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Burglary Targets: A Spatial Perspective in the Hyde Park-Kenwood Community Area

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BURGLARY TARGETS:

A SPATIAL PERSPECTIVE

IN

THE HYDE PARK-KENWOOD COMMUNITY AREA

by

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A THESIS Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate

School of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial

Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

JANUARY

1985

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author, George Henry Myers, III, is the son of George Henry
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ABSTRACT

BURGLARY TARGETS IN THE HYDE PARK-KENWOOD COMMUNITY AREA is a
study to test the hypothesis that relatively accessible street layouts
are associated with relatively high rates of residential burglary.
Bevis (1977) and associates found this to be the case in a study per-
formed in Minneapolis. This researcher studied the burglary pattern in
the Hyde Park-Kenwood area for 1978 and 1982 and the conclusions are the
opposite of those proposed, by Bevis, et al. The GAMMA statistic showed
a low negative association, rather than a positive association, that is
to say that the relationship was inversely related rather than directly
related. A comparison of the mean number of incidents indicated a
higher incident on the least accessible type street. An ANOVA, analysis
of variance, was also applied to the data and the results were not sta-
tistically significant. When the results of the ANOVA were not signifi-
cant at the .05 level, a multiple regression statistical procedure was
applied to data, to test the influence of population and housing density
along with street design. The regression models were not significant at
the .05 level. The information gathered about population and residen-
tial units along with street design did not enhance the prediction of
burglary within the study area. In addition, although not statistical,
an intuitive interpretation of the tables and illustrations would indi-
cate factors, unknown at this time, other than street design, are con-

tributing to the burglary problem in the study area.

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CHAPTER I

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

According to Black's Law Dictionary, burglary is the breaking and entering the house of another in the nighttime, with intent to commit a felony therein, whether the felony be actually committed or not (1968:247). Under Federal Bureau of Investigation, Uniform Crime Report (U.C.R.) definition, and often by state statute, the offense of burglary can be perpetrated against nondwelling structures and at anytime of the day or night (1982:23). However the majority of burglaries, 66 percent in 1982, were perpetrated against residential units (1982:24). Of the burglaries perpetrated against dwelling units less than one in forty resulted in sufficient confrontation between the offender and the victim to classify it as a violent crime (1967:67). Burglary is considered a property type crime, because of the lack of face to face confrontation and the object or motive is to steal property.

Burglary, like many other crimes, represents the interaction of motivation and opportunity (see figure number two). Much of the work of criminology deals with the motivations of people to commit crime. This motivation could be the result of many social factors. For example, Edwin Sutherland's theory of differential association postulates that criminal behavior is learned through interaction with others (1966:81). Robert Merton believes that criminal conduct may be viewed as a symptom

of disassociation between culturally defined aspirations and socially structured means (1968:185-248). Gresham Sykes and David Matza believe that people are motivated to criminal acts not because they reject accepted norms, but that they hold greater loyalty to the circumstances surrounding the commission of certain deviant acts (1966:135). Albert Cohen believes that deviance is the result of a person's inability to adjust to the values that respectable society holds sacred (1966:118). This list could go on and on. However, the purpose of this thesis is not to analyze the motivations which lead to burglary but to analyze the locations of where burglaries occur.

This thesis studies burglary from the opportunity standpoint. Specifically how the characteristics of the residential environment affect the amount of urban crime. Historically this type of study traces its roots to the 'human ecology' studies of Robert Park and Ernest Burgess (1925/1969). They posited that most, if not all, cultural changes in society will be correlated with changes in its territorial organization. Clifford Shaw and Henry McKay were the modern forerunners of the ecological study of criminal behavior (1942/1969). They examined areas of high crime and delinquency and determined that these areas were a 'natural' response to the physical and demographic conditions found there. Their work has been supported by a number of studies over the years, Shaw: 1931, Bordua, 1958:230; DeFluer, 1967:283; and Lander, 1954, all stressing the importance of social and physical structure of the city.

Human ecology rejects criminological theory which focuses on the

motivational characteristics of individuals as casual agents of crime. The ecological approach expounds the view that crime and vice will flourish in zones of transition, mixed land uses and socioeconomic heterogeneity (GEORGES,1978:14). Such criminological theory stresses the role, opportunity will play in fostering criminal behavior. For the human ecologist, the presence of physical temptations and opportunities in an area, are as important, as the absence of effective agencies of social control, in the understanding of crime.

The physical temptations and opportunities for crime in an area manifest themselves in such ecological characteristics as density, the type and distribution of housing, the age distribution, gender, and race of the population. Studies showing the relationship of such characteristics of crime can be found in the literature on crime and delinquency. Dennis Roncek found that overcrowding is an important variable in predicting both the occurance of crime and the residential location of juvenile delinquents (1975:858). Thomas Dye found that the most 'pathological' measure of population density is room crowding which he associates with poverty, segregation, and the inequality of life in American cities (1975:265). Other studies have tried, with various success, to use the value of housing as a measure of socioeconomic status, to predict crime rates (Beasley and Antunes: 1975 and Schuesssler: 1962). Studies by Gerald Pyle have shown that a shift from high rise apartments to three story walk-up units within high crime rate areas of Cleveland was instrumental in reducing crime in that city (1976).

Burglary itself has been described as a crime of opportunity

(Scarr,1972:4). (See figure two). Cohen and Felson (1979:588) in a study, concentrated their efforts by looking at the circumstances in which the offenders carry out their predatory criminal acts. Most criminal acts require convergence in space and time of likely offenders, suitable targets and the absence of capable guardians against crime. Human ecological theory facilitates an investigation into the way in which social structure produces this convergence, hence allowing illegal activities to feed upon the legal activities of everyday life. In particular, they hypothesize that the dispersion of activities away from households and families increases the opportunity for crime and thus generates higher crime rates. A variety of data was presented in support of the hypothesis, which help explain crime related trends in the United States, 1947-1974, as a by-product of changes in such variables as labor force participation and single-adult households (1979:588). This opportunity is reflected in the physical and social environment in which the burglar moves. Much of the research conducted concerning burglary looks at this physical and social environment. Steven Clarke found that residential burglary was mostly a lower-class phenomenon, occuring in areas classified as low in socioeconomic status (1972:6). Irvin Walker and Norman Okihiro also found that a higher frequency of two parent families in an area had a lowering effect on the burglary rate(1978:51). The extent to which a dwelling is left vacant has also been suggested to be a major determinant of residential burglary (Reppetto,1974:59). (See tables 11,12,13).

A comprehensive analysis of burglary patterns was conducted in

1972 by Harry Scarr for the National Institute on Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice. His findings showed that in urban jurisdictions, burglary rates were strongly correlated with a variety of social structural characteristics. Among them were the percent of overcrowded housing, the percent of lower cost housing and the percent of lower cost rental units (1972:23).

The incidence of burglary has also been found to be associated with such social characteristics as sex and race. In a study conducted for the National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service by Carl Pope, ninety-one percent of all burglary offenders in the sample studied were found to be male (1977:17). (See tables 25-28). The study conducted by Walker and Okihiro found the percentage of the male population fifteen years of age and over to be the most important predictor of high burglary rates (1978:51). Several studies have also found strong relationships between the racial composition of areas of the city and the incidence of burglary. (See table 25). In regards to race, Sarah Boggs found the burglary rate in St. Louis to be related to minority group status in that city (1966). Fred Geirtz had similar findings in studying Chicago (1970). Carl Pope, in examining burglary offender characteristics found that black offenders are generally over-represented in the commission of burglary in proportion to their respective population (1977:15). (See table 25).

CHAPTER II

INTRODUCTION

This paper will examine the crime specific category of burglary in the Hyde Park-Kenwood Community Area of Chicago for the years of 1978 and 1982. This paper tests the hypothesis that relatively accessible street layouts are associated with relatively high rates of residential burglary. This is the same hypothesis that Bevis, et al, used in their Minneapolis study (1977:1). This paper is an attempt to replicate a portion of the study performed in Minneapolis, (Bevis:1977). The scope of this thesis is a Spatial and Ecological Perspective of Crime and Violence.

Residential burglary is studied for two reasons: first, the crime of burglary is a frequent crime of much concern in the Hyde Park-Kenwood community area and throughout our country.

Twenty-nine percent, which is 24.8 million, of the Nation's households were touched by a crime of violence or theft in 1982. The percentage of households touched by crime in 1982 was slightly lower than it was in 1981 (30%) and almost 3 percent points lower than the 1975 estimate of thirty-two percent. In 1982, households with high incomes, those in central cities, and those headed by blacks continued to be the most vulnerable to crime. A fifth of the Nation's households were victimized by larcenies, once again the most common crime, while seven percent of all households were victims of an attempted or completed burglary, and six percent had a member that was a victim of a violent crime. The percentage of households touched by crime declined slowly between 1975 and 1982, due mainly to a drop from 15.9% to 13.3% in personal larcenies without contact (thefts from a place away from the home, such as a restaurant or workplace). The percentage of households touched by other crimes, such as burglary and crimes of violence did not fluctuate greatly

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between 1975 and 1982 and showed no discernible trend. (B.J.S. 1983:1)

The work that was begun in Minneapolis, of applying existing theoretical concepts and empirical studies inspire the belief that appropriate changes in street layouts can decrease residential burglary rates by encouraging surveillance behaviors among block and area residents and by reducing the familiarity of nonresident criminals with those blocks and areas, will have far reaching consequences for urban planners in the future.

The Brantinghams make the following comment about crime and land-use patterns.

> Urban planning has a strong spatial element: it is concerned with ordering and influencing the distribution of human activity. Planners often manipulate land-use controls to effect specific social and economic goals. One prominent social goal, crime reduction, has rarely been considered by planners. This neglect is probably rooted in a general lack of knowledge of the relationship between land-use patterns and crime. If certain crimes could be shown to be related to specific land-use patterns, planners might be able to consider crime reduction along with other goals during the urban planning process (1975:273).

Second, by profession I am a police officer for the City of Chicago. My duties have consisted, at one point in my career, of investigating burglaries on the near south side of Chicago. Hyde Park-Kenwood was at one time part of my area of investigative responsibility. I am personally interested in both apprehending the offenders who commit crimes and assisting the citizens of the city in attempting to take preventative measures to discourage burglars from selecting their households as likely targets for a burglary. I believe that this study will prove informative both for prevention strategies and possible better

deployment of manpower in the area of study.

METHODOLOGY

The analysis of the criminal act of burglary will be on the micro-level, that is to say that spatial variables will be examined at the city-block level. It will explore the exact physical location of the act of burglary, focusing on the geographic concept of site and on the type of physical location in which the criminal act occurred. Bevis(1977); Boggs(1965); Harries(1974); Pyle(1974) and Roncek (1976) use this type of analysis.

UNIVERSE OF THE STUDY

Hyde Park and a portion of the Kenwood Community Area of Chicago, Illinois are the site of the study. The boundaries of this area are: North boundary, 4700 (south); South boundary, 6100 (south); East boundary, Lake Michigan; and the West boundary, Cottage Grove Avenue (800 east). (See figure 3) This area is unique in that the area is part of the University of Chicago and is therefore patroled by the University of Chicago Police, security force. They provide seventeen additional patrol units that supplement the patrol units of the Chicago Police Department.

The student population adds to the transient population in the area. Both the north and south boundaries of the site, have economically depressed areas which are predominantly black in population. The east and west boundaries are natural barriers to intruders in that on the east is Lake Michigan and on the west is a large park which extends west

for approximately one half mile, four city blocks. The study area is racially integrated, with few racial problems.

This area was selected because of the rapport developed with the University of Chicago Security Department, the South East Chicago Commission and the many citizen contacts made during the last ten years of working in the area in various police department assignments, such as, police officer, evidence technician, burglary detective and youth officer.

THEORIES RELATED TO THIS STUDY

This area is very cosmopolitan in its make-up. Wirth, comments that overwhelmingly a city-dweller is not a home owner, since a transitory habitat does not generate binding traditions and sentiments, only rarely is he a true neighbor (1969:157). This is true of the study area in that 74 percent of the housing units are rental units, according to the census data. (see table 7 and 8). In addition the area is unique in having a large student population living in the study area, while they are attending the University of Chicago. Wirth goes on to say that, individuals who are thus detached from the organized bodies which integrate society comprise the fluid masses that make collective behavior in the urban community so unpredictable and hence so problematic (1969:157).

The literature on crime suggests that an increase in the crime of burglary can be attributed to the following factors, an increase in the changing population age composition, urbanization, standard of living, and environmental opportunities (Harries, 1974:5).

POPULATION AGE COMPOSITION

When the term population age composition is used the age range of eighteen to twenty-four is specifically examined by a criminologist. This group generally represents a disproportionate number of those arrested. Generalizations are made concerning this specific age cohort, and several theories have been developed to provide explanations of why this age cohort is more prone to be arrested for acts of deviance, such as burglary. (See tables 25-28). However the reader should note a distinction from being arrested for a crime, those who get caught, from the unknown factor of who may actually be committing the crimes. Another point to be cautious about, is predictions from the arrests rates. Figures of those that are actually convicted of crimes are substantially less than those arrested. Perhaps one could argue that young adults are not aware of all their constitutional privileges and therefore do not exercise them within the criminal justice system. The literature would also suggest that the lower one is, in SES, social economic status, the fewer privileges one enjoys in the total society and perhaps, particularly in the criminal justice system. Some may consider this a Marxist point of view (see Taylor,1973:209), but one can see remnants of a class struggle within our American society, based on economics of who gets arrested and who goes to jail, versus plea bargaining for alternatives to incarceration.

Numerous theories suggest why poor juveniles and minorities may be more inclined to commit profitable property crimes, than are other groups not similarly situated. One broad-based cultural theory is the

theory of anomie proposed by Robert Merton. Merton maintains that a stressful situation exists when society instills goals in its members that are not legitimately attainable by all of its members (1968:131). Our society instills the goal of material success in its citizens. Poor juveniles and blacks may not have as many legitimate opportunities to obtain material status as others do. Some poor juveniles and blacks may resolve the stress by resorting to illegitimate opportunities like residential burglary. (See figure 2).

In particular, juveniles frequently do not qualify for well-paying jobs, merely by virtue of being young, inexperienced and relatively uneducated. Child labor laws and school attendance requirements further limit job opportunities for juveniles. Restricted employment possibilities would present more of a problem to poor juveniles than to other juveniles, since the latter can usually obtain possessions and spending money from their parents.

When community planners see the census data and discover that they will have a high percentage of young people in the 18 to 24 year old cohort, they can generally safely predict that their community area and/or the surrounding community area will experience a higher level of crime than they had experienced in the past. They will also be able to predict a decrease in crime as this birth cohort gets older. However to confuse the prediction process the planner should be aware of possible migration patterns in and out of the area which would effect the birth cohort for this common problem age range of 18 to 24 and some criminologist would prefer the range to be from 15 to 24 years of age. Arrest

figures indicate nation wide that age 15 and 16 account for the highest incident of arrest. FBI figures indicate that nation wide a total of 1,286,396 males under the age of 18 were arrested for the major UCR reporting incidents. In 1982, 1,094,947 males under the age of 18 were arrested, for a percent change of -14.9. For the offense of burglary there was a -21.8 percent change. FBI figures indicate that 359,116 persons were arrested for the offense of burglary in 1978 and 369,912 in 1982 for a percent change of +3.0. A breakdown of the total figures indicate of those under years of age of 18, 187,230 were arrested in 1978 and 146,761 in 1982, for a percent change of -21.6. For those over 18 years of age, 171,886 were arrested in 1978 and 223,151 in 1982 for a percent change of +29.8 (UCR:1982:172).

An inspection of the census data for the age group cohorts in question would reveal an increase in the percentage of those in the over 18 category. Actual census data indicates the following from 1970 to 1980 there was a 19.8 percent increase for the 15 to 24 year old range cohort. However, for the 25 to 34 year old range, the increase was 48.8 percent (1982:31). (See tables 25-28).

In 1978 in the city of Chicago, 9,199 persons were arrested for for the offense of burglary, of which 5,134 were under 18 years of age, which is 56 percent of the offenders arrested and charged. In 1982, 8,052 persons were arrested for the offense of burglary of which 4,183 were under 18 years of age, which is 52 percent of the offenders arrested and charged with the offense of burglary. (See table 25).

URBANIZATION

The trend toward increasing urbanization of population has resulted in the concentration of people in fewer, but larger centers, thus increasing opportunities for crimes against the person and against property (Harries, 1974:6). Standard of living, as measured by increasing affluence, more property per capita, have created more opportunities for offenses against property. As Harries notes, the above factors do not cause crime, but, they may however contribute to circumstances in which criminal activity can occur more easily than under different conditions (1974:6).

ENVIRONMENTAL OPPORTUNITIES

Boggs has argued that crime rates should reflect environmental opportunities, since neighborhoods vary in their attractiveness to criminal activity (1965). Urban design and construction have been blamed for providing increased opportunities for crimes of violence. The present study is examining the influence of street design, one feature of environmental opportunities.

SENSE OF COMMUNITY-PROPRIETORSHIP

Two of the apparent underlying sociological principles implied by considering traffic patterns in a residential neighborhood are Tonnies's concept of "GEMEINSCHAFT" (sense of community)(1957:33-102) and Durkheim's concept of "SOCIAL SOLIDARITY and MECHANICAL SOLIDARITY"(1964:70-110). When people are somewhat isolated, by traffic patterns, they may be in a better position to know their neighbors and

be concerned enough to call the police when strangers are acting suspiciously. Jane Jacobs maintains that

> feelings of proprietorship influence residents to protect their home territory by increasing surveillance of activity occurring there. Possible witnesses add to chances of and fear of detection for criminals (1961:30-37). Newman further believes less accessible blocks, for example, cul-de-sacs and dead end blocks, in particular, encourage proprietorship (1972:60).

Experiments in St. Louis and Brooklyn are measuring the effects of redesigning streets. In St. Louis, various residential streets were closed at one end. Residents reportedly express proprietary feelings by surveillance of activity and by questioning the intentions of strangers. The residents feel that crime has decreased (Newman, 1972:60).

St. Marks Avenue in Brooklyn was redesigned to slow traffic. Parking and play areas now occupy the mid-block area of the street. Residents feel that crime has decreased, and they define the street as their own, illustrated by their combined efforts to clean their street weekly (1972:60).

DATA COLLECTION

The variable to be explained in this study is, residential burglary, the dependent variable. The variable that is being used to aid in the explanation of the burglary incidents is, street design, the independent variable. The burglary data for 1978 was obtained from The South East Chicago Commission. The 1982 data was obtained from the Chicago Police Department, 21st. Police District. The South East Chicago Commission, of Hyde Park, prepares weekly maps of crimes committed in the Hyde Park-Kenwood Area as defined in the universe of study, (see

figures 3). Because of my work as a Burglary Detective for the Chicago Police Department, these maps were available for the 1978 data. The following procedure was used to obtain the block count of burglary incidents. All of the blocks were numbered on a blank map. Next a special celluloid that is used to make sheets for use on an overhead projector was used to photocopy the map. The result was that an overlay map of the area was produced. The overlay was placed on each map and each burglary incident was noted, and a tally was then established for each block in the study area for 1978 and 1982.

The next step was to determine the street design for each of the blocks within the study area. The Census Bureau defines a blocks as,

> a well defined rectangular piece of land bounded by streets or roads. However, it may be irregular in shape or bounded by railroad tracks, streams or other features. (U.S. CENSUS, 1971:IV)

This appears to be a straight forward definition of a block and is supported by neighboring patterns which occur in everyday life. Such as, we tell our children, as we have been socialized, "don't go off the block, don't cross the street, play on our block". We also find that friendships or acquaintances are the neighbors next to us or across the alley, rather than across the street. This pattern is discussed in Whyte's "Organization Man" (1955). It appears that this spatial territory is well established. The problem that the researcher encountered was that the streets are the border of blocks and that their sphere of influence actually effects two or more blocks rather than a single block. The problem was to decide the sphere of influence, accessability-limited to unlimited, for each of the blocks within the study area.

The problem was resolved by counting both the blocks that the street bordered. The four sides of a block were considered rather than a face block. This was done because of the constraints of the data. Census data is only available on the square block design rather than a face block. The overlay map was used again, and the street design was noted and tallied for each block.

The next step was to determine the number of households per block. The crime of burglary, as defined in this study, is an attack on a household, rather than on a person. To determine a more accurate rate of burglary the number of households in the area was more important than the actual population or the population density of the area. The information was gathered from the U.S. Census Block Statistics, for 1970 and 1980.

The concept of burglary rate based on households rather than population is discussed by Harries (1981:147) and Gibbs(Vol.82:605). Harries feels that the proper choice of the denominator would be more accurate for some crime patterns and could be misleading and at worst bizarre for other crimes. He uses the crime rate concept, in the form of C/O, where C represents crime frequency and O is some measure of of risk or opportunity. (See tables 19-21).

As stated above, streets actually bordered on two or more blocks. The researcher felt to be more accurate, a physical canvass would be necessary to determine the number of households per block. An actual canvass was conducted on a section of the study area, specifically from 4700 south to 5100 south and from Cottage Grove on the west of the study

area to Lake Park on the east of the study area. During this canvass the number of doorbells were counted and tallied for each side of the street. The Haines Telephone Book was also used, but the researcher found discrepancies in the number of households as indicated in the Haines Book and the actual count from the canvass. The Landon-Roosevelt presidential survey problem, (Literary Digest, 1935), based on the sample of telephone subscribers, appears to still be a problem for researchers. The dilemma the researcher had between using the census block data and an actual canvass of the area was resolved in favor of using the census block data. Since the census map and the map the researcher was using were of different scales, the census map information was transferred to the map being used in the study. The overlay map was then placed over this map in order to obtain the census tract and census block numbers. When this was accomplished the information on the number of households could be obtained for each of the blocks within the study area.

When the census block data was obtained, other information such as owner and renter housing units, percent black and white, crowding, female head of household, number of roomers, percent over 65 and under ·18, and total population for each block was noted for possible further research in the study area. This information was placed on IBM coding sheets, verified and punched on data cards. A computer run, using the SPSS program was utilized to aid in the analysis of the data (Nie,et al:1975).

METHODS OF ANALYSIS

The unit of analysis in this study is the city block. Within the study area there are 118 blocks and 18 census tracts. Procedures from the SPSS program that were used included the following; frequencies, condescriptive, Pearson correlation, breakdown, ANOVA and multiple regression. Visual use of the coding sheets displayed and indicated patterns without the use of computer assistance. An inspection of maps was also employed to detect patterns. The last technique the researcher used was that of participant observation.

The variables considered in this study were the crime of burglary and street design. Burglary is defined in this particular study as,

> A person commits the crime of burglary when without authority knowingly enters or without authority remains within a building, housetrailer, watercraft, aircraft, motor vehicle... or any part thereof, with the intent to commit therein a felony or theft... (Chapter 38, section 19, of the Illinois Revised Statutes).

The rate of household burglaries, as defined above is the dependent variable to be, explained in this study.

Street design is the independent variable being used to assist in explaining the incidents of burglary in the study area. From the relatively less to the relatively more accessible types studied, the designs included dead ends, cul-de-sacs, L-type, T-type and through blocks (Figure 1). Relative accessibility is related to the number of directions from which a vehicle like a car could enter or leave a representative block. A block was defined as a street segment with an intersection at each end and no intersection between the ends. Blocks were classified according to their less accessible intersection. Cul-de-sac were con-

sidered easier to enter or leave than were dead ends because of the turn around areas of cul-de-sacs. (See figure 1).

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

The hypothesis being examined in this study is: The burglary
rate will increase as the street design allows the block to become more
accessible to foot and vehicular traffic. Specifically, if the housing
unit is located on a through street the researcher would expect to find
a higher incidence of burglary than if the household unit was located on
a less accessible street, such as a street with a "T" type or Dead End
design. The null hypothesis is then, that the street design will have
no effect on the burglary rate.

The analysis of the data in the Hyde Park-Kenwood community area
did not support the hypothesis and the null hypothesis could not be
rejected at the .05 level of significance. The Minneapolis study showed
a noticeable pattern of lower residential burglary rates for housing
units on those study blocks with lower accessibility, this was not the
case in the study area. There was an upward trend that related increas-
ing street accessibility with rising burglary rates, in their study
(1971:220).

An examination of table one, distribution of burglaries and
related street design, reveals a GAMMA statistic for the table of
-0.27937, for the year 1978. An interpretation of that result, using
the convention established by Davis (1971:49), would indicate that a low

negative association exists between the independent variable, STREET DESIGN, and the dependent variable, BURGLARY INCIDENTS. The GAMMA indicates the opposite direction expected, as stated in the hypothesis: that relatively accessible street layouts are associated with relatively high rates of residential burglary.

An examination of table two, results of the breakdown procedure criterion variable-number of burglaries, broken down by street design, for 1978, indicates that a comparison of the means of the various street designs used in this study revealed that the DEAD END TYPE, of street had a higher mean, 5.86, for the incident of BURGLARY, than the other types of street designs, 3.7 and 3.2. This result is in the opposite direction of that stated in the hypothesis of this study: that relatively accessible street layout is associated with relatively high rates of residential burglary. This table was not statistically significant at the .05 level, using ANOVA.

An examination of table three, the results of the 1982 breakdown procedure, resulted in the table not being statistically significant, at the .05 level, using the ANOVA procedure, from SPSS. The means were approximately the same for the 1982 data.

An examination of table four, Burglary Incidents, 1978, indicated that that 7 blocks, 6 percent of the total 118 blocks, accounted for 100 incidents, which is 25 percent of the total incidents reported in 1978. The researcher established the criteria of ten or more incidents of burglary as a point of focus as follows: If we add one standard deviation, 3.5, to the mean of three, the rounded result would be seven.

If the sample had been random, which it is not, approximately ninety-eight percent of the cases would be accounted for under the curve. The figure of eight incidents could have been chosen, but the researcher felt that ten incidents per block would indicate a more deviant case study to pursue in this research.

An examination of table five, characteristics of the seven blocks with the highest incidents of burglary in the Hyde Park-Kenwood area, in 1978, indicates that most of the blocks, except one, picked as high risk, share the common trait of having more accessible type street design and a large percentage of rental units. These traits are also common in other sections of the Hyde Park-Kenwood Area. Further study would be required to determine the uniqueness of these six residential blocks and the one commercial block. The shopping center is unique, by being a commercial target of burglary rather than a residential target. The factor of transportation would be of consideration in both the egress and ingress traffic patterns for both the commercial and residential burglar.

An examination of table six, characteristics of the blocks with zero incidents of burglary, indicates that most of the housing units are located on the most accessible type street,(through type), and most of the units are rental. According to the hypothesis of this study the researcher would have expected to find a higher incident of burglary at the above locations, rather than zero incidents. Although not statistical, but an intuitive interpretation would indicate factors other than street design, should be considered in future studies of these two com-

munity areas.

Table seven has selected characteristics of the area for 1978. Some of the highlights of that table would include the following: 13 percent of the population was over 65; 26 percent of the population was under 18; 4 percent of the head of households was female, and 38 percent of the population was black. These percentages were based on 1970 census data.

Table eight has selected characteristics of the area for 1982. Some of the highlights of that table would include the following: 11 percent of the population was over 65; 17 percent of the population was under 18; 9 percent of the head of households was female; and 61 percent of the population was black. These percentages were based on the 1980 census data. Three areas of change that would be of importance would be the decrease in those under 18 years of age, 26 to 17 percent, and increase in the female head of household, 4 to 9 percent, the increase in black population from 38 to 61 percent, and a 2 percent decrease in the over 65 population cohort. The decrease in those under 18 years of age would suggest the possibility of the reduction of crime by those in that age cohort. On the other hand, the decrease in those over 65 and the increase of female head of household, which could indicate more working mothers. This could therefore indicate less surveillance activity to prevent crimes of opportunity as discused by Bevis, Scarr, Cohen and Felson, and Jacobs.

Table nine presents the ratio of burglaries in the study area in 1978. The burglary rate per 1,000 households was 19.1. Which would be

1 in 52 households. These rates indicate that only 2 percent of the households in the area were effected, which is below the national level of 6 percent (1983:1).

Table ten presents the ratio of burglaries in the study area in 1982. The burglary rate per 1,000 households 22.34, which would be 1 in 44 households. In 1982, as in 1978, only 2 percent of the households were effected by burglary.

Table eleven indicates the length of time the premises were unoccupied, in 1982. It is interesting to note that 40 percent of burglaries occurred when the occupants were gone less than eight hours, with the average time approximately four and one half hours.

Table twelve indicates the type of structure and length of time the occupants were away from their premises. The highest incidents for houses and apartments was less than eight hours.

Table thirteen indicates the time of day the burglary occurred. For 1982 a particular time frame or pattern of when the burglars committed their offense(s) was not detected when the data was analyzed. Twenty-five percent of the incidents occurred between 10:00 p.m. to 6:59 a.m. which was defined as nighttime. Twenty-one percent of the incidents occurred between 7:00 a.m. and 4:59 p.m., which was defined as daytime. Nationwide, burglary increased 10 percent for both nighttime and daytime incidents (1982:26).

Table fourteen shows the burglaries by the day of the week and structure for 1982. A particular burglary pattern was not detected by looking at the days of the week. The expected level of burglary for a

particular day is arrived at by dividing the total burglaries by the number of days in a week. In this table the expected level is 73 (512/7=73). When the table is examined, the results indicated that Friday, Saturday and Sunday account for approximately 32 to 38 percent fewer burglaries than the expected level of 73 incidents. One explanation for this lower frequency is that the residents tend to be home and therefore a burglar is not going to commit a crime when someone is home. In addition when more people are around, the surveillance activity of the people within the area, regardless of the type of street they may live on, should increase. Monday and Tuesday had approximately 21 to 26 percent more incidents than the than the expected level of 73. An explanation would be that the residents are working and the level of surveillance has been reduced, thus allowing burglars more opportunities to commit their acts of deviance.

Table fifteen looks at seasonality of burglaries for 1982. The author used the scheme that Scarr used in his study (1973). The author was surprised that no particular pattern emergered in the study, using Scarr's scheme. The results indicated 30 percent of the incidents' occurred in the winter and 32 percent the spring-autumn scheme. The summer season accounted for 38 percent of the incidents.

Table sixteen shows a breakdown of the burglary incidents and the type of premises burglarized. The table indicates a higher incident of burglaries during the summer months of July, August, and September. This scheme accounted for 44 percent of the burglaries. Criminologist would generally attribute this higher rate due to the juveniles and

young adults, being out of school for the summer, and therefore having more time on their hands to commit acts of deviance, such as burglary. The remainder of the months averaged from three to eleven percent of the incidents.

Table seventeen shows the types of premises and where entry was illegally gained. Fifty-three percent of the illegal entries were through compromised doors and 32 percent were through compromised windows. From a prevention point of view, target hardening, better doors, locks, and windows could reduce the frequencies of burglaries in a particular area. In this study 230 apartments were compromised via a door. The problem from a practical point of view is should the renter or the landlord provide better locks to secure the premises for an apartment. The author understands that some landlords will deduct the expense of target hardening devices from the tenant's rent. This would be a positive incentive to improve the tenant's sense of security.

Table eighteen is a comparison of burglaries by census tract for the years 1978 and 1982, and the differences that resulted. An explanation can not be given by this author as to why certain tracts exhibited an increase of burglaries over the 1978 totals. The author will be discussing the problem of crime rates and how just looking at frequencies may distort the picture of crime in this study area or anywhere else, based on the discussions of Harries, cited earlier in this study.

Table nineteen describes each of the census tracts with the units of risk, population, and opportunity, via the number of structures within the tract, along with the frequencies of the burglaries for each

tract in 1978 and 1982. This table assists in developing table 20. In addition the reader can compare the frequencies and the units at risk, either by population or residential units or both. This table is the groundwork for exploring the idea that just looking at frequencies can be misleading when one is looking at crime statistics.

Table twenty ranks each census tract from the highest to the lowest in regards to frequencies, population at risk and residential units at risk. The value of the table can be seen by the following example. Tract 4108 was ranked number 1, in regards to frequencies of residential burglaries, but number 7 for population at risk and number 11 for units at risk. There would appear to be some disparity in the results, but as pointed out by Harries, it is important that the researcher know what he is looking for. A choice has to be made of what unit at risk is important to the researcher for a particular research problem. By looking at various units at risk, a broader perspective can be gleaned.

Table twenty-one depicts the difference between the census tracts and the units at risk by comparing the ratio of being a victim, if one looks at the frequency of the tract, the population of the tract or by looking at the number of residential units within a tract. An example would be tract 4113, which ranked number 15, for the frequency category, with 16 burglaries. However for the population category, it raked number 3, with 1 in 48 persons being a victim of a burglary. In the category of units at risk, it ranked number 1, with 1 in 9 residential units being a victim of a burglary. As the reader can see, the concept of unit at risk, is an important factor to consider when looking at

crime data, and unfortunately the above type breakdown is not readily available in many crime studies.

Table twenty-two is a comparison of the burglaries for the year 1978 and 1982. The street design is examined in regard to the type of the street, mean, count for each type of street, summary of burglaries on the type of street, and the standard deviation of each type of street design. The results indicate that in 1978 there was a difference in the means, but in 1982 the difference in the means was negligible and not significant at the .05 level, using ANOVA, to draw any conclusions from the data.

Table twenty-three is a comparison of the burglary characerics for the City of Chicago, for the years 1978 and 1982. The table shows there was a decrease of burglaries for the city as a whole, but the 21st. district and area one in which the study area is located, had an increase in the number of burglary incidents.

Table twenty-four, is a comparison of burglary characteristics for the City of Chicago, for the years 1978 and 1982. This table is looking at both the residential burglaries and nonresidential burglaries for the city, plus the dollar value lost due to the incidents of burglary. There were approximately 2,000 fewer burglaries in 1982, than there were in 1978, however the dollar value lost was 4 million dollars higher.

Table twenty-five, is a comparison of the characteristics of persons arrested for the offense of burglary in 1978 and 1982, in Chicago. Age, gender, and race are examined in this table. The statistics

are consistent with data from other nation-wide studies, in that more
males than females are arrested, and those 18 years are overly repre-
sented in the arrest figures. Also blacks are over represented in the
arrest figures for the city. Merton's, Marxian theory(s) and Suther-
land's theory can provide possible explanation for the above arrest fig-
ures.

Table twenty-six, shows the total arrests nation-wide for the
offense of burglary. Those under 21 years of age account for 60 percent
of all those arrested for the offense of burglary in 1982. These fig-
ures are consistent with the theories that have been discussed in this
thesis to assist in explaining crime.

Table twenty-seven, shows the national arrest trends with the
variables of gender and age, for the offense of burglary, for both 1978
and 1982. The males accounted for 93 percent of the arrests in 1978 and
1982. Both males and female arrests were down substantially, - 21.8
percent for males, and -18.7 percent for females, both under the age of
18. One explanation for this decrease can be attributed to the baby
boom cohort getting older, not that those under 18 are committing less
crime.

Table twenty-eight, shows the national arrest trends, between
1973 and 1982, for all ages. This table shows that for all ages the
increase is 21 percent, but a decrease of 9.6 for those under 18 years
of age, and an increase of 56.8 percent for those over 18 years of age.
As discussed in table 20, the baby boom cohort is getting older and is
therefore represented in the increase of 56.8 percent. Merton's,

Marx's, and Sutherland's theories of crime and deviance would be appropriate to assist in providing an explanation of the above arrest figures.

Table twenty-nine, shows the results of four multiple regression models, and the correlation coefficients of the variables used in the regression. The F ratio was below the required 19.49, with 2 and 118 degrees of freedom, at the .05 level that was needed to reject the null hypothesis.

Figure one depicts the various types of street layouts, from the most accessible to the less accessible.

Figure two indicates the criminal event and its outcome, as devised by Scarr (1973:117).

Figure three is a map of the study area.

Figure four, is a map with the burglary frequencies for each tract within the study area for 1982. The tracts are rank ordered from the highest incident to the lowest.

Figure five, is a map of the census tracts that have been rank ordered to reflect the population at risk, from highest to lowest, 1982.

Figure six, is a map of the census tracts that have been rank ordered to reflect the population at risk, from the highest to the lowest, 1982.

In 1982 the above area was examined more closely, and the author was able to determine that many of the buildings on the low burglary frequency blocks, did have a doorman and/or the outer door of the building was locked and a guest had to be acknowledged before being admitted.

These techniques generally keep out strangers and potential burglars.

The results of the study indicate that a clear pattern of burglary does not exist in the Hyde Park-Kenwood area. The regression models addressed the problem of both population and housing density, but the results did not enhance the prediction of burglary within the study area. In conclusion, without using any other control variable, street design is not powerful enough to explain where burglaries occur in this study. If this variable does have an effect it may emerge only when other aspects of the area are controlled.

DISCUSSION

The study of "BURGLARY TARGETS" in the Hyde Park-Kenwood Area indicated that the pattern of a higher incident rate of burglary which occurred in the Minneapolis Study, did not occur in this study as hypothesized. This study used only one independent (explaining) variable, street design.

The theoretical hypothesis in this study is that different street designs will tend to have different burglary rates. More specifically streets with less access, defined as dead end and T type, will have fewer burglaries than streets with more access, defined as through streets. The reason for this belief is that on less accessible streets the feelings of proprietorship are generally increased and thereby making the surveillance activity of the residents greater. Thus showing their positive concern for their neighborhood and community. The assumption is that the citizen will call the police if and when they see strangers that may be about to commit a crime.

NULL HYPOTHESIS

To test the theoretical hypothesis a null hypothesis is established. In this study the null hypothesis is, that street design, on the average, does not contribute significantly to the burglary rate on the blocks within the study area. The statistical procedure of ANOVA

tests the null hypothesis with information about the variance of the dependent variable in the population groups. Its rational is that, if the theoretical hypothesis is right, this is, if the independent variable, STREET DESIGN, does make a difference for the dependent variable, BURGLARY INCIDENT RATE, we should observe that the variations (variance) among the street design on the dependent variable, burglary incidents, are less than the variations (variances) among all streets. In other words, streets that belong to the same group (design) should show a greater similarity, less variance, on burglary incidents on a particular street design, than all burglaries from all groups (street designs) combined. An independent variable is perceived by the researcher as preceding the dependent variable. The dependent variable may not be crucial, when the relationship is covariational, however, it is critical for causal relationship.

The rational of ANOVA is that, if the theoretical hypothesis is right, this is, if the independent variable, street design, does make a difference for the dependent variable, burglary incidents, we should observe that variations (variance) among the burglary incidents on the block, are less than the variations (variances) among all units, street designs. In other words, streets belonging to the same group should show greater similarity, less variance, on burglary incidents, than all streets from all groups combined.

On the other hand, the null hypothesis suggests that there should not be such a difference, because the independent variable does not make any difference for the dependent variable. In other words, the distance

from each observation to the group mean, on the average, should be about the same as that from each group mean to the grand mean.

To determine which hypothesis is more credible, ANOVA, computes the average distance from each observation to the grand mean, called the variance within each independent variable category, Vw, and thé average distance from each group mean to the grand mean, called the variance between means, Vb.

> From the researcher's point of view, the independent variable should make a difference in terms of the dependent variable. Therefore, the variance between the means, Vb, represents the usefulness of the independent variable for the dependent variable. The variance between means is then interpreted as the power of the independent variable to 'explain' the dependent variable. The greater the variance between means, the greater the explaining power the independent variable has as far as the dependent variable is concerned. Thus, the variance between means is also called the explained variance. The variance within each independent category, on the other hand, represents the residual variations between each observation and the group mean, which cannot be explained by the independent variable. Thus the variance within each independent variable category is also called the unexplained variance, the residual variance or the error variance (Lin,1976:299).

In this study the null hypothesis could not be rejected at the .05 level. This indicates that the differences in the means are not statistically significant to draw any conclusions as to the contribution of street design in explaining a higher incident of burglary, when the researcher would have a knowledge of the street design for a particular block within the study area.

The level of significance was set at .05, the expected F value of the F distribution, for the null hypothesis was 3.09, with 2 and 117 degrees of freedom for this ANOVA. The results of the ANOVA for 1978, was an F of 1.732, the significance of F being 0.182 (SPSS output). In

1982, the results of the ANOVA, was an F of .460, with a significance of F as 0.633 (SPSS output). In both years the F value was below the level of significance established at the .05 level, and therefore the null hypothesis could not be rejected.

MULTIPLE REGRESSION MODEL

When the results of the ANOVA were not significant at the .05 level, the author suspected that perhaps either population density and/or housing density was a contributing factor along with street design, to a higher incident of burglary for certain blocks in the study area. In the review of the literature, population and housing density are often cited as explanations for higher incidents of crime. In order to test this idea, two additional null hypothesis were established.

NULL HYPOTHESIS NUMBER TWO: POPULATION DENSITY ALONG WITH STREET DESIGN DOES NOT HAVE AN EFFECT ON BURGLARY IN THE STUDY AREA, FOR 1978 and 1982.

NULL HYPOTHESIS NUMBER THREE: HOUSING DENSITY ALONG WITH STREET DESIGN DOES NOT HAVE AN EFFECT ON BURGLARY IN THE STUDY AREA, FOR 1978 and 1982.

In order to test the additional hypotheses a multiple regression statistical procedure was applied to the data, using the SPSS package, (Nie, 1975). A dummy variable was setup for street design, not through=0, and through=1 (Kerlinger, 1973:106).

The multiple regression package provided a table with correlation coefficients. This table indicated .938 correlation coefficient for total population with total units. To avoid the problem of multicolli-

nearity, separate regression models were ran using only total population and street design. Another model for total residential units and street design, were used for the 1978 and 1982 burglary incidents (Kerlinger, 1973:396).

For the 1978 data, total population with street design only accounted for 4 percent of the variance explained. This value was tested for significance. An F ratio of 2.688 with 2 and 118 degrees of freedom, was not significant at the .05 level. An F of 19.49 was needed to reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level. (See table 29) This indicates that the relation between burglary with total population and street design was not statistically significant. Stated another way, the information about total population and street design did not enhance the prediction of burglary within the study area. Separately R squared was .033 for the population and for street design .043.

The regression model of residential units and street design only accounted for 5 percent of the variance explained. This value was tested for significance. An F ratio of 3.245, with 2 and 118 degrees of freedom, was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis could not be rejected. R squared for residential units was .042 and .052 for street design.

For the 1982 data, total population with street design only accounted for 1 percent (R squared .013) of the variance explained. This value was tested for significance. An F ratio of .809, with 2 and 118 degrees of freedom, was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis could not be rejected. R squared for population was .006

and .013 for street design.

For the 1982 data, total residential units and street design only accounted for .03 (R squared .033) variance explained. This value was tested for significance. An F ratio of 2.028, with 2 and 118 degrees of freedom, was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis could not be rejected. R squared for residential units was .024 and .033 for street design.

In summary the four regression models were not significant at the .05 level. The information gathered about population and residential units along with street design did not enhance the prediction of burglary within the study area.

CRIME RATES AND FREQUENCIES

The problem with crime rates, such as those published by the FBI, in the Uniform Crime Reports, is that crime is measured in relation to population rates that are tabulated as the number of reported offenses per 100,000 person, is that according to Harries (1974:5), such a measure is very crude and provides no concept of rates of crime as a function of potential offenders or potential victims, within a specific sex/age range.

To pursue this point, Harries, (1974:6), suggest that a more accurate rate should be based on specific age and sex categories for potential offenders and victims. In addition, crimes such as burglary should be based on potential targets, which are the number of structures available in a given area, rather than the population in the area.

In 1982, the F.B.I. crime clock for the offense of burglary indi-

cates that one burglary is occuring every nine seconds (1982:5). To illustrate how crime rates can be misrepresented, Ramsey Clark makes the following humorous allusion to crime clocks, he pointed out that if they were applied to the Virgin Islands, everyone would be murdered after three years. Before being murdered each person would have been robbed eighteen times and raped twice (1971:29). Since crime clocks provide data that is presented out of context, it is difficult to determine whether they are beneficial or if they create an unnecessary cause of alarm for many people, and thus raising the perception of the fear of crime in their area, especially when that perception is unfounded.

By itself, frequencies allow for comparisons between numbers of crimes in different geographic areas, such as census tracts and police jurisdictions. However, crime frequency may distort the picture of crime, such as in table 18. An example will clarify why this is the case. Consider two Hyde Park-Kenwood census tracts, 3904 and 4102. In tract 3904, there were 31 residential burglaries reported and in tract 4102, were 29 reported burglaries during the study period of 1982. From frequency data of burglaries alone, the conclusion might be drawn that the burglary problem is approximately the same in both tracts. But the population of tract 4102 is only 45 percent of that of tract 3904 (1,544 versus 3,409). As a result persons living in tract 4102 are more than twice as likely to be victimized by residential burglary as their counter parts in tract 3904. Thus, the burglary problem is more severe in tract 4102, a situation which is not apparent from an inspection of the frequency data for the two tracts.

CRIME RATE BY POPULATION

In order to measure crime in a way that reflects not only its frequency, but its relative impact on population, the FBI reports crime rates per 100,000 persons. This procedure corrects some of the distortion introduced by comparing the crime frequencies of two areas of unequal population.

Again, consider tract 3904 and 4102. Tract 3904 reported 31 residential burglaries and has a population of 1,544. Calculation of residential burglary rates per 100,000 persons, finds tract 3904 has a rate of .034 and tract 4102 has a rate of .019. This reflects the previous finding that citizens living in tract 4102 are more than twice as likely to be burglarized as those living in tract 3904. This can also be phrased as 1 in 53 persons in tract 4102 is a victim of a residential burglary, as opposed to 1 in 110 person in tract 3904. (31/3409=.009093/100,000=9.09 then 1000/9.09=110) Within the study area the rate is 11.2 or 1 in 89 persons were victims of a residential burglary within the study area. (512/45407=.01127579/100,000=11.28, then 1000/11.28=89) (See table 21)

CRIME RATE BY OPPORTUNITY

Although persons are the ultimate victims of residential burglary, persons are not the target. Rather, residential units are the target. Criminal acts, such as burglary, require both motivation and opportunity. Although motivation is often an important factor, the purpose of crime prevention planning most residential burglaries can be considered crimes of opportunity (Cohen and Felson, 1979:588; Scarr,

1973). A burglar's primary opportunity rests with the total number of residential units that can be victimized. Where there are many residential units, there are many opportunities to commit an offense. Where there are no residential units, there are no opportunities to commit an offense.

The population's risk of residential burglary can be measured with the least distortion by utilizing a measure which corrects for differences in the number of opportunities within an area: rate per 1,000 units. Only this rate is easily converted into the probability that a residential unit will be burglarized during a one year period.

Using the rate of residential burglaries per 1,000 residential units, the residential burglary rate for the city and the study area can be calculated. During the study period, on the average, 19 of every 1,000 residential units in the city of Chicago were burglarized, roughly 1 in 53. For the study area the rate was 22.3 or 1 in 44 units. However, as is demonstrated in subsequent analysis, these rates vary dramatically for different census tracts within the study area. (See tables 18-21).

Again, consider tract 3904 and 4102. Tract 3904 reported 31 residential burglaries and has 1,803 residential units, while tract 4102 reported 29 residential burglaries and has 855 residential units. Calculating residential burglary rates per 1,000 units, finds tract 3904 with a rate of 17.19 and tract 4102 has a rate of 33.92. This can also be phrased as one unit in fifty-eight, (1:58), in tract 3904 was burglarized and in tract 4102, one unit in 29, (1:29), was burglarized. In

this example almost twice as many units were burglarized in tract 4102 than were in tract 3904. As mentioned earlier, looking just at the frequency of crime would distort the picture of crime in a particular area. That is why both opportunity rates and populations rates should be computed and analyzed, in order to gain a total view of the crime problem in the area.

CONCLUSION

The incident of burglary was higher in 1982 by eight percent, over 1978, within the study area, while the city of Chicago experienced a decrease of nine percent (34,165 in 1978 and 32,249 in 1982) in 1982. (see tables 23,24 for burglary characterics of the city) The city of Chicago has been experiencing a decrease in crime since a base year of 1974 while the national trend has been a general increase of five to ten percent depending on the year in question. Unfortunately the City of Chicago's figures have been challenged as being inaccurate, and most crimes have been under reported according to some critics. This is unfortunate in that many researchers depend upon accurate data to conduct scientific research. The critics have generally challenged the property type crimes but not the homicide data. This researcher however believes the higher figures of burglary in 1982, in the Hyde Park-Kenwood area are accurate and truely depict the burglary incidents within the study area. The researcher believes that this community area has always demanded an accurate reporting of criminal incidents within their community.

Factors not studied here, but which appear to contribute to a

lower incidence of burglary are the number of high-rise buildings with a doorman who screens those who enter the building. Also some blocks and buildings have clubs which develop a sense of security and knowledge of who are their neighbors. The members are instructed to call the police, if they see suspicious persons. Many of the buildings that the researcher canvassed with zero incidents, have secure entry doors, which open only with a key, or when the 'guest' is acknowledge by someone in the apartment and then 'buzzed' in. Additional locks and hardware can have a deterrent effect. The burglar desires the path of least resistance and he will more than likely by-pass a target that looks too difficult for him to compromise, unless the perceived benefits are worth the risk of breaking into the premises.

The above observation could be used by concerned people in the community for both crime prevention techniques and crime awareness programs. Many of the above suggestions are currently being referred to as 'target hardening', and many organizations are finding these techniques useful in steming the rising crime rate in their community area.

Residential burglary poses peculiar problems for law enforcement. At present, police have relatively few suspects and ultimately make even fewer arrests. Given this situation, crime prevention activities can play an important role in the reduction of residential burglary.

TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION OF BURGLARIES

DISTRIBUTION OF BURGLARIES AND RELATED STREET DESIGN
FOR THE YEAR 1978 WITHIN THE STUDY AREA

BURGLARY INCIDENTS	STREET DESIGN			
	DEAD END	T-TYPE	THROUGH	ROW TOTAL
ZERO	0 (0%)	6 (4%)	12(6%)	18(4%)
ONE TO EIGHT	27 (76%)	133 (65%)	153(71%)	313(68%)
TEN TO TWENTY-THREE	14 (24%)	25 (31%)	31(23%)	70(26%)
COLUMN TOTAL	41	176	201	418
MEAN VALUE	5.86	3.67	3.19	3.54
STREET DESIGN TOTAL	7	48	63	118

Average number of BURGLARY incidents per block = 3

(Computation: TOTAL INCIDENTS/TOTAL NUMBER OF BLOCKS)
(404   120   =   3.36   =3)

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT,
USING PROCEDURES FROM THE SPSS Package, (Nie, et al, 1975).

TABLE 2

STREET DESIGN 1978

RESULTS OF BREAKDOWN PROCEDURE
CRITERION VARIABLE-NUMBER OF BURGLARIES
BROKEN DOWN BY STREET DESIGN
FOR THE YEAR 1978

CATEGORY	SUM	MEAN	STD. DEV.	N
ENTIRE POPULATION	418	3.54	3.98	118
DEAD END	41	5.86	3.613	7
T TYPE	176	3.67	3.64	48
THROUGH	201	3.19	3.67	63

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT, USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.
This table was not statistically significant. A F value of of 1.732 and the significant of F was at .182 (SPSS/ANOVA). The level of significance at the .05 level was 3.09 with 2 and 117 degrees of freedom for the ANOVA.

TABLE 3

STREET DESIGN 1982

RESULTS OF BREAKDOWN PROCEDURE
CRITERION VARIABLE-NUMBER OF BURGLARIES
BROKEN DOWN BY STREET DESIGN
FOR THE YEAR 1982

CATEGORY	SUM	MEAN	STD. DEV.	N
ENTIRE POPULATION	592	5.2	4.95	118
DEAD END	35	5.0	2.24	7
T TYPE	216	4.50	3.52	48
THROUGH	341	5.41	5.99	63

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT,
USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.
This table was not statistically significant. The F value
was 0.460 which is only significant at .633 (SPSS/ANOVA).
The level of significance at the .05 level was 3.09, with
2 and 117 degrees of freedom for the ANOVA.

TABLE 4

BURGLARY INCIDENTS FOR 1978

BURGLARY INCIDENTS	BLOCK FREQUENCY	TOTAL	PERCENT	CUMULATIVE PERCENT
0	17	0	0.0	0.0
1	20	20	5.0	5.0
2	23	46	11.4	16.4
3	16	48	12.1	28.5
4	14	56	14.1	42.5
5	12	60	15.1	57.7
6	6	36	9.0	66.7
7	2	14	3.5	70.2
8	3	24	6.0	76.2
10	2	20	5.1	81.3
11	1	11	2.7	84.0
12	1	12	3.1	87.1
16	1	16	4.1	91.2
18	1	18	4.5	95.7
23	1	23	6.1	101.8

TOTAL   120   404
MEAN 3 (3.4)   MEDIAN 5 (4.5)   MODE 23
STANDARD DEVIATION 3.550
VARIANCE 12.604   STANDARD ERROR .324   RANGE 0 to 23

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT, USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 5

SEVEN BLOCKS WITH THE HIGHEST INCIDENTS-1978

*CHARACTERICS OF THE SEVEN BLOCKS WITH THE HIGHEST INCIDENTS
OF BURGLARY IN THE HYDE PARK-KENWOOD AREA
FOR THE YEAR 1978*

STREET DESIGN	BURGLARY INCIDENTS	TOTAL UNITS	RENTAL UNITS
THROUGH	10	239	220
THROUGH	10	385	322
THROUGH	11	266	233
*DEAD END	12	143	122
T TYPE	16	472	389
T TYPE	18	55	1
**THROUGH	23	565	529

*This block is not being used in this study because it
is a commercial block rather than a residential block.
**This block on the census map is one block, but it is
in fact two blocks long, in that it runs from 53rd to 55th.
street, Cornell to the Illinois Central Rail Road tracks.

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT
AND U.S. CENSUS DATA, USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 6

BLOCKS WITH ZERO INCIDENTS 1978

CHARACTERISTICS OF BLOCKS WITH ZERO INCIDENTS

BLOCK ID NUMBER	HOUSE FREQUENCY	RENTAL UNIT FREQUENCY	STREET DESIGN TYPE
104	115	59	THROUGH
106	28	3	T TYPE
116	137	111	THROUGH
14	34	0	THROUGH
2	8	0	THROUGH
13	35	14	THROUGH
133	76	74	THROUGH
134	100	99	THROUGH
26	254	250	T TYPE
136	261	207	THROUGH
16	241	186	THROUGH
86	34	30	T TYPE
85	544	517	T TYPE
152	116	84	THROUGH
59	232	213	T TYPE
51	103	97	THROUGH
153	20	1	THROUGH
74	76	49	T TYPE

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT AND U.S. CENSUS DATA, USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 7

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF THE AREA FOR 1978

TOTAL NUMBER OF BURGLARY INCIDENT FOR 1978   *404*

   MEAN   3.34   STD. DEV.   3.670 RANGE   0 to 23

TOTAL NUMBER OF BLOCKS WITHIN THE STUDY AREA   *118*

TOTAL NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS WITHIN THE STUDY AREA   *20,148*

TOTAL NUMBER OF RENTAL UNITS WITHIN THE STUDY AREA 17,088

   COMPUTATIONS PER BLOCK

   MEAN   110.4   MEDIAN   78.2   MODE   6.0
   STD.DEV.   147   VARIANCE   21,473.141
   RANGE   0 to 1,237

PERCENTAGE OF RENTAL UNITS IN THE STUDY AREA   *80.8*

TOTAL POPULATION WITHIN THE STUDY AREA (1970)   *46,035*

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE POPULATION

   PERCENT WHITE   58   PERCENT BLACK   38 PERCENT OTHER   4

   PERCENT OVER 65   13   PERCENT UNDER 18   26

   PERCENT FEMALE HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD   3.8

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT
AND U.S. CENSUS DATA, USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 8

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF THE AREA FOR 1982

TOTAL NUMBER OF BURGLARY INCIDENT FOR 1982   *512*

    MEAN   4.736   STD. DEV.   4.942 RANGE   0 to 24

TOTAL NUMBER OF BLOCKS WITHIN THE STUDY AREA   *118*

TOTAL NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS WITHIN THE STUDY AREA   *22,917*

    COMPUTATIONS PER BLOCK

    MEAN   160   MEDIAN   118
    RANGE   0 to 1296   STD. DEV.   180.23
    VARIANCE   34,482.063

TOTAL NUMBER OF RENTAL UNITS WITHIN THE STUDY AREA 15,753

    COMPUTATIONS PER BLOCK

    MEAN   109.8   MEDIAN   77.5   MODE
    STD.DEV.   146.537 VARIANCE   21473.141
    RANGE   1 to 1237

PERCENTAGE OF RENTAL UNITS IN THE STUDY AREA   *74*

TOTAL POPULATION WITHIN THE STUDY AREA (1980)   *45,407*

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE POPULATION

    PERCENT BLACK   61   PERCENT UNDER 18 YEARS   17

    PERCENT OVER 65 11   PERCENT FEMALE HEAD   9

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT
AND U.S. CENSUS DATA, USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURE.

TABLE 9

RATIO OF BURGLARIES IN THE STUDY AREA   1978

THE RATIO OF BURGLARIES TO HOUSEHOLDS IN THE STUDY AREA

BURGLARY RATE   1 IN 52   HOUSEHOLDS

BURGLARY RATE PER 1000 HOUSEHOLDS   19.1

BURGLARY RATE PER BLOCK   (404/118=3.4)   3.4

PERCENT OF HOUSEHOLDS EFFECTED IN THE AREA   2 PERCENT

(404/21148=.01903x100 = 2 PERCENT)

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT RECORDS,
USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 10

RATIO OF BURGLARIES IN THE STUDY AREA   1982

THE RATIO OF BURGLARIES TO HOUSEHOLDS IN THE STUDY AREA

BURGLARY RATE   1 IN 44   HOUSEHOLDS

BURGLARY RATE PER 1000 HOUSEHOLDS   22.34

BURGLARY RATE PER BLOCK   (512/118=4.3)   4.3

PERCENT OF HOUSEHOLDS EFFECTED IN THE AREA   2 PERCENT

(512/21416=.02334x100 = 2 PERCENT)

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT RECORDS,
USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 11

LENGTH OF TIME PREMISES WERE UNOCCUPIED

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF LENGTH OF TIME PREMISES WERE UNOCCUPIED AT TIME OF BURGLARY 1982

LENGTH OF TIME THE PREMISES WERE UNOCCUPIED	TOTAL	PERCENT
UNKNOWN	107	20.9
LESS THAN ONE HOUR	26	5.1
ONE TO TWO HOURS	65	4.3
TWO TO FOUR HOURS	65	12.7
FIVE TO EIGHT HOURS	120	23.4
NINE TO TWELVE HOURS	100	19.5
THIRTEEN HOURS TO TWENTY-FOUR HOURS	34	6.6
TWENTY-FIVE TO FORTY-EIGHT HOURS	13	2.5
OVER FORTY-EIGHT HOURS	25	4.9
TOTAL	512	100.00

AVERAGE (MEAN) TIME AWAY FROM THE PREMISES WAS 4.5 hours.

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT RECORDS, USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 12

STRUCTURE AND LENGTH OF TIME ABSENT FROM PREMISES

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF LENGTH OF TIME PREMISES
WERE UNOCCUPIED AT TIME OF BURGLARY 1982

TIME UNOCCUPIED	HOUSE	APARTMENT	BASEMENT	TOTAL	PERCENT
UNKNOWN	19	80	8	107	20.9
LESS THAN 1 HOUR	2	24	0	26	5.1
1 TO 2 HOURS	3	19	0	22	4.3
2 TO 4 HOURS	8	52	5	65	12.7
5 TO 8 HOURS	11	101	8	120	23.4
9 TO 12 HOURS	9	80	11	100	19.5
13 to 24 HOURS	2	25	7	34	6.6
25 to 48 HOURS	0	12	1	13	2.5
MORE THAN 48 HOURS	4	17	4	25	4.9
TOTAL	58	410	44	512	100.00

AVERAGE (MEAN) TIME AWAY FROM THE PREMISES WAS 4.5 HOURS.

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT RECORDS, USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 13

BURGLARIES BY TIME OF DAY 1982

TIME OF INCIDENT	TOTAL	PERCENT
10:00 p.m to 6:59 a.m. (NIGHT)	107	20.9
7:00 a.m. to 11:59 a.m. (MORNING)	46	9.0
12:00 p.m. to 4:59 p.m. (AFTERNOON)	63	12.3
7:00 a.m. to 4:59 p.m. (DAYS)	61	11.9
5:00 p.m. to 9:59 p.m. (EVENING)	97	18.9
UNKNOWN	134	26.2
TOTAL	512	100.00

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT, USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 14

BURGLARIES BY DAY OF WEEK AND STRUCTURE-1982

DAY	HOUSE	APARTMENT	BASEMENT	TOTAL	PERCENT
SUNDAY	4	36	5	45	8.8
MONDAY	14	57	14	85	16.6
TUESDAY	14	69	5	88	17.2
WEDNESDAY	9	60	5	74	14.5
THURSDAY	3	64	3	70	13.7
FRIDAY	7	62	2	71	13.9
SATURDAY	5	42	3	50	9.8
WEEKEND	0	4	2	6	1.2
UNKNOWN	3	15	5	23	4.5
TOTAL	79	394	39	512	100.0

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM THE RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT, USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 15

BURGLARIES BY SEASON 1982

SEASON	TOTAL	PERCENT
WINTER (NOV. DEC. JAN. FEB.)	154	30.0
SPRING-AUTUMN (MAR.APR. SEPT. OCT.)	166	32.0
SUMMER (MAY, JUNE, JULY, AUG.)	192	38.0
TOTAL	512	100.00

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT, USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 16

BURGLARIES BY MONTH AND STRUCTURE-1982

MONTH	HOUSE	APARTMENT	BASEMENT	TOTAL	PERCENT
JANUARY	3	34	2	39	7.6
FEBRUARY	4	22	1	27	5.3
MARCH	1	11	1	13	2.5
APRIL	2	15	5	22	4.3
MAY	2	13	3	18	3.5
JUNE	5	22	7	34	6.6
JULY	5	50	10	65	12.7
AUGUST	2	65	8	75	14.6
SEPTEMBER	12	73	2	87	17.1
OCTOBER	10	31	3	44	8.6
NOVEMBER	4	29	2	35	6.8
DECEMBER	8	45	0	53	10.4
TOTAL	58	410	44	512	100.00

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT, USING THE SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 17

TYPE OF PREMISES BURGLARIZED 1982

Point OF ENTRY

STRUCTURES	UNKNOWN	DOOR	WINDOW	TRANSOM	TOTAL	PERCENT
HOUSE	9	22	27	0	58	11.3
APARTMENT	35	230	134	11	410	80.1
BASEMENT	5	28	11	0	44	8.6
TOTALS	49	280	172	11	512	100.00
PERCENT	*1.6*	*52.6*	*32.4*	*2.5*	*10.9*	*100.00*

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT, USING THE SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 18

BURGLARIES BY CENSUS TRACT-1978 and 1982

CENSUS TRACT	1978	1982	DIFFERENCE
3904	37	31	- 6
3905	29	36	+ 7
3906	23	21	- 2
3907	10	39	+29
4101	15	50	+35
4102	12	29	+17
4103	9	10	+ 1
4104	8	7	- 1
4105	29	38	+ 9
4106	18	46	+28
4107	37	56	+19
4108	39	61	+12
4109	39	43	+ 4
4110	34	14	-20
4111	19	32	+13
4112	30	40	-10
4113	10	16	+ 6
4114	18	26	+ 8

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT, USING THE SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 19

POPULATION AND STRUCTURES FOR CENSUS TRACTS

CENSUS TRACT	POPULATION 1980	UNITS 1980	BURGLARIES 1978	BURGLARIES 1982
3904	3409	1803	37	31
3905	1926	902	29	36
3906	1875	727	23	21
3907	6969	3990	10	39
4101	1826	1168	15	50
4102	1544	855	12	29
4103	903	473	9	10
4104	660	353	8	7
4105	3105	1356	29	38
4106	2557	915	18	46
4107	2463	1322	37	56
4108	3565	2139	39	61
4109	4031	2204	39	43
4110	3465	2060	34	14
4111	2451	975	19	32
4112	2374	883	30	40
4113	772	146	10	16
4114	1512	646	18	26

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT AND BLOCK CENSUS DATA, USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 20

RANK ORDER OF BURGLARIES

HIGHEST TO LOWEST INCIDENTS

CENSUS *TRACT*	*FREQUENCIES* *RANK*	*POPULATION* *AT RISK* *RANK*	*OPPORTUNITY* *AT RISK* *RANK*
3904	11	16	16
3905	9	5	7
3906	14	12	12
3907	7	17	17
4101	3	1	4
4102	12	4	8
4103	17	13	13
4104	18	14	14
4105	8	11	10
4106	4	6	2
4107	2	3	6
4108	1	7	11
4109	5	15	15
4110	16	18	18
4111	10	10	9
4112	6	9	3
4113	15	3	1
4114	13	8	6

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT
AND BLOCK CENSUS DATA, USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 21

RANK ORDER AND RATE OF BURGLARIES PER CENSUS TRACT

HIGHEST TO LOWEST INCIDENTS

RANK	FREQUENCY	TRACT	POPULATION RATE	TRACT	UNIT RATE	TRACT
1	61	4108	1 in 37	4101	1 in 9	4113
2	56	4107	1 in 44	4107	1 in 20	4106
3	50	4101	1 in 48	4113	1 in 22	4112
4	46	4106	1 in 53	4102	1 in 23	4101
5	43	4109	1 in 54	3905	1 in 23	4107
6	40	4112	1 in 56	4106	1 in 25	4114
7	39	3907	1 in 58	4108	1 in 25	3905
8	38	4105	1 in 58	4114	1 in 29	4102
9	36	3905	1 in 60	4112	1 in 30	4111
10	32	4111	1 in 77	4111	1 in 35	4105
11	31	3904	1 in 82	4105	1 in 35	4108
12	29	4102	1 in 89	3906	1 in 35	3906
13	26	4114	1 in 90	4103	1 in 47	4103
14	21	3906	1 in 94	4104	1 in 50	4104
15	16	4113	1 in 94	3909	1 in 51	4109
16	14	4110	1 in 110	3904	1 in 58	3904
17	10	4103	1 in 179	3907	1 in 102	3907
18	7	4104	1 in 248	4110	1 in 147	4110

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT AND BLOCK CENSUS DATA, USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 22

COMPARISON OF STREETS 1978 and 1982

STREET TYPE	1978	1982
DEAD END		
MEAN	5.86	5.0
NUMBER OF STREETS	7	7
BURGLARIES	41	35
STREETS	7	7
STANDARD DEVIATION	3.98	2.24
T TYPE		
MEAN	3.67	4.50
NUMBER OF STREETS	48	48
BURGLARIES	176	216
STANDARD DEVIATION	3.61	3.52
THROUGH		
MEAN	3.19	5.02
NUMBER OF STREETS	63	63
BURGLARIES	201	341
STANDARD DEVIATION	3.64	5.99

MULTIPLE R SQUARED	0.029	0.008
F VALUE	1.732	0.460
SIGNIFICANCE OF F	0.182	0.633

NOT SIGNIFICANT AT THE .05 LEVEL, F 3.09, with 2 and 117
DEGREES OF FREEDOM.

SOURCE: CALCULATED FROM RECORDS OF THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT,
USING SPSS STATISTICAL PROCEDURES.

TABLE 23

BURGLARY CHARACTERISTICS FOR THE CITY

COMPARISON OF BURGLARY
FOR THE YEARS 1978 AND 1982

	1978	1982
TOTAL	34,165	32,249
PERCENT CLEARED	27.1	26.2
TOTAL CLEARED	9,271	8,475
ARRESTED	9,199	8,002
PERCENT (OF ALL INDEX CRIMES)	16.2	13.6
21st. DISTRICT	752	922
AREA ONE	3,707	4,078

SOURCE: CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT SUMMARY STATISTICS 1978, 1982.

TABLE 24

CHARACTERISTICS OF BURGLARY FOR THE CITY

COMPARISON OF BURGLARY

	1978	1982
RESIDENTIAL BURGLARIES		
NIGHTTIME	7,851	6,630
DOLLAR VALUE	$4,522,389	$4,388,474
DAYTIME	14,538	13,799
DOLLAR VALUE	$8,564,447	10,994,329
UNKNOWN TIME	1,150	2,635
DOLLAR VALUE	$ 862,843	$1,804,754
NONRESIDENTIAL BURGLARIES		
NIGHTTIME	6,357	5,323
DOLLAR VALUE	$4,015,378	$4,159,241
DAYTIME	2,932	2,327
DOLLAR VALUE	$1,958,833	$2,125,024
UNKNOWN TIME	937	1,535
DOLLAR VALUE	$497,587	$1,294,786
TOTAL BURGLARIES	34,165	32,249
TOTAL DOLLAR VALUE	$20,421,477	$24,766,608

SOURCE: CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT SUMMARY STATISTICS 1978, 1982.

TABLE 25

CHARACTERISTICS OF PERSONS ARRESTED FOR BURGLARY

PERSONS ARRESTED IN THE CITY OF CHICAGO

	1978		1982	
AGE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE
UNDER 18	4,969	165	4,026	157
18-20	1,476	51	1,226	53
21-24	1,042	49	917	40
25-44	1,277	66	1431	48
45+	101	3	102	2
TOTALS	8,865	334	7,702	300

RACE

	1978	1982
WHITE	2,102	2,824
BLACK	5,925	5,137
AMERICAN INDIAN	16	23
ASIAN	3	18
ALL OTHER	1,153	NOT USED IN 1982
HISPANIC	NOT USED IN 1978	659
NOT HISPANIC	NOT USED IN 1978	7,343

SOURCE: CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT SUMMARY STATISTICS 1978 AND 1982.

TABLE 26

TOTAL ARRESTS NATION WIDE-1982

TOTAL ARRESTS FOR THE OFFENSE OF BURGLARY DISTRIBUTION BY AGE, 1982

BURGLARY	TOTAL	PERCENT
ALL AGES	436,271	0.0
UNDER 15	62,320	14.3
UNDER 18	172,838	40.0
18 and OVER	263,443	52.0
LESS THAN 21	265,778	60.9
LESS THAN 25	335,854	77.0

	MALES	FEMALES
ALL AGES	507,599	28,672
UNDER 15	57,249	5,071
UNDER 18	161,420	11,418
OVER 18	246,179	17,254
PERCENT	93.4	6.6

SOURCE: Compiled from data in FEDERAL BUREAU OF INVESTIGATION, (Annual), CRIME IN THE UNITED STATES, U.C.R., 1982.

TABLE 27

NATIONAL ARREST TRENDS,SEX, 1978-1982

ARREST TRENDS FOR THE OFFENSE OF BURGLARY

BURGLARY	*1978*	*1982*	*PERCENT*
TOTAL	*335,869*	*345,538*	*+ 2.9*
MALES UNDER 18	*175,240*	*137,013*	*-21.8*
FEMALES UNDER 18	*11,990*	*9,748*	*-18.7*

SOURCE: Compiled from data in FEDERAL BUREAU OF INVESTIGATION, (Annual), CRIME IN THE UNITED STATES, U.C.R., 1982.

TABLE 28

NATIONAL ARREST TRENDS, 1973-1982

TOTAL ARREST TRENDS FOR THE OFFENSE OF BURGLARY

BURGLARY	1973	1982	PERCENT CHANGE
TOTAL ALL AGES	244,349	295,713	+21.0
UNDER 18 YEARS	113,660	119,063	- 9.6
OVER 18 YEARS	112,689	176,650	+56.8

SOURCE: Compiled from data in FEDERAL BUREAU OF INVESTIGATION, (Annual), CRIME IN THE UNITED STATES, U.C.R. 1982.

TABLE 29

SUMMARY OF REGRESSION MODELS

MODEL

| DEPENDENT VARIABLE	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	R SQUARED	F
BURGLARY 1978	POPULATION STREET DESIGN	.044	2.689
BURGLARY 1978	RESIDENTIAL UNITS STREET DESIGN	.052	3.244
BURGLARY 1982	POPULATION STREET DESIGN	.014	0.809
BURGLARY 1982	RESIDENTIAL UNITS STREET DESIGN	.033	2.028

To be statistically significant, an F ratio of 19.49 with 2 and 118 degrees of freedom, at the .05 level was needed to reject the null hypothesis. In the above models the null hypothesis could not be rejected.

	TOTPOP	YRTOTAL	BURG78	BURG82	THRU
TOTPOP	1.000	0.938	0.183	0.077	-0.071
YRTOTAL	0.938	1.000	0.206	0.156	-0.077
BURG78	0.183	0.201	1.000	0.252	-0.114
BURG82	0.077	0.156	0.252	1.000	0.082
THRU	-0.071	-0.077	-0.114	0.081	1.000

SOURCE: OUTPUT FROM SPSS PACKAGE, REGRESSION PROCEDURE

FIGURE ONE

REPRESENTATIVE STREET LAYOUTS

LEAST ACCESSIBLE

DEAD END

CUL-DE-SAC

L-TYPE

T-TYPE

OFFSET

THROUGH

MOST ACCESSIBLE
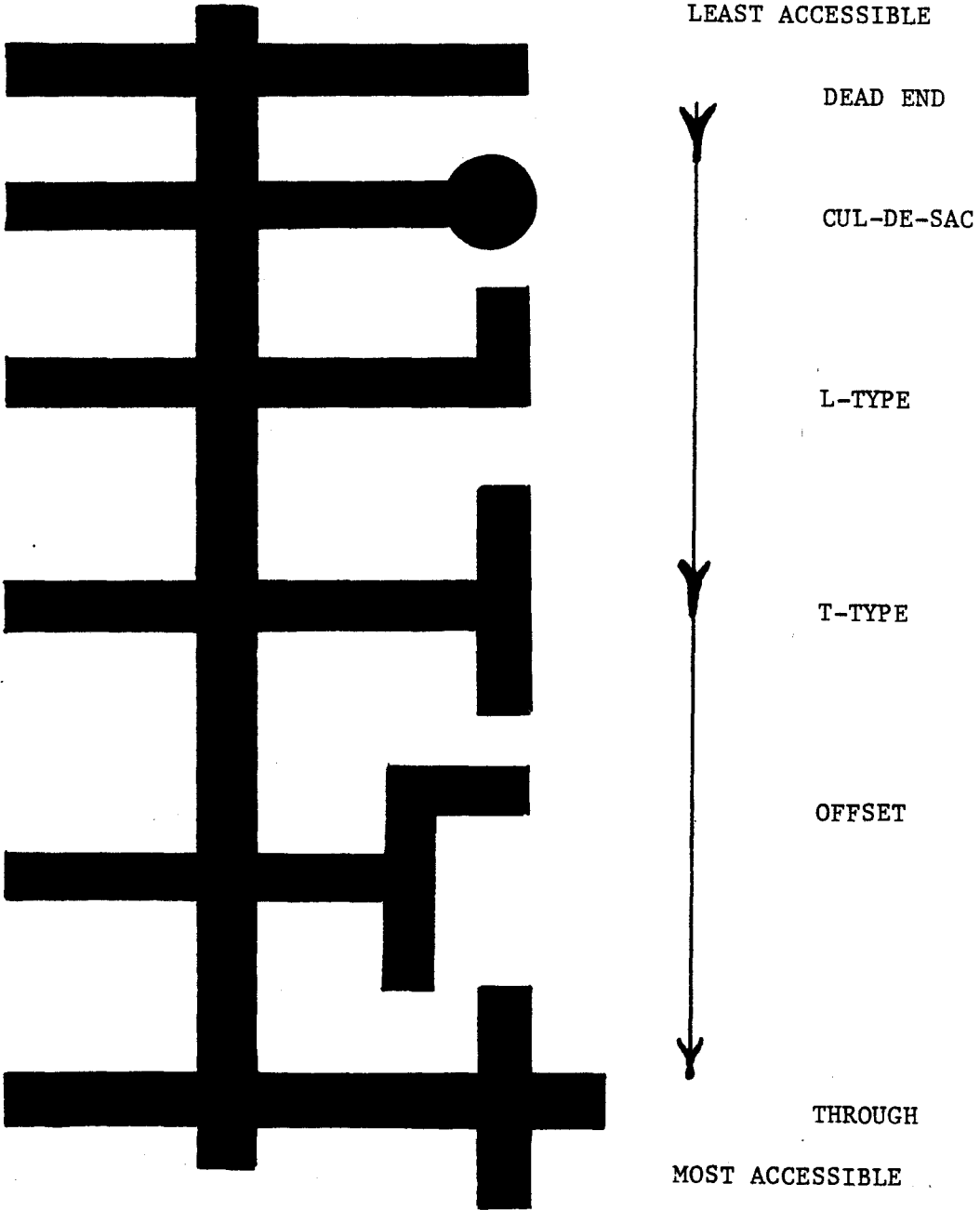
HAS NEED

HAS SOME KNOWLEDGE OF BURGLARY TECHNOLOGY

PERCEIVES OPPORTUNITY TO BURGLARIZE

PERCEIVES BURGLARY AS PATH TO NEED-MEETING

CHOOSES BURGLARY OVER OTHER PLANS TO MEET NEED

ATTEMPTS AND SUCCEEDS AT BURGLARY

CONVERTS BURGLARIZED ITEMS TO NEED MEETING ITEMS

SATISFIED NEED(S)

REINFORCES BURGLARY BEHAVIOR PATTERN

SOURCE: SCARR:1973

ILLUSTRATION 2:   THE CRIMINAL EVENT AND ITS OUTCOME
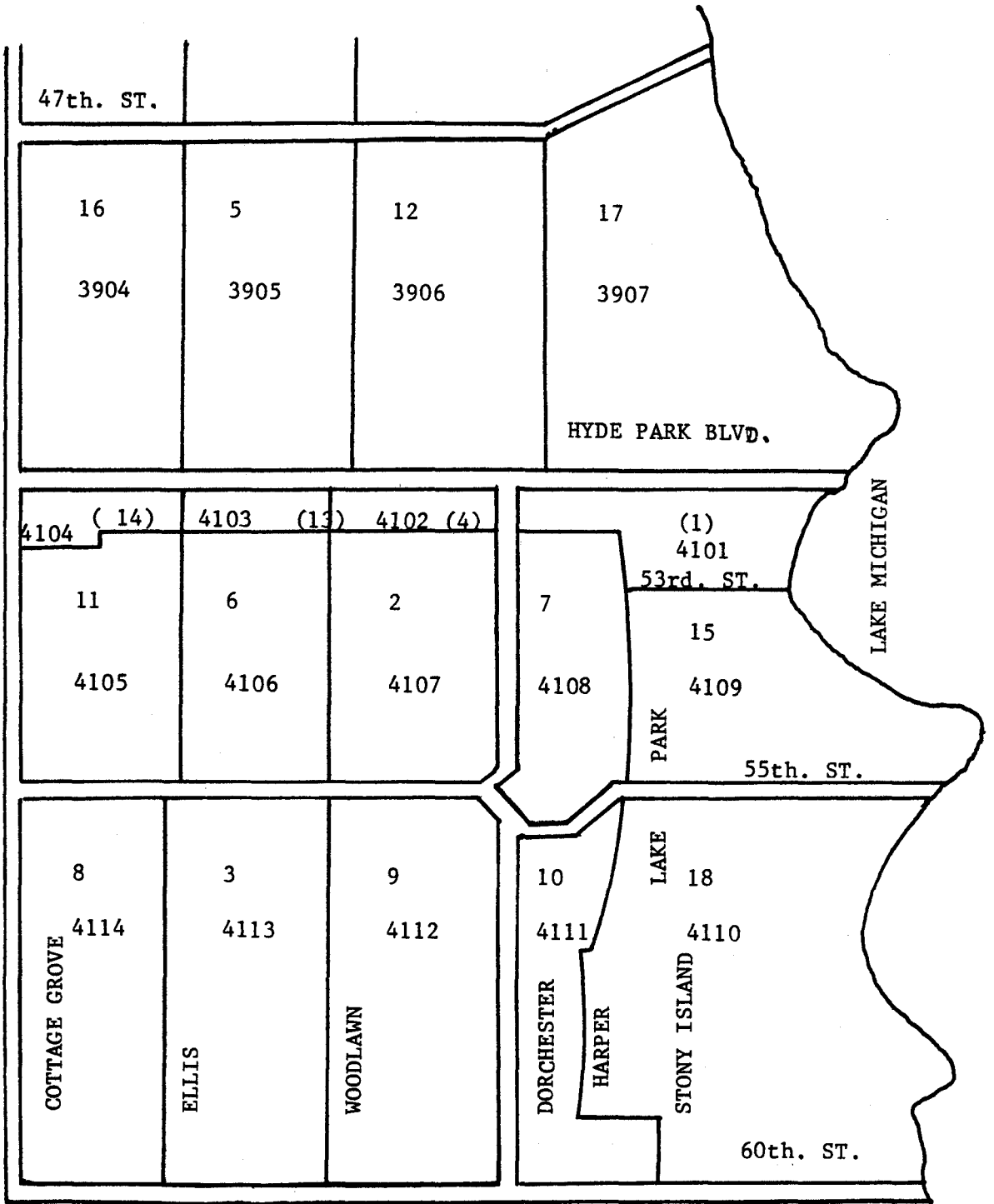
MAP OF THE COMMUNITY AREA

FIGURE FOUR

FREQUENCY OF BURGLARY INCIDENTS
CENSUS TRACTS RANKED FROM HIGHEST TO LOWEST INCIDENT

HYDEPARK KENWOOD COMMUNITY AREA

FIGURE FIVE
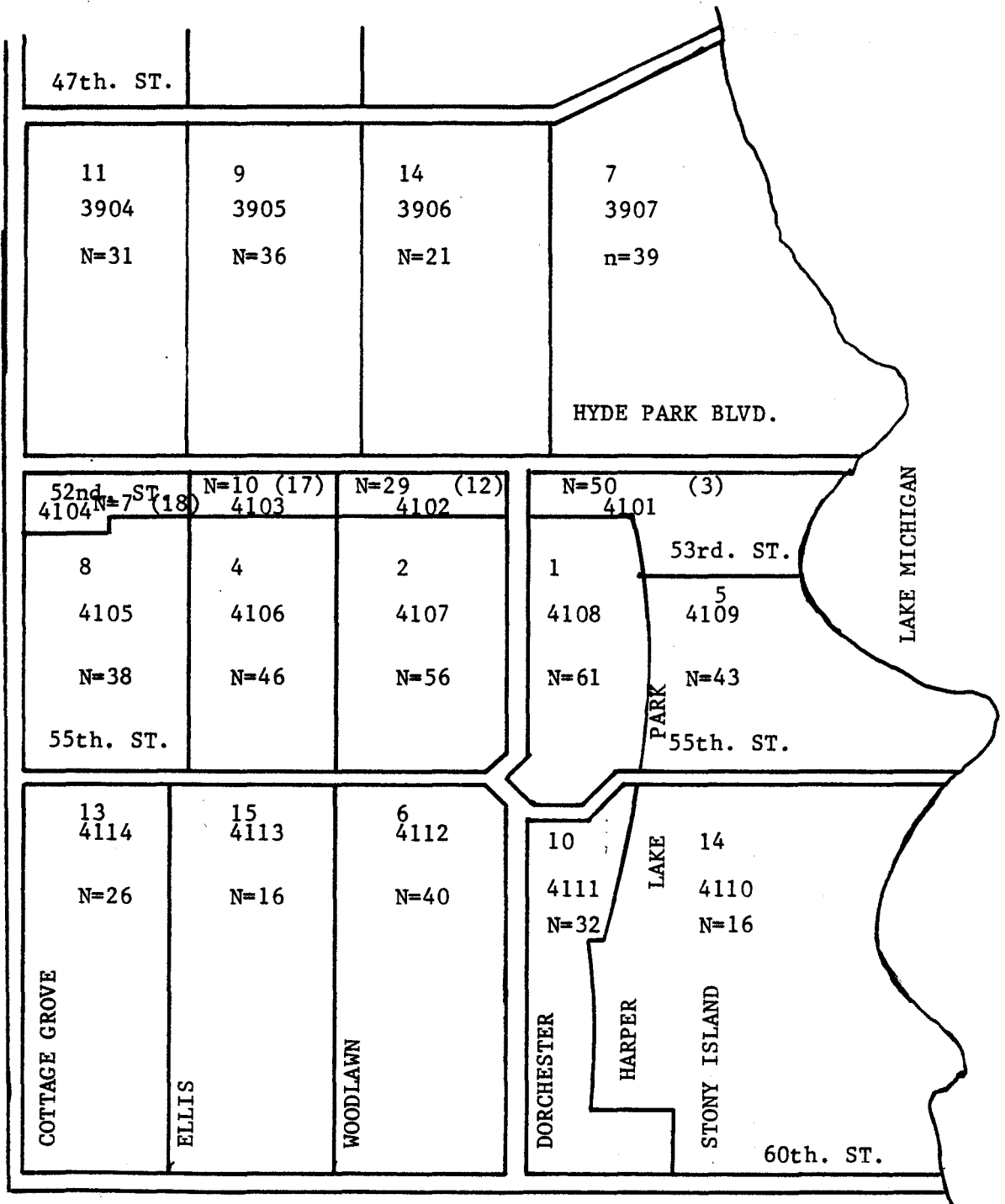
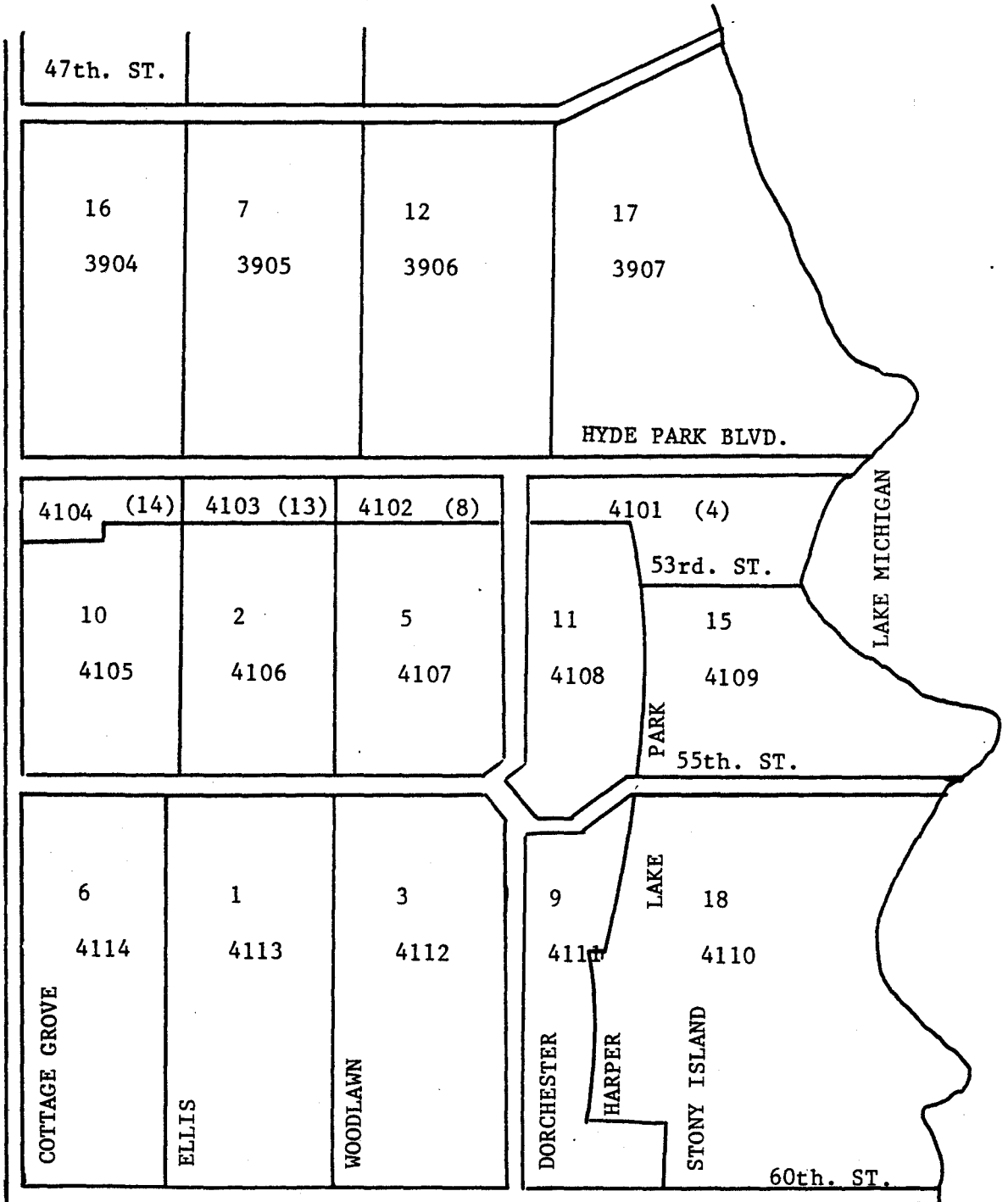CENSUS TRACTS RANKED BY POPULATION BURGLARY PATES PER 1,000 PERSONS

HYDEPARK KENWOOD COMMUNITY AREA

FIGURE SIX

CENSUS TRACTS RANKED BY OPPORTUNITY
RATE PER 1,000 UNITS-1982

HYDE PARK KENWOOD COMMUNITY AREA

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