1.033	76.407	2.120	0.022	

[a]$df = 24$, [b]$df = 99$.

The following set of analyses was identical, but instead focused on the Study group (homeless encampments). These results are presented in Table 59. In these analyses, significant differences in the number of crimes committed between the pre-phase, exist-phase, and post-phase periods for the encampments were again found in a large number of cases. First, comparing the encampment exist-phase with the post-phase period, a significantly higher incidence of crime was found during the encampment's exist-phase with respect to the cities of Bend, Cashmere, Placentia, Santa Fe Springs, Seattle, and Stockton, while in the case of Pueblo, it was in fact found that a slight reduction, though still significant, in the number of crimes was present during the encampment's exist-phase as compared with the post-phase period. Next, with regard to the analysis conducted comparing the encampment's pre-phase with the exist-phase

period itself, significantly reduced crime was found in the pre-phase period with respect to Cashmere, Pueblo, Santa Fe Springs, Seattle, and Stockton, while a significantly reduced incidence of crime was found during the encampment's exist phase with respect to Martinez; however, this latter mean difference was found to be very small. Finally, significant differences between pre-phase and post-phase means were found in a number of cases, specifically with regard to Bend, Martinez, Placentia, Pueblo, and Santa Fe Springs. In all cases with the exception of Pueblo, a significant greater number of crimes were found during the pre-phase of the encampment as opposed to the post-phase following it; the reverse pattern was found in the case of Pueblo. These results confirm again that pre-encampments numbers could be higher due to the inexact start date for each location. Importantly, the removal of the encampment's occupants and affiliated disorder led to drastic reductions in offenses at the encampment and within the 500 meter perimeter.

Table 59

Paired-Samples t-Tests of All Crimes by City: Study Sites (homeless encampments)

Group	Comparison	*M*	*SD*	95% CI		*t*	*p*	
				Lower	Upper			
Bend[a]	Pre - Exist		1.640	6.538	-1.059	4.339	1.254	0.111
	Pre - Post		13.720	25.445	3.217	24.223	2.696	0.006
	Exist - Post		12.080	23.038	2.570	21.590	2.622	0.007
Cashmere[a]	Pre - Exist		-1.160	2.779	-2.307	-0.013	-2.087	0.024
	Pre - Post		-0.080	0.493	-0.284	0.124	-0.811	0.213
	Exist - Post		1.080	2.871	-0.105	2.265	1.881	0.036
Martinez[a]	Pre - Exist		2.360	6.879	-0.480	5.200	1.715	0.050
	Pre - Post		2.720	7.536	-0.391	5.831	1.805	0.042
	Exist - Post		0.360	2.612	-0.718	1.438	0.689	0.249
Placentia[a]	Pre - Exist		3.240	10.357	-1.035	7.515	1.564	0.065
	Pre - Post		5.840	16.765	-1.080	12.760	1.742	0.047
	Exist - Post		2.600	6.994	-0.287	5.487	1.859	0.038
Pueblo[a]	Pre - Exist		-5.600	14.626	-11.637	0.437	-1.914	0.034
	Pre - Post		-8.440	18.410	-16.039	-0.841	-2.292	0.015
	Exist - Post		-2.840	6.368	-5.469	-0.211	-2.230	0.018
Santa Fe Springs[b]	Pre - Exist		-3.230	10.243	-5.263	-1.197	-3.153	0.001
	Pre - Post		1.590	5.201	0.558	2.622	3.057	0.001
	Exist - Post		4.820	14.124	2.018	7.622	3.413	<0.001
Seattle[a]	Pre - Exist		-52.280	148.742	-113.678	9.118	-1.757	0.046

	Pre - Post	-14.400	44.171	-32.633	3.833	-1.630 0.058
	Exist - Post	37.880	110.169	-7.595	83.355	1.719 0.049
Stockton[a]	Pre - Exist	-50.880	99.734	-92.048	-9.712	-2.551 0.009
	Pre - Post	-1.920	12.114	-6.920	3.080	-0.792 0.218
	Exist - Post	48.960	94.339	10.019	87.901	2.595 0.008

[a]$df = 24$, [b]$df = 99$.

Administered Survey Results

The administered survey received St. John's University Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval by obtaining an exemption status on December 26, 2023. The survey was built and launched using SurveyMonkey.com. Copies of the IRB exemption, solicitation email, informed consent, and survey are available in the Appendices. On December 27, 2023, the solicitation email and survey link were distributed to multiple terminal degree holders and university staff members from social sciences, criminal justice, and homeland security fields from a highly diverse field of universities and colleges across the nation. Also on December 27, 2023, the solicitation email and survey link were distributed to the National Association of Social Workers and International Association of Chiefs of Police – Railroad Section for distribution to their association members.

Participant Information

Figure 13

Participant Information - Participant Self Typing: Academic vs. Practitioner

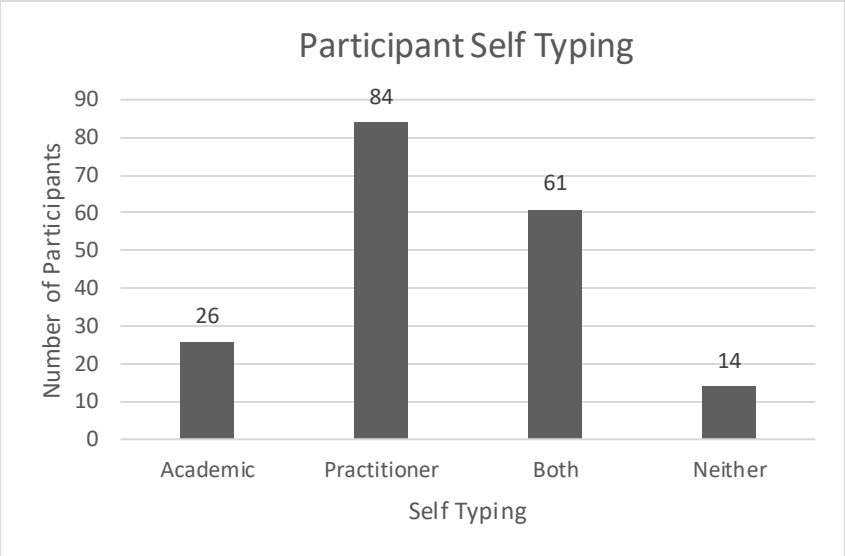


Figure 14

Participant Information - Participant Formal Education Level

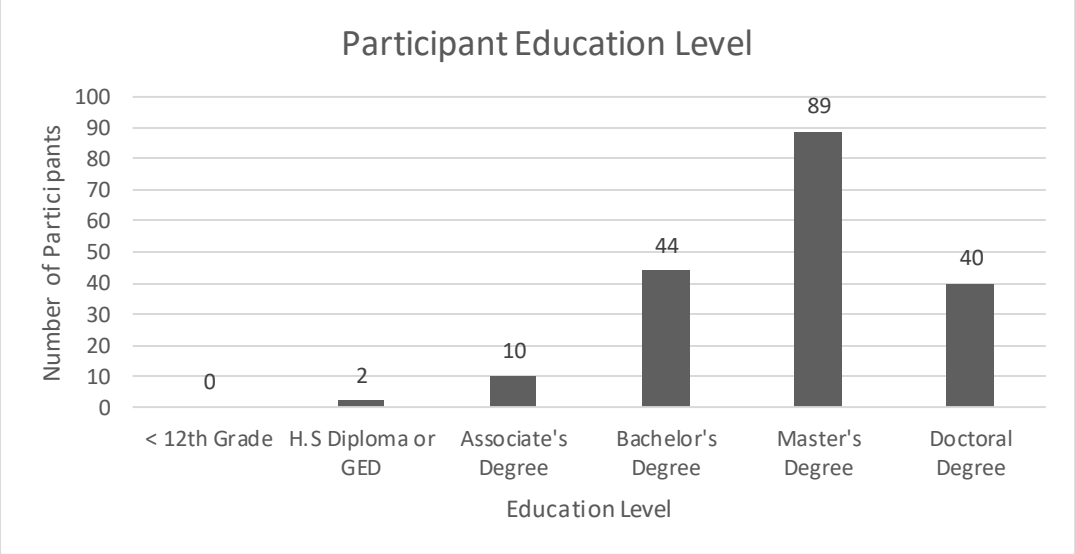
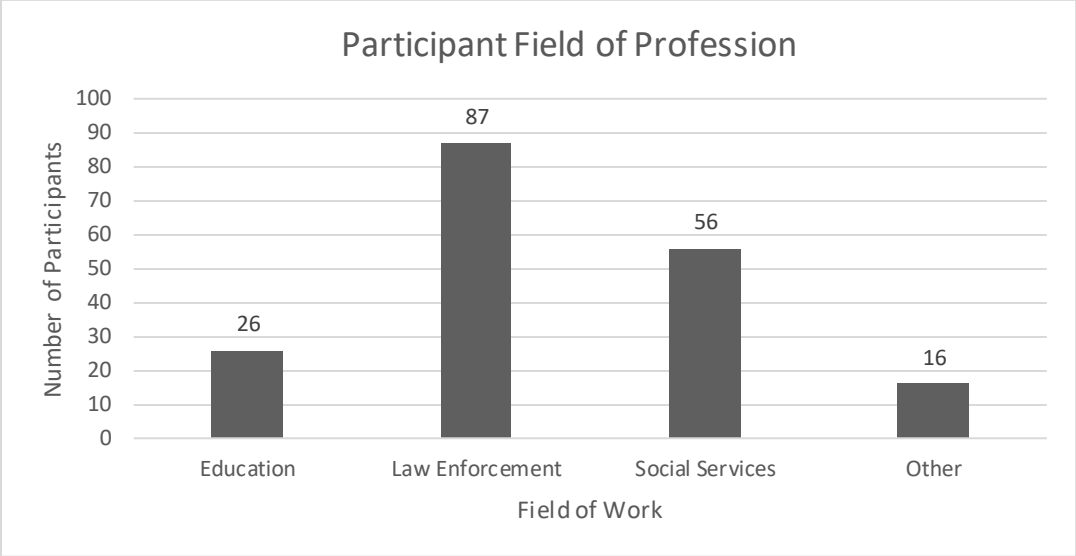


Figure 15

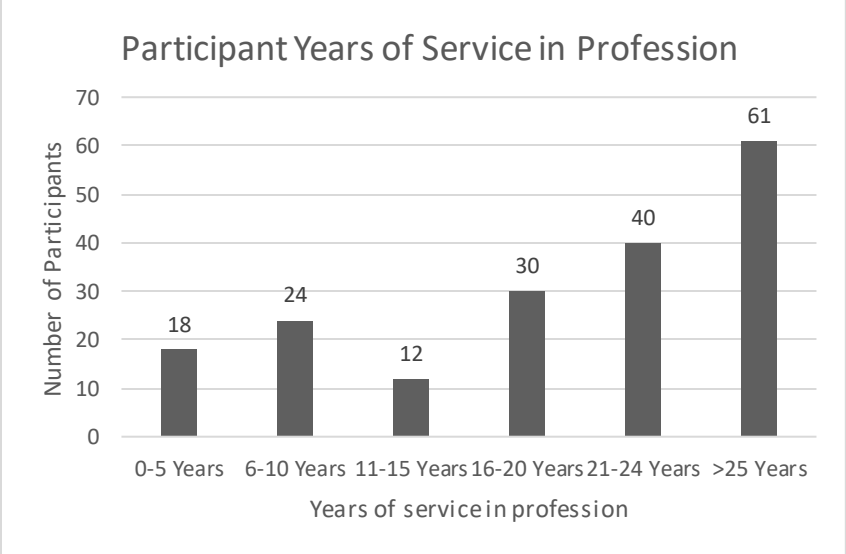
Participant Information - Participant Field of Profession



Other responses include military member x4; emergency management x4; educator and law enforcement officer x2; engineer x2; government employee x2; educator and attorney x1; and statistician x1.

Figure 16

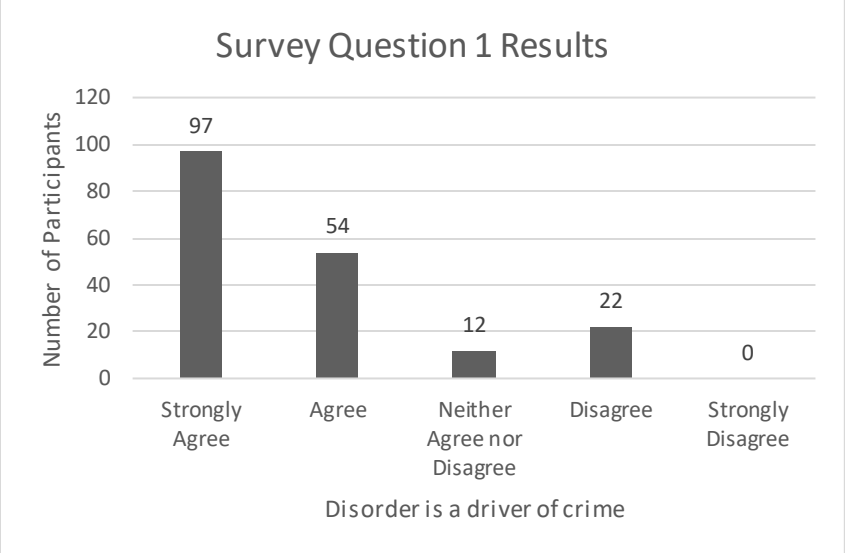
Participant Information - Participant Years of Service in Profession



Survey

Figure 17

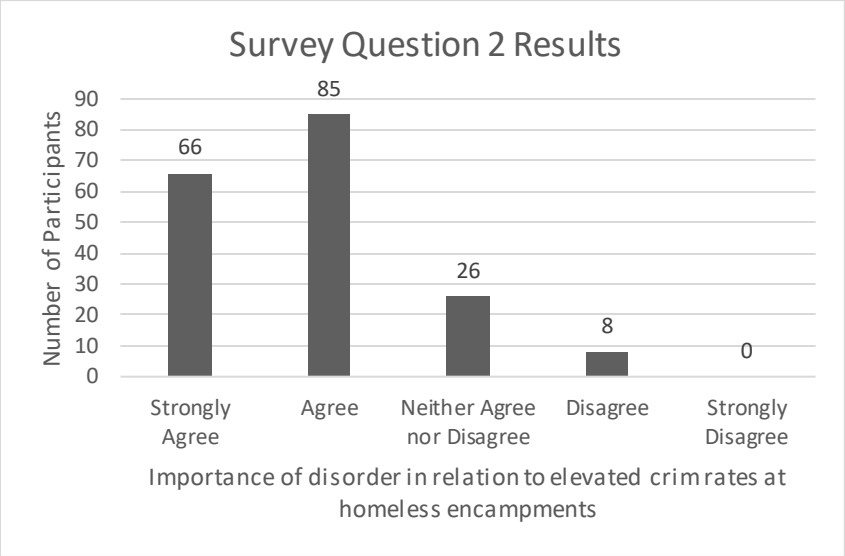
Survey Question 1 – Disorder as a Driver of Crime



Question as posed in Survey: Disorder (vacant buildings, broken windows, abandoned vehicles, areas filled with trash, aggressive panhandlers, noisy neighbors, and/or groups of youths congregating on street corners) creates fear in the minds of citizens who are convinced that an area is unsafe. This withdrawal from the community weakens social Comparisons that previously kept criminals in check. Disorder is a driver of crime.

Figure 18

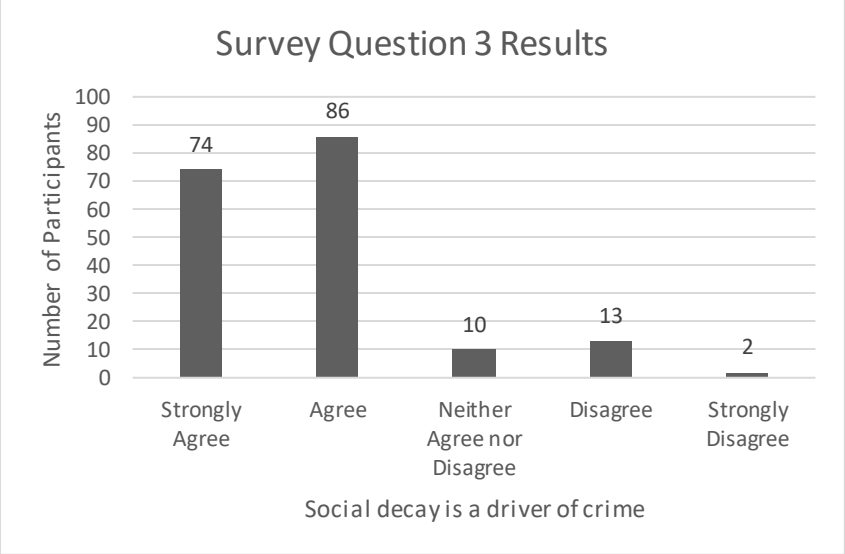
Survey Question 2 – Disorder / Homeless Encampments / Elevated Crime



Question as posed in Survey: How important is disorder when considering elevated crime rates in homeless encampments?

Figure 19

Survey Question 3 – Social Decay as a Driver of Crime

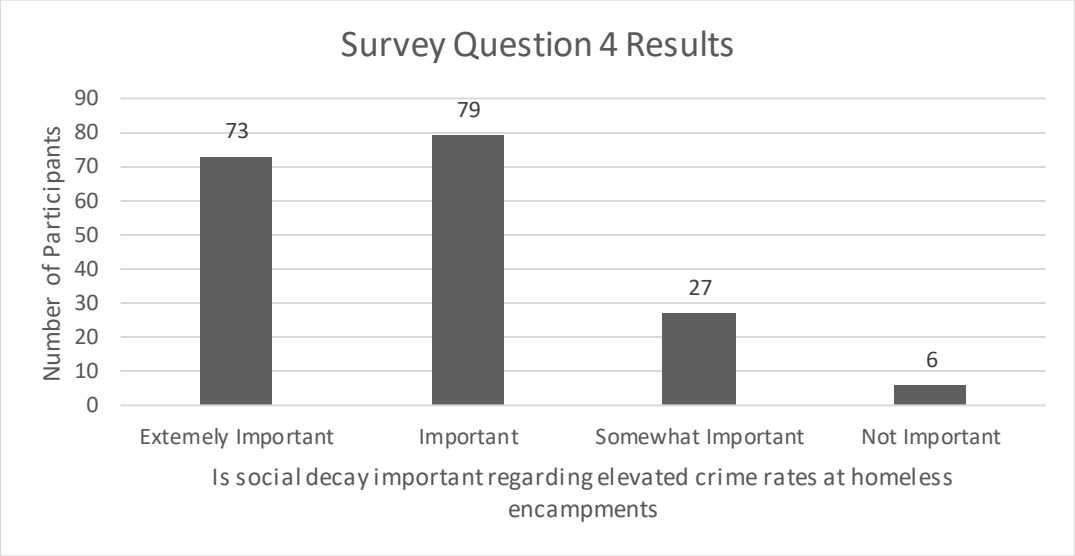


Question as posed in Survey: Social decay is the state of a city and its culture when it's population is too great and the subsequent infrastructural/behavioral problems that are associated with excess become obvious. Social decay occurs and can be seen on both the physical level of everyday life in a city (abandoned buildings, vacant collapsing houses,

streets in poor condition, etc.) and in the emotional state of its inhabitants (narcissism, social anxiety, paranoia, etc.). Resident interaction is focused on a service, a need, or a want. Social decay is a driver of crime.

Figure 20

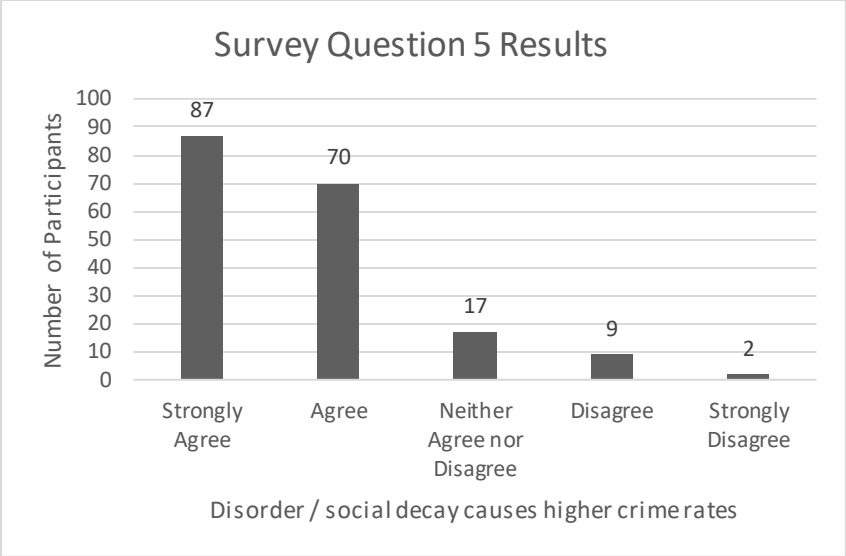
Survey Question 4 – Social Decay / Homeless Encampments / Elevated Crime



Question as posed in Survey: How important is social decay when considering elevated crime rates in homeless encampments?

Figure 21

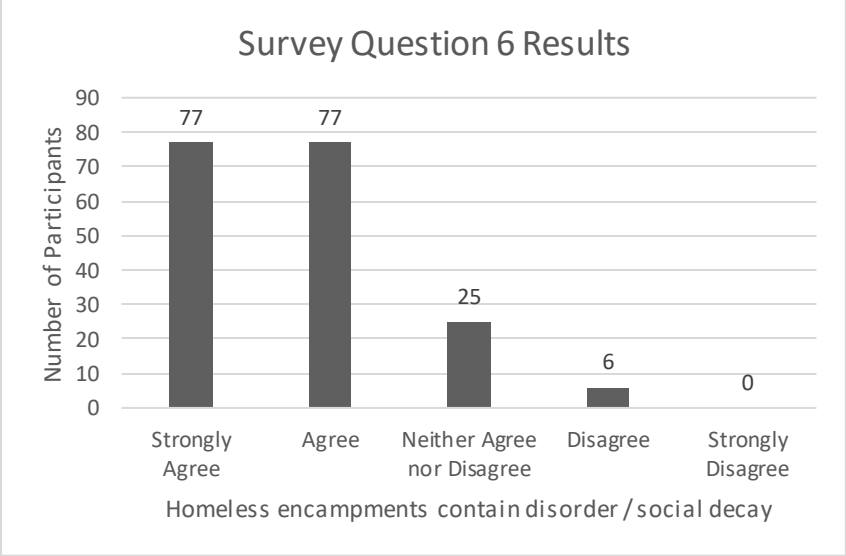
Survey Question 5 – Social Decay / Disorder / Elevated Crime



Question as posed in Survey: The occurrence of crime in an area containing disorder and/or social decay are higher than the norm.

Figure 22

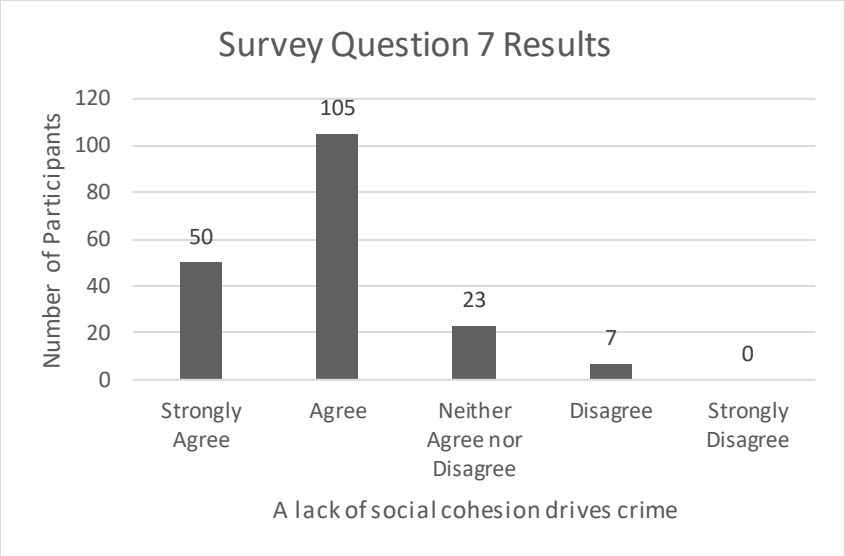
Survey Question 6 – Homeless Encampments / Disorder / Social Decay



Question as posed in Survey: Homeless encampments contain disorder and/or social decay.

Figure 23

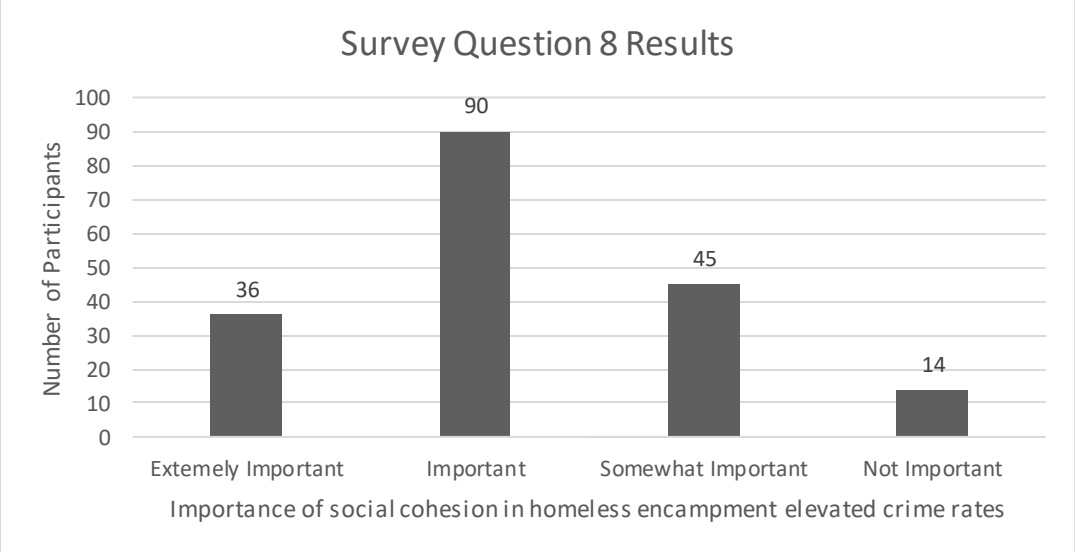
Survey Question 7 – Lack of Social Cohesion Drives Crime



Question as posed in Survey: Social cohesion is a neighborly bond, combined with the inclination to intercede on behalf of the common good. A lack of social cohesion drives crime.

Figure 24

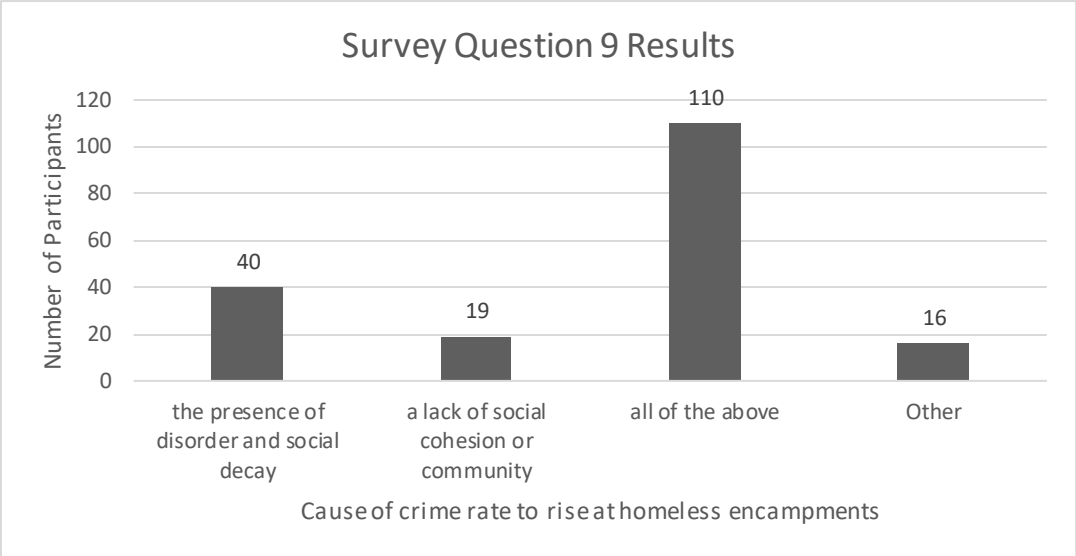
Survey Question 8 – Homeless Encampment / Social Cohesion Importance



Question as posed in Survey: How important in homeless encampment's elevated crime rates is social cohesion?

Figure 25

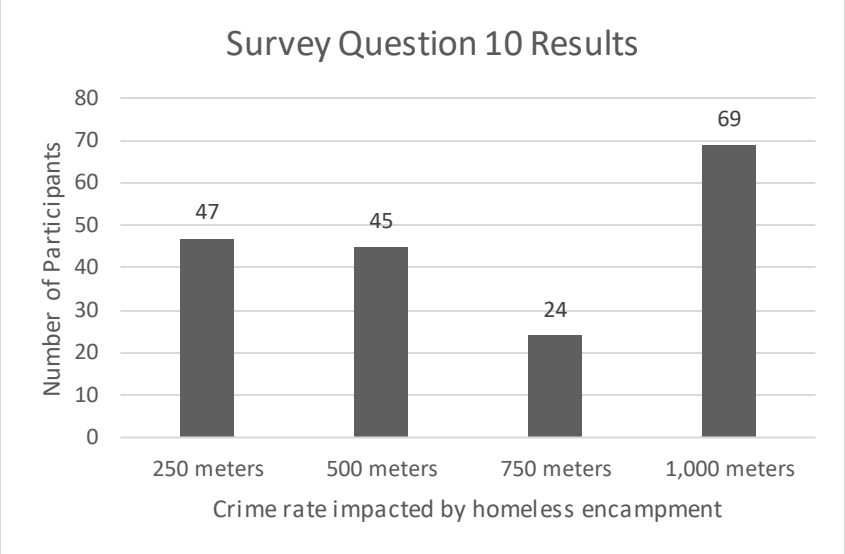
Survey Question 9 – Homeless Encampment Crime Rate Increase



Question as posed in Survey: In a homeless encampment, crime rates go up because: a) the presence disorder and social decay; b) a lack of social cohesion or community; c) all of the above; d) Other_____. Other responses include mental health issues x6; substance abuse x3; poverty x1; fear x1; politically driven reports x1; theft due to need x1; disorder driven reports x1; lack of respect for rule of law; non-reporting of crime x1and too complex of problem x1.

Figure 26

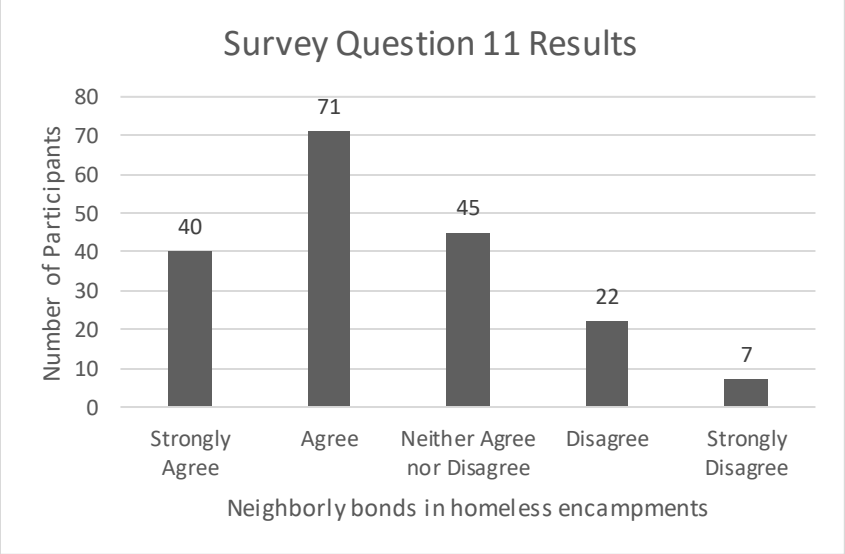
Survey Question 10 – Homeless Encampment Crime Rate Spatial Effect



Question as posed in Survey: Crime rates are affected up to a _____ meter circumference around a homeless encampment.

Figure 27

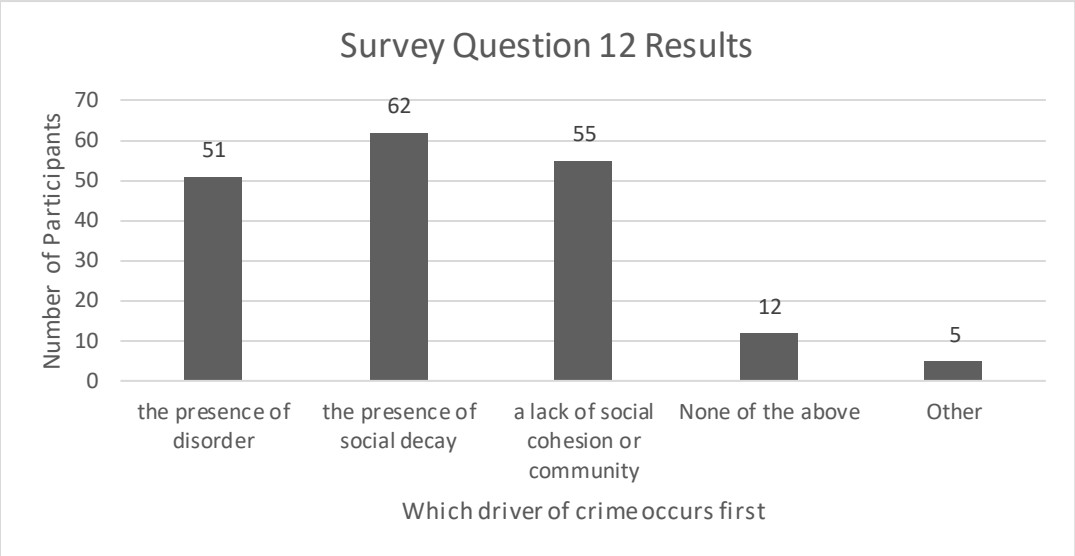
Survey Question 11 – Homeless Encampment Neighborly Bond



Question as posed in Survey: Do homeless populaces have a neighborly bond within an encampment?

Figure 28

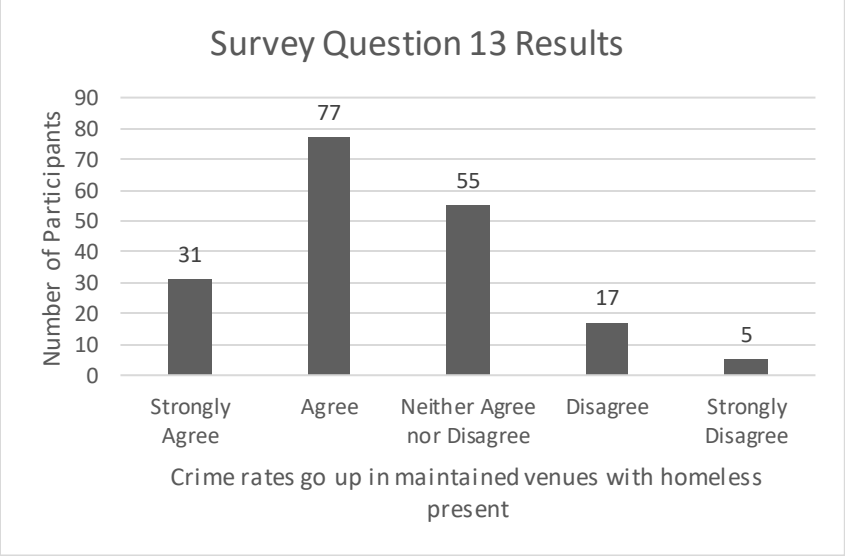
Survey Question 12 – Homeless Encampment: Which Driver Occurs First



Question as posed in Survey: If disorder, social decay, and a lack of social cohesion are drivers of crime, which occurs first? Other responses include either can be a driver x1; lack of self-respect or pride x1, not prosecuting crime x1; and social decay does not equal crime x2.

Figure 29

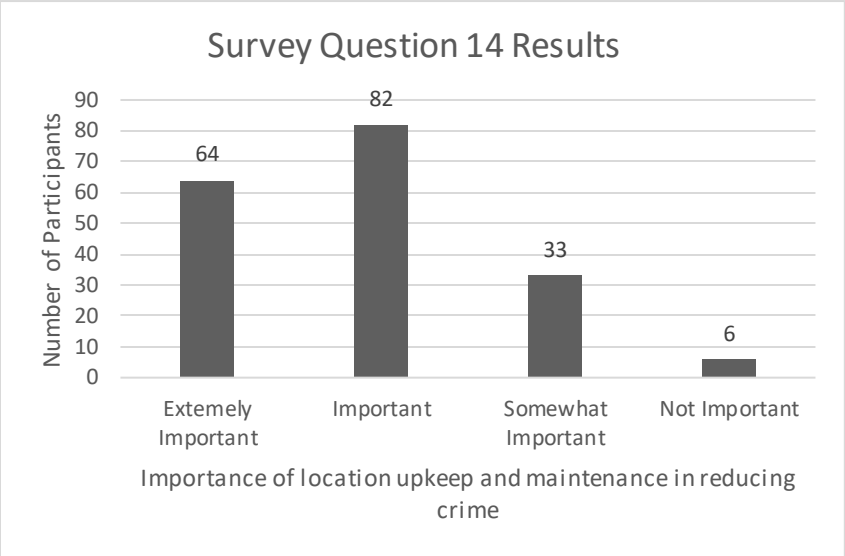
Survey Question 13 – Homeless Effect on Crime in Maintained Areas



Question as posed in Survey: Crime rates go up in maintained venues with homeless people congregating?

Figure 30

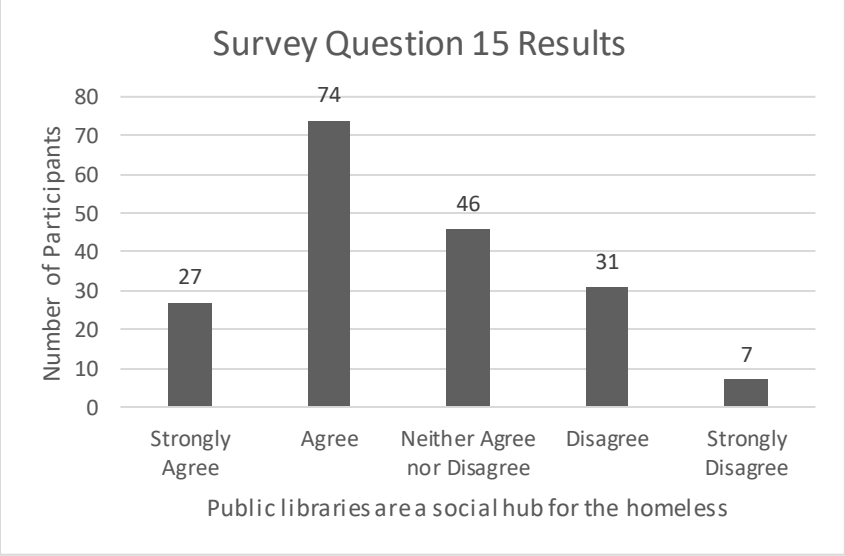
Survey Question 14 – Importance of Upkeep in Reducing Crime



Question as posed in Survey: How important is location maintenance and upkeep in reducing crime?

Figure 31

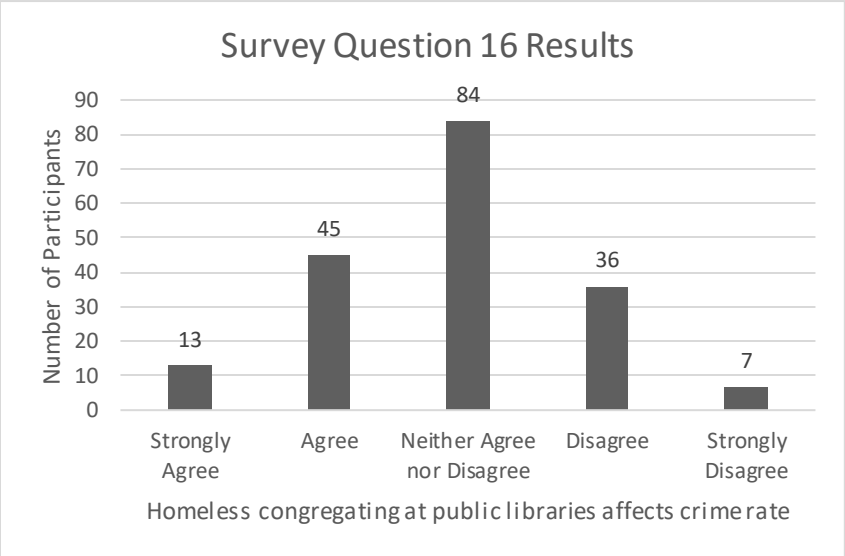
Survey Question 15 – Libraries as a Social Hub for the Homeless



Question as posed in Survey: Are public libraries a social hub for the homeless?

Figure 32

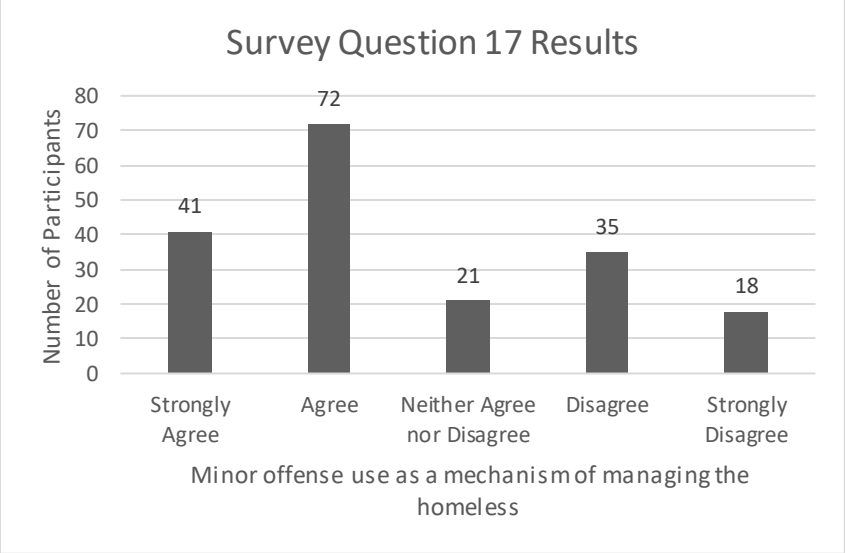
Survey Question 16 – Libraries and Crime due to the Homeless



Question as posed in Survey: Area crime rates are affected by the homeless congregating at public libraries.

Figure 33

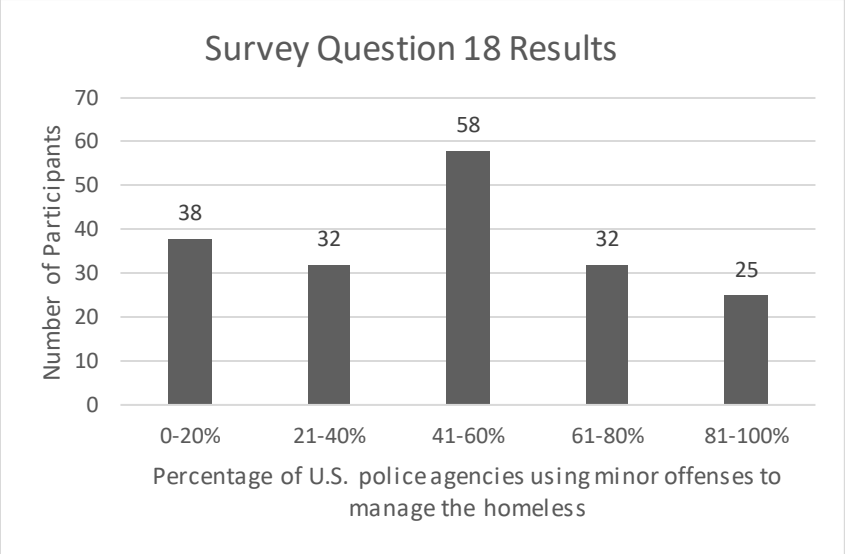
Survey Question 17 – Minor Offense Use to Manage Homeless



Question as posed in Survey: Is using minor offenses (curfew, loitering, vagrancy, drunkenness, etc.) a mechanism for police to manage the homeless populace in the U.S.?

Figure 34

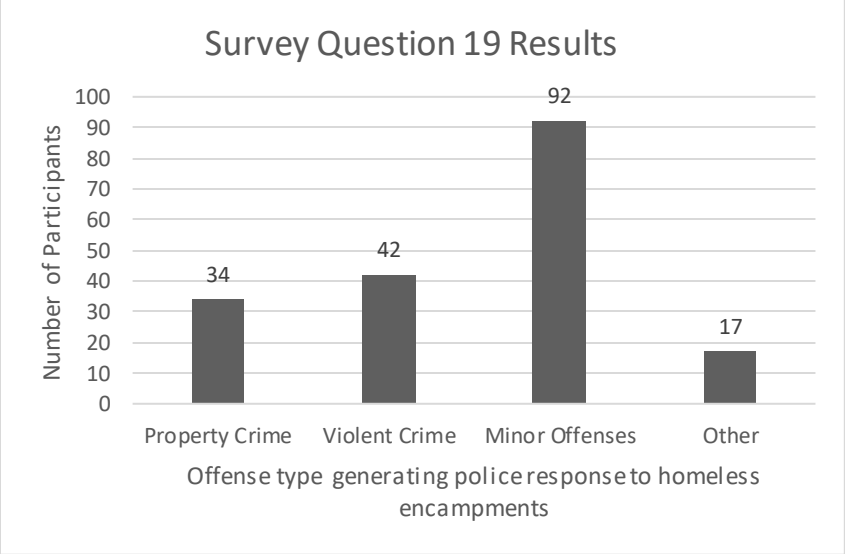
Survey Question 18 – LEAs Using Minor Offenses to Govern Homeless



Question as posed in Survey: What percentage of U.S. police agencies use minor offenses to manage the homeless population?

Figure 35

Survey Question 19 – Crime Generating Police Calls to Homeless Camps

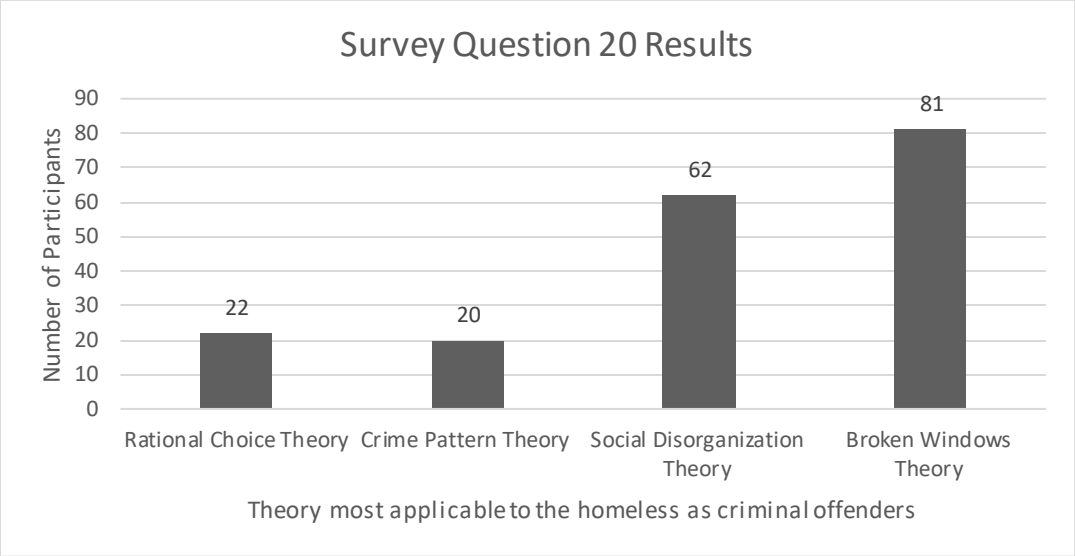


Question as posed in Survey: In the U.S., police response to homeless encampments is mostly generated by the occurrence of: a) Property crime; b) Violent crime; c) Curfew, loitering, vagrancy, drunkenness, etc.; or d)
Other_____. Other responses include nimbyism x4;

drug abuse x2; political pressure x2; aidesis x2, commuter concerns x3, public health concerns x2, squatter issues x; and all of the above x1.

Figure 36

Survey Question 20 – Crime Theory and the Homeless Offender



Question as posed in Survey: Regarding the homeless which theory is most applicable to their populace as criminal offenders?

a) Rational Choice Theory - The offender needs to make rational choices in order to move from one step to the next as the crime unfolds.

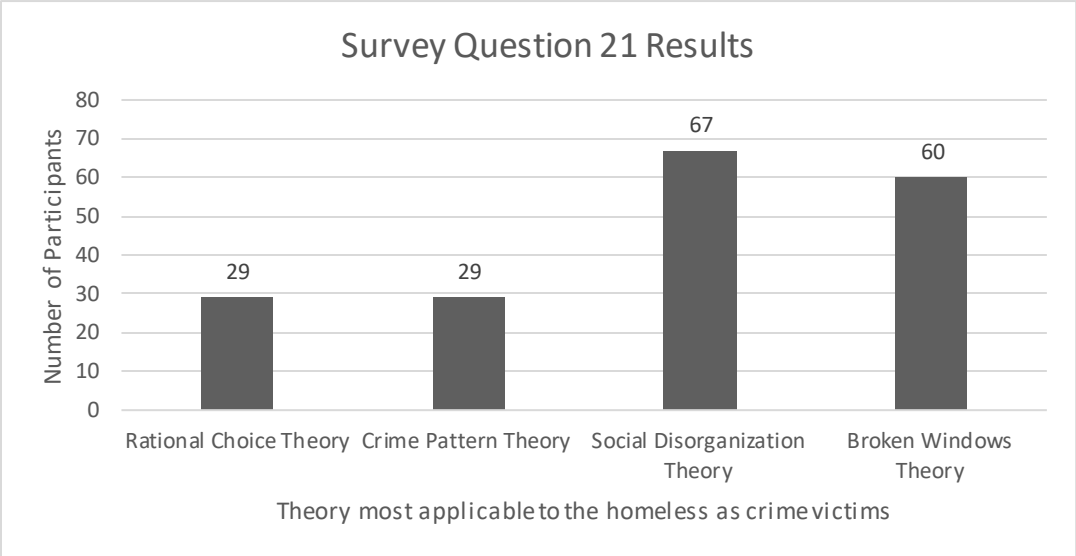
b) Crime Pattern Theory - Offenders tend to commit a criminal act close to pathways—main roads anywhere or travel routes in their home area that become familiar through their routine activities.

c) Social Disorganization Theory - Argues that neighborhoods with greater population turnover, lower socioeconomic status, and more ethnic heterogeneity are more likely to experience disorder.

d) Broken Windows Theory - Disorder includes aggressive panhandling, street prostitution, drunkenness and public drinking, menacing behavior, harassment, obstruction of streets and public spaces, vandalism and graffiti, public urination and defecation, unlicensed vending and peddling, unsolicited window washing of cars, and other such acts. Policing of these listed offenses reduces overall crime.

Figure 37

Survey Question 21 – Crime Theory and the Homeless Victim



Question as posed in Survey: Regarding the homeless which theory is most applicable to their populace as victims of crime?

a) Rational Choice Theory - The offender needs to make rational choices in order to move from one step to the next as the crime unfolds.

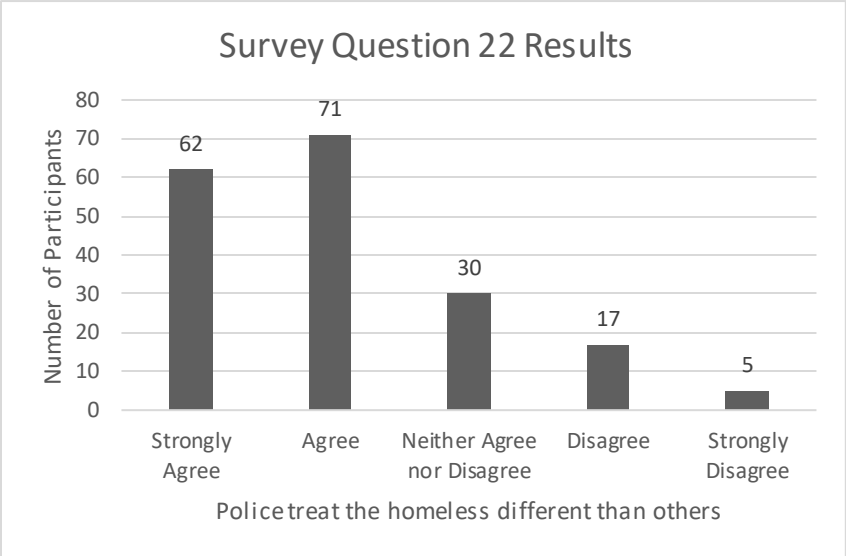
b) Crime Pattern Theory - Offenders tend to commit a criminal act close to pathways—main roads anywhere or travel routes in their home area that become familiar through their routine activities.

c) Social Disorganization Theory - Argues that neighborhoods with greater population turnover, lower socioeconomic status, and more ethnic heterogeneity are more likely to experience disorder.

d) Broken Windows Theory - Disorder includes aggressive panhandling, street prostitution, drunkenness and public drinking, menacing behavior, harassment, obstruction of streets and public spaces, vandalism and graffiti, public urination and defecation, unlicensed vending and peddling, unsolicited window washing of cars, and other such acts. Policing of these listed offenses reduces overall crime.

Figure 38

Survey Question 22 – Police Treatment of Homeless



Question as posed in Survey: U.S. police treat the homeless populace differently than other members of their service area.

Summary

In this chapter, the results of the descriptive and inferential statistical tests were presented and discussed as well as the results for the administered survey. The data show that encampment period was associated with statistically significant increases in crime both compared with the pre- and post-encampment time periods. This was found to be true across multiple cities, and across numerous types of crime as well as crime categories. The results of an administered survey were also posted in qualitative and quantitative manners to illustrate fundings for each survey question. The following chapter will discuss these results, form conclusions, and relate findings to previous literature and theory. A discussion of this study's limitations, possibilities for future research, and implications is also be completed.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study is to provide a connection between the presence of homeless encampments to frequency changes in area crime rates and present similarities, differences, as well as professional opinions regarding those findings. With this stated, there are many supplemental findings from the study that are important from multiple stakeholder perspectives. Those findings will be given attention and consideration in labelled sections within this chapter.

Below are the initial research questions for the study:

R_1: To what extent does the presence of a homeless encampment on railroad property impact crime rates there and within a 500 meter perimeter?

H_1 : Crime rates in the 500-meter areas surrounding homeless encampments are expected to be consistent with area numbers in the 6 month period prior to the establishment of homeless encampments making up the 12 site Study.

H_2 : Crime rates in the 500-meter areas surrounding homeless encampments are expected to increase following the establishment of homeless encampments in the 12 homeless encampment sites.

H_3: Crime rates in the 500-meter areas surrounding homeless encampments are expected to be consistent with area numbers in the 6 month period following the removal of the homeless encampments making up the 12 site Study.

R_2 : What is the input of subject matter experts from the completion of a study focused survey?

H_1 : Participant subject matter experts will agree that the presence of homeless encampments cause crime rates to rise within a 500 meter perimeter of the encampment.

H_2 : Participant subject matter experts will agree with there is a relationship between homeless encampments and the occurrences of crime due to disorder conditions.

Conclusions

Research Question 1

The objective of research question one is to determine to what extent the presence of a homeless encampment on railroad property impacts crime rates there and within a 500 meter perimeter. Twelve out of twelve Study members displayed a measurable increase in criminal activity. Study #1 Aurora experienced police calls for service increase of 37.667 per a month during the term of the encampment. Study members #2 - #11 also provided robust monthly average displays of incident and offense occurrence based on NIBRS categories during the encampment's existence. Eight of 11 encampments showed a measurable increase in NIBRS Group A offenses during the encampment phase, and all eleven encampment Study sites showed increases in NIBRS Group B offenses. These differences in call for service and incident/crime occurrence allow for the conclusion that crime rates in a 500 meter perimeter of a homeless encampment are heavily affected by the presence of a homeless encampment.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis one states that crime rates in the 500-meter areas surrounding homeless encampments are expected to be consistent with area numbers in the 6 month period prior to the establishment of homeless encampments making up the 12 site Study. What was expected going into this study is that crime rate at or within 500 meters of an encampment's location would be on par with a chosen Comparison within the city. What was found is that the crime rate was much lower during all of the Study encampment's 6 month pre-phase studies than it was during all of the library Comparison's 6 month pre-phase studies. Based on the overhead mapping images for each Study and Comparison it can be concluded some of this result is related to population density specific to the Study homeless encampment's location (railroad right of way) as compared to the Comparison Library's location (middle of town).

In an effort to afford a true measuring stick for crime and the homeless populace the selected Comparison locations for the experiment were public libraries. Much research has shown the homeless congregate in and around libraries and use them as a resource hub. Taking this into consideration libraries were chosen to maximize likeness of locations frequented by homeless with the difference between the homeless encampment and the library being upkeep, maintenance, and order. What was found is that all of the Comparison library sites in the study averaged higher offense occurrence as compared to Study encampments in the pre-phases. For Study and Comparison Set 1, calls for service, including 500 meter perimeters for both, averaged 89.333 per month at the Study encampment and 168.667 per month at the library Comparison. Across NIBRS

A offenses, in Study/ Comparison members 2 – 12, the average monthly offense level at the Comparison library was nearly three times (28.803) the monthly average found in the pre-encampment phase at the Study site (10.106). Across NIBRS B offenses, in Study/ Comparison members 2 – 12, the average monthly offense level at the Comparison library was nearly two times (10.439) the monthly average found in the pre-encampment phase at the (5.06). Again, it is important to consider the locations of the homeless encampments for this study are on railroad right of ways which take up considerable space that are not normally populated by inhabitants at all.

Regarding Hypothesis 1, Paired-Samples t-Tests were found to achieve statistical significance at the .05 alpha level. First, with regard to the Study site (homeless encampments), crime was found to be significantly reduced in both the pre-encampment and post-encampment periods as compared with the encampment period itself. Next, with regard to the Comparison sites (libraries), the same significant differences were found, with mean differences also found to be remarkably similar, between both the pre-encampment and post-encampment periods, and the encampment period itself. In addition, the same pattern was found, with a significantly increased incidence of crime found during the encampment period as compared with the periods both prior to and following the encampment period.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis two states that crime rates in the 500-meter areas surrounding homeless encampments are expected to increase following the establishment of homeless encampments in the 12 homeless encampment sites. The expectation going into this study

was that crime rate at or within 500 meters of an encampment's location would hold a higher average than a chosen Comparison within the city. What was found is that the crime rate monthly average was much higher during the Study encampment's exist-phase of the studies than it was during the Study encampment's 6 month pre-phase studies.

For Study and Comparison Set 1, calls for service, including 500 meter perimeters, averaged 89.333 per month at the Study encampment and 168.667 per month at the library Comparison during the 6 month pre-phase of the study. For the 6 months of the exist-phase of this study the average monthly calls for service were 127 for the Study encampment and 169.333 for the Comparison library. While the averages between the pre-phase and exist-phase of the Comparison library were virtually flat the change between the Study encampments pre- and exist-phases was a 61.499% increase in police calls for service.

When examining the differences between the pre-phase and exist-phase for the Study site and Comparison site we see stark differences. For Study members 2 – 12, the average monthly offense crime rate for NIBRS Group A offense was 10.106 per month during the pre-phase and increased significantly to 15.53 per month during the exist phase of the encampment, a 42.316% increase. For Comparison members 2 – 12, the average monthly offense crime rate for NIBRS Group A offense was 28.803 per month during the pre-phase and remained flat at 28.783 per month during the exist-phase for the library.

For Study members 2 – 12, the average monthly offense crime rate for NIBRS Group B offense was 5.06 per month during the pre-phase and increased significantly to

11.924 per month during the exist-phase of the encampment, an 80.829% increase. For Comparison members 2 – 12, the average monthly offense crime rate for NIBRS Group B offense was 10.439 per month during the pre-phase and remained relatively flat at 11.519 per month during the exist-phase for the library.

Regarding Hypothesis two, Paired-Samples t-Tests were found to achieve statistical significance at the .05 alpha level. First, with regard to the Study site (homeless encampments), crime was found to be significantly reduced in both the pre-encampment and post-encampment periods as compared with the encampment period itself. Next, with regard to the Comparison sites (libraries), the same significant differences were found, with mean differences also found to be remarkably similar, between both the pre-encampment and post-encampment periods, and the encampment period itself. In addition, the same pattern was found, with a significantly increased incidence of crime found during the encampment period as compared with the periods both prior to and following the encampment period.

In another test, Paired-Samples t-Tests examined these data on the basis of the type of crime in question at Study site (homeless encampments) members. These allowed for the determination of whether these patterns in the incidence of crime were consistent across all types of crime, and if not, for which types of crime the pattern held and for which types of crime it did not. Of these analyses, statistical significance was indicated with respect to Motor Vehicle Theft, Drunkenness, the agglomeration of Type A crimes, as well as all other crimes, which consisted of a separate category. With regard to Motor Vehicle Theft, Drunkenness, and All Other Crimes, statistical significance was indicated

in the comparison between the pre-encampment and encampment periods, with significantly reduced crime present in the pre-encampment period. Additionally, with regard to the sum of Group A crimes, statistical significance was present in the comparison between the encampment period and the post-encampment period. Here, the encampment period was associated with a significantly increased number of crimes as compared with the post-encampment period. Significant differences in the incidence of crime were indicated with regard to Motor Vehicle Theft, Runaway, Stolen Property Offenses, Trespassing, and Vandalism, as well as both Groups A and B.

In another test, Paired-Samples t-Tests found with regard to Group A, a significantly increased incidence of crime was found with regard to the encampment period as compared with both pre-encampment and post-encampment periods. With regard to Group B, significance was only found when comparing the encampment period with the post-encampment period, with a significantly increased incidence of crime found during the encampment period as compared with the post-encampment period.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis three states that crime rates in the 500-meter areas surrounding homeless encampments are expected to be consistent with area numbers in the 6 month period following the removal of the homeless encampments making up the 12 site Study. The expectation leading into this study was that crime rate at or within 500 meters of an encampment's location would drop to an average at or lower than a chosen Comparison within the city during the post-phase of the study. What was found is that the crime rate monthly average was much lower during the Study encampment's post-phase of the study

than it was during the Study encampment's exist-phase of the study. Importantly the post-phase monthly average was also lower than the pre-phase monthly average for both NIBRS Group A and B offenses.

For Study and Comparison Set 1, calls for service, including 500 meter perimeters, the exist-phase of this study the average monthly calls for service were 127 for the Study encampment and 169.333 for the Comparison library. Study and Comparison Set 1, calls for service, including 500 meter perimeters, during the post-phase of this study, the average monthly calls for service took unexpected turns. The post-phase Study encampment calls for service rose to monthly average of 230.83 and the post-phase calls for the library fell to a monthly average of 133. Meaning the calls of service monthly average to the Study encampment rose by 58.03% and the calls for service monthly average for the Comparison library fell by 24.04%. This outlier results differed from the other eleven contributing Study site/Comparison sets. It is unknown why the data was skewed in this manner, but it could be explained through police initiatives in both areas. Meaning some form of police actions at or near the library caused calls for service to fall. Regarding the homeless encampment, removal of the encampment and further displacement of its inhabitants could have caused a criminal impact on the immediate areas surrounding the encampment increasing calls for service.

When examining the differences between the exist-phase and post-phase for the Study site and Comparison we see stark differences. For Study members 2 – 12, the average monthly offense crime rate for NIBRS Group A offense was 15.53 per month during the exist-phase and decreased significantly to 11.09 per month during the post-

phase of the encampment, a 33.358% decrease. For Comparison members 2 – 12, the average monthly offense crime rate for NIBRS Group A offense was 28.783 per month during the exist-phase and remained flat at 28.046 per month during the post-phase for the library.

For Study members 2 – 12, the average monthly offense crime rate for NIBRS Group B offense was 11.924 per month during the exist-phase and decreased significantly to 3.864 per month during the post-phase of the encampment, a 102.10% decrease. For Comparison members 2 – 12, the average monthly offense crime rate for NIBRS Group B offense was 11.519 per month during the exist-phase and remained relatively flat at 10.106 per month during the post-phase for the library.

Regarding Hypothesis 3, Paired-Samples t-Tests were found to achieve statistical significance at the .05 alpha level. First, with regard to the Study Site (homeless encampments), crime was found to be significantly reduced in both the pre-phase and post-phase periods as compared with the exist-phase of the encampment period itself. Next, with regard to the Comparison sites (libraries), the same significant differences were found, with mean differences also found to be remarkably similar, between both the pre-phase and post-phase periods, and the exist-phase period itself for the libraries. In addition, the same pattern was found, with a significantly increased incidence of crime found during the exist-phase period as compared with the phases both prior to and following the exist-phase period.

In another test, Paired-Samples t-Tests examined these data on the basis of the type of crime in question. These allowed for the determination of whether these patterns

in the incidence of crime were consistent across all types of crime, and if not, for which types of crime the pattern held and for which types of crime it did not. With regard to the sum of NIBRS Group A crimes, statistical significance was present in the comparison between the encampment's exist-phase period and the post-phase period for the encampment. Here, the encampment's exist-phase period was associated with a significantly increased number of crimes as compared with the post-phase period for encampments.

Lastly, an additional series of Paired-Samples t-Tests were conducted on crimes collectively, with this set of analyses conducted separately on the basis of city. In these analyses for the homeless encampment sites and perimeters, significant differences in the number of crimes committed between the pre-phase of the encampment, exist-phase of the encampment, and post-phase of the encampment periods were again found in a large number of cases. First, comparing the encampment's exist phase period with the post-phase period, a significantly higher incidence of crime was found during the encampment exist-phase period with respect to nine out of eleven cities, in one of eleven cities a slight reduction was found, though still significant, in the number of crimes was present during the encampment's exist-phase period as compared with the post-phase period for encampments. Next, with regard to the analysis conducted comparing the pre-phase period with the exist-phase period itself, significantly reduced crime was found in the pre-phase period with respect to eight of eleven cities, while a significantly reduced incidence of crime was found during the encampment period with respect to one city; however, this latter mean difference was found to be very small. Finally, significant

differences between pre-phase and post-phase of means for encampments were found in eight of eleven cases. In all cases except one, a significant greater number of crimes were found during the pre-phase, prior to the encampment, as opposed to following it; the reverse pattern was found in one city. A significantly higher number of crimes were found during the encampments exist-phase as compared with the period following the encampments (post-phase) in the cases of Bend, Martinez, Placentia, Pueblo, Santa Fe Springs, Seattle, and Stockton. Next, a significantly reduced number of crimes were indicated in the pre-phase period as compared with the encampment exist-phase period in the cases of Pueblo, Santa Fe Springs, Seattle, and Stockton.

Finally, in a few cases, significant differences were also indicated with regard to the number of crimes comparing the pre-phase and post-phase for encampments. This pertained to Placentia, Santa Fe Springs, and Stockton, and in the first two cases, a significantly higher incidence of crime was associated with the pre-phase period, while with regard to the case of Stockton, a significantly higher incidence of crime was indicated in the post-phase period for the encampment. It should also be noted that these mean differences in crime rates between the pre-phase and post-phase periods of the encampment were substantially reduced as compared with those mean differences found when comparing either pre- or post-phase periods and the exist-phase period of the encampment itself.

The stark periodic changes for the homeless encampments display the differences in the presence of disorder at the encampment locations versus removal of said disorder measurement during the post-encampment phase. Compared to the library Comparisons,

though many had an incredibly high level of offenses, there was stability in the statistics across the phases at those maintained properties.

Research Question 2

The objective of research question two was to determine the input of subject matter experts from the completion of a study focused survey. The survey was distributed to professionals in the fields of law enforcement, academia, and social work. During the approximate month of availability, 185 professionals took part in the survey by accessing it anonymously via email distributed hyperlink at Surveymonkey.com. Sixty of the professionals are social workers affiliated with various U.S. based chapters of the NASW (National Association of Social Workers). Sixty-four participants are law enforcement officers from across the United States affiliated with various sections of the IACP (International Association of Chiefs of Police). And lastly sixty-one are professors and instructors affiliated with universities and colleges across the United States.

The group of 185 professionals labelled themselves as being a practitioner (84), both a practitioner and an academic (61), solely an academic (26), and neither (14). Though banal, this self-classification is important as those solely labelling themselves as a practitioner or an academic may pose skewed or less well rounded viewpoints. Education level is another strong component of the survey participant profile. Of the surveyed 40 participants hold doctorate degrees, 89 hold a master's degree, 44 participants have a bachelor's degree, 10 hold an associate degree, and two a high school diploma or GED. Regarding professional experience of survey participants: 18 participants have 0-5 years of experience; 24 participants have 6-10 years of experience;

12 participants have 11-15 years of experience; 30 participants have 16-20 years of experience; 40 participants have 21-24 years of experience; and 61 participants have greater than 25 years of experience. The statistics above provide evidence of a well-rounded group of participants for the survey. Survey results provided in Chapter 4, are illustrated below and elaborated on as they relate to each of the Hypotheses for Research Question 2.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis one states that participant subject matter experts will agree that the presence of homeless encampments cause crime rates to rise within a 500 meter perimeter of the encampment. Survey question ten posed this hypothesis most directly to the survey audience by asking how many meters in circumference are crime rates affected around a homeless encampment. Choices for the question consisted of a) 250; b) 500; c) 750, and d) 1,000 meters. Sixty nine professionals selected that crime rates are affected up to a 1,000 meter circumference around a homeless encampments. Though this answer only makes up 37.3% of the responses, 250 meters, and 500 meters paled in comparison by capturing 25.4% (47) and 24.3% (45) respectfully. And only 24 participants chose 750 meters (12.97%). This result denotes that those surveyed not only agree that crime rates can be affected by the presence of homeless encampments at 500 meters, as proven through our statistical study, but believe that effect can be as far as 1,000 meters in circumference.

In relation to this direct finding of support for hypothesis one survey question five inquired whether participants believe crime in areas containing disorder and/or social

decay are higher than the norm. Out of 185 professionals surveyed, 87 strongly agreed and 70 agreed that occurrence of crime in an area containing disorder and/or social decay is higher than the norm. That is an 84.86% agreement rate. As a follow up, question six had the purpose of ensuring the belief of relationship between the homeless encampment and disorder and /or social decay. Out of 185 professionals surveyed 77 strongly agreed and 77 agreed that homeless encampments contain disorder and/or social decay. That is an 83.24% agreement rate.

With the confirmation of enhanced crime rates in homeless encampments it's important to link a reason. Survey question nine posed this and the respondents were given the choices of: a) the presence disorder and social decay; b) a lack of social cohesion or community; c) all of the above; or d) Other. Out of 185 professionals surveyed 110 selected all of the above (59.46%); 40 selected the presence disorder and social decay (21.62%); 19 selected a lack of social cohesion or community (10.27 %); and 16 provided other varied responses. Other responses included mental health issues x6; substance abuse x3; poverty x1; fear x1; politically driven reports x1; theft due to need x1; disorder driven reports x1; lack of respect for rule of law; non-reporting of crime x1and too complex of problem x1. These answers validated the connection between higher crime rates around homeless encampments being connected with historical schools of thought and especially brought to light the distinct connections to Broken Windows Theory and more distantly Social Cohesion.

The Comparison for this study, public libraries, was selected in order to bring some measure of equality between the homeless populations and the power of the place

discussed in earlier chapter work. Survey question 16 asked if area crime rates are affected by the homeless congregating at public libraries. Out of 185 professionals surveyed, 13 strongly agreed and 45 agreed that homeless congregations cause crime to go up near libraries. That is a 31.35% agreement rate. Eighty-four respondents answered neither agree or disagree (45.41%), 36 disagreed, and seven strongly disagreed. While the public library locations were used as a Comparison for the homeless encampments, it is important to note this result places more emphasis on the power of the place in reflecting that a public location that is absent of disorder and maintained sees a lesser impact of the possibility of crime due to location versus due to the specific populace group.

Survey question 22 posed: U.S. police treat the homeless populace differently than other members of their service area. Out of 185 professionals surveyed 62 strongly agreed and 71 agreed that the homeless are different than other members of their service area. That is a 71.89% agreement rate. Thirty respondents answered neither agree or disagree (16.21%), 17 disagreed, and five strongly disagreed. The quantitative portion of this study found that in the Study encampments police do treat homeless differently. The use of low level offenses for population control was actually much lower than expected with only three participants heavily using low level offenses. This leads to survey question 17 which posed: Is using minor offenses (curfew, loitering, vagrancy, drunkenness, etc.) a mechanism for police to manage the homeless populace in the U.S.? Out of 185 professionals surveyed 41 strongly agreed and 72 agreed that police use minor offenses to manage homeless populations. That is a 61.08% agreement rate. Twenty-one respondents answered neither agree or disagree (11.35%), 35 disagreed, and 18 strongly

disagreed, which equals 28.65% of those polled disagreed. Again, this question's response breakdown differs from the findings of the quantitative work of the paper. Survey question 18 posed: What percentage of U.S. police agencies use minor offenses to manage the homeless population? Out of 185 professionals surveyed 58 answered 41-60% (31.35%), 38 answered 0-20% (20.54%), 32 answered 21-40% (17.3%), 32 answered 61-80% (17.3%), and 25 answered 81-100% (13.51%). Again, this study found a lesser use of minor offenses to manage the homeless. Only 3 cities stood out as having a greater amount of lesser offense use during the encampment versus in the pre- and post-encampment phases.

It is important to find out what the most common police responses are to homeless encampments. Survey question 19 inquired: In the U.S., police response to homeless encampments is mostly generated by the occurrence of: a) Property crime; b) Violent crime; c) Curfew, loitering, vagrancy, drunkenness, etc.; or d) Other. Out of 185 professionals surveyed 92 answered minor offenses (49.73%), 43 answered violent crime (23.24%), 34 answered property crime (18.39%), and 17 answered other. Other responses included nimbyism x4; drug abuse x2; political pressure x2; aidesis x2, commuter concerns x3, public health concerns x2, squatter issues x; and all of the above x1. These survey results differ from the quantitative portion of the study which found property crime to be the driver behind police calls for service and actions at homeless encampments.

Importantly the professionals surveyed were asked to choose which theory is most applicable to the homeless as criminal offenders (Survey Question 20). Out of 185

professionals surveyed 81 answered Broken Windows Theory (81.78%), 62 answered Social Disorganization Theory (33.5%), 22 answered Rational Choice Theory, and 20 answered Crime Pattern Theory. Here, again we see the connection between the offender and the power of place. The relationship between a homeless encampment, elevated crime rates, and the ingredient of disorder leads to the conclusive answer of Broken Windows Theory. With the heightened percentage of offenders "engaging in risky behavior" in and around homeless encampments applicable theories for victimology needs to be addressed. Survey question 21 asked respondents to choose a theory most applicable to the homeless populace as victims of crime. Sixty-seven answered Social Disorganization Theory (36.22%), 60 answered Broken Windows Theory (32.43%), 29 answered Crime Pattern Theory (15.67%) as well as 29 answered Rational Choice Theory (15.67%). Based on the breakdown of the answers it is believed the participants weighed the homeless being victimized while in their encampment setting, but also weighed their victimization as occurring elsewhere via Social Disorganization Theory. Regardless the Broken Windows Theory collectively captured 38.11% of the response rate for both questions regarding homeless offenders and victims. Social Disorganization Theory, while highly applicable, captured 34.86% of responses for both, followed by Rational Choice theory with 13.78%, and Crime Pattern Theory with 13.24%.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis two states that participant subject matter experts will agree there is a relationship between homeless encampments and the occurrences of crime due to disorder conditions. Survey question one defined disorder (vacant buildings, broken

windows, abandoned vehicles, areas filled with trash, aggressive panhandlers, noisy neighbors, and/or groups of youths congregating on street corners) as creating fear in the minds of citizens who are convinced that an area is unsafe. This withdrawal from the community weakens social controls that previously kept criminals in check. The surveyed were directly asked if disorder is a driver of crime. Out of 185 professionals surveyed 97 strongly agreed and 54 agreed that disorder is a driver of crime. That equals an 81.62% agreement rate that disorder is a driver of crime. Survey question two inquired about the importance of disorder when considering elevated crime rates in homeless encampments. Out of 185 professionals, 66 strongly agreed and 85 agreed that disorder is important when considering elevated crime rates in homeless encampments. That is an 81.62% agreement rate. This conclusion strongly aligns with Broken Windows Theory specific to this environment, but in a broader context also aligns with the more general application of disorder in other settings.

In a broader spectrum survey question three investigated if social decay is a driver of crime. Social decay is the state of a city and its culture when it's population is too great and the subsequent infrastructural/behavioral problems that are associated with excess become obvious. Social decay occurs and can be seen on both the physical level of everyday life in a city (abandoned buildings, vacant collapsing houses, streets in poor condition, etc.) and in the emotional state of its inhabitants (narcissism, social anxiety, paranoia, etc.). Resident interaction is only focused around a service, a need, or a want. Out of 185 professionals surveyed 74 strongly agreed and 86 agreed that social decay is important when considering elevated crime rates in homeless encampments. That is an

86.49% agreement rate. In the same manner, survey question four asked how important social decay is when considering elevated crime rates in homeless encampments. Out of 185 professionals surveyed 73 strongly agreed and 79 agreed that social decay is important when considering elevated crime rates in homeless encampments. That is an 82.16% agreement rate.

The above questions focused on relating disorder to crime, survey question five inquired whether participants believed crime in areas containing disorder and/or social decay are higher than the norm. Out of 185 professionals surveyed 87 strongly agreed and 70 agreed that occurrence of crime in an area containing disorder and/or social decay are higher than the norm. That is an 84.86% agreement rate. As a follow up, question six had the purpose of ensuring the belief of relationship between the homeless encampment and disorder and /or social decay. Out of 185 professionals surveyed 77 strongly agreed and 77 agreed that homeless encampments contain disorder and/or social decay. That is an 83.24% agreement rate. With the confirmation of enhanced crime rates in homeless encampments it's important to link a reason. Survey question nine asked why crime rates go up at homeless encampments. Respondents were given the choices of a) the presence disorder and social decay; b) a lack of social cohesion or community; c) all of the above; or d) Other. From the 185 professionals surveyed 110 selected all of the above (59.46%); 40 selected presence disorder and social decay (21.62%); 19 selected a lack of social cohesion or community (10.27 %); and 16 provided other varied responses. Other responses included mental health issues x6; substance abuse x3; poverty x1; fear x1; politically driven reports x1; theft due to need x1; disorder driven reports x1; lack of

respect for rule of law; non-reporting of crime x1and too complex of problem x1. This series of answers validated the connection between higher crime rates around homeless encampments being connected with historical schools of thought and especially brought to light the distinct connections to Broken Windows Theory and more distantly Social Cohesion.

The disparity between the application of social cohesion in this setting as compared to other questions and answers in this survey is displayed through the following results. Survey question 11 asked the survey audience about the homeless populaces having a neighborly bond within an encampment. Out of 185 professionals surveyed 40 strongly agreed and 71 agreed that homeless populaces have a neighborly bond within an encampment. That is a 60% agreement rate. Forty-five respondents answered neither agree or disagree (24.32%), 22 disagreed, and seven strongly disagreed. Earlier in the survey respondents were asked, in question seven if a lack of social cohesion was a driver for crime. From the 185 surveyed 50 strongly agreed and 105 agreed that a lack of social cohesion drives crime. That is an 83.78% agreement rate. Next, survey question eight inquired about the importance of social cohesion in relation to a homeless encampment's elevated crime rates. Out of 185 professionals surveyed 36 strongly agreed and 90 agreed that social cohesion is important to the elevated crime rate within a homeless encampment. That is a 68.11% agreement rate. Fifty-nine respondents answered somewhat important or not important making up 31.89% of answers. From these results we see a significant drop in the results of social cohesion ratings regarding questions directly applied to homeless encampments. The general question about disorder

driving crime garnered an 83.78% agreement rate. Questions relating social cohesion and homeless encampments resulted in a 60% and 68.11% agreement response rate. From these response comparison it can be concluded that the participants from the fields of academia, social work, and law enforcement place a higher value on Broken Windows Theory affiliation versus Social Cohesion.

With the expectation of differences in results from the surveyed regarding disorder, social decay, and social cohesion it was important to gain insight on which occurs first. Survey question 12 directly asked out of disorder, social decay, and a lack of social cohesion, which occurs first. From the 185 professionals surveyed 62 (33.51%) answered the presence of social decay occurs first, 55 (29.73%) answered a lack of social cohesion or community occurs first, and 51 (27.27%) answered the presence of disorder occurs first. If disorder is accepted as a contributor to social decay those answers constitute a combined 61.08% of the responses. Other responses included: either can be a driver x1; lack of self-respect or pride x1, not prosecuting crime x1; and social decay does not equal crime x2. The results from this question were surprising as specifically related to homeless encampments. There seems to be the expectation of homeless being cohesive bands and setting up pop-up homeless encampments. My personal experience differs. My observations and involvement in railroad related homeless encampments consistently shows that these encampments are mainly made up of sole occupants initially that then grow and in many cases grow quickly. Our statistics failed to show any reductions in offenses during the first four months of an encampment. This poses the question whether social cohesion exists at all, or even further when does it start?

In the statistical study of this dissertation, public libraries were used as a Comparison. It is important to note again, this was completed to involve a Comparison member that is populated with homeless in order to garner results related to the power of place. Meaning the possible differences between a maintained venue and the accepted disorder of a homeless encampment. Survey question 15 attempted to confirm the affiliation between the homeless and public libraries by asking if public libraries are a social hub for the homeless. From the 185 professionals surveyed 27 strongly agreed and 74 agreed that the homeless use public libraries as a social hub. That is a 54.59% agreement rate. Forty-six respondents answered neither agree or disagree (24.86%), 31 disagreed, and seven strongly disagreed. Though only 54.59% agreed multiple channels of research noted in this project's chapter work find the public library as being a social hub for the homeless.

In order to further this notion, survey question 13 asked respondents if crime rates go up in maintained venues with homeless people congregating. From the 185 professionals surveyed 31 strongly agreed and 77 agreed that homeless congregations cause crime to go up at maintained venues. That is also a 58.38% agreement rate. Fifty-five respondents answered neither agree or disagree (29.73%), 17 disagreed, and five strongly disagreed. The split in these results displays the power of the setting as a precursor for criminal behavior and places less weight on the population of that setting. As a follow up, survey question 14 inquired about the level of importance of location maintenance and upkeep in reducing crime. Sixty-four answered extremely important and 82 answered important regarding location maintenance and upkeep's level of important in

reducing crime. That is a 78.92% agreement rate from the 185 professionals surveyed. Thirty-three respondents answered somewhat important (17.84%), and six answered not important. Again, these results highlight the power of place and that reducing disorder through maintenance and upkeep also reduces crime.

Survey question 16 applies to both Hypothesis One and Two. This question asked if area crime rates are affected by the homeless congregating at public libraries. Out of 185 professionals surveyed, 13 strongly agreed and 45 agreed that homeless congregations cause crime to go up around libraries. That is a 31.35% agreement rate. Eighty-four respondents answered neither agree or disagree (45.41%), 36 disagreed, and seven strongly disagreed. While the public library locations were used as a Comparison for the homeless encampments it is important to again note this result places more emphasis on the power of the place in reflecting that a public location that is absent of disorder and maintained sees a lesser impact of the possibility of crime due to location versus due to the specific populace group.

As noted in the Hypotheses 1 section for this research question (Survey Question 20), out of 185 professionals surveyed 81 answered Broken Windows Theory (81.78%), 62 answered Social Disorganization Theory (33.5%), 22 answered Rational Choice Theory, and 20 answered Crime Pattern Theory when asked which of those theories best applied to the homeless as offenders. The importance of disorder leads to the conclusive answer of Broken Windows Theory. Survey question 21 results also apply here as they did for Hypotheses 1. Here respondents were asked to choose a theory most applicable to the homeless populace as victims of crime. Sixty-seven answered Social Disorganization

Theory (36.22%), 60 answered Broken Windows Theory (32.43%), 29 answered Crime Pattern Theory (15.67%) as well as 29 answered Rational Choice Theory (15.67%). Based on the breakdown of the answers it is believed the participants weighed the homeless being victimized while in their encampment setting, but also weighed their victimization as occurring elsewhere. Through both of these questions results the importance of disorder as an ingredient to crime are apparent.

Summation and Additional Findings

In relation to the examined theories of Chapter 2 for this paper, it is important to draw correlations between the results for Research Question One and Two, their related Hypotheses, and those presented theories. In relation to the homeless encampment and perimeter locations increases in crime were found during the encampments in comparison to pre-encampment and post-encampment phases. It is important to remember these encampments were built by their populace, the homeless, on railroad right of ways. These right of ways, owned by the railroad, are not populated and there is ownership maintenance to keep them free of debris and trash. The homeless, when building encampments use what is available to build shantytowns which can include the use of pallets, blankets, tarps, or tents to create some form of shelter. This study found during the pre-encampment phase crime was at a greatly lesser level than during the encampment, and an even more drastically lower level when the encampment was cleaned up and the railroad right of way restored to its intended appearance. Consider in the pre-phase crime rates may have been higher due to the inexact start date of the homeless encampment itself. In the following section we examine key prior works that have contributed to this paper.

A 2019 study found that "disorder-control policing" is still prevalent in many areas today and is utilized by law enforcement agencies as a control mechanism in neighborhood areas deemed at risk (Ren et al., 2019, p. 21). This study differed and found lesser occurrences of the use of status, or low level offenses, regarding governance of homeless encampments. In three of eleven homeless encampment locations (Seattle,

Stockton, and Pueblo) offense levels for disorderly conduct and drunkenness were elevated during the encampment period. In the other encampment locations these offenses, including curfew, liquor law violations, and all other offenses categorizations were nearly absent. There are a host of progressive police programs sweeping the nation that could attribute to this tool being used less. There could also be the acceptance of the homeless population by law enforcement because they have steadily grown, and law enforcement recognizes the limited avenues for help in every form. In this project's survey findings 71.89% of surveyed law enforcement, academic, and social work professionals agreed that police treat the homeless differently. The survey also posed whether police use minor offenses (curfew, loitering, vagrancy, drunkenness, etc.) as a mechanism to manage the homeless populace. A response rate of 61.08% of those professionals agreed. Again, this questions response breakdown differs from the findings of the quantitative work of the paper.

In a different quantitative study, data from a program, justified through broken window theory, tracked municipal tickets delivered to homeless people as a reflection of tensions around the visibility of homeless people in public spaces (Chesnay, Bellot, & Sylvestre, 2013, p. 162). From this study appears the possibility of differential treatment of the populace, and criminalization of being homeless, as tied to citing versing warning for minor offenses. The conclusion can be drawn from these studies that there is a relationship between social decay, broken windows, and crime as well as the possibility of greater enforcement bias based on the involved population. From this study we can determine that lack of enforcement regarding minor criminal acts could be a contributing

factor for the elevation of NIBRS Group B offenses as well as the increase in NIBRS Group A offenses. This study found across the Study locations that property related crimes made up the largest percentile of offenses. Interestingly the surveyed professionals noted police response to homeless encampments is mostly generated by the occurrence minor offenses (49.73%), followed by violent crime (23.24%), then property crime (18.39%). Again, in this experiment property crimes lead across the Study sites.

A 2021 interview with a 24 year veteran of law enforcement and railroad policing found that camps often house both the mentally ill and individuals with a propensity for violent behaviors. Crimes often launched from camps can range from vandalism, theft, burglary, assaults, and even terroristic threats toward railroad employees. Criminal tools/weapons, evidence of drug use, and other criminal activity are almost always located in these types of homeless camps (2021, Interview). The offenses mentioned are within NIBRS Group A classification. This study concurs with vandalism, theft, burglary, assaults, and assault by intimidation being elevated during camp existence terms. Across 11 encampments, NIBRS Group A offenses rose from an average of 10.106 per month pre-encampment to 15.53 per month during the exist-phase of the encampment, while the library Comparison saw almost no change. With that dramatic change the escalation of NIBRS Group B offenses was more staggering displaying an 11 location change in monthly average of 5.06 for the pre-encampment phase to 11.924 during the exist-phase of the encampment, while the library Comparison again had little variance between the phases.

Regarding Rational Choice Theory, Sidebottom & Wortley (2016, p. 165) noted for the purposes of a crime being committed, the offender needs to make rational choices in order to move from one step to the next as the crime unfolds. With practice, the decision-making becomes automatic, and eventually offenders are able to complete the complex sequence of actions instinctively, without the need for laborious deliberation. Without an in-depth qualitative study of each offense it is tough to determine the true motivating factors within the crimes that occurred at the homeless encampments and the 500 meter perimeter. One offense that did standout across the body of encampments, amongst many others, is Motor Vehicle Theft. This crime takes planning, knowledge, and a course of action prior to, during, and after a successful or attempted theft which echoes the sentiments of the aforementioned study. While there may be other offenses that could be related to this the factors of homelessness and accompanying factors cloud their inclusion. The surveyed professional's opinions regarding the ranking of Rational Choice Theory as applied to the homeless offenders garnered only 11.89% in terms of applicability. Regarding the theories used where the homeless are victims only 15.67% found Rational Choice Theory highly applicable.

The Routine Activity Theory has moderate predictive validity when applied to property victimization, criminal offending, and multilevel criminal opportunity current body of research. Mixed findings appear in studies of violent victimization, consistent with the criticism that depicting offenders as rational may not fit the impulsive nature of instrumental crimes (Madero-Hernandez & Fisher, 2012, p. 528-529). Though the statistical findings of this study do not delve deeply enough into each case to determine

predictive validity in regard to the motivated offender, guardian, and possibly handler/place manager relationships which stems from Hirschi's Social Control Theory. The extensive increases in theft during the encampments could typify crimes of opportunity for a motivated member of the homeless populace. Paired-Samples t-Test for the encampment sites and perimeters noted the standout offenses of Motor Vehicle Theft, Drunkenness, and the agglomeration of Group A crimes, and all other crimes. What is not known regarding these crimes are the possible relationships between the offender(s), victim(s), levels of cooperation, and motivating factors in order to determine the involvement of Routine Activity Theory specific to this study.

Conclusions drawn in regard to Crime Pattern Theory and this study are that crime increased spatially within a 500 meter perimeter of a homeless encampment. In relation to other studies , offenders tend to commit a criminal act close to pathways—main roads anywhere or travel routes in their home area that become familiar through their routine activities. Research suggests that criminal events also concentrate where two or more land uses converge forming an edge, with a change from one type of urban space to another. This concentration of property crime is said to occur because people have a decreased ability to identify who belongs and who does not. Edges can thus mark areas of territorial conflict between groups (Brantingham & Brantingham, 1995, p. 12-13). Edges represent an area in transition from one use to another (Brantingham et al., 2017, p. 6). In this study the initial perimeter is the entry to the railroad's right of way, usually a blank canvas for safety purposes surrounding the railroad's tracks. A secondary distinction of entry is to the homeless encampment itself. The defining line for the encampment is set

by its disorder and accumulation of debris, rubbish, and buildup of population. In relation to statistical capabilities there are differences in law enforcement agency statistical garnering. This made offense tracking via heat maps, for the exact offense locations, unable to be completed. It should be noted that exact addresses are not always able to be used in relation to offenses connected to a homeless encampment or railroad right of way which is another barrier to completing mapping.

Another important part of Crime Pattern Theory notes that offenders have daily routine activities and movement patterns through which they become familiar with and comfortable in their environment. This familiarity by offenders, and all people, of place is referred to as an "environmental backcloth" (Brantingham & Brantingham, 1993, p. 22). "Environmental backcloth" is a cognitive landscape of the built environment by which an offender recognizes criminal opportunities and can easily identify targets. This theory explains why crime concentrates in specific areas and why targets might draw the attention of offenders through patterned, routine activities. This study shows that the addition of a homeless encampment to an area considered a blank canvas is a driver for elevated crime rates. Regarding theory application for the homeless as offenders only 10.81% of professionals surveyed named this theory as the most applicable. For homeless victims, 15.67% of surveyed professionals named Crime Pattern Theory as the most applicable theory.

Defensible Space and Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) are interesting dynamics to study in regard to homeless encampments. The statistics garnered for this study don't allow for conclusions to be reached regarding these

intricate theory applications. However, within the 500 meter perimeters of these homeless encampments there are multiple types of residential and business settings. In a 2017 study, Armitage (pp. 287-289) found criminals confirmed that they were more likely to target well maintained properties as opposed to those that appear rundown and neglected. In this study the perimeters up to 500 meters of the homeless encampment have been determined to be affected through the sole addition of the encampment and its affiliates targeting the surrounding areas out of desirability, availability, and convenience. This finding has been made through the results of both the descriptive analytics and various Paired-Samples t-Test completions. Also note, the majority of professionals surveyed (37.3%) believe crime rates are affected up to a 1,000 meter circumference around a homeless encampments, while the other choices for this question paled in comparison. This result denotes that those surveyed not only agree that crime rates can be affected by the presence of homeless encampments at 500 meters, as proven through our statistical study, but believe that effect can be as far as 1,000 meters in circumference.

In the seminal article on Broken Windows Theory in The Atlantic Monthly, George L. Kelling and James Q. Wilson (1982) described a developing sequence of events in which unattended minor issues mount and produce harmful consequences for neighborhoods and settings. These unattended minor issues encompass physical conditions and social nuisances that signify neighborhood and setting decline, causing fear in residents. The spread of crime is a major concern regarding the spread of unattended issues that are minor in nature. The minor issues, as described above, are collectively known as disorder or social decay. Based on the findings of this study the

occurrence of NIBRS Group B offenses far outpaced the occurrence of NIBRS Group A offenses. In relation to the Broken Windows findings, while NIBRS Group B offenses should begin with the encampment, NIBRS Group A offenses – more serious and violent – should grow during the camp's existence. In order to determine this the 11 Study encampments were aligned from their starting month and NIBRS Group A offenses were tallied across the 11 on a monthly basis to determine the escalation of NIBRS Group A offenses. During the first month of the encampments NIBRS Group A offenses across the 11 Study encampments totaled 480. Over the next 3 months we see a drop to 182 and an escalation to 205 and then 212. While the escalation is not as clear cut or robust as the challengers of Broken Windows Theory would want to see the overall escalation concurs with the founding theorist's evaluation. Also be reminded of the lack of status offense enforcement across the Study body. While this is a sign of progressive policing and acceptance of the homeless populace it also places a stamp on the reality and accuracy of Broken Windows Theory. This escalation along with the evident overall increase in NIBRS Group B offenses seem to be related to the development of the disorder in the encampment itself and the spatial effect of that disorder. The appearance of minimal "disorder-control policing" also extends to the elevation of NIBRS Group B offenses as well as the increase of Type A offenses. Along with these statistical results, this study found a high affinity for the use of Broken Windows Theory when applied to the homeless offender and homeless victim. Surveyed professional at the rate of 81.78% noted Broken Windows Theory as being the most applicable to the homeless offender. Regarding homeless victims, 32.43% of surveyed professionals found Broken Windows

Theory as the most applicable. A close seconds to Social Disorganization Theory which respondents found applicable to homeless victims at a rate of 36.22%.

The conclusion above is also related to the findings of the 2021 study "What works in policing?" by The Center for Evidence-Based Crime Policy (CEBCP). This study finds that disorder is not directly linked to serious crime, it instead leads to increased fear and withdrawal from residents, which then allows more serious crime to move in due to decreased levels of informal social control (CEBCP, 2021, p. 1). To add more depth, the theory focuses on communities (or neighborhoods), and the relationships between disorder and incivility that influences serious crime rates. Wilson and Kelling posit that the prevalence of disorder:

1) increases serious crimes,

2) encourages fear among residents and citizens, and

3) weakens informal relationships among residents and citizens within those communities.

The above listed Wilson and Kelling notes for disorder can be comprehended as aligning with the findings of this study. This is clearly established through the statistical increases for both NIBRS Group A and NIBRS Group B offenses during the existence of encampments as noted in both the descriptive and Paired-Samples t-Test findings of this paper.

Sampson, Raudenbush, and Earls (1997, pp. 918-919) found that a combined measure of cohesion, mutual trust, and expectations of intervention by others which they

labeled ‘collective efficacy’ reduced violent crime rates. Markowitz et al. (2001, p. 311) found significant relationships between neighborhood structural characteristics and disorder, which were mediated by ‘cohesion’ and ‘social control’ (Steenbeek & Hipp, 2011, pp. 4-5). While it is noted that the true manner for researching the existence of Collective Efficacy needs to be completed through qualitative means, like interviews or a survey, its assumption of existence or evolution should still be observable through metrics. This would involve criminal offenses dropping over the lifespan of a location or neighborhood through social bonds. In this case, offense levels would decrease over the lifespan of an encampment due to its residents prescribing to cohesion, mutual trust, and expectations of intervention by others. Statistics sets for this study were not able to conclude Collective Efficacy was an active ingredient within this set of encampment locations. Garnered metrics were not able to determine the effect of Bursik and Grasmick or Kasarda and Janowitz’s systemic model of community attachment (Kasarda & Janowitz, 1974, p. 328, 333) through a decline in crime rate over the lifespan of the Study encampments. While 83.78% of professionals surveyed noted that a lack of social cohesions is a driver for crime, when it came to comparing crime in homeless encampments disorder affiliated findings questions were agreed with in the 80th percentile range while the application of social cohesion found an agreement rate in the 60th percentile range. The following section draws conclusions regarding homeless disorder, crime, and victimization findings for encampment locations and their perimeters in relation to the crime rate for the city.

In 2021, a study was completed displaying the links between urban decay, homelessness, disorder and levels of crime in Fresno, California. Statistics from a United States Class I Railway Railway's homeless management project were used in the study to illustrate the growing homeless population in California, the growing number of homeless encampments on railroad right of ways, and its possible ties to trends in crime (Jones, Puchalsky, & Scott, 2021, p. 4). Conclusions regarding homeless encampments and disorder should be automatic. The photos from several of the Study member encampments also easily prove the presence of disorder through rubbish, graffiti, signs of vandalism. A key indicator of disorder is the mere presence of graffiti, which has been shown to more than double the number of people littering and stealing in those defaced public locations. This correlation leads to the conclusion and agreement with a prior study that when norm-violating behavior becomes more common, it will negatively influence conformity to other norms and rules (Keizer, et al., 2008, p. 1684). The presented photos of the encampments in this study prove the relationship between the graffiti, disorder, and the finding of elevated crime. The completed survey and results also display a high affinity between the homeless, encampments, disorder, and crime.

This level of blight, and the appearance of a lack of care, leads to opportunities where criminals believe their actions are going to be more overlooked, ignored, or accepted. Through the results of this study's noted increases in both NIBRS Group A and B offense types and the obvious presence of disorder agreement is found with Wilson and Kelling's 1989 article. This article implies a direct relationship between disorder and a rash of varied crimes (Wilson & Kelling, 1989, p. 47). Kelling and Coles (1996) study

specifically indicated that disorder includes aggressive panhandling, street prostitution, drunkenness and public drinking, menacing behavior, harassment, obstruction of streets and public spaces, vandalism and graffiti, public urination and defecation, unlicensed vending and peddling, unsolicited window washing of cars, and other such acts. On the whole this Study group of encampments saw low levels of several of these offense types. Of course, there are several factors that could affect enforcement of these offenses and in this study's case the lack thereof. While the findings in our quantitative work counter those of Kelling and Coles. The participants in our survey agree with the work published in 1996 to the tune of 92 out of 185 (49.73%), professionals answered low level offenses (curfew, loitering, vagrancy drunkenness, etc.) as being the generator of police calls to homeless encampments. With this difference between past studies and this one it is important to note what offenses did stand out.

Related to disorder and encampments, across the spectrum of Study data, assault via harassment stood out with prostitution related offenses only being prevalent in a few Study sites. Property crimes were much more prevalent in the form of theft and burglary. The variance in all assaultive behavior ties into the 2015 study by Bones and Hope in which areas with higher levels of disadvantage, have a significant increase of neighborhood reported assaultive crimes (p. 312). This relates to the disadvantages faced by the residents within homeless encampments on railroad property and the findings of elevated assaultive behavior during the span of a homeless encampment. Note that assaults in the initial data sets were broken down in three categories of Aggravated,

Simple, and Intimidation. Intimidation, sometimes called Terroristic Threat, outweighed the other two assault types by a heavy margin.

Specific to homelessness and crime, there is an interesting correlation between this study and an already existing one. In a 2018 study, Faraji, Ridgeway, and Wu found that the presence of a homeless shelter also appears to cause property crime to increase by 56% within 100 meters of that shelter. These crimes include thefts from vehicles, other thefts, and vandalism; driving the increase within 400 meters of a shelter and dissipating beyond 400 meters away from the shelter (p. 136). It was this result and the impact distance of 400 meters from the homeless shelter that drove for finding limits being set to 500 meters for this study. While this study couldn't dive into the scatter plotting of specific offense locations on railroad right of ways and near encampments correlation of the results can be found between the two studies. Specific to the 56% increase in property crime found by Faraji, Ridgeway, and Wu, this study found in 11 samples that NIBRS Group A offenses increased 56.671% and NIBRS Group B offenses increased 135.652% during the encampments existence. Paired-Samples t-Test comparison also found increases in crime for the existing phase of the encampments and drastic drops in crime after their removal.

A topic repeatedly mentioned through this paper has been the impact of progressive policing programs on practices in relation to low level offense enforcement, the acceptance of the homeless population's permanence, and the relation between the enforcement of low level criminal offenses and the homeless populace. Drunkenness and Disorderly Conduct were the most common of these offense types from the NIBRS

Group B group across the study. Though their use was only heavily seen in Pueblo, Seattle, and Stockton during the homeless encampment's existence. Going into this study, an informal goal was to display the recognition that homeless contacts occur in every size of city and location, with differing interactional dynamics between the homeless and police as displayed in McNamara, Crawford and Burns 2013 study (p. 358). What was found are correlations regarding crime rate, population density, and the use of low level criminal offenses, like Drunkenness and Disorderly Conduct, in homeless encampment settings. While Seattle and Stockton had the second and third highest crime index in the study, 440.8 and 505.2 respectively, their population density out of the study group ranked first and third as well (Seattle at 8,791.80 population per square mile, and Stockton at 5,157 population per square mile). Oddly, Pueblo displayed the highest crime index rating of the cities at 599.9, while having the lowest population density of the study at 2,020.10 per square mile. Another factor to consider regarding this correlation is the homeless population in each city. While Seattle (8,166) and Stockton (921) had the highest noted homeless populations in the study, Pueblo, with such a high crime rate only noted 91 homeless residents. While the matches of population density, crime rate, and elevated homeless populations draw correlations between the three items and the use of low level offenses for control, the contradictory population numbers from Pueblo cause pause in findings. However, we can determine that measuring crime is as important as measuring disorder. The measurement of change in crime rates therefore carry the same weight as the measurement of disorder within a homeless encampment setting.

When we make this conundrum more complex by adding victimization probability the following conclusions can be made. Again in Pueblo, Stockton, and Seattle there was more instances of low level offenses enforcement during the encampment's existence. Ratio of odds calculations found that in Pueblo city inhabitants faced a greater likelihood of being a crime victim during the encampment for the offenses of arson, assault, burglary, larceny/theft, and motor vehicle theft. Meaning, that despite the policing of low level offenses the victimization probability was higher during the encampment as compared to versus the city's crime rate. In Stockton, the policing of low level offenses proved somewhat more fruitful in alignment with Broken Windows Theory and "disorder control policing." In Stockton inhabitants were less likely to be the victim of burglary, motor vehicle theft, and robbery during the camp's existence. However, the offenses of arson, assault, and larceny/theft had elevated probability of occurring during the encampment. Interestingly, the homicide rate during the encampment was the same as the rest of the city. This was one of the few data sets in which homicide was represented. Seattle was the third city in which low level offense "disorder control policing" was prevalent during the encampment. Even with these efforts, the likelihood of being a victim increased substantially for the offenses of assault, burglary, larceny/theft, and motor vehicle theft during the timeframe the homeless encampment existed. While drawing a finding is difficult from only three examples, in this case it appears that "disorder control policing" and its effect on lowering the occurrence of offenses in this setting is inconclusive.

When drawing conclusions for victimization from the other five cities (Bend, Cashmere, Martinez, Placentia, and Santa Fe Springs) which had zero to little low level criminal offense enforcement or "disorder control policing" conclusions are mixed. This is with the assumption that those policing efforts would have resulted in arrests or citations. Assault had a higher probability during the existence of the encampment in one city (Placentia) while dropping below the norm in the other four cities, notably by a 50% decrease in Martinez. For larceny/theft the probability of occurrence was higher during the encampment for four cities while being lesser in Bend. Burglary had a higher probability of occurring during the encampment in 3 of the 5 cities while it had the same level of occurrence in the other two. Motor vehicle theft risk increased during the encampment in 3 of 5 cities, in one city remained the same, and in one location – Cashmere – was a non-factor. The risk for burglary increased during the encampment for three cities and remained the same at the other two. While these numbers don't prove or disprove the response from the lack of "disorder control policing" they also don't support an existence of social efficacy leading to any declines in offense rate during encampment phases. As noted earlier, the existence of social efficacy requires qualitative means of study to quantify its existence to involvement. Though the above is inclusive, surveyed professionals for this study largely aligned with the social decay / disorder line of thought when it came homeless offenders and homeless victims.

Based on the theories discussed in Chapter 2 and the locations of homeless encampments and their many times dense populace the possibility of criminal offenders and victims intersecting could be high. There seems to be connections between these

issues, Broken Window Theory, and the power "place" has in this relationship. For centuries, the power of "place" has been studied within criminological research at all units of analysis, from street segments to national levels. This includes understanding how physical structures of space/place and human behavior are reciprocally related (Boessen & Hipp, 2015, p. 399), and are important and constantly evolving concepts. The power that "place" has in this study cannot be understated and is highly related to victimology at the encampment location, its surroundings, and it's wide effect on neighboring entities. This ties heavily into the quantitative results and is also inherent within the administered survey results from law enforcement, education, and social work professionals.

Using city based data from city-data.com, this study was able to determine victimization probabilities at homeless encampments and their perimeter versus norms for the city data set member. This is a ratio of odds, that being the probability of becoming a victim of a crime under the relevant category during the encampment period divided by that same risk based on the baseline data. Across eight cities this study found victimization probability to be increased in relation to several NIBRS Group A offenses for homeless encampments as well as the 500 meter surrounding their location. In relation to the offense of Arson, the cities of Bend, Pueblo, Santa Fe Springs, and Stockton showed increases beyond the norm of the city, with the Bend homeless encampment having twice the likelihood of Arson occurring versus the city norm. In four cities Arson was a non-factor. In relation to Assault, the cities of Placentia, Pueblo, Santa Fe Springs, Seattle, and Stockton all demonstrated higher probability of victimization at

or near the encampment versus the norm. Interestingly, in Bend, Cashmere, Martinez, and Stockton the likelihood of assault at or near the encampment was lower than the norm within the city. In relation to the offense of Burglary victimization likelihood was increased at or near the encampments in Martinez, Placentia, Pueblo, Santa Fe Springs, and Seattle. Burglary at or near encampments was on par with victimization rate within the city for encampments in Bend and Cashmere while actually being reduced in Stockton. Five out of eight cities showed higher victim probability at or near the encampment for the offense of Theft/Larceny, two cities displayed victimization comparable to the rest of the city, and only Bend displayed a lesser likelihood of this offense at the encampment than elsewhere in the city. The offense of Motor Vehicle Theft was found to have greater victim probability in 5 out of 8 city's encampments. In fact, in Placentia that likelihood of victimization was 7 times that of the norm for Motor Vehicle Theft. In Bend Motor Vehicle theft was on par with the rest of the city and in Stockton the victimization probability for this offense was lower at or near the encampment versus the rest of the city. The offense of Robbery was a non-factor for victimization in five of eight cities. Robbery at or near the encampment was on par with the rest of the city in Bend and Placentia, while that probability was reduced at the encampment in Stockton.

Overall, these statistics determined the likelihood of being a victim of crime to be more likely at a homeless encampment or within its 500 meter perimeter. Importantly these findings assist in reaching the conclusion that NIBRS Group A offenses occur with more prevalence at or near homeless encampments versus within the remainder of the

city. In relation to this finding, Price (2016, p. 210) theorized that criminal activities heighten conditionally, based on the characteristics of a neighborhood that the criminal perceives, and measured by the extent to which that neighborhood cares about or tolerates criminal activity. Through the heightening of overall criminal offenses and heightening of victimization probability it seems conclusive that in the majority of cases the elements of Social Efficacy seem absent, even from longstanding encampments existing ten months of more.

Limitations

The primary limitation to this research lies within the constitution of the purposive Study which was confined to homeless encampments on railway properties and right of ways with a duration of existence of 150 days or more. This study was also limited to states within the U.S. west of the Mississippi River in which the United States Class I Railway and the homeless management project operates as well as limiting the Study to 12 encampments lasting 150 days or more.

The geographic span of the Study encampments also limited the options regarding surveys of neighbors and business owners close to and possibly impacted by the presence of homeless encampments. Timeframes, travel, and expense make this survey audience unviable currently. This interesting angle of collecting firsthand experiences to explore the theory bases illustrated in Chapter 2 could be part of future endeavors.

Limitations exist regarding the roles of railroad police in being a caretaker and guardian of privately owned railroad properties. These roles require railroad police to act many times in a social worker capacity assisting the homeless populace encountered on railroad properties. Unfortunately, there is very little research regarding railroad policing and its diverse requirements. Thus, interactions and dispositions of criminal acts by the homeless may be dealt with in a manner other than through the black and white of criminal law or local ordinances. However, it should be noted that despite the level of attention trespassers and homeless encampments receive from railroad police, these encampments continued, endured, and so did their effects on crime rates.

Limitations of local law enforcement agencies to provide NIBRS compliant data also left the Study size as being less than the original solicitation for data. This study started with the possibility of over twenty participant cities which experienced homeless encampments lasting for over 150 days on railroad property or right of ways. Many agencies could not participate due to not meeting the NIBRS reporting classifications requirements. Other agencies did not have the capability to pull spatial data within five hundred meters of the Study and Comparison member. Other agencies requested that freedom of information processes be completed for each police call within the study timeframe and five hundred meter circumference of the Study and Comparison member. One municipal law enforcement agency who contributed data to the study was removed due to jurisdictional parameters with a second county law enforcement agency who was not willing to participate in the study. These limitations of contributing law enforcement agencies brough the Study member number down to twelve participant homeless encampments lasting greater than 150 days in length.

In relation to the use of City-Data Crime index to determine victimization probabilities at homeless encampments and their perimeter versus norms from the city the exact formula for this metric was unable to be obtained. A ratio of odds was utilized in relation to the crime rates. The ratio consisted of the probability of becoming a victim of a crime under the relevant category during the encampment period divided by that same risk based on the baseline data. Though these statistics are viable and from a reliable method, limitations are caused by not knowing the exact calculation city-data.com uses to formulate their published city based crime rates.

Implications

Managing vulnerable populations during disaster and the plight they face has become a topic of value and priority in homeland security. From disaster management to personal addiction issues all levels of government have recognized the need to include this growing population into planning, response, and recovery efforts. Some local governments have even progressed to restore the homeless populace by further outlets for services, employment, and housing. From a law enforcement perspective the homeless populace can fluctuate from a low to no need status up to creating agencies to deal with the plight and placing added demands on local law enforcement agencies. While the avenues for handling crimes and issues involving the homeless are endless, the manner in which agencies choose to manage the homeless can perpetuate populace problems or build bonds and relationships through inclusion. By examining and re-establishing the importance of disorder and decay as a root cause of elevated crime this study delivers clear messages to law enforcement agencies at all levels in order to establish progressive efforts to reduce homeless populations.

From the perspectives of personal and professional development, completing this research project and dissertation have been rewarding and fruitful for me. Having served in multiple facets of law enforcement since 1997, this study has built upon experiences in working at local and state levels, with and for social/correctional service entities, municipal and railroad police agencies, and within fire and EMS service providers. The field of homeland security is an ever growing practice that is finding roots in theoretical study. In this same vein the recognition of vulnerable populaces, like the homeless, and

their requirements for dealing with disaster and the everyday are needs that have to be recognized for change to occur. The recognition of disorder and decay, regardless of setting, as a driver for crime, victimization, deteriorating social responsibilities is of importance to multiple homeland security fields.

Recommendations and Future Research

Completing this research opened many more avenues into examining the spatial effects of homeless populations on crime. On the whole, status offenses appeared in the Study encampments data sets far less than anticipated. There are multiple possibilities regarding this occurrence. Research should be completed on this noticeable change. It would be interesting to determine whether this change is attributed to homelessness becoming more normative, forward thinking police agency policies and programs, or more widely spread homeless community based resources. Along with lower than expected stats for status offenses, arrests for drug offenses amongst the homeless data sets were lower than expected. Considerations in this area for study include selective law enforcement with homeless populations, and examinations of the role of procedural justice and active bystandership in relation to vulnerable populaces like the homeless.

The Difference in Difference (DiD) analysis tool would be an interesting tool for use with similar data sets. If a homeless encampment is available with substantial statistical variances it could be conceived that robust outcomes could be reached. A recommendation for future efforts is to develop a third contributing data set as a control. This would be a location in which the homeless populace is fully or nearly absent. By comparing the data of all three place, offender, and the absence of both could be compared. This could also shed light on whether or not the homeless as a populace and their risky behavior deserves more attention over place.

Another spatial quest could be to replicate this study with an extended circumference for Study and Comparisons set to 1,000 meters. Based on surveyed

professionals, the majority believe that the criminal effect extends in the least to that distance. Also, in the same vein, a study regarding homeless displacement and its effect on crime rate. In relation to the administered survey for this for this project, a future research area could be the breakdown and comparison of answers in relation to the participant's field of work. There are several comparatives based on survey qualifier differences that would create an interesting project.

APPENDIX A: ST. JOHN'S UNIVERSITY IRB APPROVAL

Federal Wide Assurance: FWA00009066

Dec 26, 2023, 11:16:54 AM EST

PI: Michael Jones

CO-PI: Jie Xu

Dept: College of Prof Studies

Re: Initial - IRB-FY2024-159 *HOMELESS ENCAMPMENTS ON RAILROAD PROPERTY AND THEIR EFFECT ON CRIME RATES: A MULTIPLE METHODS ANALYSIS*

Dear Michael Jones:

The St John's University Institutional Review Board has rendered the decision below for *HOMELESS ENCAMPMENTS ON RAILROAD PROPERTY AND THEIR EFFECT ON CRIME RATES: A MULTIPLE METHODS ANALYSIS.*

Decision: Exempt

This protocol is approved contingent on your making the following addition to your consent form. In the section about contact information, please add the faculty advisor and the IRB chair. Provide the names and email addresses of these two people.

PLEASE NOTE: If you have collected any data prior to this approval date, the data must be discarded.

Selected Category: Category 2.(i). Research that only includes interactions involving

educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures, or observation of public behavior (including visual or auditory recording) if at least one of the following criteria is met:

The information obtained is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the identity of the human subjects cannot readily be ascertained, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects;

Category 7. Storage or maintenance for secondary research for which broad consent is required: Storage or maintenance of identifiable private information or identifiable biospecimens for potential secondary research use if an IRB conducts a limited IRB review and makes the determinations required by §46.111(a)(8).

Sincerely,

Raymond DiGiuseppe, PhD, ABPP

Chair, Institutional Review Board

Professor of Psychology

APPENDIX B: SURVEY SOLICITATION EMAIL

Good day,

It has been interesting compiling the recipient list of great academic and practitioner organizations for this email. The organizational memberships receiving this message are made up of people I know personally, people I respect the work of, and importantly people who share common interests, passions, and professions. Another important commonality among many is knowing the rigors and demands of degree completion while being a working professional and a student.

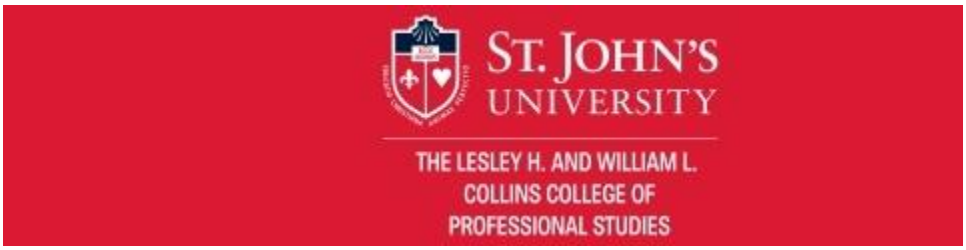
I am in this season of life right now as a doctoral candidate at St. John's University and am reaching out to you for help completing the qualitative portion of my dissertation. I am tackling qualitative input via a survey administered through SurveyMonkey.com. I really hope this opportunity sounds enticing!

Please forward the survey link below to your membership/employees.

Thank you for your consideration and help.

Michael E. Jones
Doctoral Candidate
St. John's University

APPENDIX C: INFORMED CONSENT AND ADMINISTERED SURVEY



Title of Research: HOMELESS ENCAMPMENTS ON RAILROAD PROPERTY AND THEIR EFFECT ON CRIME RATES: A MULTIPLE METHODS ANALYSIS

Principle Investigator: Michael E. Jones

Affiliation: St. John's University, Collins College of Professional Studies

Contact Information: jonesm2@stjohns.edu

Informed Consent

1. Introduction and Purpose of the Study

You are invited to participate in a research study under the direction of Dr. Jie Xu of the Division of Criminal Justice and Homeland security, Lesley H., and William L. Collins College of professional Studies at St. John's university in Queens, New York. This study investigates the extent of the relationship, if any, between homeless encampments and crime rates via a dual methods approach.

2. Description of the Research

You will be asked to use a SurveyMonkey.com hyperlink to complete an online hosted survey consisting of Likert scale, multiple choice, and fill in the blank optioned questions. The 26 question survey will take approximately 12 minutes to complete.

3. Subject Participation

We estimate that 100 or more members of academia and professional police, social work associations will take part in this survey.

4. Potential Risks and Discomforts

There are no risks from participating in this study.

5. Potential Benefits

People who participate in this study will revive the debate regarding influences on crime and its relationship with the vulnerable homeless populace.

6. Confidentiality

The records of this study will be kept private. Within the reporting of the data, there will be no identifying information that will be used to identify any participant of the study. The researcher(s) will only have access to the recorded answers through the survey service provider. Data collected from the survey will be stored on the survey provider's password protected server for 5 years, after which all files will be destroyed.

7. Compensation:

N/A

8. Voluntary Participation and Authorization

Your decision to participate in the study is voluntary. By clicking the consent below , you authorize the use and disclosure of the records, observations, and findings located during the course of this study for education, publication, and/or presentation.

9. Withdrawal from the Study and/or Withdrawal of Authorization

If you decide to participate in this study, you may withdraw from your participation at any time without penalty.

10. Cost/Reimbursement

There is no incurred cost for participating in this study.

Statement of Consent: I have read and understood the above information. I understand that I may keep a copy of the informed consent. I have asked any necessary questions and received answers.

[] Yes, I consent to participate in the study and waive any liabilities affiliated with my participation.

[] No, I do not wish to participate. Exit SurveyMonkey.com by closing window.

Participant Information

1) Do you label yourself as a/an:

a) Academic

b) Practitioner

c) Both

d) Neither

2) Education Level:

<12TH GRADE, H.S. DIPLOMA/GED, ASSOCATES DEGREE, BACHELOR'S DEGREE, MASTER'S DEGREE, DOCTORAL DEGREE

3) Field of work:

a) Education

b) Law Enforcement

c) Social Services

d) Healthcare

e) Other_____

4) Total years of service:

0-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, 21-24, 25 or Greater

Survey

1) Disorder (vacant buildings, broken windows, abandoned vehicles, areas filled with trash, aggressive panhandlers, noisy neighbors, and/or groups of youths congregating on street corners) creates fear in the minds of citizens who are convinced that an area is unsafe. This withdrawal from the community weakens social controls that previously kept criminals in check. Disorder is a driver of crime.

a) Strongly Agree

b) Agree

c) Neither agree nor disagree

d) Disagree

e) Strongly disagree

2) How important is disorder when considering elevated crime rates in homeless encampments?

a) Strongly Agree

b) Agree

c) Neither agree nor disagree

d) Disagree

e) Strongly disagree

3) Social decay is the state of a city and its culture when it's population is too great and the subsequent infrastructural/behavioral problems that are associated with excess become obvious. Social decay occurs and can be seen on both the physical level of everyday life in a city (abandoned buildings, vacant collapsing houses, streets in poor condition, etc.) and in the emotional state of its inhabitants (narcissism, social anxiety, paranoia, etc.). Resident interaction is focused around a service, a need, or a want. Social decay is a driver of crime.

a) Strongly Agree

b) Agree

c) Neither agree nor disagree

d) Disagree

e) Strongly disagree

4) How important is social decay when considering elevated crime rates in homeless encampments?

a) Extremely important

b) Important

c) Somewhat important

d) Not important

5) The occurrence of crime in an area containing disorder and/or social decay are higher than the norm.

a) Strongly Agree

b) Agree

c) Neither agree nor disagree

d) Disagree

e) Strongly disagree

6) Homeless encampments contain disorder and/or social decay.

a) Strongly Agree

b) Agree

c) Neither agree nor disagree

d) Disagree

e) Strongly disagree

7) Social cohesion is a neighborly bond, combined with the inclination to intercede on behalf of the common good. A lack of social cohesion drives crime.

a) Strongly Agree

b) Agree

c) Neither agree nor disagree

d) Disagree

e) Strongly disagree

8) How important in homeless encampment's elevated crime rates is social cohesion?

a) Extremely important

b) Important

c) Somewhat important

d) Not important

9) In a homeless encampment, crime rates go up because:

a) the presence disorder and social decay.

b) a lack of social cohesion or community.

c) all of the above.

d) Other_____

10) Crime rates are affected up to a _____ meter circumference around a homeless encampment.

a) 250

b) 500

c) 750

d) 1000

11) Do homeless populaces have a neighborly bond within an encampment?

a) Strongly Agree

b) Agree

c) Neither agree nor disagree

d) Disagree

e) Strongly disagree

12) If disorder, social decay, and a lack of social cohesion are drivers of crime, which occurs first?

a) the presence of disorder

b) the presence of social decay

c) a lack of social cohesion or community

d) None of the above

e) Other_____.

13) Crime rates go up in maintained venues with homeless people congregating?

a) Strongly Agree

b) Agree

c) Neither agree nor disagree

d) Disagree

e) Strongly disagree

14) How important is location maintenance and upkeep in reducing crime?

a) Extremely important

b) Important

c) Somewhat important

d) Not important

15) Are public libraries a social hub for the homeless?

a) Strongly Agree

b) Agree

c) Neither agree nor disagree

d) Disagree

e) Strongly disagree

16) Area crime rates are affected by the homeless congregating at public libraries.

a) Strongly Agree

b) Agree

c) Neither agree nor disagree

d) Disagree

e) Strongly disagree

17) Is using minor offenses (curfew, loitering, vagrancy, drunkenness, etc.) a mechanism for police to manage the homeless populace in the U.S.?

a) Strongly Agree

b) Agree

c) Neither agree nor disagree

d) Disagree

e) Strongly disagree

18) What percentage of U.S. police agencies use minor offenses to manage the homeless population?

a) 0-20%

b) 21-40%

c) 41-60%

d) 61-80%

e) 81-100%

19) In the U.S., police response to homeless encampments is mostly generated by the occurrence of

a) Property crime.

b) Violent crime.

c) Curfew, loitering, vagrancy, drunkenness, etc.

d) Other_____

20) Regarding the homeless, which theory is most applicable to their populace as criminal offenders?

a) Rational Choice Theory - The offender needs to make rational choices in order to move from one step to the next as the crime unfolds.

b) Crime Pattern Theory - Offenders tend to commit a criminal act close to pathways—main roads anywhere or travel routes in their home area that become familiar through their routine activities.

c) Social Disorganization Theory - Argues that neighborhoods with greater population turnover, lower socioeconomic status, and more ethnic heterogeneity are more likely to experience disorder.

d) Broken Windows Theory - Disorder includes aggressive panhandling, street prostitution, drunkenness and public drinking, menacing behavior, harassment, obstruction of streets and public spaces, vandalism and graffiti, public urination and defecation, unlicensed vending and peddling, unsolicited window washing of cars, and other such acts. Policing of these listed offenses reduces overall crime.

21) Regarding the homeless, which theory is most applicable to their populace as victims of crime?

a) Rational Choice Theory - The offender needs to make rational choices in order to move from one step to the next as the crime unfolds.

b) Crime Pattern Theory - Offenders tend to commit a criminal act close to pathways—main roads anywhere or travel routes in their home area that become familiar through their routine activities.

c) Social Disorganization Theory - Argues that neighborhoods with greater population turnover, lower socioeconomic status, and more ethnic heterogeneity are more likely to experience disorder.

d) Broken Windows Theory - Disorder includes aggressive panhandling, street prostitution, drunkenness and public drinking, menacing behavior, harassment, obstruction of streets and public spaces, vandalism and graffiti, public urination and defecation, unlicensed vending and peddling, unsolicited window washing of cars, and other such acts. Policing of these listed offenses reduces overall crime.

22) U.S. police treat the homeless populace differently than other members of their service area.

a) Strongly Agree

b) Agree

c) Neither agree nor disagree

d) Disagree

e) Strongly disagree

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Vita

Name	*Michael Everett Jones*
Baccalaureate Degree	*Bachelor of Science,* *Sam Houston State University, Huntsville* *Major: Criminal Justice - Law Enforcement/* *Police Science*
Date Graduated	*August, 1997*
Other Degrees and Certificates	*Master of Science* *Amberton University, Garland* *Human Relations and Business*
Date Graduated	*May, 2005*
	Master of Professional Studies *Tulane University, New Orleans* *Homeland Security Studies*
Date Graduated	*December, 2019*