

THE IMPACT OF COMMUNITY AND INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS  
ON CITIZEN COOPERATION WITH THE POLICE

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## INTRODUCTION TO THE REPORT

The study reported here is based on a random-digit-dialed telephone survey of over 1,200 residents of the City of Chicago. The research effort also included a number of preliminary open-ended interviews, a pretest of several earlier versions of the survey instrument, and supplementary interviews conducted in person. Because the first two of these were used largely in the development and refinement of the instrument and the latter in exploring its reliability and validity (uncovering no reason to suspect either), the analysis presented will be based exclusively on data from the principal survey.

This report is organized into two separate papers which reflect a logical division in the analysis that has been undertaken to date. The first paper, "An Examination of Sampling Bias Due to Nonresponse," incorporates the usual methodological questions but goes beyond these, focusing in depth on one vital area, that relating to the bias that is induced in surveys of this type when certain proportions of eligible selected respondents decline to be interviewed. The second paper, "Factors Influencing Citizen Inclination to Report Crime," addresses the substantive questions raised by the research topic itself.

One inevitable by-product of the nature of survey research is that the nearly infinite permutations of types of analysis possible preclude ever being able to assert that analysis is "complete." As a result, the attainment of a more modest goal, that of outlining the basic findings which are unlikely to be altered in subsequent work, seems to be a more appropriate aspiration. A recognition of this, along with the considerable time pressures imposed by the necessity of adhering to a deadline for the production of this report, led to a determination that it would be preferable to adopt

a broad perspective and address the full range of factors rather than to focus in greater detail on just a few of them. This approach is seen as desirable both because it facilitates the emergence of the general pattern of findings as rapidly as possible and because it provides the necessary basis for the more microscopic examinations which will occur in the course of the continuing analyses to which these data are being subjected.

The desire to include the widest possible range of findings in this report resulted in a decision to favor the analysis of data already in readily-analyzable form over those which were not. The principal result of this decision was to affect the way in which community factors could be explored. The examination of community-level variables generally requires employing external sources, primarily census data, which reside in a form that is not amenable to examination without extensive manipulation. To have taken the necessary steps to ready these data for analysis in time for presentation here would have required an excessive drain on resources being expended in other, more immediately fruitful, areas. For this reason, most of the community factors discussed are community-related aggregated individual characteristics rather than variables actually measured at the community level.

The generous assistance of several individuals is gratefully acknowledged. Fredric DuBow and Andrew Gordon criticized several drafts of the first paper of this report. Marilyn Johnson proofread the entire report, did much of the editorial preparation of Appendix C, and provided helpful comments throughout the course of the work. The final manuscript was typed by Muriel Bunge and Ann Jorjorian.

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PAPER #1

AN EXAMINATION OF SAMPLING BIAS DUE TO NONRESPONSE

There are a number of obstacles to establishing the validity of any observed empirical relationship. This paper represents an attempt to assess the threat to validity that accrues with a relatively modest violation of one of the necessary requisites of inference from public opinion surveys, that of maintaining a proper probability sample. The degree of violation to be considered here is well within the range in which much, if not most, survey research is conducted.

Proper sampling may be seen as having two components: the generation, by some randomized means, of a probability sample, and the maintenance of that sample through the inhibition of respondent attrition. In order to meet the requirements of a probability sample, it is necessary that each element in the population have a known (or calculable) nonzero probability of selection (Kish, 1965). Such a sample may be a simple random sample or, more commonly (at least in the case of large-scale areal sampling), one of a variety of more complicated multi-stage probability samples. Assuming that no groups are excluded from the possibility of selection (an assumption generally violated<sup>1</sup>) and that the selection probabilities of other subgroups are known or can be calculated, the variances of sample estimates may be computed enabling estimates of sample means to be specified within known probability limits.

However, at the point where interviews are attempted, the "sample" actually interviewed no longer remains entirely within the control of the researcher. This loss of control occurs as individuals who were selected

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<sup>1</sup>A problem usually "handled" by minimizing the size of the "unreachable" group and then deprecating the importance of the residual unreachables largely by ignoring them.

for inclusion into the sample to be interviewed voluntarily withdraw from it by refusing to take part in the survey. The researcher must then face the fact that such individuals cannot be replaced (even after matching for demographic and any other variables that may be known) without violating the requirements of a probability sample. Apart from the technical requirements of a probability sample, such a procedure would not be valid, because the ways in which such resistant individuals are systematically different from others who shared certain attributes but who differed with respect to their willingness to be interviewed are essentially unknown. If such systematic differences are present, and weighting or replacement were employed to compensate for nonresponse, it would present a serious threat to the validity of the research conclusions wherever it is attempted (as is almost always done) to generalize to a wider population.

Of these two sources of potential sampling invalidation, those posed by threats to sample generation and those which threaten sample maintenance, it is the latter that are the more troubling simply because they usually include a larger number of people. A portion of nearly any sample may be seen as structurally unreachable. For example, even the Census Bureau, with the coercive force of the law behind it, is estimated to have excluded 2.5% of the population in the 1970 Census (Siegel, 1974).<sup>1</sup> This figure was even higher for certain subgroups, for example, it was 9.9% for black males. The size of the group excluded at the sample generation stage is usually small but often difficult to quantify precisely. For telephone surveys,

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<sup>1</sup> Of course, the Census Bureau doesn't really "sample" in conducting the decennial census of population because it attempts to contact the entire population. The point is that some people are in effect excluded by any method due to the fact that they simply can't be reached.

the necessarily excluded group is the approximately 5% of the population who do not own phones (United States Bureau of the Census, 1975:515). Nevertheless, the size of the group excluded by its own choice is generally a much larger group than either the group excluded in the process of sample generation, or the group that is a near functional equivalent, consisting of those who are structurally unreachable. Partially as a result of this constraint, completion rates of over 90% (hence, with non-coverage up to 10%) have been said to be "excellent" in surveys of the general population (Kiecka and Tuchfarber, 1974b:17). Similarly, in 1963, the Advertising Research Foundation set an 80% response rate as "acceptable for valid survey results" (Business Week, 1973:220). Despite the aura of authenticity of such pronouncements, precious little attention has been devoted to the implications of various rates of response. This is the question that will be addressed in this paper, albeit in the tentative way which befits such a neglected undertaking.

PART I  
THE STUDY

The data base used in this paper is taken from a random digit dialed telephone survey in which 1209 residents of the city of Chicago were interviewed. The procedure for generating a random digit dialed sample of telephone numbers has been described as follows:

...all the operating exchanges in the target area must be determined...Once this list of exchanges has been constructed, the procedure for generating the numbers is very straight-forward. One of the exchanges is selected at random. Next, a four-digit random number is selected to complete the phone number. This sequence is repeated until the desired quantity of phone numbers is generated. (Klecka and Tuchfarber, 1974a:137-138)

There are numerous advantages to this procedure over other means of generating a telephone sample, but the one that is most crucial to the present discussion is that individuals with unlisted telephones are included in the sample. This is not an insignificant consideration, as nationally approximately 20% of residential telephone subscribers are unlisted (Glasser and Metzger, 1972), while in Chicago the figure is approximately 30%.<sup>1</sup>

A total of 4031 random telephone numbers were generated which yielded 1581 working residential telephone numbers.<sup>2</sup> This was a yield of 39.22%, a

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<sup>1</sup> This figure was obtained directly from Illinois Bell. It was validated by the fact that 30.17% of the residential numbers in my sample (including those who refused and thus were never interviewed) were unlisted.

<sup>2</sup> Actually, a slight improvement on the above procedure was used which had the effect of stratifying by telephone exchange. This consisted of selecting exchanges sequentially rather than randomly. Each exchange was selected an equal number of times which, when random numbers were attached, produced an expected number of working telephone numbers in each exchange proportional to the number of residential telephone numbers in operation within it. This reduced the overall variance in the sample somewhat but did not otherwise interfere with randomized selection.

figure that can be expected to vary according to the target area. This will be determined by the proportion of numbers within working exchanges that are assigned to residential telephones

$$\frac{(\# \text{ of residential phone numbers})}{(\# \text{ of working exchanges}) (10,000)}$$

According to information supplied by Illinois Bell, there were, at the time the survey was conducted, 995,000 residential accounts within the city of Chicago. Using the above formula for the proportion of numbers randomly generated that will yield operational residential telephone numbers, and the fact that there are 252 working exchanges within the city of Chicago to which residential numbers are assigned, one may derive an expected proportion as follows

$$\frac{(995,000)}{(252) (10,000)}$$

The "expected" proportion of 39.48% derived from this calculation thus compares very closely to the actual yield of 39.22%.

The identification of the actual working residential numbers was facilitated by the existence of the telephone company's "Name and Address Service" which provides up-to-date information about the current use of any telephone number (unlisted numbers were identified as working numbers, but no name and address is given as it is for listed numbers). The existence of such a service, in areas where it exists, greatly facilitates the processing of numbers generated. However, even when this service is employed, it is advisable to verify all numbers dialed in order to ascertain the number actually reached. Such a procedure is mandatory in the absence of prior information about the status of each number, because the telephone company switching

system is erratic in handling nonworking numbers dialed. Contrary to popular belief, dialing a nonworking number will not always result in connection with an operator or a company recording, but will frequently result in connection with another working number. Because such connections are not random, to interview a party reached as a result of this kind of misconnection would result in unequal probabilities of selection and thus bias the sample. The design of all of these precautionary procedures was to insure that the generated sample (i.e., the sample selected for potential interview before respondent refusal becomes a factor) is as good a representative microcosm of the target population as could be obtained.

The preceding discussion has delineated the procedures by which a representative sample of households was generated. The careful adherence to the strictures of a proper probability sample in the generation of the sample makes appropriate a consideration of the effectiveness of the measures that were used to maintain it as actual interviews were attempted.

In order to effectively maintain the integrity of a sample of selected telephone numbers it is necessary to insure that 1) a potential respondent is contacted at each selected number, and 2) an interview is conducted with as nearly all of those reached as possible. The means for insuring that the former occurs is relatively simple: each selected number must be called as frequently as is necessary to reach it. Furthermore, the calling times must be varied in order to reach individuals on different work shifts.

Before any number was considered unreachable it had to have been called a great number of times (as many as 15 to 20 calls were made in this attempt) including calls on weekday nights, on weekends, and (after the other periods

had been tried unsuccessfully) on weekdays during the daytime.<sup>1</sup> For such numbers, the calling period was extended over a period of several months to allow for and include vacationers. Thus it became evident that numbers that had not been reached at all must be assigned to individuals who were clearly inaccessible by any reasonable means (if indeed they were assigned at all: some may have represented inaccuracies in the telephone company's records that had gone uncorrected). In a very real sense they might be considered not genuine residents, in that they were almost never physically present.

The number of calls made has been stressed because of references in the literature that suggest a much smaller number of callbacks are necessary. Klecka and Tuchfarber (1974a:140) note an apparent bias in their sample which overrepresented owner-occupied over renter-occupied dwellings. Their subsequent (1975:21) work revealed that this discrepancy could be attributed to an inadequate number of callbacks. Other problems can result from this approach as well. The same authors had cautioned:

One should avoid making calls on Friday and Saturday evenings, Sunday mornings, and during peak vacation periods, since a disproportionate quantity of young, non-poor, or religious families are likely to be away from home at those times. (1974a:138-139)

The logic of this admonition only applies when too few calls are made in the first place. Rather than adopting this procedure, one should avoid calling exclusively during these (or any other) times. By including these periods in a battery of repeated calls to nonresponding numbers, we maximize the possibility of including into the sample people who are most

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<sup>1</sup> There was a reason for avoiding weekday daytime calls until other calling times had been exhausted. This is elaborated shortly (see "A Note on Selection Within the Household").

likely to be at home when large numbers of others are commonly away. We must not take the risk of excluding such persons.

The second, and by far the more difficult, problem in maintaining the sample selected is that of actually completing an interview with each household contacted. The effectiveness with which this task can be accomplished is largely outside of direct administrative control. Initially, of course, the careful wording of introductory comments may be designed to maximize the likelihood of response. Additionally, one may specify the number of times an uncontacted household must be called. Beyond these factors, however, the effectiveness of the interviewers in convincing potential respondents to complete the interviews may only be influenced by the nature and quality of their training and instructions. The most important feature of this training was that which stressed the importance of persistence in attempting to persuade resistant respondents to complete the interview. Instructions called for attempts to negotiate a more convenient time to call back respondents in instances where it became apparent that the completion of an interview at that time was unlikely. Respondents who said something like "call back some other time" but refused to specify a convenient time were taken at their word and were called back as long as they continued to indicate this--except when this type of stock answer was repeated so often that it was obvious that this was simply one peculiar way of refusing to be interviewed. At that point the interview was treated like any other refusal.

Because it was felt that some respondents would be lost if the interview took too long to complete, interviewers were instructed to keep up the pace in reading questions as much as possible consistent with comprehensibility to respondents and cues from them. There is wide variation in

the estimates of various survey research institutions engaged in telephone interviews about the maximum feasible length of an interview (Spaeth, 1973: 10), but it is clear that respondents can only be lost and never gained back with progressively longer interviews. For this reason, it seemed prudent, to conduct an interview of fixed (and rather substantial) length in as short a time as possible consistent with valid responses.<sup>1</sup> The average length of time required to complete this interview over the phone was 15 to 20 minutes, although a small minority approached one hour (and the record interview was nearly two!). This compares with an average time of nearly a full hour for the same interview conducted in person, where the interviewer was not instructed to keep pushing for speed. The net result of this procedure was encouraging: the number of interviews that lasted through the first twelve questions but were not completed was between 1% and 2% of the total number of interviews. In light of the length of the questionnaire, this seems a fairly striking fact.

#### A Note on Selection Within the Household

The procedure just outlined was designed to insure the randomness of the sample of telephone numbers generated and thus the households that were selected and (hopefully) interviewed. It did not, however, address the problem of identifying individual respondents within the selected house-

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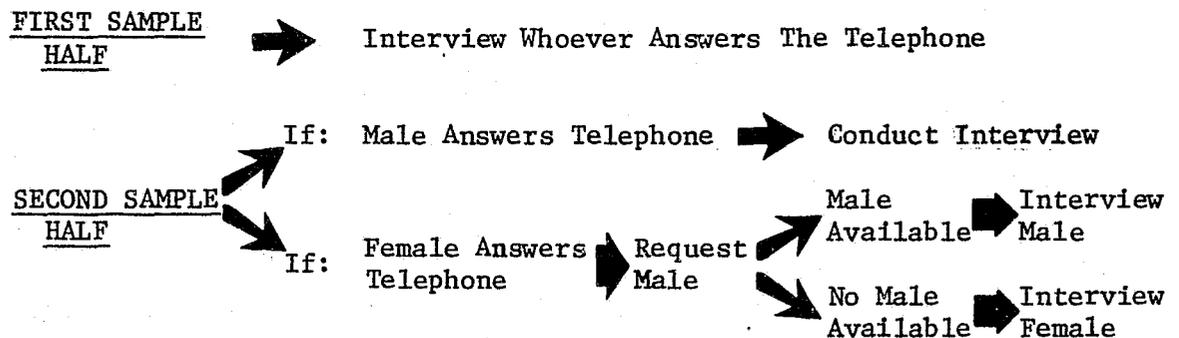
<sup>1</sup> There is a fine line of distinction to be maintained here. On the one hand, excessive length was seen as a very real threat to a high completion rate. On the other, we did not want to encourage perfunctory responses. Interviewer instructions thus stressed allowing respondents to fully respond to the questions asked, but to pursue the rest of the structured questionnaire whenever respondents seemed to be going beyond the material covered by the question and into other areas. (Often these were areas to be covered in subsequent questions.) Thus the richness of data lost by pushing for speed in this manner is akin to that which is lost in any survey in which responses must inevitably be coded in some (usually predetermined) manner as opposed to research based upon more extensive field note-taking.

holds. A logical extension of the procedures used in selecting households would necessitate the employment of a scheme for randomized selection of individual respondents. Kish (1949) has specified procedures to accomplish this. However, the employment of Kish's technique for selection within the household requires obtaining detailed household composition information at the beginning of the interview. Troidahl and Carter (1964) have presented an adaptation of Kish's procedure designed for use over the telephone. Their method requires less information on the composition of the household (at the cost of a modest bias in selection probabilities) but still requires several screening questions about household composition. However, the threatening character of questions about the composition of a household undertaken at the beginning of an interview is likely to yield very high refusal rates (Hauck and Cox, 1974:257). It was the necessity of obtaining detailed household composition information upon initial telephone contact and the likely impact of such threatening subject matter in the absence of adequate warmup that was the principal reason why totally randomized selection within each household was not attempted.

Information from a pretest of sixty-five interviews gave indication of the unrepresentative character of a sample chosen by interviewing whoever first answered the phone. This sample (the telephone numbers for which had been chosen neither perfectly randomly nor purposively) consisted of approximately seventy percent females, a finding consistent with the experiences of others (Klecka and Tuchfarber, 1974a:140,150). It is also consistent with the best available information on when and in what proportions various types of persons are likely to be at home (United States Bureau of the Census, 1972c). The primary concern in the method of within-household selection employed was to insure that reasonably equal numbers

of men and women were interviewed. This represented a compromise between the ideal of randomized selection within the household (and the greatly inflated refusal rate that seemed likely to result) and the overwhelming proportion of female respondents that would result from simply interviewing whoever first answered the phone.

In order to reduce the disparity in the numbers of males and females interviewed, for one half of the selected numbers (which were chosen by chance), whoever answered the phone was interviewed, while in the remaining half if a male answered the phone he was interviewed and if a female answered the phone a male was requested. If no male was available, however, the female was interviewed. The procedure is outlined in the following diagram:



If the proportion of males and females initially contacted proved the same for the actual survey as had been experienced in the pretest, and if the "success" rate in obtaining male respondents in those instances where females initially answered the phone and the procedure called for requesting a male (i.e., the second sample half) was 50%, then the proportion of males in the final sample could be expected to be about 47.5%. Such a projection was clearly approximate at best, as it was based upon little more than an educated guess about what would occur. This was however, the best

estimate then available and it seemed in reasonable accordance with known facts.

In addition to the procedures outlined above, the time periods during which calls were made were manipulated in order to avoid those hours when few males are home. Table 1 reveals that although the proportion of females at home for any given time period exceeds the proportion of males at home for the same time period, the disparity is least during the evening hours. While it is not suggested that the answerer of a phone is in any sense a random selection from those present in the home at any given point in time (in fact, the experience of this survey suggests that this is anything but the case), it nevertheless seems most expedient in obtaining an adequate number of male respondents to concentrate calling in those time periods when males have been shown to be more likely to be present. (Fortunately, this was consistent with those time periods when respondents in general were likely to be at home). Calling was restricted to the hours of 5 P.M. to 9:30 P.M. Monday through Friday and 11 A.M. through 9:30 P.M. on Saturday and Sunday. (A similar restriction had applied to the pretest interviews.) It was only for individuals who had been called repeatedly--a minimum of eight calls including some calls on both weeknights and weekends--for whom the prohibition against weekday daytime calling was relaxed. The presumption for such individuals was that the usual assumptions about only housewives being at home during the day would not apply. The reasoning behind this was that such a large number of unsuccessful calls during the evening was quite possibly indicative, within such households, of some sort of shift work or other deviation from the norm that males work during the day and only housewives remain at home during this period. This presumption proved correct. There were no more females answering the phone

TABLE 1

PROPORTION OF PERSONS AT HOME BY SEX AND TIME OF DAY

<u>TIME PERIOD</u>	<u>MEN</u>	<u>WOMEN</u>
8:00-8:59 A.M.	.12	.50
9:00-9:59 A.M.	.22	.47
10:00-10:59 A.M.	.23	.47
11:00-11:59 A.M.	.24	.48
12:00-12:59 P.M.	.24	.48
1:00-1:59 P.M.	.23	.46
2:00-2:59 P.M.	.24	.46
3:00-3:59 P.M.	.30	.57
4:00-4:59 P.M.	.36	.59
5:00-5:59 P.M.	.45	.67
6:00-6:59 P.M.	.62	.72
7:00-7:59 P.M.	.62	.59
8:00-8:59 P.M.	.57	.70

"rough estimate of standard error" = .05

Source: United States Bureau of the Census, Who's Home When, Working  
Paper No. 37, Washington D.C., Government Printing Office,  
1972, p. 8.

during the day within households that had been repeatedly called unsuccessfully at night than was the case for the general sample called during weekends and evenings. Thus daytime calls, conducted after evening and weekend calls had proven unsuccessful, were not only necessary in order to give every selected household every opportunity to be contacted regardless of working schedule, but also did not further aggravate the tendency to obtain more females than males.

How successful was this procedure in equalizing the proportion of males and females in the sample? Table 2 presents the breakdown of the sex of respondent by whether or not the respondent belonged to the half of the sample which had been designated for the special attempt to obtain male respondents. If one assumes that the original proportion of males and females answering the phone was the same for both halves of the sample (those for whom the phone answerer was interviewed and those for whom a male was requested) and that the specified procedure was judiciously adhered to, then asking for a male when a female first answered the phone was successful less than 5% of the time.<sup>1</sup> A 95% confidence interval estimate of the original proportion of males first answering the phone in the half of the sample for which a male was to be requested if a female first answered would result in a recomputation of this "success" rate to between 0% and 10%.

A perusal of the interview schedule (appended) reveals the exact pro-

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<sup>1</sup>This figure was computed as follows:

$$\frac{\frac{395}{612} - \frac{366}{596}}{\frac{395}{612}} = .0485 = 4.85\%$$

TABLE 2

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SEX OF RESPONDENT BY MODE OF RESPONDENT SOLICITATION

<u>SEX</u>	<u>MODE OF RESPONDENT SOLICITATION</u>		
	<u>MALE R SOLICITED</u>	<u>R = PHONE ANSWERER</u>	
Male	38.6% (230)	35.5% (217)	37.0%
Female	61.4% (366)	64.5% (395)	63.0%
	100.0% (596)	100.0% (612)	

TABLE 3

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MODE OF RESPONDENT SOLICITATION BY RESPONDENT GROUP

<u>MODE OF RESPONDENT SOLICITATION</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u> <sup>1</sup>	<u>REFUSAL</u> <sup>2</sup>	
Male R Solicited	49.6% (514)	48.0% (82)	41.8% (77)	48.3%
R = Phone Answerer	50.4% (523)	52.0% (89)	58.2% (107)	51.7%
	100.0% (1037)	100.0% (171)	100.0% (184)	

<sup>1</sup> Refused on first attempt; interviewed on second.

<sup>2</sup> Refused twice.

cedures to be followed whenever a male respondent was to be requested. However, the fact that the decision about precisely which groups would be subjected to a special request for a male respondent was not made until after the schedule had been printed kept this information off of the interview itself. Instead it was prominently contained in a "interviewer handbook" and was emphasized in verbal instructions. Despite the emphasis that had been given to the matter in the course of training, the fact that a specific indication of which interviews were to be dealt with in this manner was not physically in front of the interviewers at the time of interviewing enhanced the possibility of error in this process. By comparison, all the other procedures to be followed, such as question sequencing and skip patterns, were specified on the interview schedule itself thereby minimizing the potential for error. Any cases where the specified procedure calling for a male was overlooked would reduce the expected difference between the two groups. Worse yet, a mistaken request for a male in the sample half that did not call for it would have a double impact on the difference ultimately obtained between the sample halves. Ex post facto recollections of several interviewers suggest that a figure greater than the 5% calculated (although still well under 50%) would be a more accurate reflection of the success rate actually obtained. This, in conjunction with the reasoning above, suggests a considerable possibility that the prescribed procedure was probably compromised in actual practice. Relatively modest deviations from procedure accompanied by a somewhat less-than-expected success rate could easily produce the rates found. Because of the uncertain relative contribution of the two, the overall effectiveness of the procedure is unclear. The primary lesson is the need for procedures which are more effective in reducing the possibility of error be-

fore reasonable confidence can be placed in such an assessment.

While the quantitative success rate of the procedure employed to attain a greater proportion of male respondents has not been demonstrated, there is no evidence that it has an adverse effect on the refusal rate. Table 3 presents the percentage distribution of the two sample halves by refusal behavior. While interpretation of this information is confounded by the suspicions of violated procedures alluded to above, if special solicitation has any effect it would seem to be in helping (somewhat surprisingly) to minimize refusals, particularly among those who refused on both attempts.

In conclusion, while great care was exercised to insure the randomness of the sample of telephone numbers, this did not extend to the selection of the respondent within the household. Conscious attempts to influence the selection of the particular respondent within households were limited to minimally successful efforts to bring about a more equal number of males and females than would have occurred by chance. The final result of the selection process was a close approximation of a random sample of households, but the same claim cannot be made for the individuals within selected households. Fortunately, many of the variables to be considered here are measured at the household level, minimizing whatever problems may have been caused by the selection-within-household procedure used.

#### The Persuasion Attempt

Persons who refused to be interviewed on the first attempt were pursued on a subsequent effort.<sup>1</sup> This second attempt was preceded by the

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<sup>1</sup>The reader will recall that ambiguous cases were treated as "call backs" rather than as refusals until it became obvious that they were really intended as refusals by the respondents. Thus, persons who said "call me

mailing of a "persuasion letter" to each refusal household.<sup>1</sup> Because this letter was an additional stimulus for respondents, a discussion of its content and method is appropriate and a copy of the letter is appended. In general, the aim of the letter was to address as many of what were felt to be the primary sources of resistance as practicable. A foremost consideration was the avoidance of any mention of material that could subsequently have an influence on the content of subsequent responses. For this reason, the letter avoided more detailed mention of the contents of the survey than had been contained in the introductory "warm-up" comments preceding the actual interview. The letter stressed, among other things, the scientific neutrality of the study, the confidentiality of individual responses, and the fact that respondents had been included in the sample entirely by chance. These emphases were meant to allay several types of anxieties and suspicions. Among these were concerns about the use to which information would be put and, hopefully, the final disposition of any fears that the survey might be an intricate cover for some sort of sales pitch. A concerted attempt was made to specifically address the types of objections that had arisen with any regularity during the course of the refusals, such as persons who had indicated they were "too busy" to have time to respond. Likewise, particular emphasis was given to the im-

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back later" repeatedly were taken at their literal word and were not considered refusals. Only when a consistent pattern had been established, as when an individual made a statement like this on numerous successive calls, was this considered to be one respondent's peculiar method of refusing. Because of this, the "second attempt" referred to in this discussion had been preceded in these cases by more than a single phone contact with the household.

<sup>1</sup> Because addresses could not be obtained for the unlisted telephone numbers, the letters could only be sent to the portion of the sample that had listed telephones.

portance of all individual opinions to our study in order to attempt to persuade individuals who had indicated their refusal by making comments like "My opinions aren't that important, you couldn't possibly be interested in them." A related problem seems to have been exacerbated by the reference to the fact that respondents had been selected entirely by chance. While this reference had the advantage of making our assurances of anonymity more credible, it apparently also led some respondents to believe that substitution was possible. For this reason, a specific indication that this was not permissible was included. Of course, all of the objections that had been raised during the course of refusals needn't have reflected the genuine underlying causes for those refusals. However, it seemed unwarranted to assume that any of the objections that had been specifically raised by respondents were not reflective of real reasons, at least on the part of some. The overall aim of the letter was to address as many reasons for refusal as possible, whether these had been specifically raised by respondents in the course of refusing or whether they were merely perceived as underlying reasons that had been justified by some other rationale.

How effective were these procedures in minimizing the uninterviewed portion of the generated sample? The results are summarized in Table 4. The form of the presentation of these figures gives a conservative estimate of the rate of success for a number of reasons. Many of the "no answer" numbers may represent parties other than actual residences (businesses, pay phones, and unoccupied dwellings or offices).<sup>1</sup> Furthermore, the pro-

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<sup>1</sup> This could occur because of the form of the information received from the Illinois Bell Telephone Company's "Name and Address" service. When presented with a telephone number, it could be identified as "John Smith,

portion of households consisting exclusively of individuals who speak only Spanish or some other non-English language is only a problem if it is defined as being part of the sample. (Households with bilingual individuals or individuals who spoke only Spanish but could obtain another member of the household who spoke English were interviewed.) If Spanish-speaking individuals were to be interviewed in their native tongue, translation equivalencies would present an additional complication. Likewise, the responses of senile individuals would be meaningless.<sup>1</sup> Another indication of the conservative nature of these figures is that all incomplete interviews were coded and treated as refusals.

Table 5 presents recomputed percentages based on the assumption that the population of interest is the English-speaking, non-senile population of Chicago. Note that if the additional assumption is made that the "no answer" group is also, for reasons given above, not within the population of interest, the completion figures for the first and second wave of interviews become 74.4% and 86.8% respectively.

This table indicates the parameters within which the analysis is taking place. We are examining the effect on sample estimates when the

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101 Main Street." However, John Smith might turn out to be "John Smith, Inc." as there was no explicit business vs. residential number designation. The information provided was sufficient to identify most businesses (Sears Roebuck did not present the same potential for ambiguity as John Smith) but a few business numbers remained to be ascertained in the actual calling process.

<sup>1</sup> Senility was determined subjectively by the interviewer and was based upon an assessment that responses being given bore no indication of rationality whatever. The category also included a small number of individuals who gave an indication (which was believed by the interviewer) that they were sufficiently sick that completion of the interview would do them harm. Such individuals were excluded on moral grounds.

TABLE 4

COMPLETION RATES, EXTENDED DEFINITION OF SAMPLING FRAME

	<u>AFTER FIRST INTERVIEWS</u>	<u>FINAL TOTALS</u>
Completed	1037 (65.6%)	1209 (76.4%)
Refusals	356 (22.5%)	184 <sup>1</sup> (11.6%)
Senile	52 ( 3.3%)	52 ( 3.3%)
Spanish/Other Language	92 ( 5.8%)	92 ( 5.8%)
No Answer	44 ( 2.8%)	44 ( 2.8%)
	<hr/> 1581 (100.0%)	<hr/> 1581 (99.9%)

NOTE: Because they were not in any sense a part of the population of interest, business numbers discovered in the course of the interviewing process are excluded from this table and the table following it (except insofar as there may be a small number of unidentified businesses among the 44 "no answers.")

<sup>1</sup> This figure includes 26 respondents who refused only once but who were subsequently unreachable (17 of these had their phones disconnected in the intervening period).

TABLE 5

COMPLETION RATES, RESTRICTED DEFINITION OF SAMPLING FRAME

	<u>AFTER FIRST INTERVIEWS</u>	<u>FINAL TOTALS</u>
Completed	1037 (72.2%) <sup>1</sup>	1209 (84.1%) <sup>2</sup>
Refused	356 (24.8%)	184 <sup>3</sup> (12.8%)
No Answer	44 ( 3.1%)	44 ( 3.1%)
	1437 (100.1%)	1437 (100.0%)

<sup>1</sup> If the "no answers" are excluded from consideration in the calculation of these percentages (a reasonable procedure given the extreme measures taken in callbacks) this figure becomes 74.4%.

<sup>2</sup> Likewise, this figure becomes 86.8%.

<sup>3</sup> Note, as in Table 1, the inclusion of 26 respondents who refused once but were subsequently unreachable.

proportion of refusers is reduced from about one in four to about one in eight. Especially in light of recent dramatic increases in refusal rates (Business Week, 1973), and the fact that the study was restricted to the city limits thereby excluding the suburbs where lower refusal rates are usually experienced (Hauck and Cox, 1974:257), this should be interpreted generally as an indication of what will occur when the refusal rate is reduced from within "good" range to the "excellent" one. What would occur when examining such effects in a survey with a less effective pursuit of respondents is impossible to infer from these data. Thus, the generalization of findings is doubly constrained. Where differences examined are less than striking, it may reflect the fact that potentially reluctant respondents have already been picked up on the first pass. Perhaps, more plausible, however, would be the speculation that the most reluctant respondents have yet to be included even after the second.

A somewhat gross oversimplification may help illustrate. If it is meaningful to think of respondents as lying along any sort of continuum with respect to their inclination to allow themselves to be interviewed, and there are other real respects in which these persons differ, we are at best measuring these differences within but one limited slice of this continuum. In this particular research, the slice is that represented in Figure 1 by movement from "A" to "B". Although this is a rather limited slice of the theoretical range of possibilities, its substantive importance is enhanced by the fact that it is within this range that many, if not most, of the surveys actually conducted are located. The potential biases that are present within this range of commonly attained response rates are thus of immense practical importance.

The meaningfulness of this mode of conceptualization is best appre-



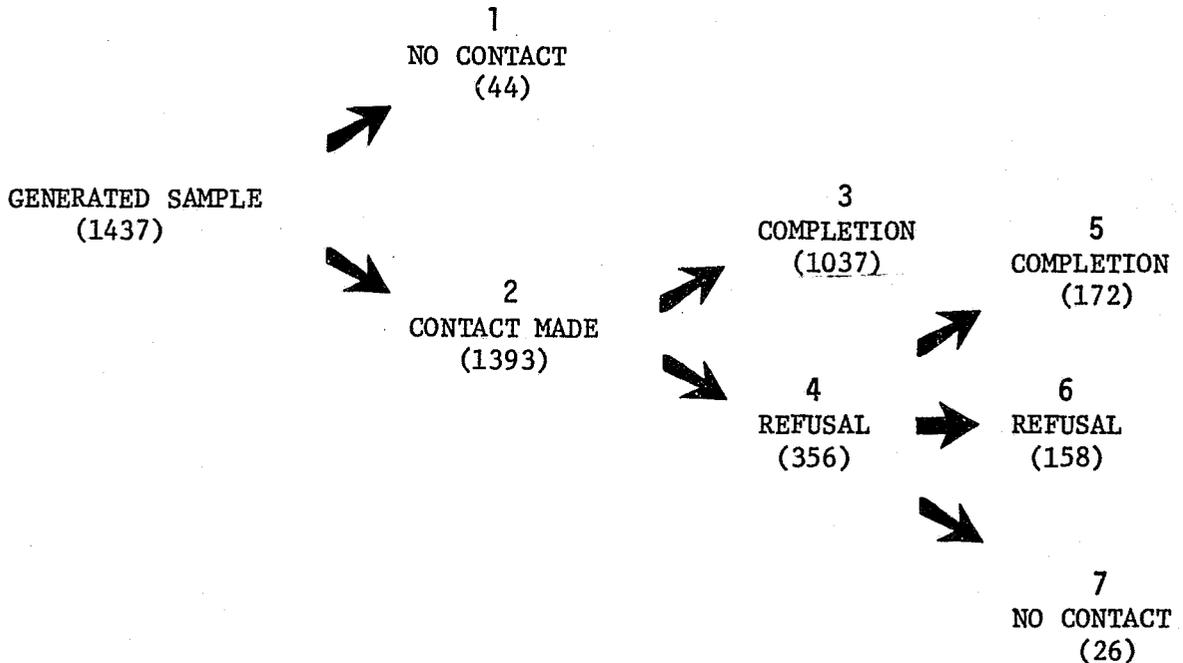
and the likelihood of response. However, the latter question is certainly less troublesome than the former, for at least we are in the position of being able to specify outer limits on the sample estimate by considering the extreme estimate as being the one derived by treating all refusers as if they had fallen into the "worst" possible cell in a table. Furthermore, it seems likely that the "peculiar" group of nonrespondents will be less concerned about the issues covered in the survey and more simply against the idea of being interviewed than the "peculiar" group of respondents--making it less likely that the relationship between response behavior and survey variables will be strong.

Of course, it is recognized that other factors, some of them extraneous, also play a role in the determination of who was interviewed on the first and second attempts. Variables such as the number of attempts resulting in no one at home, the times of day, day of week and other factors could be incorporated with information on refusal behavior in formulating a theory dealing with what might be called the phenomenon of telephone "availability." Such a theory would incorporate individual willingness to be interviewed with consideration of patterns of physical presence in the home in formulating the more general theory. This research addresses one important component of that multiple-dimensional phenomenon.

Figure 2 represents an attempt to illustrate the range of what occurred in the course of interview attempts in order to make clear exactly what is being compared in the analysis that follows. The numbers in parentheses refer to the number of cases within each category. Ideally, one would like to be in a position to compare groups 3 and 4. Unfortunately very little is known about group 4 except that they refused, at least once, to be interviewed. We attempt to approximate this comparison by comparing

FIGURE 2

THE PATH OF POSSIBLE INTERVIEW ATTEMPT OUTCOMES



group 3 with group 5 that was interviewed after having refused on the first attempt. We do not, of course know how groups 5 and 6 differ, but suspect that 5 is more like 6 than 3 is (group 5 having exhibited greater resistance than 3, although less than 6). On the basis of the comparison between groups 3 and 5 we may then consider the magnitude of the investment it is worth expending in order to obtain interviews from group 5. This comparison may also provide grounds for some speculation about the nature of group 6.

A logical question at this point that may occur to many readers is: if a primary concern is the worth of pursuing hard-to-reach (and hence expensive-to-reach) respondents, why not employ a measure of the number of calls required to reach a particular respondent and consider differences between respondents reached on different attempts? Such a suggestion is most relevant for face-to-face household surveys for which costs may be as

high as \$10 to \$20 for each unsuccessful attempt. Where expenses of this magnitude are incurred, this type of question is clearly important. However, for telephone surveys, the only expense incurred is the approximately one minute of an interviewer's time that it takes to dial and ascertain that there is no one at home. Thus, while it would be an important component of the general formulation of an "availability" theory, the number of calls required to find a respondent at home in a telephone survey simply is not germane to the question of expense given that this may be calculated at less than a dime per call.<sup>1</sup>

There are a number of limitations on the applicability of the materials presented. Important attributes of this study, which may or may not apply to others not having the same features, include the fact that the sample was exclusively urban (in fact entirely within the city limits of Chicago). Furthermore, the data are taken from a telephone survey and, while there is probably a great deal of overlap, there may be important differences between persons resistant to being interviewed over the phone and in person. In this vein, I have just noted the fact that in face-to-face interviewing the number of unsuccessful attempts to locate a respondent at home becomes a salient factor. To the extent that this is important, it confounds the generalization of these findings to survey research conducted in person. In addition, some of the differences found may be topic specific. Persons refusing are rejecting not only the generalized notion of being interviewed but also the specific stimulus presented by

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<sup>1</sup> It should be pointed out that in surveys where timeliness is an important consideration and rapid collection of data is mandatory, this may escalate into a paramount factor.

the way the interview's content was initially presented to them. (The respondents in this survey were told that the interview was about "how they feel about the problem of crime in Chicago and how the police are handling it.") Without a body of data to compare, it is impossible to extricate the topic specific resistance from the survey generalized resistance. Finally, it is worth reiterating that this study is limited in that it directly assesses the impact of the refusal rate only as it varies from 25% to 13%, or roughly as it goes from good to excellent.

Mindful of these restrictions, this paper addresses a topic of general applicability. The absence of generalized pronouncements reflects more the novelty of the approach than aspiration: there is simply too little else against which to gauge these data. Ultimately what is being addressed is an integral part of the question of what is required in order for us to place reasonable confidence in the results of a sample survey. Armed with this information, toward which this paper attempts to contribute, we will hopefully be able to assess the adequacy of standards such as the 80% figure for "valid survey results" that seems to be as unquestioned as it is arbitrary.

PART II  
MEANS OF ASSESSMENT

At this point it is appropriate to give consideration to the type of statistical approach which would best illuminate whatever differences are found to exist between amenable and resistant respondents. It should be evident that conventional measures of association such as Phi, V, Pearson's  $r$ , and Gamma, do not address themselves directly to the substantive questions being asked. We are not interested in predicting respondent behavior on the basis of the variables considered, nor do we expect to be able to do so with any great accuracy: the survey questionnaire simply was not designed to elicit the kind of social psychological information that would seem most likely to strongly predict this type of respondent behavior. Ideally, one would examine the likely impact of refusals by uncovering the important features of this underlying dimension and then assess the likely impact of refusals by examining the strength of the relationship between these traits and the variables of interest. Not having acquired such information (a massive undertaking in itself), our most expeditious approach is to consider the impact of such refusal behavior directly by examining whether it is sufficiently large to have distorted our estimates of variables of interest in a particular survey enough to matter. Conventional measures of association simply do not lend themselves to answering this question.

The best means available for assessing the importance of whatever differences are found between respondent groups is based upon the use of percentaged tables. The primary reason for this is that it is only in such a form that there is a direct conceptual link between the figures

calculated and the substantive questions addressed. It is only in this form that we may even begin to directly consider the crucial question of how large a difference will be taken as being large enough to matter. Clearly, this difference must be of sufficient magnitude that different conclusions might be drawn from the original estimate and the more refined one. The very nature of the question precludes an ad hominum judgment as to--in quantified terms--how large this difference must be. This will vary with the particular question being addressed, specifically as it affects the degree of precision required. A difference of 2% may or may not be of any consequence depending upon the particular study, or even the particular variables being examined within the same study. Such a judgment can also become a relative judgment, based upon a cost/benefit calculation of added precision vs. added extra cost. An analogous question would be that addressing the relative advisability of opting for a larger sample (and lower variance in sample estimates) with modest bias, or an unbiased (or less biased) sample with a larger variance. In either case, the decision will depend upon how much of each is involved and their relative importance in a particular case.

The form of the tabular presentation has been designed to make the relationships between respondent group and the other variables as clear as possible. In light of the type of analysis contemplated, tabular presentation based on subgroup percentages seemed most appropriate to do this. The general form of the tables is initially akin to that which one would expect to see in any traditional bivariate cross-tabulation. The rows are used to indicate the various categories of each of the demographic and other variables considered. The first column indicates the relative frequency found within the different values of the dependent variable for the orig-

inal "amenable" sample. (This may be represented as  $P_1$ ). The second column does the same for the "resistor" respondents ( $P_2$ ). The third column is used for the marginal totals of these two groups ( $P_{1+2}$ ). Columns one through three thus contain the usual information that is provided in tables of this sort.

The two remaining columns are computed directly from the information already given in the first three. They reflect the type of comparisons that will be made in the discussion of each of the variables considered. The fourth column contains the simple percentage difference between the final estimate and the original "amenable" estimate ( $P_{1+2} - P_1$ ). This will be referred to as the marginal percentage difference from the amenable or more simply as the "change in estimate." This figure indicates the magnitude of the change that occurs with the addition of the resistant respondents. However, the measure is problematic in that an increase in the estimate of one subgroup's proportion from 86% to 88% and another's from 2% to 4% would both show up in this column as 2%, a measure which does not reflect the possibly important fact that the second group doubled in estimated size. In order to reflect such an occurrence, an additional measure was devised to be used in conjunction with this one. This measure takes into account and standardizes by the size of the original amenable estimate. It is calculated by dividing the "change in estimate" (column 4) by the original ("amenable") estimate ( $(P_{1+2} - P_1) / P_1$ ). This measure will be referred to as the "refinement" of the original estimate. Together with the figure for the change in estimate it is designed to give a clearer picture of the magnitude of the difference than either measure could do

FIGURE 3  
FORM OF TABULAR PRESENTATION

<u>DEPENDENT VARIABLE</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN<sup>1</sup></u>	
	<u>AMENABLE%</u> (original estimate)	<u>RESISTOR%</u> (R's persuaded on second attempt)	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE%</u> (marginal)	<u>ESTIMATE</u> (marginal% difference from amenable %)	<u>REFINEMENT<sup>1</sup></u> (change in estimate as a proportion of original estimate)
1st Value	$P_1$	$P_2$	$P_{1+2}$	$P_{1+2}-P_1$	$\frac{P_{1+2}-P_1}{P_1}$
2nd Value	"	"	"	"	"
.					
.					
.					
.					
.					
Nth Value	"	"	"	"	"
	100.0% (± rounding errors)		100.0% (± rounding errors)		

<sup>1</sup> A positive number in these columns will be indicative of an increase in the estimated relative size of the particular group, while a negative number will indicate a decrease in that estimate.

by itself.<sup>1</sup>

Assessments of differences such as those considered in this paper are commonly made, at least in part, by means of tests of statistical significance. There are a number of problems connected with the use of such tests here. Some of these are related to the general critique of the use that has often been made of such tests. Others are peculiar to the particular manner in which these research questions have been formulated. Each of these sets of problems will be considered followed by a discussion of what is, in light of these, seen as the most appropriate role for tests of statistical significance to play in the interpretation of these data.

The literature is replete with criticism of the method in which significance tests have been employed. Selvin's (1957) is perhaps the classic statement on the subject, one which was met with a seemingly unending series of rebuttals, defenses, and qualifications. As much of the criticism is legitimate, it seems appropriate to briefly consider especially relevant features of the issues that have been raised. However, because the purpose of this discussion is to illuminate the use of significance tests in this paper, there will be no attempt to reconstruct, reiterate, or otherwise deal with the entirety of this hotly contested subject.

Perhaps the most frequently encountered problem in the use of significance tests lies in the overinterpretation of what statistically significant differences represent, primarily through the confusion of statistical and substantive significance. Winch and Campbell (1969) place the role

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<sup>1</sup> To avoid possible confusion, it should be noted that the figures derived for columns 4 and 5 were calculated from the raw frequencies rather than the percentages reported in the first and third columns. This was done in order to avoid rounding errors which would otherwise accrue and which could seriously compound in the calculation of the refinement measure.

of significance tests in perspective when they note nine threats to internal validity and six to external validity and observe that only one of these threats is addressed by a test of significance. (That one is "instability" which is defined as unreliability of measures and/or sampling variability). They cite this fact not to deny or demean the role of significance tests but only to illuminate their proper place: "The critical point is that the test of significance registers the degree to which there is any point in going about the task of excluding the other threats to validity." (Winch and Campbell, 1969:142). Clearly then, the actual use to which significance tests are put must be so circumscribed as to preclude such unwarranted usage. As this is the use for which the refinement and change in estimate measures have been devised, the temptation to make unwarranted assertions on the basis of tests of significance alone should be minimized.

Another problem frequently encountered is that by conventional usage, the attempt to employ significance tests to infer a population value from a sample often fails to meet necessary assumptions. Most frequently this violation is found in the failure to obtain a proper probability sample,<sup>1</sup> or even the attempt to use such tests when an entire universe has been selected. The broadest possible construction of this critique would indict

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<sup>1</sup> The application of significance tests that were constructed based upon an assumption of a simple random sample to samples that were obtained by other types of probability samples is another common misuse of significance tests. It differs in that this use consists merely in employing the wrong significance test, not in using significance tests in general. Such usage is most troublesome where cluster sampling has been undertaken, for such a design often results in considerably greater variances for sample estimates than would have been obtained for a simple random sample of the same size.

all survey research that endeavors to generalize to a population that includes missed elements (in other words, most survey research. This is because the presence of any measureable nonresponse technically violates the necessary requisite of a probability sample that all elements of a population be given a calculable nonzero probability of falling into the sample [persons who refuse have a zero probability of falling into a sample]). This, then, is a critique which could be applied to the employment of significance tests if they were used for these purposes, but only if one were then willing to apply a similar prohibition to nearly all survey research efforts (namely all of those that ultimately experienced a refusal rate as great or greater than that which was attained in this research--clearly the bulk of the academic survey research enterprise and probably an even higher proportion of commercial survey research).

Fortunately significance tests can be used in this analysis without necessitating recourse to these relatively stringent assumptions. In order to do this we need only assign them the less ambitious task delineated for them by Winch and Campbell. If one collects a set of observations:

If we assume the set to be homogeneous, what is the probability that dividing the set into two subsets on the basis of a variable of classification that makes no real difference would give a difference between subsample means as great as that observed? (Winch and Campbell, 1960:143)

Employing significance tests for this purpose one need not assume a probability sample, or for that matter any sort of sample at all, for their use is just as valid in dealing with an entire population. Technically, in order to invoke such a procedure it would be necessary to construct a significance test based upon randomization of the actual observations found, but the traditional tests of significance were found to be reasonable approximations of these. These approximations were attained while avoiding

the considerable extra expenditure of time and effort required in order to construct a new sampling distribution for each set of observations against which to gauge statistical significance.

Far more troubling for the usefulness of significance tests in this analysis is the problem posed by the necessity of reversing the traditional formulation of the null hypothesis due to the nature of the type of judgment that is conservative here. The usual employment of significance tests involves the probing of measured differences of two or more groups with respect to some variable on which the groups are initially presumed to be equivalent. Given this formulation of the problem, the null hypothesis that the groups are equivalent with respect to the variable in question must be rejected before the assertion that the hypothesized difference exists can be made. In tests so formulated, the conservative thing to do is to continue to believe that there is no difference between the groups until such time as there is clear demonstration that there are differences that would occur by chance very rarely. The form of the tests may allow one to announce that he has "failed to disconfirm the (hypothesized) similarity" between the groups but not that he has proven that they are equivalent. This feature of tests of significance renders them less useful when the "safer" thing to do in the event of uncertainty is to assume that the groups are not equivalent until it has been firmly demonstrated otherwise. Significance tests are simply not designed to do this.

This is precisely the position we are in here. A definitive finding of "no difference" between amenable and resistant respondents is license to avoid the time, expense, and trouble of pursuing recalcitrant respondents. Clearly the "cost" in accuracy of the type of error such an assumption would permit, if it turned out to be false, could potentially be too

great to allow. For this reason the null hypothesis must be that the respondent groups differ. We may consider them the same only after the most exhaustive possible search for evidence that they are different has proven unsuccessful. Unfortunately, we still can never prove equivalence, but can only bend over backwards to find evidence of differences in order to make the assertion of equivalence more plausible.

The central problematic, then, is that tests of statistical significance are simply not designed to deal with a null hypothesis in this form. A null hypothesis in the form "Group A is equivalent to Group B" or one in the form "Group A has a value 5 units larger than Group B" is directly testable. However, there are no guidelines for assessing a null hypothesis in the form "Group A and Group B are different from one another." The question that naturally arises in light of this is: of what use are tests of statistical significance given such a formulation of the problem?

The logic of Winch and Campbell's argument suggested the role of significance tests as follows:

The establishment of a statistically significant difference goes but one step toward establishing an interpretation of that difference. That step is to exclude the hypothesis of chance. (Winch and Campbell, 1969:143)

It is suggested that the form of the null hypothesis makes the appropriate role of significance tests in this analysis somewhat less strong than that of excluding the possibility of chance. Merely it is only to derive our "best guess" as to how often we will allow ourselves to be wrong if we act as if we had excluded that possibility. For this purpose, a test of significance is still ideally suited. Used in this manner, a test of significance becomes a descriptive tool to be used in conjunction with other information in assessing differences found. This descriptive function suggests the advisability of dispensing with pre-established arbitrarily

selected levels of significance as absolute cutoff points for the consideration of a given relationship. For this reason, there will be no assertions that differences that would occur 4.99 times out of a hundred are "significant" while others that are calculated as being likely to occur by chance 5.03 times in a hundred are referenced simply as "not significant." The descriptive function makes it appropriate to provide the reader with the actual figures derived instead of a simple indication of whether the computed probability is greater or lesser than a particular proportion.

The explicit intention of this form of presentation is to connote a less "all or nothing" view of the evidence, one more akin to the probabilistic notions implied by confidence intervals. These probably represent a more useful way of thinking of such probabilities anyway. The only real danger from this form of presentation is that there may be an intimation of too much exactitude in the use of such nonround numbers as will be generated. A significance level of .13 may sound misleadingly precise. As with all computations of this sort, this is only a derivation from the particular data set. As such, its precision is no greater than an assertion that the significance level is greater than or less than any previously established point. Hopefully, a caution to this effect (one may read in such a caution here) will suffice to dispel such a notion. A computed significance level of .13 is merely our "best guess" of the probability of occurrence by chance that has been computed from a particular data set.

In sum, what is suggested is that in this analysis, it is appropriate that significance tests play an even more highly circumscribed role than that suggested by Winch and Campbell. As an essentially descriptive tool,

significance tests are to be used as but one criterion of substantive meaningfulness which is appropriately considered along with other information in a search for patterns. It is also suggested that the reversal of the form of the null hypothesis makes it advisable to dispense with evaluation on the basis of preset levels of "significance". Furthermore, in the interpretation of the calculated probabilities, consideration of the constituents of a "conservative" approach makes a much less stringent assessment of the probability that an observed difference occurred by chance appropriate before attention need be paid to it.

In the course of examining the relations between the respondent group and the other variables, the appropriate measure of association (V, Phi, Gamma, or Pearson's  $r$ ) will be reported in addition to the methods of elaboration just discussed. For reasons noted at the beginning of this section these are not the most appropriate statistics to be used in conducting the type of analysis undertaken here. However, reporting these statistics in addition to the other means elaborated costs very little, is seen as traditional, and--although not central--also enlightens slightly the rest of the discussion. It should be noted that these statistics, as well as the significance tests, are based on the differences between the amenable and the resistor groups while the other figures computed (the "change in estimate" figure and the "refinement" measure) are based upon the differences between the amenable group and the entire sample. The discussion which follows will, due to the nature of the questions addressed, focus upon these smaller differences.

PART III  
THE FINDINGS

Variables will be examined in accordance with the procedure set forth in the section just concluded. The first variables to be considered will consist of the entire range of the traditionally important demographic variables. These are the variables with the most general relevance because their potential impact may be evidenced in nearly any survey. However, it is quite possible for respondent resistance to have an impact in such a manner that the demographic breakdowns will remain essentially unaltered while dramatic changes have occurred in the substantive responses. In order to dutifully take note of this possibility, all of the substantive questions asked in this survey have been examined and a subset which includes questions taken from each of the primary foci of the study will be reported here.

The first variables to be considered consist of those usually considered as comprising socioeconomic status (SES). Two variables for occupation will be considered, followed by consideration of education and income. This will be followed by an examination of ethno-religious affiliation as indicated by separate measures of race, ethnicity and religion.

Familial variables will be dealt with next. These consist of measures of age, sex, marital status, and whether or not minor children are present in the household. Age, sex, and--to some extent--marital status differ from most of the other demographic variables in that measures of them depend in large part on selection within the household. The final principal set of demographic variables to be considered are those that pertain to housing: the proportion of single vs. multi-family dwellings and owner vs.

renter-occupied dwellings are examined.

Non-demographic variables to be considered are taken from seven questions which represent the broadest possible range of questions covered in the survey. Because of its crucial role in interpreting findings, the exact question wording will be reported as part of the tables presented for each of these variables.<sup>1</sup> The seven questions reported on deal with four broad areas: community organization participation, perceptions of crime, perceptions of the police, and crime reporting behavior.

A single question will be considered that deals with community organization participation. That question asked simply: "Have you ever taken part in the activities of either a block or community organization in your neighborhood?" The first of the two questions relating to perceptions of crime asked the classic question about the respondent's fear with respect to walking in his neighborhood at night. The second asked about perceptions of crime rate trends in Chicago over the last few years.

There were two "perceptions of police" questions in the survey that will be considered here. The first asked the respondent to assess the job the Chicago police are doing. The second requested an opinion about police ability to effectively intervene in family fights.

Finally, two questions were addressed about crime reporting behavior that will be considered. The first query concerned the respondent's prior actual experience in calling the police. The second was hypothetical: it asked the respondent to assess what he thought he would do in a specific

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<sup>1</sup> Of course, this information is just as important for the demographic variables. However, these questions were kept as standard as possible and, in any case, the exact question wordings for these questions are also available by consulting the appended interview schedule.

situation that was described to him.

These variables will be considered in the order indicated.

### Socioeconomic Status

Two separate variables will be considered that deal with occupation. The first of the two occupation variables is based upon the occupation of the respondent. The second reflects a follow-up question that was asked of respondents who indicated their occupation as either "housewife" or "student." Housewives were asked the occupation of their husbands while students were asked the occupation of their fathers (their mother's occupation was recorded if their father was deceased). These were coded in lieu of the respondent's occupation in the construction of the second variable (the respondent's occupation was coded for all individuals other than housewives and students for both variables). The purpose of the second variable was to take cognizance of the fact that one's occupation affects not only the nature of one's own work experience, but also social status. This impact on social status is evident upon members of the family other than household head. Likewise, the nature of the work experience of a member or one's immediate family may have a vicarious effect on attitudes. This second occupation variable is intended to reflect, for example, whatever differences there may be between the housewife spouse of a doctor and the housewife spouse of a manual laborer.

The occupation variables were originally coded into one of 43 categories. Because these clearly represented too great a number for meaning-

ful analysis, they were collapsed into the following eleven categories: professionals, nonprofessional executives, clerical workers, skilled craftsmen, operatives and semi-skilled workers, unskilled laborers, service workers except protective, protective service workers,<sup>1</sup> high school students, college and graduate students, and housewives. The last three categories were, by definition, excluded from the "family occupation" variable.

The differences in occupation between amenable and resistant respondents were highly significant as measured by a chi-square test (chi square of 23.11 with 10 degrees of freedom is significant at the .01 level). This indicates that differences in occupational classification as great as those actually found to exist would almost never occur purely by chance unless the variable of classification (in this case the "amenability" of the respondent) had a real impact. Whether or not such a finding is spurious may be further examined by looking at patterns of consistency between the various occupational categories employed.<sup>2</sup> Such an examination yields some further support for the assertion that the differences found are real. All three white collar occupational categories diminished in their relative contribution to the overall sample when the resistant respondents were added to it (although for one of these groups--clerical workers--the decrease was clearly infinitesimal). At the same time, four of the five blue collar worker groups increased. The pattern for college and graduate students, as one would expect, paralleled those of the white collar professionals and executives. Trends among the high school students more closely

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<sup>1</sup> Protective service workers warranted a classification separate from other service workers because of the nature of the questionnaire's content.

<sup>2</sup> This and other means of assessing the importance of statistically significant differences have been suggested by Gold (1969).

TABLE 6

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENT'S OCCUPATION BY RESPONDENT GROUP

<u>OCCUPATION</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN</u>	
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>	<u>ESTIMATE</u>	<u>REFINEMENT</u>
Professionals	16.1% (159)	7.8% (13)	14.9% (172)	-1.2%	-7.4%
Non Professional Executives	10.5% (104)	8.4% (14)	10.2% (118)	-0.3%	-2.9%
Clerical Workers	20.3% (201)	19.9% (33)	20.3% (234)	-0.1%	-0.3%
Skilled Craftsmen	8.8% (87)	15.1% (25)	9.7% (112)	0.9%	10.2%
Operatives, Semi-Skilled Workers	7.9% (78)	7.2% (12)	7.8% (90)	-0.1%	-1.2%
Unskilled Laborers	3.2% (32)	3.6% (6)	3.3% (38)	0.1%	1.7%
Service Workers	6.4% (63)	7.8% (13)	6.6% (76)	0.2%	3.3%
Protective Service Workers	2.0% (20)	2.4% (4)	2.1% (24)	0.1%	2.8%
High School Students	3.0% (30)	7.2% (12)	3.6% (42)	0.6%	19.9%
College or Graduate Students	3.6% (36)	1.2% (2)	3.3% (38)	-0.4%	-9.6%
Housewives	18.1% (179)	19.3% (32)	18.3% (211)	0.2%	0.9%
	99.9% (989)	99.9% (166)	100.1% (1155)		

Chi Square = 23.11

df = 10

Significance level = 0.01

V = .141

approximated those of the blue collar workers, although as will be discussed, this is much more difficult to interpret.

The foregoing does not, of course, address the question of how large or substantively important such differences are, but does make that a meaningful question to consider. In order to assess this I will first look at the relative distribution of various occupations in the original amenable sample and compare it with the final estimates which include the resistant respondents. This difference is referred to as the "change in estimate" and is reported in column 4. These comparisons yield differences which are not very large at all; the greatest difference is a 1.2% decrease for professionals resulting from the inclusion of the resisters into the sample interviewed. The largest increase for any group was that attained by skilled craftsmen who increased their overall proportion by a mere .9%. A careful consideration of the more liberal "refinement" measure does not lead us to alter the overall conclusion that the differences found are rather small. The largest increase in this measure (which is based on the marginal percentage difference just discussed as a proportion of the original estimate) is an increase of 19.9% for high school students. This measure is reflective of an actual percentage increase from 3.0% to 3.6%. For a study with a highly specialized interest, such as an exploration of youth attitudes or consumption patterns, a difference of this magnitude might have substantive importance. However, it seems doubtful that in any general purpose survey, that this would be the case. In any event, two factors cast doubt on the practical import of this finding. The first is that this difference seems at least as likely to reflect a within-the-household selection bias as a difference in the households from which interviews were obtained. This is because nearly all high school students

live with their parents and no attempt was made in this survey to randomize selection within households. In a survey with a focus specialized enough to render a difference of this magnitude important, an attempt to exert greater control over selection within the household would have been more appropriate. The second reason to doubt the practical significance of this finding is that the absolute number of cases involved is sufficiently small to leave open the possibility for random sampling variability to have had a demonstrable impact. Together these two considerations severely constrain the drawing of inferences from the 19.9% refinement figure for the proportion of high school students in the sample.

The other differences are even more modest. The largest of these is a 10.2% increase in the estimate for skilled craftsmen, which represents an increase in their estimated proportion in the population from 8.8% to 9.7%. Even the use of this more sensitive indicator of changes does not reveal overly large differences. The magnitude of the remaining differences, all of which are smaller than those mentioned, may be found in the fifth column of Table 6.

The examination of the family occupation variable adds very little to the foregoing discussion. The redistribution of students and housewives according to the occupation of the head of household does little to change the substantive interpretations of the patterns of occupational distribution between the two different categories of respondents. The overall statistical significance is reduced (a chi square of 11.31 with 7 degrees of freedom is only significant at the .13 level), but the sole "deviant" blue collar occupational category, the semi-skilled operatives, become consistent with the other workers. All other occupational patterns persist in the same direction. This makes the earlier observation about the in-

TABLE 7

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILY OCCUPATION BY RESPONDENT GROUP

<u>FAMILY OCCUPATION</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN ESTIMATE</u>	<u>REFINEMENT</u>
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>		
Professionals	20.6% (192)	11.6% (18)	19.3% (210)	-1.3%	-6.2%
Non Professional Executives	14.4% (134)	11.6% (18)	14.0% (152)	-0.4%	-2.7%
Clerical Workers	22.7% (212)	22.6% (35)	22.7% (247)	-0.0%	-0.1%
Skilled Craftsmen	13.8% (129)	20.0% (31)	14.7% (160)	0.9%	6.4%
Operatives, Semi- Skilled Workers	12.8% (119)	14.8% (23)	13.1% (142)	0.3%	2.3%
Unskilled Laborers	5.1% (48)	5.8% (9)	5.2% (57)	0.1%	1.8%
Service Workers	7.7% (72)	9.7% (15)	8.0% (87)	0.3%	3.6%
Protective Service Workers	2.9% (27)	3.9% (6)	3.0% (33)	0.1%	4.8%
	100.0% (933)	100.0% (155)	100.0% (1088)		

Chi Square = 11.31

df = 7

Significance level = .13

V = .102

sensitivity of the chi-square test to patterns of distributions of variables of even greater consequence here. The significance level in itself is less persuasive, but there are no longer any inexplicably deviant categories: all the white collar occupations demonstrate one tendency, while all the blue collar ones demonstrate an opposite effect.

The conclusions about the magnitude of the effect for the family occupation variable are essentially the same as was the case for the variable based on respondents' occupation. The absolute differences between the estimates generated by the amenable sample and the final sample are slightly greater, but when these differences are expressed as a proportion of the original (amenable) estimate they are actually smaller than was the case for the respondents' occupation. In any event, the differences found for the family occupation and those found for the respondents' occupation differ by only an infinitesimal degree, which should not be surprising since 75% of the cases were coded exactly the same for both variables. Thus they indicate only that there are no totally overwhelming differences between household head and other respondents within the same household with respect to inclination to consent to be interviewed.

Finally, it is worth noting that the measurement of the variable constructed to indicate occupation is more troublesome than most. Classification into occupational categories is at best an approximate and sometimes an arbitrary one. Furthermore, necessary distinctions must be made by a coder rather than the respondent (for good reasons), occasionally on the basis of sketchy information. Any non-systematic inaccuracies that result from this process should reduce the associations that are subsequently found to exist between this and other variables (Gold, 1969:43). This fact should allow us to place somewhat greater confidence in the validity

of the very modest relationships that were found to exist.

The next variables to be considered will be income and education. Each of these was measured at the ordinal level on the basis of the respondents' indication of one of five (for income) or six (for education) previously established response categories. (Actually, as the alert reader will have noticed, the education question was worded more freely: "What was the last grade of school that you completed?" This was subsequently placed by interviewers into one of the six precoded response categories.) Along with the occupation variable just considered, these complete the SES trilogy (consisting of education, occupation, and income) often considered to be a basic construct because of its predictive capacity in much sociological work.

A preliminary examination of the income variable would seem to discount it as a characteristic distinguishing amenable and resistant respondents. This is because the computed chi square of 4.84 with four degrees of freedom is only significant at the .30 level which indicates that for the income variable, a distribution between categories as different as that actually encountered would occur purely by chance nearly one time in three. However, because income was measured at the ordinal level and the chi-square test is only sensitive to differences at the nominal level, the application of this test to these data is not sufficiently sensitive to monotonic patterns of differences. The test fails to account for the fact that differences, although certainly modest, are at least internally consistent--that each lower income category (below \$10,000) is disproportionately represented among the resistors while each higher income category (over \$10,000) is overrepresented among the amenable respondents. In order to take account of this pattern, a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was performed from which a sig-

TABLE 8  
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILY INCOME BY RESPONDENT GROUP

<u>FAMILY INCOME</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN ESTIMATE</u>	<u>REFINEMENT</u>
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>		
Less than \$3,000	9.5% (84)	11.0% (16)	9.7% (100)	0.2%	2.1%
\$3,000 to \$6,000	13.2% (116)	17.1% (25)	13.7% (141)	0.6%	4.3%
\$6,000 to \$10,000	21.9% (193)	26.0% (38)	22.5% (231)	0.6%	2.7%
\$10,000 to \$15,000	25.5% (225)	21.9% (32)	25.0% (257)	-0.5%	-2.0%
over \$15,000	29.9% (264)	24.0% (35)	29.1% (299)	-0.8%	-2.8%
	100.0% (882)	100.0% (146)	100.0% (1028)		

Chi Square = 4.84

df = 4

Significance level = .30

Kolmogorov-Smirnov significance level = .20

Gamma = -.128

nificance level of .20 was computed. This leaves us in an even more ambiguous situation--one for which no definitive conclusion is possible. Differences as great as those found could occur by chance one time in five so we cannot place great confidence in the validity of the assertion that differences exist on this score, even apart from other threats to validity. On the other hand, given the implications of such a judgment in this research, a declaration of "no difference between groups" when the evidence is ambiguous is not consistent with a sound approach either. The best we can do in this situation is to note the ambiguity and to acknowledge also the very small magnitude of the changes brought about by the inclusion of the resistant respondents: each change in estimate was under 1%, and the largest refinement was 4.3%

The breakdown of the educational level attained by the two groups of respondents reveals patterns consistent with those which have been found for occupation and income. The significance level of this difference was .02 (chi square = 13.91 with 5 degrees of freedom). This is enhanced by the consistency found in this ordinally measured variable: each of the three lower educational levels experienced an increase proportion with the addition of the resistant respondents, while each of the three highest groups experienced a decline. This consistency yielded a Kolmogorov-Smirnov significance level of .01 and a gamma of .21. The turning point was whether or not the respondent had attended some college (this put 41.2% of the total sample above and 58.8% below this break). However a brief glance at the change in estimate and refinement columns of Table 9 will reveal that the differences are very small indeed. No percent difference in the final estimate exceeded 1%. Likewise, the absolute value of the largest refinement of the original estimate was 8.0% which represented a change in the

TABLE 9

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF EDUCATION BY RESPONDENT GROUP

<u>EDUCATION</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN ESTIMATE REFINEMENT</u>	
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>		
Grammar School or less (1-8)	10.0% (103)	13.8% (23)	10.5% (126)	0.5%	5.3%
Some High School (9-11)	17.8% (183)	24.0% (40)	18.6% (223)	0.9%	4.9%
High School Graduate	29.2% (301)	32.3% (54)	29.7% (355)	0.4%	1.5%
Some College	23.5% (242)	20.4% (34)	23.1% (276)	-0.4%	-1.5%
College Degree	11.1% (114)	6.0% (10)	10.4% (124)	-0.7%	-6.4%
Graduate Work	8.4% (87)	3.6% (6)	7.8% (93)	-0.7%	-8.0%
	100.0% (1030)	100.1% (167)	100.1% (1197)		

Chi Square = 13.91

df = 5

Significance level = .02

Kolmogorov-Smirnov significance level = .01

Gamma = -.21

estimate of those with graduate work from 8.4% to 7.8%. It is doubtful that these differences would have much importance in any general purpose social survey.

### Ethno-Religious Affiliation

By treating the eight Orientals and one American Indian in the sample as missing values (because their small numbers made generalization impossible) race could be considered a dichotomous variable. As a variable differentiating whites from blacks, race was highly significant ( $p = .002$ ). The change in the estimate was 1.8%<sup>1</sup> representing an increase in the proportion of whites among the resistant respondents. The refinement produced by this change in estimate was necessarily somewhat larger for blacks than whites, reflecting their smaller numbers in the population (and the original sample) and the resultant smaller base of the measure. The refinement for blacks was thus -4.7% while for whites it was 3.0%. While these figures are not overwhelming, their importance is augmented by the high degree of salience of race in many general purpose surveys as well as those of special focus.

For the subsample of whites, the race variable could be further broken down and examined in terms of ethnicity. This was measured by responses to the question "What foreign country would you say that most of your ancestors come from?" In order to make comparisons meaningful, ethnic groups representing less than 4% of the sample had to be excluded from these comparisons. This was not as severe a restriction as it might first

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<sup>1</sup> When the variable considered is dichotomous, the change in estimate figures for both categories will necessarily be equivalent, differing only in sign.

TABLE 10

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RACE BY RESPONDENT GROUP

<u>RACE</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN</u>	
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>	<u>ESTIMATE</u>	<u>REFINEMENT</u>
White	60.9% (624)	73.8% (124)	62.7% (748)	1.8%	3.0%
Black	39.1% (401)	26.2% (44)	37.3% (445)	-1.8%	-4.7%
	100.0% (1025)	100.0% (168)	100.0% (1193)		

Chi Square = 9.78

df = 1

Significance level = .002

r = -.09

TABLE 11

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ETHNICITY BY RESPONDENT GROUP

<u>ETHNICITY</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN</u>	
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>	<u>ESTIMATE</u>	<u>REFINEMENT</u>
Black Africa	48.3% (401)	32.8% (44)	46.2% (445)	-2.2%	-4.5%
Germany	14.5% (120)	21.6% (29)	15.5% (149)	1.0%	6.9%
Ireland	8.6% (71)	11.9% (16)	9.0% (87)	0.5%	5.5%
Italy	6.9% (57)	6.0% (8)	6.7% (65)	-0.1%	-1.8%
Poland	9.4% (78)	18.7% (25)	10.7% (103)	1.3%	13.7%
Scandanavia	5.3% (44)	2.2% (3)	4.9% (47)	-0.4%	-8.0%
Britain	7.1% (59)	6.7% (9)	7.1% (68)	-0.1	-0.8%
	100.1% (830)	99.9% (134)	100.1% (964)		

Chi Square = 22.94

df = 6

Significance level = .0008

V = .15

TABLE 12

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RELIGION BY RESPONDENT GROUP

<u>RELIGION</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN</u>	
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>	<u>ESTIMATE</u>	<u>REFINEMENT</u>
Catholic	36.0% (369)	42.6% (72)	36.9% (441)	0.9%	2.6%
Protestant	40.2% (412)	37.9% (64)	39.8% (476)	-0.3%	-0.8%
Jewish	5.5% (56)	5.9% (10)	5.5% (66)	0.1%	1.2%
Other	6.8% (70)	5.9% (10)	6.7% (80)	-0.1%	-1.9%
None	11.6% (119)	7.7% (13)	11.0% (132)	-0.6%	-4.8%
	100.1% (1026)	100.0% (169)	99.9% (1195)		

Chi Square = 4.16

df = 4

Significance level = .38

V = .059

appear; only 11.7% of non-missing cases were excluded due to insufficient size. Comparisons can be made between persons whose origins can be traced to black Africa, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Poland, Scandanavia, and Britain. The relationship between country of ancestry and respondent group was found to be highly significant ( $p = .0008$ ). However, it is difficult to assess a comprehensible pattern between the various countries of ancestral origin. The addition of resistant respondents to the sample increased the proportion of Polish, German, and Irish persons while decreasing blacks and Scandanavians (British and Italians also declined although by a negligible amount). Religion might be thought to be a relevant factor, but this does not prove to be the case. Table 12, which deals with religion, reveals very slight changes and a significance level of only .38. This would not seem to be the crucial explanatory predictor. Apart from this, it is worth noting the size of the refinement for Polish respondents. This was 13.7%, the largest figure yet seen (apart from that for high school students, a figure beset with complications that were noted). The figure is still short of overwhelming, but is well worth noting. Other figures for ethnicity are reported in Table 11.

#### Familial Variables

The consideration of the age variable presents the same problem in interpretation as was encountered for high school students in the consideration of occupation. Age, like occupation, is a variable that is dependent upon the selection of a particular respondent within the household. Table 13 reveals an increase, as we would expect, in the proportion of individuals nineteen years or less which parallels the one we have already noted for high school students. Aside from this category, the distribution of ages

TABLE 13

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF AGE BY RESPONDENT GROUP

<u>AGE</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN</u>	
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>	<u>ESTIMATE</u>	<u>REFINEMENT</u>
19 years or less	5.6% (56)	7.4% (12)	5.9% (68)	0.2%	4.4%
20 to 24 years	11.3% (112)	8.0% (13)	10.8% (125)	-0.5%	-4.1%
25 to 34 years	30.0% (298)	20.4% (33)	28.7% (331)	-1.4%	-4.5%
35 to 44 years	15.5% (154)	13.6% (22)	15.3% (176)	-0.3%	-1.8%
45 to 54 years	13.8% (137)	18.5% (30)	14.5% (167)	0.7%	4.8%
55 to 59 years	6.8% (67)	4.3% (7)	6.4% (74)	-0.3%	-5.1%
60 to 64 years	5.7% (57)	8.0% (13)	6.1% (70)	0.3%	5.6%
65 to 74 years	8.6% (85)	14.8% (24)	9.4% (109)	0.9%	10.2%
75 years and over	2.6% (26)	4.9% (8)	2.9% (34)	0.3%	12.4%
	99.9% (992)	99.9% (162)	100.0% (1154)		

Chi Square = 19.89

df = 8

Significance level = .01

Kolmogorov-Smirnov significance level = .01

Gamma = .161

r (using ungrouped age) = .09

between respondent groups reveals that older respondents tend to be disproportionately found among the resisters while younger respondents are more among the amenable with the cutoff point occurring somewhere in the 50's. The trend is not perfect for every category, but is unmistakable. Significance tests, computed separately by a chi-square test and a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test each yield a significance level of .01, indicating that it is grossly improbable that a distribution of this sort could have occurred by chance. The tendency is strongest for individuals in the two categories over 65 years of age. The refinement measures were 10.2% and 12.4% for the 65 to 74 years and the 75 years and over categories respectively.

Two other familial variables dependent to some extent upon the specific selection of a respondent within the household did not reveal any differences whatever between respondent groups. Sex and marital status had computed significance levels of .97 and .99 respectively. These clearly indicate that these rather trivial differences that were present between respondent groups with respect to these variables may be attributed entirely to random fluctuation. These are reported in Tables 14 and 15.

The variable measuring the presence of minor children in the household revealed differences between respondent groups that were significant at the .04 level. Resisters were less likely to have children present in the household perhaps due to the increased likelihood that they were over 60 years of age. However the change in estimate was only 1.3% and the refinement estimates only -2.7% and 2.4% so the magnitude of the change was not great.

#### Housing Variables

The final demographic variables to be considered are related to housing.

TABLE 14

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SEX BY RESPONDENT GROUP

<u>SEX</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN ESTIMATE</u>	<u>REFINEMENT</u>
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>		
Male	37.0% (384)	36.8% (63)	37.0% (447)	-0.0%	-0.1%
Female	63.0% (653)	63.2% (108)	63.0% (761)	0.0%	0.0%
	100.0% (1037)	100.0% (171)	100.0% (1208)		

Chi Square = .001

df = 1

Significance level = .97

r = .001

TABLE 15

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MARITAL STATUS BY RESPONDENT GROUP

<u>MARITAL STATUS</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN ESTIMATE</u>	<u>REFINEMENT</u>
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>		
Married	51.9% (530)	51.5% (86)	51.9% (616)	-0.1%	-0.1%
Single, Separated or Divorced	48.1% (491)	48.5% (81)	48.1% (572)	0.1%	0.1%
	100.0% (1021)	100.0% (167)	100.0% (1188)		

Chi Square = .000

df = 1

Significance level = .99

r = .003

TABLE 16

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PRESENCE OF CHILDREN IN HOUSEHOLD BY  
RESPONDENT GROUP

<u>PRESENCE OF CHILDREN</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN ESTIMATE</u>	
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>	<u>REFINEMENT</u>	
Children Present in Household	47.4% (489)	38.5% (65)	46.2% (554)	-1.3%	-2.7%
No Children Present in Household	52.6% (542)	61.5% (104)	53.8% (646)	1.3%	2.4%
	100.0% (1031)	100.0% (169)	100.0% (1200)		

Chi Square = 4.35

df = 1

Significance level = .04

r = .06

TABLE 17

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF TYPE OF DWELLING BY RESPONDENT GROUP

<u>TYPE OF DWELLING</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN ESTIMATE</u>	
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>	<u>REFINEMENT</u>	
Single Family House	37.1% (384)	44.1% (75)	38.1% (459)	1.0%	2.7%
Multi-family Dwelling	62.9% (650)	55.9% (95)	61.9% (745)	-1.0%	-1.6%
	100.0% (1034)	100.0% (170)	100.0% (1204)		

Chi Square = 2.727

df = 1

Significance level = .09

r = -.05

These are based upon measures of type of dwelling (single vs. multi-family) and owner vs. renter occupancies. Figures are reported in Tables 17 and 18. Resistors were more likely to live in a single family home and either own it or be in the process of purchasing it. However, despite significance levels small enough to render implausible attribution to chance ( $p = .09$  and  $.03$  respectively), the magnitude of the changes were modest. The largest refinement was for the estimate of the proportion owning or buying a home and this was only 3.2%. Other measures were smaller but of the same order of magnitude.

#### Non-Demographic Variables

A highly significant ( $p = .001$ ) but modest difference was evident in the estimate of community organization activity on the part of amenable and resistant respondents. Resistors were less likely to report participating in the activities of either a block or community organization in their neighborhood (interviewers were instructed to employ a very broad construction of the definition of such an organization such that it needn't have been formalized in order to be included). However, the change in the final estimate was only 1.9% and the refinement measures were -5.1% and 3.0% for participants and non-participants respectively.

Responses to two questions dealing with perceptions of crime will be considered. Responses to one of these did not produce significant differences between the two respondent groups. This question dealt with the respondent's fear with respect to walking around in his neighborhood after dark ( $p = .76$ , Table 20). The other perception of crime question asked the respondent to assess whether crime in the city of Chicago has gotten worse, stayed the same, or lessened in the past year or so. The significance level for the variable derived from this question was in the ambig-

TABLE 18

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF OWNER OCCUPANCY BY RESPONDENT GROUP

<u>OWNER OCCUPANCY</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN ESTIMATE</u>	<u>REFINEMENT</u>
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>		
Rent	61.0% (631)	52.1% (88)	59.8% (719)	-1.3%	-2.1%
Own or Buying	39.0% (403)	47.9% (81)	40.2% (484)	1.3%	3.2%
	100.0% (1034)	100.0% (169)	100.0% (1203)		

Chi Square = 4.478

df = 1

Significance level = .03

r = .06

TABLE 19

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

ACTIVITY BY RESPONDENT GROUP

(Question 34) Have you ever taken part in the activities of either a block or community organization in your neighborhood?

<u>COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION ACTIVITY</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN ESTIMATE</u>	<u>REFINEMENT</u>
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>		
Yes, Have Participated in Community Organization Activity	37.2% (385)	24.0% (41)	35.4% (426)	-1.9%	-5.1%
No, Have Not Participated	62.8% (649)	76.0% (130)	64.6% (779)	1.9%	3.0%
	100.0% (1034)	100.0% (171)	100.0% (1205)		

Chi Square = 10.71

df = 1

Significance level = .001

r = .09

TABLE 20

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FEAR OF WALKING IN NEIGHBORHOOD

AT NIGHT BY RESPONDENT GROUP

(Question 9) If you wanted to go for a walk around your neighborhood after dark, would you be nervous or afraid about it?

RESPONDENT GROUP

<u>PRESENCE OF FEAR</u>	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>	<u>CHANGE IN ESTIMATE</u>	<u>REFINEMENT</u>
Nervous or Afraid	57.7% (595)	56.1% (96)	57.5% (691)	-0.2%	-0.4%
Not Nervous or Afraid	42.3% (436)	43.9% (75)	42.5% (511)	0.2%	0.5%
	100.0% (1031)	100.0% (171)	100.0% (1202)		

Chi Square = .09

df = 1

Significance level = .76

r = .01

TABLE 21

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENT'S ESTIMATION OF CHICAGO

CRIME TRENDS BY RESPONDENT GROUP

(Question 2) Thinking back over the past year or so, do you think that the crime problem has gotten worse in Chicago, that it's about the same, or that there's less crime now than a few years back?

<u>PERCEPTION OF CHICAGO CRIME TRENDS</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN ESTIMATE REFINEMENT</u>	
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>		
Crime Has Gotten Worse	74.7% (745)	68.8% (110)	73.9% (855)	-0.8%	-1.1%
Stayed the Same	18.2% (181)	19.4% (31)	18.3% (212)	0.2%	2.1%
Less Crime Now	7.1% (71)	11.9% (19)	7.8% (90)	0.7%	9.2%
	100.0% (997)	100.1% (160)	100.0% (1157)		

Chi Square = 4.78

df = 2

Significance level = .09

Kolmogorov-Smirnov significance level = .71

Gamma = .15

ous range ( $p = .09$ , Table 21) with an apparent but very slight tendency for resisters to rate the crime problem as either stable or diminishing. However, this trend was so small that the significance level computed employing the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test which is designed to be sensitive to such ordinal changes, actually indicated a non-significance difference ( $p = .71$ ).

No trend between respondent groups was discernible with respect to the assessments given of overall police performance in Chicago. A chi-square test yielded a significance level of .13, but the lack of an ordinal relationship in this ordinally measured variable suggests that this is probably spurious. Resisters were overrepresented in the "excellent" and "only fair" categories where amenable were more prevalent in the "pretty good" and "poor" categories. This lack of a consistent ordinal pattern was reflected in the Kolmogorov-Smirnov significance level of only .64. The full consideration of all of the available evidence would seem to suggest that there are no substantively important distinctions to be made between respondent groups with respect to this variable.

The other question addressing the adequacy of police performance solicited a judgment about the efficacy of the police in doing something about violent family fights. This variable evidenced differences between respondent groups that were highly significant ( $p = .0000$ ). Resistant respondents were more likely to indicate that they felt, for whatever reason, that the police are unable to successfully intervene in such situations. The change in the estimate for this dichotomous variable was 2.6% resulting in a refinement of 6.5% for the group indicating the police can't do something and -4.4% for the group indicating they can.

The final pair of questions to be considered relate to crime reporting

TABLE 22

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ASSESSMENT OF CHICAGO POLICE PERFORMANCE

BY RESPONDENT GROUP

(Question 20) What do you think of the job the Chicago Police are doing in fighting crime? Would you say they're doing an excellent job, pretty good, only fair or poor?

<u>ASSESSMENT</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN ESTIMATE REFINEMENT</u>	
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>		
Excellent	13.8% (139)	20.1% (33)	14.7% (172)	0.9%	6.4%
Pretty Good	51.7% (519)	47.6% (78)	51.1% (597)	-0.6%	-1.1%
Only Fair	24.7% (248)	25.6% (42)	24.8% (290)	0.1%	0.5%
Poor	9.8% (98)	6.7% (11)	9.3% (109)	-0.4%	-4.4%
	100.0% (1004)	100.0% (164)	99.9% (1168)		

Chi Square = 5.70                      df = 3                      Significance level = .13

Kolmogorov-Smirnov significance level = .64

Gamma = -.10

TABLE 23

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENT'S ASSESSMENT OF POLICE

ABILITY TO ASSIST IN FAMILY FIGHTS BY RESPONDENT GROUP

(Question 25e) Do you think that violent family fights are the kinds of situations that the police can usually do something about?

<u>ASSESSMENT</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN</u>	
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>	<u>ESTIMATE</u>	<u>REFINEMENT</u>
Police Can Do Something	59.4% (553)	40.1% (59)	56.8% (612)	-2.6%	-4.4%
Police Cannot Do Something	40.6% (378)	59.9% (88)	43.2% (466)	2.6%	6.5%
	100.0% (931)	100.0% (147)	100.0% (1078)		

Chi Square = 18.42

df = 1

Significance level = .0000

r = .13

behavior. The first solicited a report of actual behavior and thus reflects the nature of one's experience as well as his inclination while the second asks respondents to report what they feel they would do if confronted with a particular situation. While the latter is "weaker" in that there is an unexamined link between what one thinks he would do and what he would actually do, it also eliminates the differential in experience which confounds the first, behavioral reporting measure.

Differences between amenable and resistant respondents with respect to reported instances of calling the police to report a crime are so small that they would occur by chance more than not ( $p = .54$ ). The same cannot, however, be said of the responses to the hypothetical query which demonstrated a high degree of statistical significance. This was true whether the three response categories were treated as discrete nominal level responses ( $p = .0005$ , using a chi-square test) or whether "do something else" was treated as an intermediate intervention between "board train" (i.e., do nothing) and "call the police" ( $p = .00017$ , using Kolmogorov-Smirnov test). Amenable respondents indicated that they were more likely to call the police, while resisters indicated that they were more inclined to either do nothing or to take some other action. The magnitude of the difference is within the same range we have observed for some of the other variables that have been considered. The refinement for the measure of the proportion indicating they would board the train was 7.1%, while the measures for the proportion who would call the police and those who would do something else were -3.8% and 3.7% respectively. Like the findings for many of the other variables these are less than overwhelming but certainly non-negligible differences. The implications of changes of this order of magnitude and the conditions under which they may prove important will be

TABLE 24

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PRIOR CRIME REPORTING BEHAVIOR

BY RESPONDENT GROUP

(Question 23) We're trying to find out about people's experiences when they've called the police to report any crime that they happen to have seen. First, we'd like to know whether you've ever called the police to report a crime or something you thought was suspicious?

<u>REPORTING BEHAVIOR</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN ESTIMATE REFINEMENT</u>	
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>		
Have Called Police	62.2% (644)	59.4% (101)	61.8% (745)	-0.4%	-0.6%
Have Not Called Police	37.8% (391)	40.6% (69)	38.2% (460)	0.4%	1.0%
	100.0% (1035)	100.0% (170)	100.0% (1205)		

Chi Square = .38

df = 1

Significance level = .54

r = .02

TABLE 25

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF HYPOTHETICAL RESPONSE TO

OBSERVED EL ROBBERY BY RESPONDENT GROUP

(Question 13) While waiting on an "L" platform Mr. (Mrs.) Clark saw someone being held up at gunpoint on the street below. He (she) then told another person on the platform about the incident who said, "It happens all the time. Forget it!" Mr. (Mrs.) Clark took his advice and boarded the train. If you were in this situation would you do the same thing and board the train?

<u>RESPONSE</u>	<u>RESPONDENT GROUP</u>			<u>CHANGE IN</u>	
	<u>AMENABLE</u>	<u>RESISTOR</u>	<u>ENTIRE SAMPLE</u>	<u>ESTIMATE</u>	<u>REFINEMENT</u>
Board Train	22.5% (221)	33.7% (55)	24.1% (276)	1.6%	7.1%
Call Police	59.4% (583)	43.6% (71)	57.2 (654)	-2.3%	-3.8%
Do Something Else	18.0% (177)	22.7% (37)	18.7% (214)	0.7%	3.7%
	99.9% (981)	100.0% (163)	100.0% (1144)		

Chi Square = 15.06

df = 2

Significance level = .0005

Kolmogorov-Smirnov significance level (with "Do Something Else" treated as an intermediate value) = .0017

Gamma = -.09

addressed in the section that follows.

Summary and Conclusions

In the interpretation of the differences that have been examined in this paper, the real importance lies in the impact of the addition of resistant respondents on the sample estimates. In order to illuminate the extent of this impact, the "change in estimate" and "refinement" measures were devised and employed to reflect aspects of the changes brought about. Before reviewing the findings themselves, two points should be emphasized about the nature of these measures.

First, the interpretation of the change in estimate measure should be conditioned by an awareness of the fact that it may range only from zero to approximately fourteen (positive or negative). This is due to the fact that resisters comprise only one-seventh of the total sample, which makes it possible to calculate the change in estimate as follows:

$$\frac{\text{Resistor\%} - \text{Amenable\%}}{7}$$

A consideration of the most extreme possible case should help illustrate. This is presented in the now familiar form below:

<u>Hypothetical Dep. Variable Response</u>	<u>Amenable</u>	<u>Resistor</u>	<u>Entire Sample</u>	<u>Change in Estimate</u>	<u>Refinement</u>
YES	100.0% (1037)	0% (0)	85.8% (1037)	-14.2%	-14.2%
NO	0% (0)	100.0% (171)	14.2% (171)	14.2%	*
	100.0% (1037)	100.0% (171)	100.0% (1208)		

\*division by zero not possible.

Given this limited potential range of variability, measures that would otherwise be dismissed as small, loom considerably larger.

The second point, important to consider at this point, pertains to the interpretation of the refinement measure. This measure is not important in itself except insofar as it draws attention to any possibly important relationship. Whether or not such a relationship proves to be of genuine importance will have to be assessed in terms of substance. The reason why the refinement measure cannot be directly assessed is that it is so strongly influenced by the number of amenable in a particular category. Whenever this number is especially small, this may result in dramatic, but inconsequential, fluctuations in the refinement figure computed. For example, in the hypothetical example just given, if a single amenable respondent had answered "No," the refinement for that response would have been calculated at 14579%. This is only a problem if direct inference is attempted from the calculations. If not, and this measure is employed primarily as a flagging device to call attention for further consideration, then the fact that it is especially sensitive to instances where small proportions of amenable respondents are found within particular values of the variable under consideration is not a problem, for the measure was explicitly designed to do this. One necessary result of this fact, however, is that direct comparison of refinement measures computed for different values even within a single table is inappropriate. Relative substantive importance must be imputed by other means.

Who, then, are the resistant respondents? The evidence presented here indicates that they are disproportionately blue collar and service workers, particularly skilled craftsmen. Conversely, they contain smaller numbers of professionals, managers, and other white collar workers. Resisters tend

to have lower educational levels than is characteristic of the entire sample. (There is some indication that their incomes may be lower also, although this is not entirely clear.) Resisters are collectively older than the rest of the sample, a tendency which is particularly noticeable among those sixty years of age or older. Furthermore, they are markedly less likely to participate in the activities of neighborhood organizations than their counterparts who are more amenable to being interviewed. Finally, resisters are more commonly white than the sample as a whole. When this is broken down by ethnicity it is discovered that those of Polish descent exhibit the strongest tendency to be resisters, followed by the Germans and to a lesser extent the Irish.

What does this information allow us to say about the probable sources underlying this resistance to being interviewed? Are patterns clear and unmistakable enough to do this? It is doubtful any one investigation could adequately address so amorphous an area, certainly not a study that hadn't been designed to elicit precisely the particular type of information required. However, there are clear enough patterns to warrant some grounded speculation. Put in a straightforward manner: less educated, lower occupational status, less participating, and very old respondents may simply be less accustomed to, less comfortable with, and less certain about the purposes, objectives, and the very idea of a public opinion survey. This might be reflected in a reluctance to participate in one.

This speculative interpretation is consistent with the lack of significance observed in some of the other variables considered. The array of variables that one would expect not to be significant if this interpretation were to prove to incorporate the crucial dimension includes sex, marital status, and religion. Each of these did, in fact, prove not to be

significant. Likewise, three other variables which would not seem to bear a strong relationship to the phenomenon if this interpretation were correct, in fact failed to do so. While there was a tendency for resisters to be overrepresented among those owning or buying a home, those living in a single family home, and those without children present in the household, the magnitude of these differences were slight.

The given interpretation of the cause of the differences admittedly does not offer a ready explanation for the racial/ethnic differences that were present between amenable and resistant respondents. An extension of the same argument that different ethnic groups have acquired a differential familiarity with the interview process with resultant amenability might be set forth as one possibility. Or perhaps the demonstrated association is due to parallel association between the variables just considered and amenability. Other interpretations are possible as well, but the data at hand unfortunately do not provide the means for testing them. For the present, the racial/ethnic differential among respondent groups must be seen as inexplicable.

The examination of the non-demographic variables peculiar to this survey indicated that the theoretical potential for a dramatic impact on the substantive variables in a particular survey with only modest demographic variation did not materialize. Observed differences for substantive variables considered were similar to those reported for the demographic variables. Nevertheless, the differences evident for two of the variables considered (the ones dealing with perceived police efficacy in dealing with family fights and the hypothetical response to an observed street crime) were of sufficient magnitude to demonstrate the potential: these were as large as those between any of the demographic variables and larger than

most of them. This illustrates the potential of what could occur in a particular survey, but simply was not so dramatic a difference in this study as to overwhelm the simple demographic differences that were evident.

What sorts of general conclusions and inferences are permissible as a result of this investigation? It would be inappropriate to expect too much in the way of definitive pronouncements to proceed from such a tentative addressing of the questions raised herein, and conclusions are best seen in this light. Nevertheless, several observations can be made with reasonable confidence:

1. Differences between respondent groups were real and exist on a number of dimensions.

2. The practical import of the changes in estimates brought about by the inclusion of resistors is not overwhelming in magnitude. This must be addressed ultimately by asking whether different conclusions would result from using the refined vs. the amenable estimates. This will vary with each particular study and the precision required by it.

3. Due to #2, in most surveys where resistors comprise as little as one seventh of the sample, their small contribution to the total sample size will keep their total impact sufficiently slight that most inferences in all but the most sensitive areas will probably not be affected. No variable was found that correlated so strongly with inclination to be interviewed that it could withstand diminishment by a factor of seven and still retain a sufficient impact on the sample estimate to matter in most general purpose surveys.

4. In instances where resistors may comprise appreciably more than one seventh of the total sample, their larger contribution may make differences between groups a more salient consideration. Should resistant respondents constitute 1/K of the entire sample, their contribution to the change in estimate would be determined by

$$\frac{\text{Resistor\%} - \text{Amenable\%}}{K}$$

and their potential impact would be proportionately greater. However, the relationship between different variables and respondent group will not necessarily remain constant as proportions of respondents within these groups are altered, so it is impossible to predict what would be the overall effect.

5. In order to get some idea of the effect of including "resistors" of greater or lesser "amenability" (in effect, examining effects not only over different lengths of the continuum of respondent resistance, but inevitably over different stretches of it), replication is clearly mandated. Likewise, greater confidence could be placed in the findings indicated herein for even this particular slice of the continuum if they were to be validated by some sort of replication. This type of further activity is clearly a necessary requisite to generalizability.

6. Until such time as more definitive conclusions are available, the attainment of a low refusal rate is always the preferable course--especially where the costs involved are moderate. Because this is the conservative approach and because the ability to attain low refusal rates so correlates with other sound practices that are generally taken as an indication of the overall quality of the work, the pursuit of resistant respondents seems advisable.

Because of the lack of prior work against which to gauge these results, caution is in order in the interpretation of findings. Nevertheless, it is preferable to base future planning on tentative analysis such as this rather than simply ignoring a potentially troublesome problem and hoping that this inaction will cause it to go away.

PAPER #2

FACTORS INFLUENCING CITIZEN INCLINATION TO REPORT CRIME

Past explorations of crime reporting behavior have most commonly dealt with the subject by examining the victim's inclination to report being victimized (Ennis, 1967; Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1974). This focus can largely be traced to a realization of the gross inadequacy of the "official" crime statistics previously collected and the resultant desire to assess the true extent of the crime problem by more valid means than were then available. In addition to being well-suited to the policy maker's need to gauge the true extent of crime and to provide a benchmark against which to evaluate the distortion of crime rates for various types of crime reflected in official statistics, studies based upon reports of respondent victimization are less complicated than studies aimed at examining the reporting of "observed" crimes for at least three reasons. First, what constitutes victimization is more clearly definable (though still not without complications) than observation. Second, recall problems are not as severe. (An observer will find it particularly easy to forget an incident not reported. Hence, victimization is more easily measurable as well as more easily definable.) Third, social desirability is not likely to distort responses to the same extent. (It is seen as less offensive for a respondent to indicate that an instance of victimization was not reported than to indicate that an observed victimization of another was ignored. If an individual is himself victimized, he is entitled to decide that it's not worth bothering about with little fear of real or imagined reproach. To arrive at a similar judgment with respect to the immediate plight of another can only be seen as callous.)

While victimization surveys have unquestionably served a useful function in enlightening the extent and distribution of crime, focusing exclusively on victims' reporting of their own victimization ultimately

has limited potential value. Compared to observer-reported crime, victim-reported crime usually offers little prospect of subsequent apprehension. In the absence of this, reporting one's own victimization is 1) of little social consequence (except in occupying the time of the police and costing taxpayer dollars), and 2) likely to be more strongly predicted by the requirements of insurance claims than factors related to the community, police relations, or individual demographics.

There is hard empirical evidence supporting the intrinsic rationality of not notifying the police that one has been victimized. The general futility of such notification is evidenced in the following figures which trace the attrition of 2,077 instances of criminal victimization in a national survey:

TABLE 26  
ATTRITION RATES IN THE PROCESSING OF CRIMINAL INCIDENTS

	Number of Cases	Per- cent	Cumulative Percent	Cumulative % of Reports
Police Notified	1,024	49%	49%	
Police Came Called Incident	787	77%	38%	77%
a Crime	593	75%	29%	58%
Arrest Made	120	20%	6%	12%
Brought to Trial	50	42%	2%	5%
Conviction and Adequate Penalty	26	52%	1%	3%

Source: Ennis, 1970:94

These figures reveal that only 2% of the victimizations resulted in an accused offender being brought to trial, and only 1% resulted in a conviction and a penalty judged adequate by the victimized person. If one were to argue that the effectiveness of the police ought to be judged only by their

effectiveness in dealing with those victimizations that are reported to them, these figures change only to 5% and 3% respectively, which certainly do not alter the overall conclusions.

This "rationality" interpretation of peoples' crime reporting patterns is bolstered by Reynolds and Blyth's (1974:9) finding of the patterns present in the percentage of property crimes reported to the police. The following table gives the percent of property crime victimizations reported to the police broken down by whether the offender was unknown, seen but not a personal acquaintance, or known (a personal acquaintance). Additional control variables introduced were community type (inner city or suburban) and seriousness of crime (UCR Part I or UCR Part II). Findings are given below:

TABLE 27

CRIME REPORTING RATES BY CRIME SERIOUSNESS,  
NEIGHBORHOOD, AND VICTIM/OFFENDER RELATIONSHIP

	Inner City		Suburb	
	Part I	Part II	Part I	Part II
Offender Unknown	42%	11%	59%	29%
Offender Seen	68%	24%	100%	54%
Offender Known	19%	12%	0%	33%

Source: Reynolds and Blyth, 1974:9

Where an offender is seen, apprehension prospects are enhanced, making a report to the police more likely to be productive. A comparison of the percentage of property crimes reported where the offender is unknown with those where the offender is seen for both Part I and Part II crimes and for both the inner city and suburban neighborhood reveals a consistent

pattern: reporting is much more likely to occur when the offender is seen. (It also appears that where personal acquaintance is involved, the exigencies of ongoing personal relationships overwhelm the importance of apprehension prospects in determining when victimization will be reported. Furthermore, both the seriousness of the offense and the type of neighborhood have an independent effect. These suggest hypotheses that are not directly germane to the present discourse but that will be developed in a subsequent discussion.) This is an additional bit of evidence that victims' decisions to report or not to report their victimizations are in large part determined by reasonable assessments of whether such actions are likely to result in apprehension of an offender.

Skogan (n.d.:14) provides additional confirmation for this view of crime reporting behavior. Employing data collected in the National Crime Panel Surveys (Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1974), the proportion of non-reporting victims of various types of crime who attributed their failure to act to the fact that "nothing could be done" was compared to the FBI clearance rates (as reported in the Uniform Crime Reports) for those same crimes. The findings are reported in Table 28. Skogan (n.d.:13) succinctly summarizes the implication of this information: "The simplest interpretation of...(this information)...is that people do not report when they think nothing will happen as a result, and that they are often right." Even the adjustment of the UCR clearance rate figures by the proportion of victimizations that are reported to the police for various types of crimes (clearance rates are based on reported crimes only) does not alter the direct ordinal relationship evidenced in the table (reporting rates for this were taken from the National Crime Panel surveys (Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1974:28-29)).

TABLE 28  
 CLEARANCE RATES AND CITIZEN EXPECTATIONS  
 FOR MAJOR CRIMES

Crime	Percent Saying "Nothing Can Be Done"	F.B.I. Clearance Rate (1973)
Assault	19	63%
Rape	23	51%
Robbery	41	27%
Larceny	33	19%
Burglary	48	18%
Auto Theft	48	16%

Source: Skogan, n.d.:14

Increasing victims' inclination to report crime might very well make the UCR a more accurate measure of the actual incidence of crime--and would certainly increase the (reported) crime rate. However, the foregoing discussion provides evidence that it would not necessarily help the police in dealing with crime given that people's present non-reporting patterns seem to be based upon a reasonably accurate assessment of whether a report would be likely to initiate a successful police action. It might even prove detrimental to the overall law enforcement effort by overloading the system with an enormous number of insoluble crimes.

At best, then, the study of reporting victimization can tell only part of the necessary story, basically by enlightening crime rates. However, a study of the reporting of observed crimes can potentially do more than this. For this reason, the hypothetical incidents described in the questionnaire assessed the respondents' likelihood of taking action which might prevent a crime or at least which held forth a reasonable prospect of catching a perpetrator in the act.

The focus of the questionnaire, then, is on the reporting of the observed victimization of others. Given that the central concern is not on the reporting of self-victimization but on the reporting of crimes with some degree of public visibility, the question logically arises: is this not the central province of the police to uncover and deal with on their own? And, if this is the case, why need we be concerned with the matter at all?

One cannot deny that the detection of publicly visible crimes is a matter with which the police are, and should be, expected to deal. However, a simple division of the number of miles of paved streets in any large American city by the number of policemen on street duty at any given point in time should make evident the gross improbability of the police detecting an appreciable number of crimes in progress without citizen assistance. When one considers that many crimes are not visible from the street, and adds to this the fact that one may reasonably assume that those about to engage in criminal activity often do so in a manner calculated to even further minimize the likelihood of encountering the police, the crucial role of citizen cooperation becomes even more apparent. With respect to many types of street crimes, if apprehension of a suspect is not effected at the scene of a crime or almost immediately after its commission (usually in the course of the suspect's fleeing the area), subsequent apprehension prospects are almost negligible (O'Neil, 1974). In addition, citizens are often in a better position to witness crimes because they 1) are far more numerous than the police, 2) are present in many locations where the police do not have regular access, and 3) are frequently in a position to better assess what and who "doesn't belong" in a particular setting. The coincidence of all of these facts should point out the crucial importance of citizen

willingness to cooperate with the police by calling suspicious circumstances to their attention. The extent to which such a willingness is present is thus intimately related to and can greatly enhance police effectiveness in dealing with an important subset of criminal activities.

A number of important theoretical and empirical works, however, have suggested that such an inclination is not likely to be evenly distributed throughout the various neighborhoods of a metropolitan area. For example, Reynolds and Blyth (1974) in a work discussed earlier, found a reporting differential between a suburban and an inner city neighborhood. This work, of course, was based upon victimization reporting, not reports of observed crime. The distinction is an important one, however this work is only cited in order to suggest that assertions of differential reporting by neighborhood are consistent with work previously undertaken. This does not in any way prove that such differential victimization reporting may be generalized to the reporting of observed crime, but it does provide a reasonable basis for speculation that it may; one that is worthy of empirical investigation. In the absence of a tradition of investigation of the reporting of observed crimes, victimization reporting is the closest approximation available for comparison.

Findings such as those of Reynolds and Blyth are consistent with the much earlier formulations of the urban ecologists of the 1920's and the 1930's, such as the work of Park, Burgess, and later Hawley. Perhaps the closest analogy in this tradition can be made with the work of Shaw and McKay (1942) who asserted a differential distribution of certain attributes (in their case, "social disorganization") by neighborhood. Although their dependent variable was juvenile delinquency rather than crime reporting, a reading of their work would make it easy to reach a conclusion that the

factors which cause one might very well be strongly linked to the other. Even if this is not the case, the perspective is certainly a parallel one. Although none of these authors dealt specifically with the topic considered here, and much of their perspective has come into disrepute because their work placed such stress on the importance of neighborhood-level variables, the theoretical perspective of this work may be seen as loosely following in the lineage of this school of thought.

Of course, not all relevant factors are necessarily determined exclusively by neighborhood-level characteristics. For this reason, this research attempts to discover which factors--both on the community and individual level--are most highly associated with this propensity to report observed apparent criminal activity. In order to uncover the causes which underlie the differential distribution of this inclination, the selection of variables to be examined was guided by a sensitivity to prevalent theory, related empirical investigations such as those just mentioned, beliefs popular in and important within police circles, and educated guesses about what seemed likely to have high predictive power. The attempt was to employ the widest possible range of variables restricted primarily by the necessity of paring these to accommodate finite questionnaire length.

#### Literature Review: Some Hypotheses

In this section I will elaborate a number of hypotheses that could be put to the test by the data collected. These originate in prevalent police theory, the urban ecology perspective, and in the findings of victimization surveys. It is worthwhile to elaborate on what has already been said about the standing of the latter. While we cannot assume that reasons for reporting or not reporting observed and "experienced" crime are the same, it does

seem likely that they would overlap. This probability makes an examination of the factors known to be associated with reporting victimization well worth examining even though we cannot go so far as to assume they are identical with those which influence reporting observed crimes. Indeed, it is not difficult to speculate ways in which the reasons would seem likely to differ. For example, it would seem probable that the nature of the situation would make the unlikelihood of apprehension diminish in importance as a reason for not reporting the observed victimizations of others. A series of hypotheses will be presented in this section. Each will be followed by presentation of some of the theoretical and/or empirical evidence suggestive of it.

Belief in police ineffectiveness inhibits reporting. Ennis (1970:92) reported, using data collected in the classic national victimization survey (Ennis, 1967) that

fifty-five percent of the nonreporting victims failed to notify the authorities because of their attitudes toward police effectiveness. These people believed the police could not do anything about the incident, would not catch the offenders, or would not want to be bothered. <sup>1</sup>

The importance of this belief in deterring reporting was substantiated by a Law Enforcement Assistance Administration study (1974:5) which found that the belief that nothing could be accomplished by reporting an incident was the single most common reason given for not reporting incidents of personal victimization. Reynolds and Blyth (1974:12a) present the distribution of explanations given for not reporting victimization in five separate vic-

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<sup>1</sup>The remaining forty-five percent were distributed as follows: 34% felt the incident was not a police matter, 9% did not want to take the time and trouble, and 2% feared reprisal.

victimization surveys. In each of the five studies, this belief was the most common reason given, with the proportion ranging from 32% to 48%. Because these judgments were intertwined with a realization that the necessary proof was probably lacking, this need not be seen as an indictment of police performance. Inevitably, there will always be incidents which people quite properly realize are beyond what is within human potential to accomplish given democratic restraints. This judgment only becomes an indictment of police performance when one not only believes that the police cannot effectively deal with certain matters, but also that they should be able to do so. This is suggestive of a related hypothesis presented below.

A lower estimate of the quality of police performance inhibits reporting. Evidence for this hypothesis is sketchy. Reynolds and Blyth (1974: 10-11) note that suburban residents in their study rated police performance more highly than did residents of the inner city and also that they were more likely to report their personal victimizations. While avoiding the ecological fallacy in their interpretations, they do suggest that individual level analysis might reveal a relationship. However, Hawkins (1973) found little effect when confidence in the police was introduced as a control variable in elaborating the relationship between threat of victimization and reporting behavior.

A lower perceived threat of crime will result in less reporting. Hawkins (1973) found this to be the case with respect to the reporting of victimization, although his measurement of "sense of threat" was questionable. Because reporting of victimization as a means of handling one's high sense of threat might be seen as akin to bolting the barn door after the horse has escaped, it might be hypothesized that the reporting of the victimization of others would be even more strongly predicted by this

variable,

A perception of unequal police protection will result in less reporting. Hahn (1971), in the single example found which used a survey to explore the reporting of the victimization of others, found this hypothesis to be supported by his data which were based upon his respondents' hypothetical response to incidents presented. The external validity of his findings (both in terms of time and location) are largely unknown because the data were collected only among residents of one Detroit ghetto and shortly after a large-scale riot in the area.

Unfavorable prior contacts with the police will result in less reporting. This hypothesis is an important feature of an entire literature on police-community relations. Recognition of this belief is explicit in Banton's rendering of the functions of police-community relations training for police officers (1973:13-14). The resentment, lack of respect, and muted hostility that result from unfavorable contacts are all seen as contributing to the overall effect (Black, 1968:25-50). An elaborate and potentially extensive review of the literature could be undertaken but would reveal little more than variations on the same theme. (The Police Relations section of the bibliography contains a sizeable number of representative examples. This could be greatly expanded to include a large number of other sources, but that would add little of substance; the literature is extremely repetitive.) In order to assess the validity of the basis on which police attempts to engender favorable police-community relations are most frequently justified to police officers, that good relations with their respective communities are an asset--perhaps even a prerequisite--to citizen initiated calls to report observed crime, a series of questions was devised to explore the subjective character of respondents' prior

contacts with the police.

Longer residence in a neighborhood and intentions of continuing to reside in it are likely to produce greater rates of reporting. Home ownership is likely to be associated with greater rates of reporting. These factors are seen as being likely to enhance one's commitment to the neighborhood and one's stake in its collective security and the overall quality of life within it. The work of Shaw and McKay suggests that long-term residence and prevalent home ownership on the neighborhood level tend to inhibit "social disorganization". A simple extension of the logic of their argument would lead to the assertion that this would result in higher rates of reporting. This and other neighborhood level influences, such as those below, may be examined using data from the U.S. Census, employing the census tract of the respondent's address as the basis for the neighborhood data.

Racially and ethnically homogeneous communities will have higher rates of reporting than less homogeneous communities. Individual members of racial and ethnic majorities (defined locally) will have higher rates of reporting than members of minorities in these areas. Homogeneity is hypothesized to be related to one's level of identification with his community which will lead, in turn, to greater reporting rates. (The "social disorganization" theorists would hold that this operates through the minimization of "social disorganization", but this is not a necessary part of the theory.) However, individuals who are not a part of this homogeneous group are less likely to share in this sense of identification.

These by no means exhaust the range of legitimate and plausible hypotheses. The "social disorganization" focus would suggest that areas with higher incomes, more average education, and more stable employment

patterns would experience greater reporting rates.<sup>1</sup> Reynolds and Blyth (1974) have suggested that inner city residents are less likely to report victimization than suburban residents (a finding without the usual racial implications, since their "inner city" neighborhood was overwhelmingly white). Such a pattern, if it were in operation, would be likely to affect the measurement of reporting with respect to variables known to be strongly associated with community of residence, such as single vs. multi-family dwellings. Reynolds and Blyth (1974) also noted that the young were less likely to report victimization, but observed that this was due almost exclusively to the tendency of dependent youth in the inner city not to report. Block (1974) reported a racial differential in the reporting of assaults, but observed that this relationship was fully "explained" by income. When one considers the fact that non-whites (as well as those of lower income, regardless of race) have also been reported to be less likely to hold a high opinion of police effectiveness (Ennis, 1970:97), the potential interrelatedness of all of these factors becomes apparent.

#### Variables: Independent, Dependent, and Confounding

The preceding section hypothesized a number of factors that seem to hold forth promise of explaining, to some extent, the tendency to report observed criminality to the police. The analysis which follows, however,

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<sup>1</sup>Indeed, one would not need recourse to this interpretation at all: such a tendency might alternatively be attributed to the fact that such persons (individually) have a greater stake in the maintenance of social order. The reasons for suggesting the relationships differ in that one operates on the community level while the other is based upon individual attributes. In reality, the high association between each of these influences on the individual and neighborhood levels would make it difficult to separate out independent effects.

will in no way be limited to these. The purpose of the elaboration of these hypotheses was not to simply set forth a series of declarative propositions to be tested; rather, it included the delineation of broad areas of inquiry suggested by past work that would stimulate consideration of other related factors that might prove to be related. Here, I will outline the range of variables covered in the survey instrument (the exact wording of questions used may be found in the interview schedule which is reproduced in Appendix D). The rationale for including most of the variables not specifically referenced in the hypotheses presented is generally obvious by analogy. Factors considered which have theoretically defensible reasons for suspecting they are related to inclination to call the police may be seen as falling into one of four broad areas: respondents' perceptions of crime, relations with and perceptions of the police, neighborhood characteristics and neighborhood ties, and individual demographic characteristics.

Queries about respondents' perceptions of crime included items requesting assessments of the relative and absolute levels of crime in their neighborhood and the city as a whole, patterns of crime over time both within their neighborhood and city-wide, their fear of crime and the reasons underlying their expressed level of concern about crime.

Police-related questions focused on a number of areas. These included opinions of police performance both in the city as a whole and specifically within the respondent's neighborhood, the source of their opinions of the police, the presence and frequency of prior experiences in calling the police to report a crime, the quality and sensitivity of the police response to such requests, satisfaction with police performance in these and other encounters, perceptions of police efficacy in dealing with a number of

specific types of crimes, perceptions of police concern, severity of police handling of suspects, policemen's demonstration of respect for citizens and perceptions of a genuine desire on the part of the police to see suspicious circumstances called to their attention.

Neighborhood ties were explored through questions dealing with length of residence, numbers of neighbors known, satisfaction with the neighborhood, intention continuing to reside there, perceptions of neighbors' concern for neighborhood well-being, and participation in community organization activity. Several questions requested respondents to assess what they felt most of their neighbors would respond to a question that had just been asked of them. In addition, the respondents' addresses were coded according to their census tract. By employing census data, this permits not only the examination of community-level variables but also the interactions between individual and community level characteristics. For example, this facilitates looking at the effect on regional ethnic majorities who are local minorities, residentially stable individuals in unstable neighborhoods (and vice versa), or any other comparison limited only by the availability of the appropriate variable on census tapes. In addition, because the census tract identifies the residence within one of the 76 recognized community areas in the City of Chicago, direct comparisons between these are made possible. These delineations of neighborhood boundaries have been widely used and much information is available for them (Kitagawa and Taeber, 1963; Chicago Association of Commerce and Industry, 1971; Department of Development and Planning, 1973a, 1973b).

Finally, the usual demographic information was collected. This included measures of occupation, ethnicity, race, education, religion,

age, sex, income, type of dwelling, home ownership, presence of minor children in the household, marital status, and family ties.

Taken together, these variables cover a wide range of factors. Inevitably, these cannot exhaust the important factors which might influence the dependent variable. Some variables known to have an effect, such as victim/offender (or observer/offender or observer/victim) relationship, had to be held constant so as to prevent them from confounding other relationships that were subjected to examination. The perception of some crimes as "private matters"<sup>1</sup> unquestionably inhibits reporting them (Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1974; Reynolds and Blyth, 1974). (This is a particularly salient factor in the reporting of assaults, for which the perception of them as being private matters replaced police ineffectiveness as the most commonly given reason for not calling the police (Block, 1974:559)). Certainly, this perception of an incident as a "private matter" is a factor for which we can expect a high degree of association with the effect of the relationship between the principals. These and other influences, which one would expect to have an influence on reporting, such as the number of witnesses to an incident, were not considered either because the survey method was not amenable to their consideration or because they were purposively avoided out of fear they would confound other variables examined.

The dependent variable focused upon in this research, conceptually the inclination of a respondent to call the police to report a crime or suspicious circumstance, was operationalized by creating an additive

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<sup>1</sup>The extent that crimes are not reported because they are seen as private matters suggests that the focus on the reporting or non-reporting of "crimes" as such may be off the mark. Perhaps people report not "crimes" but simply troubling incidents they cannot or do not want to handle themselves.

index of responses to ten separate questions. (These were questions 10 through 19 in the interview (see Appendix D) exclusive of questions 11a, 17a, 17b, and 18a.) Each of these presented the respondent with a hypothetical incident and asked him to assess what he would be likely to actually do if confronted with such a situation. The value of the dependent variable constructed is equal to the number of instances of the ten presented where the individual respondent indicated he would be likely to call the police. It thus may vary from 0 to 10.

The principal difficulty presented by this variable was that an indication of an intention to call the police undoubtedly had the aura of a "socially desirable" response. The tendency for some respondents to give socially desirable responses where one is identifiable is well known and documented. An (admittedly not entirely satisfactory) strategy was devised to minimize the extent to which this tendency would materialize. It consisted of numerous admonitions given within the course of the interview that "there were no right or wrong answers" and a strictly non-affective reaction by interviewees to any answer given.

Ultimately, this is a problem that may only be minimized (or exacerbated) by the procedures employed, as long as the subject matter requires questions for which respondents perceive some answers as more "correct" than others. Despite the fact that the nature of the problem defies a totally satisfactory solution, the predictable unidirectionality of bias induced by the socially desirable character of some responses permits us to proceed with analysis. A simple schematic should indicate why this is the case. I will employ an analogy with another type of question with socially desirable implications because it is 1) common, 2) verifiable, and 3) parallel to the problem faced here. This is the problem faced by the analysts of voting behavior.

It is typical for an ex post facto survey to find that 80% of those surveyed claim to have voted in a given election. The incidence of voting differs from most subject matter covered in surveys in that actual rates are verifiable. These actual rates of voting seldom exceed 60%. Thus it is evident that some nonvoters present themselves as being voters. One may conclude that, because citizens have been socialized to believe that voting is a behavior engaged in by all "good citizens" that some nonvoting respondents will feel compelled to represent themselves as being voters. If we look at the following representation of the voting and reporting behavior of one hundred hypothetical respondents, it should help illustrate.

		<u>Reported Voting Behavior</u>		
		<u>Voter</u>	<u>Nonvoter</u>	
<u>Actual Voting Behavior</u>	<u>Voter</u>	60	0	60
	<u>Nonvoter</u>	20	20	40
		80	20	

One may want to compare the characteristics of voters and nonvoters but is only able to compare the attributes of those reporting voting and those reporting not voting. The complication is manifest in the distillation of the sixty actual voters with the twenty nonvoters who reported themselves as having voted. What makes analysis meaningful is the likelihood of a negligible number of respondents falsifying their reports to indicate that they did not vote when in fact they really did (the cell with "0" indicated). The logic behind this assertion is twofold. First, it seems unlikely that an individual engaging in socially acceptable behavior would deliberately indicate socially less desirable behavior. Second, even a modest number of individuals doing this (i.e., moving from the upper left

to the upper right cell in the table) would necessitate an extraordinarily high proportion of actual nonvoters reporting themselves as having voted (in fact, a majority of them) in order that the marginals of the table (which were the only parts of the table empirically derived) would still remain consistent with the data actually collected.

The impact of the distillation of actual voters with some who falsely reported voting is likely to reduce the strength of computed associations between voting and other variables, but not to eliminate them. Two assumptions are, however, necessary before this can be accepted as valid:

- 1) There must be no strong interactions between the tendency to falsify reports of voting behavior and the variables examined.
- 2) There must be a negligible number of false reports of socially undesirable behavior.

It is contended that essentially the same process is in operation for the reporting of observed crimes for essentially the same reason. Although a tendency toward socially desirable responses is acknowledged, the logic of this argument is meant to suggest that analysis is still meaningful although one should expect the measures of the strength of associations computed will probably be somewhat less than would be obtained were there no such tendency.

## Elaboration of Principal Findings

The sections which follow describe the bivariate relationships between inclination to report observed instances of apparent criminality to the police and the other variables for which measures were elicited in the survey instrument. In the course of this discussion, most of the hypotheses that were set forth earlier are dealt with. The discussion has been organized first according to the main categories which have been employed throughout this paper: crime-related, police-related, community, and demographic factors. These have been further broken down by approximate, but hopefully conceptually meaningful, subcategories. This organization is intended to allow for more than a "yes" or "no" response to a series of only partially related hypotheses. The aim is to make observed patterns of relationships as clear as possible.

Of course, the examination of simple bivariate relationships seldom reveals the whole story, particularly when influences are as complex and intertwined as these appear to be. They can, however, go a long way toward making sense out of reality and, to the extent they are successful in doing so, constitute an indispensable initial step in this endeavor. It should be emphasized that a causal relationship is not necessarily implied by the existence of an association. For example, it will be noted in the course of analyzing the data that there is an association between one's having an unlisted telephone and inclination to report observed crimes as measured in the survey instrument. It would be rather far-fetched to suggest that one causes the other, but it may very well prove to be the case that variables that do cause an inclination to so report also happen to be correlated with having an unlisted telephone. The difficulty in isolating causal factors when so many characteristics are subject to conjoint variation, as was noted by Duncan and Reiss (1956), should not, however, deter the effort.

The knowledge of this relationship should be employed to assist in isolating those factors that do, in fact, cause an increased tendency to initiate reports. In the course of this exploration, however, it is necessary to remain wary of the ever-present possibility that the relationship is simply spurious.

The analysis will take the following form. For each variable considered, the significance level of differences in the value of the dependent variable between response categories will be reported in a table which presents conceptually related variables. This significance level, consistent with the argument presented in the first paper in this report, may be interpreted as the probability that differences as great as those actually found to exist would have occurred by chance.<sup>1</sup> Except where this significance level exceeds .05 (where the plausibility of the hypothesis of chance renders any measure of association misleading), the value of the statistic eta, which measures the strength of the association, will also be reported in the table.<sup>2</sup> Striking features of the reporting patterns observed between the values of the independent variables will be discussed in the accompanying narrative. These will occasionally be summarized under the

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<sup>1</sup>Because these figures are rounded to the second decimal place, the reported significance level of .00 is indicative not of absolute zero, but of a probability of chance occurrence less than .005.

<sup>2</sup>This has been chosen as the principal tool for assessing relationships to be examined in preference to differences between the mean number of reports because the analysis endeavors to explain tendencies to report, not the actual proportion of reports we may expect from various groups. We do not have the right to infer that, because a respondent indicated an inclination to call the police in response to seven of ten hypothetical incidents, he will necessarily report 70% of the similar incidents he actually observes. To employ the mean number of responses as the principal analytical tool would thus infer a greater degree of precision than is warranted by the type of data that were collected.

heading of "comments" in the table itself, but interpretive judgments should be made only in light of the more full elaboration contained in the narrative. The presentation of the computed statistics in tabular form, in addition to providing for convenient reference, is intended to obviate the necessity of reporting them in the course of the discussion, permitting a clearer focus on patterns observed.

In order to enhance the brevity and clarity of the discussion of findings which constitute the following four sections, it is useful to explain some of the terminology that is employed. "Report" or "inclination to report" or some derivative of one of these may be taken as indicating inclination to report instances of observed criminal activity or suspicious circumstances to the police operationalized in the manner described earlier. "Significant", unless otherwise qualified, refers to statistical significance, which is not to be confused with substantive significance. Finally, the words "neighborhood" and "community" are used interchangeably and no inference should be drawn from the use of one over the other in any particular context.

#### Crime-Related Factors

Crime-related factors have been divided into those which deal with aspects of fear of crime and those which pertain to perceptions of crime trends. These are reported in Tables 29 and 30, respectively.

Although those who expressed fear of criminal victimization demonstrated a slightly greater tendency to call the police than those who did not express this fear, the difference was not statistically significant. Those who expressed concern about crime's effect on the quality of life were, again, more inclined to call the police than their counterparts who did not express this concern, but this difference was significant. Those who had expressed

concern about crime both due to fear of victimization and the effect on the quality of life were asked to rank-order the relative importance of these concerns. The responses reflecting the ranked importance of the two concerns were combined with the responses of individuals who had expressed concern for only one of these. The variable constructed from these responses had five categories (one of which contained respondents who found themselves unable to rank-order their relative importance). Despite the fact that the differences between categories did not reach a statistically significant level, their patterning was consistent with what one would expect according to the relationships exhibited for the two variables just reported and common sense. Those in each of the three categories that indicated concern for both reasons demonstrated a greater inclination to report than either of the categories which expressed concern for only one of the reasons. Among those who expressed concern for both factors, those who gave precedence to a concern for the quality of life were more likely to report than those more concerned with victimization (those unable to rank were a very close second). A parallel pattern was in evidence for those who had expressed concern for only one of the factors: those who were concerned exclusively with the impact of crime on the quality of life were more likely to report than those exclusively concerned with victimization (although both of these categories were below the other three in reporting). It is interesting to note that when fear of crime is addressed in a more concrete and less theoretical fashion ("If you wanted to go for a walk around your neighborhood after dark, would you be nervous or afraid about it?"), differences in reporting are significant, whereas they were not for the more theoretical question (#5). When addressed in this fashion, fear of crime does predict a greater inclination to report. However, when those who indicated they felt this fear of walking in their neighborhoods

at night were asked whether this fear would actually keep them from going out, differences between individuals responding differently were not significant.

TABLE 29  
INCLINATION TO REPORT CRIME BY FEAR OF CRIME

Variable	Significance Level	<u>Eta</u>	Comments
(Q5) <sup>1</sup> Fear of victimization	.08	NS	NS trend in predicted direction
(Q6) Concern about quality of life	.03	.06	Predicted direction
(Q7) Relative importance of victimization <u>vs.</u> quality of life	.13	NS	"Both" factors more than either alone. Quality of life more salient
(Q9) Fear of walking in neighborhood at night	.00	.09	Predicted direction; fear is significant when made concrete
(Q9a) Night walk fear sufficient to inhibit walks	.88	NS	

<sup>1</sup>These figures refer to the question number from which the data were primarily obtained.

To summarize the information contained in Table 29, when both are expressed in theoretical terms, a concern about the impact of crime on the general quality of life appears to be a more powerful predictor of inclination to report than fear of victimization. When both factors are salient, the impact may be greater than for either factor alone. When fear of victimization is measured in a more concrete fashion, its impact becomes significant. Finally, whether expressed fear about walking within one's neighborhood at night will actually keep an individual from engaging in

such activity may not reflect the degree of fear present so much as the type of accommodation an individual prefers to make with it (in short, how much one is willing to let it affect one's life) and personal bravado. At any rate, the presence of this behavioral impact of fear is not related to inclination to report.

Differing perceptions of crime patterns and trends did not lead to a consistent pattern of differential reporting inclination. No significant differences were found to exist in tendency to report among respondents with different perceptions of the extent of the crime problem in Chicago relative to other cities. When asked to make a similar judgment with respect to the extent of the crime problem in their neighborhood relative to other Chicago neighborhoods, those who felt there was more crime in their neighborhoods were somewhat more inclined to report to the police but the degree of the difference was not quite statistically significant. An examination of the impact of differing estimations of the amount of crime in Chicago now as opposed to a few years ago reveals no monotonic trend. Those who rated the amount of crime as being the same now as in the past were somewhat less likely to report than either those who saw it as increasing or those who said it is decreasing. The same pattern was found to exist for perceptions of crime trends in the respondents' neighborhoods as was the case for perceptions of trends in the city as a whole. While it is always possible to concoct ex post facto explanatory theories to account for almost any empirical finding, to do so here would involve little more than ungrounded speculation. The lack of significance found for two of the variables dealing with perceptions of crime trends and the inconsistent pattern for the other two would make it more plausible to suggest that this area is simply not a salient one in the determination of inclination to report observed crimes.

TABLE 30

INCLINATION TO REPORT CRIME BY PERCEPTIONS  
OF CRIME PATTERNS AND TRENDS

Variable	Significance Level	<u>Eta</u>	Comments
(Q1) Chicago crime <u>vs.</u> other cities	.59	NS	
(Q2) Chicago crime over time	.00	.15	Inconsistent pattern
(Q3) Neighborhood crime <u>vs.</u> other Chicago neighborhoods	.08	NS	
(Q4) Neighborhood crime over time	.01	.09	Inconsistent pattern

Police-Related Factors

Police-related factors have been separated into those which pertain to perceptions of the quality and efficacy of police efforts, perceptions of police attitudes and practices, and prior contacts with the police. The relationships between these sets of factors and inclination to report crime are examined in Tables 31, 32, and 33, respectively.

Respondents' assessments of the job they feel the Chicago Police are doing when expressed as "excellent," "pretty good," "only fair," or "poor," are significantly related to inclination to call the police. The relationship is monotonic and in the direction one might suspect: the more favorably one rates the performance of the police, the more likely he is to report observed crimes to them. Assessments of police performance in the respondents' neighborhoods reveal a similar pattern which differs only in the reversal of the "only fair" and "poor" categories--and only by a very tiny amount. Respondents who indicated that they feel the police in their

neighborhoods do an "only fair" or "poor" job were asked whether they attribute this to an inadequate number of policemen or poor performance on the part of the police. Differences in responses to this question were not significant in differentiating inclination to report observed crimes. Respondents were asked to rate the ability of the police to solve or effectively deal with five types of incidents: burglaries and house break-ins, street robberies and muggings, drug dealing, vandalism, and violent family fights. Differences in responses to each of these questions were highly significant in differentiating inclination to report crime and all of these operated in the predicted direction: a belief that the police could solve or effectively deal with each of these situations resulted in a greater tendency to call the police to report observed crimes. Overall, the hypotheses that higher opinions of police performance and higher ratings of police efficacy in dealing with each of a wide range of criminal activities will result in an enhanced tendency to report observed crimes were supported by all of the variables that were designed to measure these beliefs.

Respondents' perceptions of a genuine concern on the part of the police for the people in their neighborhoods (as opposed to being motivated primarily by the necessity of simply doing their job) were significantly related to reporting. This was evidenced in the predicted direction: a perception of a genuine concern was associated with a higher rate of reporting. Respondents were asked to assess whether they felt the police are too harsh, too lenient, or just about right in their treatment of suspects. The more harsh the respondent indicated he felt the police are in handling suspects, the less likely he was to initiate a call to report a crime or suspicious circumstances. This finding has a certain logic to it in that individuals who see the police as being generally too harsh might be seen

TABLE 31

INCLINATION TO REPORT CRIME BY PERCEIVED  
QUALITY AND EFFICACY OF POLICE EFFORT

Variable	Significance Level	Eta	Comments
(Q20) Rating of Chicago Police job	.00	.16	Predicted direction
(Q21) Rating of neighborhood police job	.00	.18	Predicted direction
(Q21a) Reasons for unsatisfactory police job	.28	NS	Evaluation predicts; reason for it does not
(Q25a) Police efficacy in solving burglaries	.00	.15	Predicted direction
(Q25b) Police efficacy in solving robberies	.00	.14	Predicted direction
(Q25c) Police efficacy in solving drug dealing	.00	.10	Predicted direction
(Q25d) Police efficacy in solving vandalism	.00	.11	Predicted direction
(Q25e) Police efficacy in dealing with family fights	.00	.12	Predicted direction

as invoking a "compensatory leniency" by enforcing the ultimate leniency in police action--that of inaction. Additionally, a small number of individuals responded to this question with the volunteered response that the police treat different groups differently and that an across-the-board judgment is therefore inappropriate. The impact of this perception of the differential treatment of various groups was evidenced in a somewhat lower-than-average inclination to report (this rate was between that attained by those who saw the police as too harsh and those who saw them as just about right). Respondents who indicated that they felt that the police show enough respect to people like themselves were significantly more likely to report observed

crimes than those who felt they do not. Finally, respondents were asked whether they felt the police wanted suspicious activities called to their attention. Those who responded affirmatively were significantly more inclined to act upon this belief and report observed crimes. Examination of a supplementary question asked of those who responded negatively revealed no significant differences in propensity to report crimes between those who attributed their response to a perception that the police are simply not concerned about such calls and those who attributed it to their belief that the police want one to be certain that something is a crime before he brings it to their attention. Apparently, the belief that the police do not want suspicious circumstances reported is important in deterring calls while the reasons for this belief have little or no influence.

TABLE 32  
INCLINATION TO REPORT CRIME BY PERCEPTIONS  
OF POLICE ATTITUDES AND PRACTICES

Variable	Significance Level	<u>Eta</u>	Comments
(Q26) Genuine police concern for neighborhood	.00	.22	Predicted direction
(Q27) Severity of police treatment of suspects	.00	.23	Perceived severity or differential treatment inhibits reporting
(Q28) Police respect for citizens	.00	.15	Predicted direction
(Q29) Police desire to see suspicions reported	.00	.25	Predicted direction

To summarize the implications of Table 32, it has been demonstrated that respondents' perceptions of police attitudes and practices in a number

of distinct areas exert an influence on the tendency of respondents to report observed crimes. This influence was present for each of the attitudes and practices examined in this research: impressions of genuine concern on the part of the police for the people in the neighborhoods they serve, perceptions of the severity of the treatment of suspects by the police (and the evenhandedness of this treatment), demonstration of police respect for citizens, and beliefs that the police want suspicious circumstances called to their attention were all significantly related to inclination to report observed crimes. For each of these perceptions, except possibly that pertaining to the severity of the handling of suspects, the predicted directionality of the impact on crime reporting was obvious, and in each case the prediction was substantiated by the data collected. For the severity of the handling of suspects, the direction of the prediction was perhaps less obvious but still hopefully clear. The belief that the police are excessively severe in the handling of suspects or a perception of the inequitable treatment of different groups resulted in a decrease in the inclination to report observed crimes.

Respondents' contacts with the police were examined with respect to the existence of prior contacts, their subjective quality as seen by respondents, and the number of respondent-initiated calls to the police. Persons who attributed their opinions of the police to personal experience were significantly more likely to initiate reports than were respondents who said that most of their opinions were based upon reports from various news media. Similarly, persons who indicated that they had at some time in the past called the police to report a crime or suspicious circumstance were significantly more likely to indicate a propensity to report incidents encountered in the future than were those who had not. Interpretation of this particular finding is not, however, straightforward. An interpretation

consistent with that implied by the variable considered immediately previous to this one would maintain that some prior direct experience with the police tends to reduce inhibitions about calling them (and is, for that reason, desirable). Another explanation, not inconsistent with this one, would see the relationship between actual prior instances of calling the police and a demonstrated inclination to indicate a willingness to call them in responding to hypothetical situations as validating the method of assessing inclination to call the police by employing hypothetical questions. Of course, one could maintain that neither is necessarily the case, arguing that those who indicate a greater tendency to call the police in response to hypothetical incidents coincidentally happen to be those who have had the greatest likelihood of encountering situations that called for police action in real life. While this interpretation seems more far-fetched than the others, there is nothing contained in the data collected to disprove it. In the absence of such evidence, we must rely on the relative plausibility of various interpretations and our own good sense.

Individuals who indicated they had called the police to report a crime or suspicious circumstances were asked the number of instances when they had done so. The quantity of these calls was found to be significantly and positively associated with inclination to call the police. (This was indicated both by eta for the collapsed categories and by Pearson's  $r$  for the raw frequencies.)

Respondents who indicated they had called the police to report a crime or suspicious circumstance were asked three further questions about the police response to their call and their reaction to it. An indication of interest on the part of the police officer who answered the respondents' calls was positively and significantly associated with inclination to

TABLE 33

INCLINATION TO REPORT CRIME BY PRIOR  
CONTACTS WITH POLICE

Variable	Significance Level	Eta	Comments
(Q22) Primary source of opinions of police	.00	.09	Predicted direction (personal contact helps)
(Q23) Existence of previous reports to police	.00	.19	Predicted direction
(Q23a) Number of previous reports to police <sup>1</sup>	.00	.23	Predicted direction
(Q23b) Police interest in report(s)	.00	.23	Predicted direction
(Q23c) Police follow-up on report(s)	.01	.11	Predicted direction
(Q23d) Satisfaction with police response to report(s)	.00	.22	Predicted direction
(Q24) Police treatment in other contacts	.00	.21	Predicted direction

<sup>1</sup> Responses were collapsed into the categories indicated in Appendix C. The Pearson's r employing uncollapsed data was .16 for which the significance level was .00.

report. Respondents who indicated that they felt that the police followed up on their call(s) were more inclined to report than those who said they did not or those who said they did some of the time. The responses of the latter two categories were very close but those who responded "sometimes" were slightly (and probably not significantly) less inclined to report than those who said the police did not follow up on their calls. The impact of this rare "negative" finding is diminished by its magnitude (which was slight) and the fact that the number of cases in the "sometimes" category was only forty. Satisfaction with the overall police response to respondents'

calls was positively and significantly associated with inclination to initiate reports. It should also be noted that inclination to report was lower for those who had indicated they had never called the police to report a crime or suspicious circumstance than it was for those who had called and had indicated dissatisfaction with the police response as measured by each of these three indicators. This would reasonably lead one to suspect that the absence of prior calls is more salient in inhibiting inclination to call than an unsatisfactory response to a previous call, although both factors do exert an influence.

All respondents were asked whether they considered themselves to have been well-treated by the police in the course of other personal contacts. Significant differences were found in responses to this question which revealed that those who said they had been well-treated were considerably more inclined to initiate calls than those who said they had not been well-treated. Those who indicated they had not had any personal contact with the police were even less likely to report than those who said they had not been treated well, although this difference was not nearly so large.

The collective examination of the relationship between the variables dealing with respondents' contacts with the police and inclination to report crime reveals a singular picture. Two separate measures of the existence of personal contacts with the police (and implicit inclusion in a third), four measures of the quality of these contacts, and a measure of their quantity present a consistent pattern which reveals that inclination to report crime is individually and collectively enhanced by the existence of prior personal contacts between the respondent and the police, more numerous contacts, and favorable impressions of these contacts.

## Neighborhood and Community Factors

The following four tables and the discussion pertaining to them deal with the influence of neighborhood and community factors on citizen inclination to report crime. The topics into which these factors have been divided are perceptions of community norms (Table 34), integration in community life (Table 35), commitment to remain in the neighborhood (Table 36), and type of community (Table 37).

Four questions in the survey instrument relate to what has been characterized here as comprising perceptions of community norms. Respondents were asked to assess whether they thought that most of their neighbors felt the same as they did about the significance and relative importance of fear of victimization and the effect on the quality of life as reasons for being concerned about crime. In retrospect, the full implications of what was being addressed in this question may have been sufficiently obscure to cause respondents to respond primarily to a generalized query about the extent to which they felt that they and their neighbors were in general agreement about something pertaining to the broad area of crime and concern about it. Whatever the interpretation, the results indicate that those who saw themselves as being in agreement with their neighbors were more inclined to report observed crime than those who did not see their views as concordant. It is suggested that this tendency to see oneself as being in agreement with one's neighbors results in, or at least is associated with, a tendency to feel a greater obligation to engage in activity which is, in some sense, protective of the neighborhood.

Respondents were asked how much they thought the people in their neighborhoods care about the neighborhood and the well-being of their neighbors. Those who differed in their responses to this question were significantly different in their inclination to report crime. Respondents who felt that

most of their neighbors care "a great deal" were the most likely to report. However, those who indicated they felt their neighbors care "somewhat" were least likely, with those indicating "not much at all" indicating an intermediate tendency equidistant from the other two. The lack of a monotonic trend makes interpretation of the implications of this finding problematic.

TABLE 34  
INCLINATION TO REPORT CRIME BY PERCEPTIONS  
OF COMMUNITY NORMS

Variable	Significance Level	<u>Eta</u>	Comments
(Q8) Neighbors' agreement about reasons for concern about crime	.00	.09	Predicted direction
(Q33) Neighbors' concern for neighborhood well-being	.00	.11	Some tendency; order mixed
(Q11a) Neighbors' response to open door	.00	.19	Predicted direction
(Q17a) Neighbors' response to suspicious person	.00	.29	Predicted direction

Among factors relating to perceptions of community norms, those pertaining directly to estimations of whether neighbors would initiate calls to the police proved to be the strongest predictors of respondent inclination. For two of the hypothetical questions presented (questions 11 and 17) after respondents were asked about their own probable reaction, they were asked what they felt most of their neighbors would do if confronted with a similar situation. For each question, an indication of a perception that most of their neighbors would initiate a call to the police was associated with a greater inclination to call oneself. As indicated in Table 34, the strength

of the associations for each of the variables is greater than for either of the other measures of the influence of community norms. This should not be surprising since these questions measure those community norms that relate most directly to the behavior examined. In fact, the strength of the association between inclination to report and respondent's perception of the likely response of most of his neighbors to question 17, which dealt with a suspicious person in the neighborhood, was the strongest bivariate association between inclination to report observed crime and any variable measured in the entire survey.

Questions concerning the number of neighbors known by the respondent, length of residence in the neighborhood, and participation in the activities of a block or community organization within the neighborhood were taken as indicators of integration in community life. It was hypothesized that those who had lived in their neighborhood for a longer period of time, those who are more involved with community affairs and those who know a larger number of their neighbors will be more inclined to report crime. Those who indicated that they know a lot of their neighbors were more likely to report crime than were those who indicated they know a few of them. These respondents, in turn, were significantly more likely to report crimes than were those who indicated that they do not know any of their neighbors. Similarly, length of residence in the neighborhood was positively correlated with inclination to report crime. The hypothesis was also supported by the fact that individuals who indicated that they participate in the activities of some organization in their neighborhoods were significantly more likely to report observed crimes than those who do not. It is interesting to note that for those who had participated in one, whether or not these organizations have ever had anything to do with police-related concerns, made no difference with respect to inclination to call the police. This may be seen as further evidence that the crucial dimension is the integration with community life implied by participation rather than the specific concerns engendered by the nature of the organization itself.

One indicator of the commitment of respondents to remain in their respective neighborhoods was obtained by asking them whether they are

TABLE 35

INCLINATION TO REPORT CRIME BY INTEGRATION  
IN COMMUNITY LIFE

Variable	Significance Level	Eta	Comments
(Q30) Number of neighbors known	.00	.16	Predicted direction
(Q31) Length of residence in neighborhood	.01	.07 <sup>1</sup>	Predicted direction
(Q34) Participation in community organization activity	.00	.17	Predicted direction
(Q35) Community organization's involvement in police-related matters	.83	NS	Community contact matters more than its content

<sup>1</sup>Because this variable was measured at interval level, this figure is Pearson's r.

happy enough with their neighborhood to want to stay there. It was also felt that the ownership of a home gives some indication of commitment to remain in the neighborhood, albeit possibly involuntarily. It was hypothesized that responses indicative of greater commitment to remain in the neighborhood would be associated with a tendency to report crime. A supplementary hypothesis was tested in a question asked of those who expressed dissatisfaction with their neighborhood in response to the question which inquired about whether they were happy enough with their neighborhoods to want to stay there. These respondents were asked if their dissatisfaction had anything to do with crime in their neighborhoods. It was felt that those who indicated sensitivity to crime as an issue of immediate concern in this manner would reflect this by demonstrating a greater inclination to report crimes they themselves observed. Inclination to report crime was

examined with respect to all three of these variables and was observed to be related to them in the predicted direction; however, the relationship was not statistically significant for any of them. The data must therefore be seen as failing to adequately support the hypotheses pertaining to commitment to remain in the neighborhood.

TABLE 36

INCLINATION TO REPORT CRIME BY COMMITMENT  
TO REMAIN IN NEIGHBORHOOD

Variable	Significance Level	<u>Eta</u>	Comments
(Q32) Satisfaction with neighborhood	.10	NS	NS tendency for satisfied R's to report
(Q32a) Role of crime in dissatisfaction with neighborhood	.22	NS	NS tendency for crime-factor conscious R's to report
(Q37) Home ownership	.11	NS	NS tendency for homeowners to report

The final set of neighborhood and community factors to be considered consist of a pair of variables that are referred to, for want of a better title, as dealing with the "type of community." The first of these variables identifies the respondent as living in a single or multi-family dwelling. Ideally, for this variable to meaningfully indicate something about community type, it should have been measured at the community level,<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>The examination of factors, such as this one, which operate at the community level will be the focus of much of the subsequent analyses to which these data will be subjected.

perhaps reflecting the characteristic type of dwelling in the area. It was the presumed association between the aggregate and individual level measurements of this variable and the want of a more appropriate classification that provided the admittedly less-than-totally-satisfactory justification for inclusion of this variable here. At any rate, no attempt is being made to infer anything based upon this classification and there were no demonstrated differences in inclination to call the police between respondents who live in single-family dwellings and those who live in multi-family units.

The other variable identified the respondents as residing in one of the 76 community areas of the city. Differences in inclination to report crime among respondents who live in different community areas were not quite large enough to be statistically significant. This finding does not, however, invalidate the legitimacy of neighborhood-level analysis. It is clear that there is great variation in neighborhood character within many of the community areas. A smaller geographic unit, such as a census tract, would be more sensitive in reflecting the impact of these differences. Likewise, the fact that the community area variable was almost significant in differentiating inclination to report crime would make it worth considering forming units of analysis by grouping some community areas according to certain characteristics known to be important (and perhaps dividing others found to contain two or more widely disparate groups). At any rate, the main point of these suggestions is to infer that the finding of no significant differences by community area reported here should not be seen as precluding the possibility that other analyses based upon community variables will prove fruitful. The primary danger in embarking on such an examination (and one which is relevant to the specific suggestions made here as well as others) is that of falling into a logical statistical problem

by employing the data already available to construct conveniently contrived categories designed to yield statistically significant differences. Hopefully, an awareness and frank recognition of this logical flaw will help to guide the analysis of community-level variables that is undertaken in future analyses of these data.

TABLE 37  
INCLINATION TO REPORT CRIME  
BY TYPE OF COMMUNITY

Variable	Significance Level	<u>Eta</u>	Comments
(Q36) Single <u>vs.</u> multi-family dwelling	.37	NS	NS tendency for single family dwelling R's to report
(Q45) Community area	.06	NS	Just barely NS; worth further exploration

#### Demographic Characteristics

Data on a wide range of demographic variables were collected. The variables presented in Table 38 cover most of the traditional demographic factors. These are the variables that deal with ethno-religious affiliation, socio-economic status, age, and sex. Table 39 presents data with respect to variables which are not considered demographic in the usual sense, some of which are peculiar to this survey. Finally, Table 40 will be discussed which deals with variables relating to family ties. This will complete our consideration of the bivariate relationships between inclination to call the police to report a crime and the range of variables about which data were collected in the course of the interviews conducted. Hypotheses had

not been generated for all of these demographic variables but it was felt that an examination of the relationship between all of the factors about which information was available and inclination to report crime would be useful in guiding subsequent analyses. Additionally, some factors, such as race and ethnicity, had been addressed in the generated hypotheses but in a different form from that in which they are presented here.<sup>1</sup> Consideration of hypotheses such as these will be a task to be undertaken in future work.

Race was found to be significantly related to inclination to report, with blacks slightly more likely to do so than whites. When the variable was further subdivided according to ethnicity, however, it was no longer significantly related to inclination to report. Religion was a highly significant variable in differentiating inclination to report; however, the pattern that accounts for this makes it a less useful finding than it might have been. This is true because Catholics and Protestants, who comprise 76% of the sample, are virtually indistinguishable from each other in their inclination to report (both were above the mean). The level of statistical significance attained was due to the lesser tendency to report among those who gave their religion as Jewish, none, or some other religion.

Differences in inclination to report crime by education were not significant. Income did achieve statistical significance, but the lack of a discernible pattern and the fact that statistical significance was just

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<sup>1</sup>The hypotheses relating to race and ethnicity that were discussed in a previous section dealt with the impact of racial and ethnic homogeneity (a community-level variable) and one's racial and ethnic background relative to others in one's neighborhood (a relational variable). The present discussion is necessarily limited to the effect of racial and ethnic background per se.

barely attained ( $p = .04$ ) prevent us from drawing convincing inferences. Respondent's occupation was significant in differentiating inclination to report crime. Interpretation of this relationship necessitates the formulation of certain judgments about the nature of the similarities between occupations with parallel tendencies with respect to the reporting or non-reporting of crime. Such judgments always carry with them the possibility of becoming contrived explanatory theories, and explanations should be considered with this in mind. However, this difficulty should not be employed as an excuse for avoiding an attempt to identify patterns in the data collected. Higher reporting inclination was found to exist for white collar executives, skilled craftsmen, semi-skilled workers and operatives, high school students, and housewives. Conversely, a lower than average inclination was found among professionals, clerical workers, unskilled laborers, and college and graduate students. Service workers were approximately at the mean for reporting. It is suggested that the underlying pattern may be related to what is generally seen as the "social conservatism" associated with various types of occupations such that the more socially conservative the occupation, the greater the tendency to report. Because it is not contended that there is proof of this theory, but only that there is ample evidence to warrant further investigation, it would be pointless to overstate the case. A final observation with respect to occupation is that when the family occupation<sup>1</sup> was examined instead of respondent's occupation, the relationship with inclination to report was no longer significant.

The remaining principal demographic variables are age and sex. Each of

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<sup>1</sup>The construction of and logic underlying this variable were discussed in the first paper of this report.

these is significantly related to inclination to report crime, with a greater tendency to report exhibited by females than males and by older persons than younger ones. (All age categories below 35 years of age in the grouped data were below the reporting mean, and all categories above 35 were above the mean, and although the trend was not strictly monotonic, the Pearson's r between age of respondent (ungrouped data) and inclination to report was positive.)

TABLE 38  
INCLINATION TO REPORT CRIME BY PRINCIPAL  
INDIVIDUAL DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Variable	Significance Level	<u>Eta</u>	Comments
(Q39) Race <sup>1</sup>	.01	.07	Blacks more likely to report
(Q40) Ethnicity	.12	NS	
(Q42) Religion	.00	.17	Only Jews and miscellaneous less likely to report
(Q41) Education	.25	NS	
(Q46) Income	.04	.10	No monotonic trend
(Q38) Respondent's occupation	.01	.14	"Social conservatism"?
(Q38a) Family occupation	.23	NS	
(Q44) Age <sup>2</sup>	.01	.14	Older persons more likely to report
* Sex	.03	.06	Females more likely to report

\* This variable was coded by the interviewer

<sup>1</sup> Blacks and whites only; eight Orientals and one American Indian were treated as missing cases.

<sup>2</sup> Responses were collapsed into the categories indicated in Appendix C. The Pearson's r employing uncollapsed data was .12 for which the significance level was .00.

In addition to the principal demographic variables just discussed, data were collected for several other factors less frequently examined. These include type of telephone listing, inclination to be interviewed (as defined in the first paper of this report), and three variables based upon the interviewer's subjective assessment of the interview: the respondent's attitude towards the interview, the existence of a language problem, and the respondent's understanding of the questionnaire. Because the assignment of interviewers to specific interviews was not judiciously randomized, a particularly cautious approach to the interpretation of these last three variables is in order.

The findings with respect to these variables may be presented in a straightforward manner. Respondents with unlisted telephones were significantly more inclined to initiate reports. Likewise, "amenable" respondents (in the sense used in the other paper comprising this report) were more likely to report. This finding is consistent with that found for the attitude of the respondent: the more a respondent appeared to the interviewer to be friendly and interested in the interview, the greater was his demonstrated inclination to report. Finally, although one might have hypothesized that either a language problem or a difficulty in understanding the relatively simple questions asked in the course of the interview would result in a diminished sense of personal efficacy that would reduce the tendency to take the initiative to call the police, the variables which measured these relationships yielded no significant differences.

The final table presents the relationship between various indicators of family ties and inclination to initiate reports. It had been hypothesized that family ties in the form of responsibility for persons other than oneself would be associated with a tendency to report. It was felt that these

TABLE 39.

INCLINATION TO REPORT CRIME BY SUPPLEMENTARY  
DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Variable	Significance Level	Eta	Comments
Phone listed/unlisted	.02	.07	Unlisted more likely to report
Inclination to be interviewed	.01	.07	Amenables more likely to report
Respondent's attitude toward interview <sup>1</sup>	.00	.18	Friendly R's more likely to report
Existence of language problem <sup>1</sup>	.63	NS	
Respondent's understanding of questionnaire <sup>1</sup>	.28	NS	

<sup>1</sup>The interviewer's subjective evaluation was the basis for coding each of these variables.

would be manifest in a greater tendency to report among married as opposed to single respondents and among those with minor children present in the household as opposed to those without children in the household. Married respondents did, in fact, exhibit the hypothesized tendency to report more readily. There was a similar tendency for those with minor children present in the household, but it was not sufficient to attain statistical significance.

Finally, four variables are presented which seemed less likely to predict inclination to report than did the two above. Because they also are indicators of family ties, at least in a general sense, they are appropriately considered here. These variables are based on residence of respondents' parents in the Chicago area, respondents' frequency of visits with parents and (for married respondents) spouses' parents residence in Chicago

area, and frequency of visits with spouses' parents. Not surprisingly, three of the four variables yielded differences that were not statistically significant and the fourth was probably spurious.

TABLE 40  
INCLINATION TO REPORT CRIME BY FAMILY TIES

Variable	Significance Level	<u>Eta</u>	Comments
(Q49) Marital status	.00	.06	Married R's more likely to report
(Q43) Presence of minor children in household	.13	NS	NS tendency for R's living with children to report
(Q47) Parents residence in Chicago area	.03	.08	Probably spurious
(Q48) Frequency of visits with parents	.43	NS	
(Q50) In-laws residence in Chicago area	.93	NS	
(Q51) Frequency of visits with in-laws	.55	NS	

#### Concluding Observations

The most striking feature of the data analyzed is that no single factor has emerged which explains a large proportion of the variability in inclination to report observed crimes.<sup>1</sup> This fact, the fact that the directionality (if not the magnitude) of nearly all the relationships was as predicted by theory, and the fact that much larger proportions of the variance in inclina-

<sup>1</sup>The proportion of variance in inclination to report explained by any of the variables examined may be obtained by squaring the value of eta reported.

tion to report have been explained by the combined effect of several of these variables (in analysis undertaken but not reported here) suggest that many factors simultaneously influence reporting behavior.

What is suggested by these data, then, is that discrepancies between the reasons given for not reporting assaults (Block, 1974:559) and those given for not reporting a variety of offenses (Reynolds and Blyth, 1974: 12a) may prove ultimately to enlighten only one factor (here, the nature of the offense) among many which influence the reasons why crimes are reported or not. Overall, it is suggested that what is indicated is that 1) a large number of factors influence inclination to report, and 2) different subsets of these factors are salient for different people and under different circumstances. It is this multiple causation explanation that best accounts for the finding that a wide range of variables are associated, in the direction that had been predicted, with inclination to report crime. Likewise, the relatively small magnitude of these predicted effects is accounted for by the explanation that each relevant factor may not exert an influence in each and every case, that a variety of factors are salient under different conditions and for different people.

These suggestions are compatible with the "rationality of reporting" hypothesis suggested by Skogan and developed in the beginning of this paper. A number of logically derived hypotheses were suggested, most of which were supported (consistently if not strongly) by the data presented. By and large, the hypotheses appear to reflect factors that operate for some people, some of the time. Any one of these, or several, or none, may influence the specific reaction of a particular individual at a given point in time.

It should be remembered also that the omission of other factors, some of which may be particularly strongly related to the dependent variable, could account for the overall size of the associations found. One indication

of the potential strength of factors other than those discussed was evident in the responses to a follow-up question asked of those who had indicated that they would not call the police in response to one of the hypothetical questions (question #17). Nearly two-thirds of those who had indicated they would not call the police to report the incident described, indicated that they would tell police officers who later happened to park on the block about the incident. This suggests the potential importance of the ease with which a call can be initiated as a factor that influences reporting behavior. Still other factors could not be considered because they were not amenable to examination in this mode of research. Included among these would be an examination of the extent to which reporting behavior is related to proclivity to initiate other kinds of helping behavior in what might be conceived of as a "Good Samaritanism" variable.

To conclude, the work described here should provide a firm basis for proceeding with subsequent work in this area. A number of factors have been identified as substantially related to inclination to report observed crimes. Other factors that had been thought to be related now appear less likely to prove relevant. While a recognition of "the asymmetry of verifiability and falsifiability" (Popper, 1959) compels us to feel more confident about the discrediting of some theories than the establishment of others, the evidence presented in this paper can lead us to make a number of assertions, albeit tentative ones, about the types of factors that seem to be most strongly related to inclination to report observed crimes. The predicted influence of police-related variables, whether based on perceptions of the quality and efficacy of the police, perceptions of police attitudes and practices, or the existence, quantity or perceived quality of prior contacts with the police, all materialized and were supported by the

data. Variables measuring perceptions of community norms and integration in community life but neither those pertaining to commitment to remain in the neighborhood nor type of community were shown to be associated with inclination to report in the predicted manner. The evidence for the importance of crime-related factors was much weaker. Perceptions of crime patterns and trends were either not significantly related to inclination to report or were related in an inconsistent manner. Finally, of the range of demographic variables examined, age and occupation demonstrated the greatest potential, with some indication of prospects for further examinations of the influence of religion or its correlates.

From here, one logical next step would be to employ this information in the fuller elaboration of models which endeavor to specify which factors exert important influences under which conditions, in what relative strengths, and how they all interrelate in determining how these types of decisions are made. At the very least, it is hoped that it has been demonstrated that we might do well to divert some attention (and resources) from the study of the reporting of victimization to the examination of reports of observed crimes. Although certainly beset with a more troublesome set of methodological complications, the area holds forth a promise of greater potential impact for it can provide a basis for dealing with a problem rather than simply measuring its extent.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A  
REFUSAL PERSUASION LETTER  
NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY  
EVANSTON, ILLINOIS 60201

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY

September, 1975

Dear Chicagoan,

We really care about what you think. This is why our interviewer telephoned you recently. Unfortunately, she was unable to complete a short telephone interview with you. We would appreciate your taking a few moments to allow us to explain what this interview is about, who we are, and why it is very important to us that we speak to you.

We are conducting a public opinion survey sponsored by the National Science Foundation. We are presently working from Northwestern University. Our survey concerns how people feel about the problem of crime in Chicago and how the police are handling it.

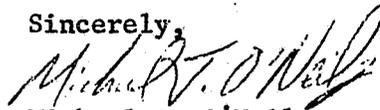
Since it is impossible to interview everyone in the City, a representative sample of people has been picked by selecting telephone numbers at random (simply by mixing up all possible combinations of the numbers 0 thru 9). Your number was selected entirely by chance, but once a number is picked we are not allowed to substitute. Losing even one interview means that we lose not only the information on that particular person but the many thousands of others who he represents.

You have fallen into our sample. We realize that you have a busy schedule, but we need to consider the opinions and experiences of busy people as well as those who have more time, in order to collect information that will be representative of many points of view. Because it is so important that we obtain an interview for each telephone number selected, we obtained your name and address thru the Telephone Company's Name and Address Service (796-9600) so we could send you this letter.

Because we are working for research purposes only, any information we collect will be kept completely confidential--no information identifying you in any way will ever be released.

We are asking our interviewer to call you again within the next few days. We hope this letter makes it clear why your opinions are important to us and that you will consider this when you hear from her.

Sincerely,



Michael J. O'Neil  
Research Project Director

If you have any further questions about our project, I will be happy to provide whatever information you request. I can be contacted c/o Sociology Department, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois 60201.



APPENDIX C  
UNIVARIATE FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS

1. As you may know, the crime rate has become a serious problem in many parts of the country today. What about here in Chicago -- would you say that the crime problem is worse in Chicago than in most other large cities, that it's not as bad, or that it's pretty much the same as in other large cities?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Worse in Chicago	296	24.5%	26.8%
Same as in other cities	712	58.9%	64.6%
Not as bad	95	7.9%	8.6%
Refused to answer	3	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>102</u>	<u>8.4%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	99.9%	100.0%

2. Thinking back over the past year or so, do you think that the crime problem has gotten worse in Chicago, that it's about the same, or that there's less crime now than a few years back?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Crime has gotten worse	855	70.8%	73.9%
Crime has stayed the same	212	17.5%	18.3%
Less crime now	90	7.5%	7.8%
Newly moved to Chicago	7	0.6%	missing
Refused to answer	2	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>42</u>	<u>3.5%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.1%	100.0%

3. What about in the area right around your home? Do you feel that the general amount of crime in your neighborhood is pretty much the same as for the rest of Chicago, or would you say there is more or less crime in your area?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
More crime in my neighborhood	241	20.0%	21.2%
Same as other neighborhoods	241	20.0%	21.2%
Less crime in my neighborhood	656	54.3%	57.6%
Inapplicable	3	0.2%	missing
Refused to answer	2	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>65</u>	<u>5.4%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.1%	100.0%

4. And has crime gotten any worse in your neighborhood in the last year or two, has it stayed about the same, or do you think there is less crime than there used to be in your neighborhood? (Not asked of respondents who indicated they had recently moved to Chicago.)

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Crime has gotten worse	459	38.0%	41.7%
Crime has stayed the same	531	44.0%	48.2%
Less crime now	112	9.3%	10.2%
Inapplicable	17	1.4%	missing
Refused to answer	2	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>87</u>	<u>7.2%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.1%	100.1%

5. People have different reasons, of course, for being worried about crime in Chicago. Here are two reasons we'd like to ask about... some people are worried about crime because they, themselves, have been victims of a crime or they are afraid they may soon become victims. Do you personally feel this way?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, fear victimization	730	60.4%	61.4%
No, don't fear victimization	458	37.9%	38.6%
Don't know	<u>20</u>	<u>1.7%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

6. Another reason people are worried about crime is the moral problems it raises and its effects on the general quality of life in Chicago. Are you concerned about this?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, concerned about the quality of life	954	79.0%	81.7%
No, not concerned about the quality of life	213	17.6%	18.3%
Refused to answer	1	0.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>40</u>	<u>3.3%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

7. Which do you personally feel more strongly about, being a victim of crime or its effects on the quality of life? (Asked only of respondents who answered Yes to both question 5 and question 6. The frequencies reported below reflect responses to questions 5 and 6 as well as this question.)

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Concerned about victimization only	95	7.9%	9.1%
Both, more concerned about victimization	311	25.7%	29.8%
Both, refuses to rank order	65	5.4%	6.2%
Both, more concerned about quality of life	254	21.0%	24.3%
Concerned about quality of life only	319	26.4%	30.6%
Inapplicable	161	13.3%	missing
Refused to answer	1	0.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>2</u>	<u>0.2%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

8. Considering both of these reasons, do you think that most of your neighbors feel the same way you do?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, neighbors would agree	906	75.0%	88.4%
No, neighbors would disagree	119	9.9%	11.6%
Inapplicable	3	0.2%	missing
Refused to answer	2	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>178</u>	<u>14.7%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

9. If you wanted to go for a walk around your neighborhood after dark, would you be nervous or afraid about it?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, would be nervous or afraid	691	57.2%	57.5%
No, would not be nervous or afraid	511	42.3%	42.5%
Don't know	<u>6</u>	<u>0.5%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

- 9a. Would your nervousness or fear actually keep you from going out?  
(Asked only of respondents who indicated they would be nervous or afraid.)

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, fear would keep from going out	471	39.0%	68.7%
No, fear would not keep from going out	215	17.8%	31.3%
Inapplicable	<u>522</u>	<u>43.3%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.1%	100.0%

10. In John (Sue) Brown's neighborhood, there are a lot of young people who often gather in the evening on a street corner by his (her) home. As far as he (she) can tell, they never hurt anyone's property or bother anyone who passes by. But they are usually very noisy - always shouting at each other and playing the radio loudly. Occasionally the noise continues until fairly late at night which disturbs Mr. (Mrs.) Brown and several of his (her) neighbors. If you were in Mr. (Mrs.) Brown's position, would you call the police about this, or would you say you probably wouldn't call?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, would call the police	623	51.6%	52.4%
No, would not call the police	567	46.9%	47.6%
Inapplicable	1	0.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>17</u>	<u>1.4%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

11. OK. How about this case...Mary (Jim) Harris works a late night shift as a telephone operator (serviceman). She (he) is on her (his) way home as usual at about 2:00 in the morning, but as she (he) passes by the house next door to her (his) apartment building, she (he) sees that the front door is standing half open. While she (he) doesn't know the people who live there very well, she (he) does know that they have been away on vacation for over a week. All the lights in the house are out, and there is no sign of anyone around. If you ever found yourself in this situation, would you call the police about it or do you feel you probably wouldn't call?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, would call police	1,087	90.0%	91.0%
No, would not call police	107	8.9%	9.0%
Inapplicable	1	0.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>13</u>	<u>1.1%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.1%	100.0%

11a. What do you think most of the people in your neighborhood would do if they were in this situation?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Neighbors would call police	751	62.2%	73.1%
Neighbors would not call police	276	22.8%	26.9%
Inapplicable	3	0.2%	missing
Refused to answer	3	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>175</u>	<u>14.5%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	99.9%	100.0%

12. Next...While watching TV one evening, Mr. (Mrs.) Smith heard his (her) next door neighbors arguing. After the argument continued for a long time and the voices got louder, he (she) was convinced that things were getting violent. If you were in Mr. (Mrs.) Smith's position, would you call the police, do something else or take no action?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Would call police	541	44.8%	46.8%
Would do something else	213	17.6%	18.4%
Would take no action	402	33.3%	34.8%
Inapplicable	1	0.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>51</u>	<u>4.2%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

13. While waiting on an "L" platform, Mr. (Mrs.) Clark saw someone being held up at gunpoint on the street below. He (she) then told another person on the platform about the incident who said, "It happens all the time. Forget it!" Mr. (Mrs.) Clark took his advice and boarded the train. If you were in this situation would you do the same thing and board the train?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, would board the train	276	22.8%	24.1%
No, would call the police	654	54.1%	57.2%
No, would do something else	214	17.7%	18.7%
Inapplicable	2	0.2%	missing
Refused to answer	1	0.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>61</u>	<u>5.0%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	99.9%	100.0%

14. Now I'd like you to consider this one...You and a couple of your neighbors have known for some time that someone has been selling marijuana and other drugs in your neighborhood, but none of you are sure whether the seller is someone in the neighborhood or an outsider. You are especially concerned because you've found out that high school and grade school children are getting and using drugs. While you have no real evidence, you and your neighbors are beginning to suspect that the driver of a certain car that you've seen in the area lately might have something to do with selling the drugs. Would you notify the police about this, or would you say that you probably wouldn't call them?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, would call police	822	68.0%	72.2%
No, would not call police	317	26.2%	27.8%
Inapplicable	1	0.1%	missing
Refused to answer	1	0.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>67</u>	<u>5.5%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	99.9%	100.0%

15. Mr. (Mrs.) Grey, who lives in an apartment building, was awakened in the middle of the night by the barking of his (her) neighbor's dog. Looking out his (her) bedroom window, he (she) saw two men who seemed to be trying to break into a car on the street below. The men ran away when Mr. (Mrs.) Grey called down to ask what they were doing, so he (she) did not get a very good look at them in the dim light. He (she) did not recognize the car or know who the owner was. If an incident like this ever happened to you, would you call the police to report it, or do you think you probably wouldn't call?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, would call the police	852	70.5%	72.1%
No, would not call the police	330	27.3%	27.9%
Inapplicable	1	0.1%	missing
Refused to answer	1	0.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>24</u>	<u>2.0%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

16. Here's another one...Mr. (Mrs.) Johnson, while talking with one of his (her) close friends, has learned that one of the very young children in the neighborhood was seriously injured by his own father who lost his temper over something the child had done. The child was hurt badly enough to be hospitalized. Mr. (Mrs.) Johnson remembered seeing bruises on the child's face in the past, and he (she) began to suspect that the child was being beaten very often. Try to put yourself in Mr. (Mrs.) Johnson's position. Would you call the police to tell them about this, or do you think that you probably wouldn't call?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, would call the police	877	72.6%	75.3%
No, would not call the police	142	11.8%	12.2%
Would take some other action	145	12.0%	12.5%
Inapplicable	2	0.2%	missing
Refused to answer	2	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>40</u>	<u>3.3%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.1%	100.0%

17. Upon returning home one evening, Mr. (Mrs.) Green noticed a person he (she) had never seen before walking around his (her) neighbor's yard and looking at the outside of the house. He (she) knew that his (her) neighbors had gone away for a few days. He (she) thought about calling the police, but then he (she) decided he (she) couldn't be sure that the person was doing anything wrong. So, he (she) didn't call. Would you have done the same thing if you were in his (her) position and not call the police?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
No, would call police	625	51.7%	53.5%
Yes, would not call police	543	45.0%	46.5%
Inapplicable	2	0.2%	missing
Refused to answer	2	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>36</u>	<u>3.0%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.1%	100.0%

- 17a. What do you think most of your neighbors would do if they were in this situation?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Neighbors would call police	485	40.1%	49.2%
Neighbors would not call police	500	41.4%	50.8%
Inapplicable	4	0.3%	missing
Refused to answer	2	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>217</u>	<u>18.0%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

- 17b. Suppose later a police car parked on your block. Would you tell the police about the stranger? (Asked only of respondents who indicated that they themselves would not call.)

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, would tell nearby police	342	28.3%	65.3%
No, would not tell nearby police	182	15.1%	34.7%
Inapplicable	654	54.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>30</u>	<u>2.5%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

18. Suppose you knew of someone who you were certain was selling heroin in your neighborhood. Would you call the police to report this, or do you think you probably wouldn't call them?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, would call police	984	81.5%	85.3%
No, would not call police	169	14.0%	14.7%
Inapplicable	3	0.2%	missing
Refused to answer	2	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>50</u>	<u>4.1%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

- 18a. Would it make a difference in whether or not you'd call if the person were selling marijuana but no other drugs?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, marijuana would be different	337	27.9%	29.7%
No, no difference	796	65.9%	70.3%
Inapplicable	5	0.4%	missing
Don't know	<u>70</u>	<u>5.8%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

19. Here's the last situation...Bill (Barbara) Marsh lives across the street from a dry cleaning store that has recently gone out of business. The building is up for sale and has been empty for a couple of weeks. On Saturday night, Bill (Barbara) is coming home at about midnight after visiting some friends. As he (she) gets closer to his (her) house, he (she) sees two young men throwing what seem to be empty bottles at the windows of the old cleaning store. The store's front window is smashed, and broken glass litters the sidewalk. The two men run away when they hear the Marsh car approaching. Do you think that if you were in this position that you would call the police about what you saw, or would you say you probably wouldn't call?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, would call police	966	80.0%	81.7%
No, would not call police	217	18.0%	18.3%
Inapplicable	4	0.3%	missing
Refused to answer	2	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>19</u>	<u>1.6%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.1%	100.0%

20. What do you think of the job the Chicago police are doing in fighting crime? Would you say they're doing an excellent job, pretty good, only fair or poor?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Excellent	172	14.2%	14.7%
Pretty good	597	49.4%	51.1%
Only fair	290	24.0%	24.8%
Poor	109	9.0%	9.3%
Refused to answer	3	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>37</u>	<u>3.1%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	99.9%	99.9%

21. And how about the police who work in your neighborhood -- how would you rate the job they do?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Excellent	213	17.6%	18.7%
Pretty good	608	50.3%	53.4%
Only fair	210	17.4%	18.4%
Poor	108	8.9%	9.5%
Refused to answer	1	0.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>68</u>	<u>5.6%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	99.9%	100.0%

21a. Would you say this is true because there are not enough police patrolling your neighborhood or because the police don't do their job well? (Asked only of respondents who rated neighborhood police as only fair or poor. The frequencies reported below reflect responses to questions 21 and 21a.)

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Not enough police	109	9.0%	34.6%
Don't do their job well	184	15.2%	58.4%
Both equally	22	1.8%	7.0%
Police job good or excellent	886	73.3%	missing
Refused to answer	1	0.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>6</u>	<u>0.5%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	99.9%	100.0%

22. Do your opinions of the police come mostly from what you hear through the different news media, or do they come mostly from personal experiences and what you hear from people you know?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
News media	246	20.4%	21.2%
Personal experience	914	75.7%	78.8%
Inapplicable	2	0.2%	missing
Refused to answer	2	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>44</u>	<u>3.6%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.1%	100.0%

23. We're trying to find out about people's experiences when they've called the police to report any crime that they happen to have seen. First, we'd like to know whether you've ever called the police to report a crime or something you thought was suspicious?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, have called police	745	61.7%	61.8%
No, have not called police	460	38.1%	38.2%
Inapplicable	2	0.2%	missing
Refused to answer	<u>1</u>	<u>0.1%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.1%	100.0%

23a. About how many times would you say you have called? (Asked only of respondents who indicated they had called the police.)

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
One time	163	13.5%	21.9%
Two times	171	14.2%	23.0%
Three times	118	9.8%	15.9%
Four times	64	5.3%	8.6%
Five times	60	5.0%	8.1%
Six times	37	3.1%	5.0%
Seven times	8	0.7%	1.1%
Eight times	14	1.2%	1.9%
Nine times	6	0.5%	0.8%
Ten times	27	2.2%	3.6%
Eleven times	1	0.1%	0.1%
Twelve times	29	2.4%	3.9%
More than twelve times <sup>*</sup>	45	3.7%	6.1%
Inapplicable	459	38.0%	missing
Refused to answer	1	0.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>5</u>	<u>0.4%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.2%	100.0%

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\* The actual number indicated was coded. For purposes of presentation here, those indicating they had called the police more than twelve times are collapsed.

- 23b. Did the police officer who took your telephone call seem to be interested in your report, or did you get the feeling that he was not very concerned? (Asked of respondents who indicated they had called the police only one time.)
- 23b. Did the police usually seem to be interested in your telephone calls, or would you say that they usually weren't very concerned? (Asked of respondents who indicated they had called the police more than one time.)

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, seemed interested	550	45.5%	75.0%
No, not concerned	183	15.1%	25.0%
Inapplicable	459	38.0%	missing
Don't know	<u>16</u>	<u>1.3%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	99.9%	100.0%

- 23c. Do you think that the police followed up on your telephone call(s) or do you feel they didn't take any action? (Asked only of respondents who indicated they had called the police.)

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Followed up	571	47.3%	77.8%
Took no action	123	10.2%	16.8%
Sometimes followed up	40	3.3%	5.4%
Inapplicable	458	37.9%	missing
Refused to answer	1	0.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>15</u>	<u>1.2%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

23d. Generally, would you say that you were satisfied with the way the police responded to your call(s), or would you say that you were not satisfied with their response? (Asked only of respondents who indicated they had called the police.)

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Satisfied with police response	541	44.8%	73.0%
Not satisfied with police response	200	16.6%	27.0%
Inapplicable	458	37.9%	missing
Don't know	<u>9</u>	<u>0.7%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

24. When you have had any other kind of personal contact with the police, have you usually been treated well by them?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, treated well	912	75.5%	77.0%
No, not treated well	150	12.4%	12.7%
No contact at all	122	10.1%	10.3%
Inapplicable	1	0.1%	missing
Refused to answer	2	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>21</u>	<u>1.7%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

25a. Some people feel that the police are usually able to solve most crimes. Other people feel that there are certain crimes that are almost impossible for the police to solve. Do you think that burglaries and house break-ins are the kinds of crimes that the police usually solve?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, usually solve	404	33.4%	38.4%
No, do not usually solve	648	53.6%	61.6%
Inapplicable	3	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>153</u>	<u>12.7%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	99.9%	100.0%

25b. Do you think that street robberies and muggings are the kinds of crimes that the police usually solve?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, usually solve	451	37.3%	42.9%
No, do not usually solve	601	49.8%	57.1%
Inapplicable	3	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>153</u>	<u>12.7%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

25c. Do you think that drug dealing is the kind of crime that the police usually solve?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, usually solve	510	42.2%	49.6%
No, do not usually solve	519	43.0%	50.4%
Inapplicable	4	0.3%	missing
Refused to answer	1	0.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>174</u>	<u>14.4%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

25d. Do you think that vandalism is the kind of crime that the police usually solve?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, usually solve	449	37.2%	42.5%
No, do not usually solve	607	50.2%	57.5%
Inapplicable	3	0.2%	missing
Refused to answer	2	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>147</u>	<u>12.2%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

25e. Do you think that violent family fights are the kinds of situations that the police can usually do something about?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, can do something about	612	50.7%	56.8%
No, cannot do anything about	466	38.6%	43.2%
Inapplicable	2	0.2%	missing
Refused to answer	1	0.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>127</u>	<u>10.5%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.1%	100.0%

26. Do you think the police really care about the people in your neighborhood or are they just doing their job because they have to?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Police really care	594	49.2%	54.6%
Police just doing their job	493	40.8%	45.4%
Refused to answer	4	0.3%	missing
Don't know	<u>117</u>	<u>9.7%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

27. When the police are dealing with people who are suspected of breaking the law, do you think the police are generally too harsh, just about right, or too lenient?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Police too harsh	169	14.0%	15.8%
Just about right	638	52.8%	59.5%
Police too lenient	222	18.4%	20.7%
Police treat some groups differently from other groups	44	3.6%	4.1%
Don't know	<u>135</u>	<u>11.2%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.1%

28. Do you think the police in your neighborhood show enough respect to people like yourself?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, police show respect	985	81.5%	86.8%
No, not enough respect	150	12.4%	13.2%
Refused to answer	1	0.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>72</u>	<u>6.0%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

29. Do you think the police want citizens to report suspicious activities they observe -- for instance, when you see something that might be a crime but you are not sure? (The probe "Why not" was directed at those responding "No.")

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, police want suspicious activities reported	985	81.5%	87.0%
No, because police don't care	77	6.4%	6.8%
No, because police want you to be sure before you call	70	5.8%	6.2%
Inapplicable	2	0.2%	missing
Refused to answer	1	0.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>73</u>	<u>6.0%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

30. In the time that you have lived in your neighborhood, have you gotten to know a lot of your neighbors, only a few, or none of them?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Know a lot of neighbors	483	40.0%	40.0%
Know a few neighbors	648	53.7%	53.7%
Don't know any neighbors	76	6.3%	6.3%
Refused to answer	<u>1</u>	<u>0.1%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.1%	100.0%

31. How long have you lived in your neighborhood?\*

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Less than 1 year	102	8.4%	8.5%
1 year	91	7.5%	7.6%
2 to 4 years	277	22.9%	23.1%
5 to 9 years	275	22.8%	23.0%
10 to 14 years	144	11.9%	12.0%
15 to 24 years	188	15.6%	15.7%
25 years or more	121	10.0%	10.1%
Inapplicable	2	0.2%	missing
Refused to answer	7	0.6%	missing
Don't know	<u>1</u>	<u>0.1%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

32. Are you happy enough with your neighborhood to want to stay there?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, want to stay in neighborhood	894	74.0%	74.6%
No, do not want to stay	305	25.2%	25.4%
Inapplicable	2	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>7</u>	<u>0.6%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

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\* The actual number of years of residence (or months if less than one year) was coded. The data are collapsed for purposes of presentation here.

32a. Does this have anything to do with crime in your neighborhood?  
(Asked only of respondents who indicated they do not want to stay  
in their neighborhoods.)

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Crime is a factor	158	13.1%	51.8%
Crime is not a factor	147	12.2%	48.2%
Inapplicable	900	74.5%	missing
Don't know	<u>3</u>	<u>0.2%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

33. How much would you say that most people in your neighborhood care  
about the neighborhood and the well-being of their neighbors? Would  
you say they care a great deal, somewhat or not very much at all?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Neighbors care a great deal	693	57.4%	62.0%
Neighbors care somewhat	288	23.8%	25.8%
Neighbors don't care much at all	136	11.3%	12.2%
Inapplicable	28	2.3%	missing
Don't know	<u>63</u>	<u>5.2%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

34. Have you ever taken part in the activities of either a block or commun-  
ity organization in your neighborhood?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, community organization activity	426	35.3%	35.4%
No community organization activity	779	64.5%	64.6%
Inapplicable	1	0.1%	missing
Refused to answer	1	0.1%	missing
Don't know	<u>1</u>	<u>0.1%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.1%	100.0%

35. Have the activities of these groups ever had anything to do with the police or police business, for example, community safety or crime prevention? (Asked only of respondents who indicated they had taken part in community organization activities.)

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Police related activity	214	17.7%	51.7%
No police related activity	200	16.6%	48.3%
Inapplicable	784	64.9%	missing
Don't know	<u>10</u>	<u>0.8%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

36. Do you live in a single family house?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Single family house	459	38.0%	38.1%
Multi-family house	745	61.7%	61.9%
Refused to answer	<u>4</u>	<u>0.3%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

37. Do you rent your home (or apartment)?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Rent	719	59.5%	59.8%
Own or buying	484	40.1%	40.2%
Inapplicable	1	0.1%	missing
Refused to answer	3	0.2%	missing
Don't know	<u>1</u>	<u>0.1%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

38. What kind of work do you (did you normally) do? That is, what is (was) your job called?\*

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Professionals	172	14.2%	14.9%
Nonprofessional executives	118	9.8%	10.2%
Clerical workers	234	19.4%	20.3%
Skilled craftsmen	112	9.3%	9.7%
Operatives, semiskilled workers	90	7.5%	7.8%
Unskilled laborers	38	3.1%	3.3%
Service workers (except protective)	76	6.3%	6.6%
Protective service workers	24	2.0%	2.1%
High school students	42	3.5%	3.6%
College or graduate students	38	3.1%	3.3%
Housewives	211	17.5%	18.3%
None indicated	26	2.2%	missing
Refused to answer	21	1.7%	missing
Don't know	6	0.5%	missing
	<u>1,208</u>	<u>100.1%</u>	<u>100.1%</u>

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\* The responses to this question were originally coded into one of 43 occupational classifications. These were subsequently collapsed into the above categories.

38a. What does your husband do? (Asked only of respondents who indicated they were housewives.)

What does your father do? (Asked only of respondents who indicated they were students.)

(Responses to this question were combined with responses to the preceding question so that the frequencies reported below reflect responses to this question for housewives and students and responses to the previous question for all others. The procedures for original coding and subsequent collapsing of this variable are identical to those used for question 38.)

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Professionals	210	17.4%	19.3%
Nonprofessional executives	152	12.6%	14.0%
Clerical workers	247	20.4%	22.7%
Skilled craftsmen	160	13.2%	14.7%
Operatives, semiskilled workers	142	11.8%	13.1%
Unskilled laborers	57	4.7%	5.2%
Service workers (except protective)	87	7.2%	8.0%
Protective service workers	33	2.7%	3.0%
Inapplicable	107	8.9%	missing
Refused to answer	<u>13</u>	<u>1.1%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

39. What is your race?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
White	748	61.9%	62.2%
Black	445	36.8%	37.0%
Oriental	8	0.7%	0.7%
American Indian	1	0.1%	0.1%
Inapplicable	2	0.2%	missing
Refused to answer	<u>4</u>	<u>0.3%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

40. What foreign country would you say that most of your ancestors came from?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
American Indian	1	0.1%	0.1%
Black Africa	445	36.8%	39.0%
Arab-Africa	1	0.1%	0.1%
China	2	0.2%	0.2%
Czechoslovakia	11	0.9%	1.0%
Denmark	5	0.4%	0.4%
England and Wales	60	5.0%	5.3%
Finland	2	0.2%	0.2%
France	7	0.6%	0.6%
Germany	149	12.3%	13.1%
Greece	6	0.5%	0.5%
Hungary	10	0.8%	0.9%
India	1	0.1%	0.1%
Ireland	87	7.2%	7.6%
Italy	65	5.4%	5.7%
Japan	1	0.1%	0.1%
Korea	1	0.1%	0.1%
Lithuania	14	1.2%	1.2%
Mexico	21	1.7%	1.8%
Netherlands	5	0.4%	0.4%
Norway	10	0.8%	0.9%
Philippines	5	0.4%	0.4%
Poland	103	8.5%	9.0%
Puerto Rico	14	1.2%	1.2%
Russia (USSR)	44	3.6%	3.9%
Scotland	8	0.7%	0.7%
Spain	9	0.7%	0.8%
Sweden	25	2.1%	2.2%
Switzerland	1	0.1%	0.1%
Yugoslavia	10	0.8%	0.9%
Other	18	1.5%	1.6%
Inapplicable	6	0.5%	missing
Refused to answer	14	1.2%	missing
Don't know	47	3.9%	missing
	<u>1,208</u>	<u>100.1%</u>	<u>100.1%</u>

41. What was the last grade of school that you completed?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Grammar school or less (1-8)	126	10.4%	10.5%
Some high school (9-11)	223	18.5%	18.6%
High school graduate	355	29.4%	29.7%
Some college	276	22.8%	23.1%
College degree	124	10.3%	10.4%
Graduate work	93	7.7%	7.8%
Refused to answer	6	0.5%	missing
Don't know	<u>5</u>	<u>0.4%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.1%

42. What is your religious preference?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Catholic	441	36.5%	36.9%
Protestant	476	39.4%	39.8%
Jewish	66	5.5%	5.5%
Muslim	2	0.2%	0.2%
Other	78	6.5%	6.5%
None	132	10.9%	11.0%
Inapplicable	3	0.2%	missing
Refused to answer	<u>10</u>	<u>0.8%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	99.9%

43. Are there any children living with you?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, child in household	554	45.9%	46.2%
No child in household	646	53.5%	53.8%
Inapplicable	1	0.1%	missing
Refused to answer	5	0.4%	missing
Don't know	<u>2</u>	<u>0.2%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.1%	100.0%

44. In what year were you born? (This variable was recoded to reflect AGE not YEAR OF BIRTH according to the following formula:  $AGE = 1975 - \frac{YEAR OF BIRTH}{YEAR OF BIRTH.}$ )

<u>Age of Respondent*</u>	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
19 years old or younger	68	5.6%	5.9%
20 to 24 years old	125	10.3%	10.8%
25 to 34 years old	331	27.4%	28.7%
35 to 44 years old	176	14.6%	15.3%
45 to 54 years old	167	13.8%	14.5%
55 to 59 years old	74	6.1%	6.4%
60 to 64 years old	70	5.8%	6.1%
65 to 74 years old	109	9.0%	9.4%
75 years or older	34	2.8%	2.9%
Refused to answer	52	4.3%	missing
Don't know	<u>2</u>	<u>0.2%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	99.9%	100.0%

45. What is the street name and hundred block of your address? (This information was used to code the census tract of the respondent's address. These are not presented here. The census tract identified the address as being within one of the 76 recognized community areas of the City of Chicago. These are presented below.)

<u>Community Area</u>	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Rogers Park	29	2.4%	2.5%
West Ridge	28	2.3%	2.4%
Uptown	53	4.4%	4.6%
Lincoln Square	18	1.5%	1.6%
North Center	15	1.2%	1.3%
Lake View	47	3.9%	4.1%
Lincoln Park	38	3.1%	3.3%
Near North Side	46	3.8%	4.0%
Edison Park	7	0.6%	0.6%

continued

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\* The actual age of respondent was calculated. The data are collapsed for purposes of presentation here.

## 45. (cont.)

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Norwood Park	15	1.2%	1.3%
Jefferson Park	7	0.6%	0.6%
Forest Glen	6	0.5%	0.5%
North Park	5	0.4%	0.4%
Albany Park	19	1.6%	1.7%
Portage Park	28	2.3%	2.4%
Irving Park	17	1.4%	1.5%
Dunning	17	1.4%	1.5%
Montclare	4	0.3%	0.3%
Belmont Cragin	23	1.9%	2.0%
Hermosa	8	0.7%	0.7%
Avondale	14	1.2%	1.2%
Logan Square	17	1.4%	1.5%
Humboldt Park	22	1.8%	1.9%
West Town	25	2.1%	2.2%
Austin	48	4.0%	4.2%
West Garfield Park	6	0.5%	0.5%
East Garfield Park	14	1.2%	1.2%
Near West Side	18	1.5%	1.6%
North Lawndale	13	1.1%	1.1%
South Lawndale	12	1.0%	1.0%
Lower West Side	11	0.9%	1.0%
Loop	7	0.6%	0.6%
Near South Side	3	0.2%	0.3%
Armour Square	3	0.2%	0.3%
Douglas	8	0.7%	0.7%
Oakland	3	0.2%	0.3%
Grand Boulevard	22	1.8%	1.9%
Kenwood	15	1.2%	1.3%
Washington Park	16	1.3%	1.4%
Hyde Park	14	1.2%	1.2%
Woodlawn	11	0.9%	1.0%
South Shore	40	3.3%	3.5%
Chatham	25	2.1%	2.2%
Avalon Park	5	0.4%	0.4%
South Chicago	11	0.9%	1.0%
Burnside	1	0.1%	0.1%
Calumet Heights	2	0.2%	0.2%
Roseland	20	1.7%	1.7%
Pullman	8	0.7%	0.7%
South Deering	7	0.6%	0.6%
East Side	7	0.6%	0.6%
West Pullman	12	1.0%	1.0%
Riverdale	7	0.6%	0.6%
Hegewisch	3	0.2%	0.3%

continued

45. (cont.)

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Garfield Ridge	14	1.2%	1.2%
Archer Heights	4	0.3%	0.3%
Brighton Park	8	0.7%	0.7%
McKinley Park	6	0.5%	0.5%
Bridgeport	16	1.3%	1.4%
New City	13	1.1%	1.1%
West Elsdon	6	0.5%	0.5%
Gage Park	12	1.0%	1.0%
Clearing	13	1.1%	1.1%
West Lawn	11	0.9%	1.0%
Chicago Lawn	13	1.1%	1.1%
West Englewood	18	1.5%	1.6%
Englewood	21	1.7%	1.8%
Greater Grand Crossing	25	2.1%	2.2%
Ashburn	20	1.7%	1.7%
Auburn Gresham	23	1.9%	2.0%
Beverly	12	1.0%	1.0%
Washington Heights	11	0.9%	1.0%
Mount Greenwood	10	0.8%	0.9%
Morgan Park	10	0.8%	0.9%
O'Hare	2	0.2%	0.2%
Refused to answer	60	5.0%	missing
	<u>1,208</u>	<u>100.2%</u>	<u>99.8%</u>

46. Is your family income less than \$3,000, over \$3,000, over \$6,000, over \$10,000 or over \$15,000?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Less than \$3,000	100	8.3%	9.7%
\$3,000 to \$6,000	141	11.7%	13.7%
\$6,000 to \$10,000	231	19.1%	22.5%
\$10,000 to \$15,000	257	21.3%	25.0%
Over \$15,000	299	24.8%	29.1%
Inapplicable	1	0.1%	missing
Refused to answer	146	12.1%	missing
Don't know	33	2.7%	missing
	<u>1,208</u>	<u>100.1%</u>	<u>100.0%</u>

47. Do your parents live in the Chicago area?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, parent(s) live in Chicago area	545	45.1%	45.9%
No, parent(s) live outside Chicago	242	20.0%	20.4%
Both parents dead	401	33.2%	33.8%
Inapplicable	10	0.8%	missing
Refused to answer	8	0.7%	missing
Don't know	<u>2</u>	<u>0.2%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.1%

48. How often do you and your parents (mother) visit each other? Would you say about once a week, about once a month, several times a year or hardly ever? (Asked only of respondents who had at least one parent living.)

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Once a week	345	28.6%	45.9%
Once a month	80	6.6%	10.6%
<del>Several times a year</del>	108	8.9%	14.4%
Hardly ever	102	8.4%	13.6%
Live with parents	117	9.7%	15.6%
Both parents dead	447	37.0%	missing
Refused to answer	5	0.4%	missing
Don't know	<u>4</u>	<u>0.3%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	99.9%	100.1%

49. Are you married?

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Married	616	51.0%	51.9%
Single, separated, divorced	572	47.4%	48.1%
Inapplicable	10	0.8%	missing
Refused to answer	<u>10</u>	<u>0.8%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	100.0%

50. Do your husband's (wife's) parents live in the Chicago area? (Asked only of respondents who indicated they were married.)

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Yes, parents of spouse live in Chicago	221	18.3%	35.9%
No, parents of spouse live outside Chicago	152	12.6%	24.7%
Both parents of spouse dead	242	20.0%	39.3%
Inapplicable	586	48.5%	missing
Refused to answer	<u>7</u>	<u>0.6%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	100.0%	99.9%

51. How often do you and your husband's (wife's) parents visit each other? Would you say about once a week, about once a month, several times a year or hardly ever? (Asked only of respondents who indicated they were married and at least one parent of their spouse was living.)

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>	<u>Adjusted Frequency</u>
Once a week	133	11.0%	37.6%
Once a month	61	5.0%	17.2%
Several times a year	69	5.7%	19.5%
Hardly ever	81	6.7%	22.9%
Live with parents of spouse	10	0.8%	2.8%
Inapplicable	847	70.1%	missing
Refused to answer	5	0.4%	missing
Don't know	<u>2</u>	<u>0.2%</u>	<u>missing</u>
	1,208	99.9%	100.0%

The following were coded by the interviewer immediately upon completion of the interview:

Sex of respondent:	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>
Male	447	37.0%
Female	<u>761</u>	<u>63.0%</u>
	1,208	100.0%

Respondent's attitude toward the interview:

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>
Friendly and interested	604	50.0%
Cooperative but not particularly interested	475	39.3%
Impatient and restless	98	8.1%
Hostile	<u>31</u>	<u>2.6%</u>
	1,208	100.0%

Respondent's understanding of the questions:

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>
Good	953	78.9%
Fair	228	18.9%
Poor	<u>27</u>	<u>2.2%</u>
	1,208	100.0%

The phone number was:

	<u>Absolute Frequency</u>	<u>Relative Frequency</u>
Listed	853	70.6%
Unlisted	<u>355</u>	<u>29.4%</u>
	1,208	100.0%

APPENDIX D  
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE  
NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY  
EVANSTON, ILLINOIS 60201

NATIONAL SCIENCE FOUNDATION SPONSORED  
LAW ENFORCEMENT ATTITUDE SURVEY

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY

Michael J. O'Neil  
Project Director

Date \_\_\_\_\_  
Time of Call \_\_\_\_\_  
Interviewer \_\_\_\_\_

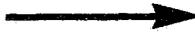
Card # \_\_\_\_\_  
Phone # \_\_\_\_\_

Deck #1  
1-4/ \_\_\_\_\_  
5/ 1

IF YOU DON'T NEED A MALE OR YOU DO NEED ONE AND A MALE ANSWERS ANYWAY, BEGIN ON THE NEXT PAGE. 

IF YOU NEED TO ATTEMPT TO GET A MALE RESPONDENT (YOU SHOULD KNOW THIS BEFORE YOU DIAL --SEE INSTRUCTION BOOKLET) AND A FEMALE ANSWERS, THEN BEGIN AS FOLLOWS:

Hello. My name is \_\_\_\_\_. I'm an interviewer for a public opinion survey sponsored by the National Science Foundation. Is this ###-####? We're calling randomly selected people in different neighborhoods to find out how they feel about the problem of crime in Chicago and how the police are handling it. In order to get a true cross section of opinions, we need to speak to roughly equal numbers of men and women. Is there a male at this number that I could speak to ?

IF NO MALE AVAILABLE..... In that case, I would like to ask you some questions about your thoughts and experiences. Because you represent many people, your opinions are very important to us. Of course, there are no right or wrong answers to these questions -- only your opinions.....GOTO#1 ON NEXT PAGE 

IF YOU CAN GET A MALE.....

Hello, my name is \_\_\_\_\_. I'm an interviewer for a public opinion survey sponsored by the National Science Foundation. We are calling randomly selected people in different neighborhoods to find out how they feel about the problem of crime in Chicago and how the police are handling it. I would like to ask you some questions about your thoughts and experiences. Because you represent many people, your opinions are very important to us. Of course, there are no right or wrong answers to these questions -- only your opinions.

GO TO #1 ON THE NEXT PAGE

IF A MALE ANSWERS OR IF SEX DOESN'T MATTER FOR THIS CALL BEGIN HERE:

Hello, my name is \_\_\_\_\_. I'm an interviewer for a public opinion survey sponsored by the National Science Foundation. Is this ~~###-###~~? We are calling randomly selected people in different neighborhoods to find out how they feel about the problem of crime in Chicago and how the police are handling it. I would like to ask you some questions about your thoughts and experiences. Because you represent many people, your opinions are very important to us. Of course, there are no right or wrong answers to these questions - only your opinions.

1. As you may know, the crime rate has become a serious problem in many parts of the country today. What about here in Chicago -- would you say that the crime problem is worse in Chicago than in most other large cities, that it's not as bad, or that it's pretty much the same as in other large cities ?

(PROBE: In your own opinion..., Just your best guess...)

(1)WORSE (2)SAME (3)NOT AS BAD (9)DK 6/\_\_\_\_\_

2. Thinking back over the past year or so, do you think that the crime problem has gotten worse in Chicago, that it's about the same, or that there's less crime now than a few years back ?

(PROBE: Thinking of general, overall crime rates....)

(1)WORSE (2)SAME (3)LESS (9)DK 7/\_\_\_\_\_

(0)NOT LIVED IN CHICAGO LONG ENOUGH TO ANSWER -  
(IF THIS ANSWER OMIT #4BELOW)

3. What about in the area right around your home ? Do you feel that the general amount of crime in your neighborhood is pretty much the same as for the rest of Chicago, or would you say there is more or less crime in your area ?

(PROBE: What would be your best guess?..., Compared to the overall crime rate in Chicago.....)

(1)MORE (2)SAME (3)LESS (9)DK 8/\_\_\_\_\_

IF THE ANSWER TO #2 WAS "NOT LIVED IN CHICAGO LONG ENOUGH TO ANSWER",  
SKIP TO #5

4. And has crime gotten any worse in your neighborhood in the last year or two, has it stayed about the same, or do you think there is less crime than there used to be in your neighborhood ?

(PROBE: Just your own opinion.....)

(1)WORSE (2)SAME (3)LESS (9)DK 9/ \_\_\_\_\_

5. People have different reasons, of course, for being worried about crime in Chicago. Here are two reasons we'd like to ask about.....Some people are worried about crime because they, themselves, have been victims of a crime or they are afraid that they may soon become victims. Do you personally feel this way ?

(1)YES (2)NO (9)DK 10/ \_\_\_\_\_

6. Another reason people are worried about crime is the moral problems it raises and its effects on the general quality of life in Chicago. Are you concerned about this ?

(1)YES (2)NO (9)DK 11/ \_\_\_\_\_

IF YES TO BOTH #5 AND #6 ASK: ► 7. Which do you personally feel more strongly about, being a victim of crime or its effects on the quality of life ?

(1)VICTIMIZATION (2)QUALITY OF LIFE  
(3) R REFUSES TO RANK-(EVEN AFTER SUCCESSIVE PROBES) 12/ \_\_\_\_\_

8. Considering both of these reasons, do you think that most of your neighbors feel the same way you do ?

(PROBE: IF R SAYS, " DON'T KNOW.": Just your best guess.....  
IF R SAYS, "SOME DO, SOME DON'T": Would you say most of your neighbors agree or disagree.....)

(1)YES (2)NO (9)DK 13/ \_\_\_\_\_

9. If you wanted to go for a walk around your neighborhood after dark, would you be nervous or afraid about it ?

(PROBE: IF R SAYS, "I DON'T GO OUT.": Suppose you wanted to go out for a walk.....)

(2)NO

(1)YES

14/ \_\_\_\_\_

(9)DK



Would your nervousness or fear actually keep you from going out ?

(1)YES

(2)NO

15/ \_\_\_\_\_



(GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS FOR PROBING ON THE HYPOTHETICALS:

1. REPEAT APPROPRIATE PHRASES AS CLARIFIERS - USE MORE OR LESS THE EXACT WORDING IN THE TEXT.
2. IF R HESITATES OR SAYS, "I DON'T KNOW." : Well, what do you think you would do in this situation...)

Now we'd like to know something about how you might react if you found yourself in some unusual or difficult situations. Please keep in mind that there are no right or wrong answers here. We are not interested in what you think people are supposed to do. What we want to know is what you would actually do if you were in this kind of a situation.

Here's the first one:

10. In John (Sue) Brown's neighborhood, there are a lot of young people who often gather in the evening on a street corner by his (her) home. As far as he (she) can tell, they never hurt anyone's property or bother anyone who passes by. But they are usually very noisy - always shouting at each other and playing the radio loudly. Occasionally the noise continues until fairly late at night which disturbs Mr. (Mrs.) Brown and several of his (her) neighbors. If you were in Mr. (Mrs.) Brown's position, would you call the police about this, or would you say you probably wouldn't call ?

(1)CALL

(2)NOT CALL

(9)DK

16/ \_\_\_\_\_

(IF R SAYS, "I'D TALK TO THE KIDS FIRST.": CODE AS NOT CALL)

11. OK. How about this case.....Mary (Jim) Harris works a late night shift as a telephone operator (serviceman). She (he) is on her (his) way home as usual at about 2:00 in the morning, but as she (he) passes by the house next door to her (his) apartment building, she (he) sees that the front door is standing half open. While she (he) doesn't know the people who live there very well, she (he) does know that they have been away on vacation for over a week. All the lights in the house are out, and there is no sign of anyone around. If you ever found yourself in this situation, would you call the police about it or do you feel you probably wouldn't call ?

(1)CALL (2)NOT CALL (9)DK 17/ \_\_\_\_\_

11a. What do you think most of the people in your neighborhood would do if they were in this situation ?

(1)CALL (2)NOT CALL (9)DK 18/ \_\_\_\_\_

12. Next.....While watching TV one evening Mr. (Mrs.) Smith heard his (Her) next door neighbors arguing. After the argument continued for a long time and the voices got louder, he (she) was convinced that things were getting violent. If you were in Mr. (Mrs.) Smith's position, would you call the police, do something else or take no action ?

(1)CALL (2)SOMETHING ELSE (3)NO ACTION (9)DK 19/ \_\_\_\_\_

13. While waiting on an "L" platform Mr. (Mrs. ) Clark saw someone being held up at gunpoint on the street below. He (she) then told another person on the platform about the incident who said, "It happens all the time. Forget it!" Mr. (Mrs.) Clark took his advice and boarded the train."If you were in this situation would you do the same thing and board the train ?

(1)YES NO  
↓  
What would you do ?  
(2) CALL POLICE (3)SOMETHING ELSE (9)DK 20/ \_\_\_\_\_

14. Now I'd like you to consider this one....You and a couple of your neighbors have known for some time that someone has been selling marijuana and other drugs in your neighborhood, but none of you are sure whether the seller is someone in the neighborhood or an outsider. You are especially concerned because you've found out that high school and grade school children are getting and using drugs. While you have no real evidence, you and your neighbors are beginning to suspect that the driver of a certain car that you've seen in the area lately might have something to do with selling the drugs. Would you notify the police about this, or would you say that you probably wouldn't call them ?

(1)CALL

(2)NOT CALL

(9)DK

21/ \_\_\_\_\_

15. Mr. (Mrs.) Grey, who lives in an apartment building was awakened in the middle of the night by the barking of his (her) neighbor's dog. Looking out his (her) bedroom window, he (she) saw two men who seemed to be trying to break into a car on the street below. The men ran away when Mr. (Mrs.) Grey called down to ask what they were doing, so he (she) did not get a very good look at them in the dim light. He (she) did not recognize the car or know who the owner was. If an incident like this ever happened to you, would you call the police to report it, or do you think you probably wouldn't call ?

(1)CALL

(2)NOT CALL

(9)DK

22/ \_\_\_\_\_

16. Here's another one.....Mr. (Mrs.) Johnson, while talking with one of his (her) close friends, has learned that one of the very young children in the neighborhood was seriously injured by his own father, who lost his temper over something the child had done. The child was hurt badly enough to be hospitalized. Mr. (Mrs.) Johnson remembered seeing bruises on the child's face in the past, and he (she) began to suspect that the child was being beaten very often. Try to put yourself in Mr. (Mrs.) Johnson's position. Would you call the police to tell them about this, or do you think that you probably wouldn't call ?

(1)CALL

(2)NOT CALL

(3)TAKE SOME OTHER ACTION

(9)DK

23/ \_\_\_\_\_

17. Upon returning home one evening Mr. (Mrs.) Green noticed a person he (she) had never seen before walking around his (her) neighbor's yard and looking at the outside of the house. He (she) <sup>knew that his (her) neighbors had gone away</sup> thought about calling the police, but <sup>for a few days.</sup> then he (she) decided he (she) couldn't be sure that the person was doing anything wrong. So, he (she) didn't call. Would you have done the same thing if you were in his (her) position and not call the police ?

(1)NO, I'D CALL  
THE POLICE(2)YES, I WOULDN'T  
CALL

(9)DK

24/ \_\_\_\_\_

17a. What do you think most of your neighbors would do if they were in this situation ?

(1) CALL

(2) NOT CALL

(9) DK

25/ \_\_\_\_\_

IF R STATED THAT HE, HIMSELF, WOULD NOT CALL: (QUESTION 17, NOT 17a)

17b. Suppose later a police car parked on your block. Would you tell the police about the stranger ?

(1) YES

(2) NO

(9) DK

26/ \_\_\_\_\_

18. Suppose you knew of someone who you were certain was selling heroin in your neighborhood. Would you call the police to report this, or do you think you probably wouldn't call them ?

(1) CALL

(2) NOT CALL

(9) DK

27/ \_\_\_\_\_

18a. Would it make a difference <sup>in whether or not you'd call</sup> if the person were selling marijuana but no other drugs ?

(1) YES

(2) NO

(9) DK

28/ \_\_\_\_\_

(CAUTION: SOME R's MAY ANSWER "YES" MEANING THEY WOULD CALL WHEN THEY REALLY MEAN "NO" , NO DIFFERENCE)

19. Here's the last situation.... Bill (Barbara) Marsh lives across the street from a dry cleaning store that has recently gone out of business. The building is up for sale and has been empty for a couple of weeks. On Saturday night, Bill (Barbara) is coming home at about midnight after visiting some friends. As he (she) gets closer to his (her) house, he (she) sees two young men throwing what seem to be empty bottles at the windows of the old cleaning store. The store's front window is smashed, and broken glass litters the sidewalk. The two men run away when they hear the Marsh car approaching. Do you think that if you were in this position that you would call the police about what you saw, or would you say you probably wouldn't call ?

(1) CALL

(2) NOT CALL

(9) DK

29/ \_\_\_\_\_

Now I'd like to ask you some more questions about the police and crime.



23. We're trying to find out about people's experiences when they've called the police to report any crime that they happen to have seen. First, we'd like to know whether you've ever called the police to report a crime or something you thought was suspicious ?

(1) YES

(2) NO (IF NO SKIP TO THE NEXT PAGE)

34/ \_\_\_\_\_

(9) DK



23a. About how many times would you say you have called ?

(PROBE: Your closest guess)

\_\_\_\_\_ TIMES

(98) REFUSED

(99) DK

35-36/ \_\_\_\_\_

ONCE



MORE THAN ONCE



23b. Did the police officer who took your telephone call seem to be interested in your report, or did you get the feeling that he was not very concerned ?

23b. Did the police usually seem to be interested in your telephone calls, or would you say that they usually weren't very concerned ? (PROBE: Most of the time)

(1) INTERESTED

(2) NOT CONCERNED

(1) INTERESTED

(2) NOT CONCERNED

(9) DK

(9) DK

37/ \_\_\_\_\_

23c. Do you think that the police followed up on your telephone call(s) or do you feel they didn't take any action ?

(PROBE: Would you say they probably did, or probably didn't.....

IF MORE THAN ONE CALL: Did they generally take any action...)

(1) ACTION

(2) NO ACTION

(3) SOMETIMES

(9) DK

38/ \_\_\_\_\_

23d. Generally, would you say that you were satisfied with the way the police responded to your call(s), or would you say that you were not satisfied with their response ?

(PROBE: How about most of the time ?...)

(1) SATISFIED

(2) NOT SATISFIED

(9) DK

39/ \_\_\_\_\_

24. When you have had any other kind of personal contact with the police, have you usually been treated well by them ?

(1)YES

(2)NO

(3)NO CONTACT  
AT ALL

(9)DK

40/\_\_\_\_\_

25a. Some people feel that the police are usually able to solve most crimes. Other people feel that there are certain crimes that are almost impossible for the police to solve. Do you think that burglaries and house break-ins are the kinds of crimes that the police usually solve ?

(1)YES, THE POLICE USUALLY SOLVE

(2)NO, THE POLICE DO NOT USUALLY SOLVE

41/\_\_\_\_\_

(9)DK

b. Do you think that street robberies and muggings are the kinds of crimes that the police usually solve ?

(1)YES, THE POLICE USUALLY SOLVE

(2)NO, THE POLICE DO NOT USUALLY SOLVE

42/\_\_\_\_\_

(9)DK

c. Do you think that drug dealing is the kind of crime that the police usually solve ?

(1)YES, THE POLICE USUALLY SOLVE

(2)NO, THE POLICE DO NOT USUALLY SOLVE

43/\_\_\_\_\_

(9)DK

d. Do you think that vandalism is the kind of crime that the police usually solve ?

(1)YES, THE POLICE USUALLY SOLVE

(2)NO, THE POLICE DO NOT USUALLY SOLVE

44/\_\_\_\_\_

(9)DK

e. Do you think that violent family fights are the kinds of situations that the police can usually do something about?

- (1) YES, THE POLICE CAN DO SOMETHING
- (2) NO, THE POLICE CAN NOT DO ANYTHING
- (9) DK

45/ \_\_\_\_\_

26. Do you think the police really care about the people in your neighborhood or are they just doing their job because they have to ?

(PROBE: Would you say that most of the police ....)

- (1) REALLY CARE
- (2) JUST DOING THE JOB
- (9) DK

46/ \_\_\_\_\_

27. When the police are dealing with people who are suspected of breaking the law, do you think the police are generally too harsh, just about right, or too lenient ?

- (1) TOO HARSH
- (2) JUST ABOUT RIGHT
- (3) TOO LENIENT
- (9) DK

47/ \_\_\_\_\_

(4) POLICE TREAT SOME GROUPS DIFFERENTLY (SPECIFY WHICH GROUPS TOO HARSHLY TREATED AND WHICH LESS SO: \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

28. Do you think the police in your neighborhood show enough respect to people like yourself ?

- (1) YES
- (2) NO
- (9) DK

48/ \_\_\_\_\_

29. Do you think the police want citizens to report suspicious activities they observe -- for instance, when you see something that might be a crime but you are not sure ?

- (1) YES
- NO
- (9) DK

Why not?

- (2) POLICE DON'T CARE
- (3) WANT YOU TO BE SURE BEFORE YOU CALL

49/ \_\_\_\_\_

Now I'd like to ask you a few questions about your neighborhood.

30. In the time that you have lived in your neighborhood, have you gotten to know alot of your neighbors, only a few, or none of them ?

(1)ALOT (2)A FEW (3)NONE (9)DK 50/\_\_\_\_\_

31. How long have you lived in your neighborhood ?

\_\_\_\_\_ YEARS

(OR IF LESS THAN 1 YEAR \_\_\_\_\_ MONTHS)

CODE IN THE RIGHT-HAND MARGIN(51-52) AS FOLLOWS:  
IF 1 OR MORE YEARS, NUMBER OR YEARS + 11 = \_\_\_\_\_ 51-52/\_\_\_\_\_  
IF LESS THAN 1 YEAR \_\_\_\_\_ MONTHS.  
(98)REFUSED (99)DK

32. Are you happy enough with your neighborhood to want to stay there ?

(1)YES (2)NO (IF NO ASK 32a.) (9)DK 53/\_\_\_\_\_



32a. Does this have anything to do with crime in your neighborhood ?

(1)YES (2)NO (9)DK 54/\_\_\_\_\_

33. How much would you say that most people in your neighborhood care about the neighborhood and the well-being of their neighbors. Would you say they care a great deal, somewhat or not very much at all.?

(PROBE: Most of your neighbors...)

(1)A GREAT DEAL (2)SOMEWHAT (3)NOT VERY MUCH AT ALL (9)DK 55/\_\_\_\_\_

34. Have you ever taken part in the activities of either a block or community organization in your neighborhood ?

(1) YES

(2) NO

(9) DK

56/ \_\_\_\_\_

(IF NO OR DK SKIP TO INTRO AT TOP OF NEXT PAGE)



34a. Would you please tell me the names of these organizations ?

Four horizontal lines for writing the names of organizations.

35. Have the activities of these groups ever had anything to do with the police or police business, for example, community safety or crime prevention ?

(1) YES

(2) NO

(9) DK

57/ \_\_\_\_\_

(IF NO OR DK SKIP TO INTRO AT TOP OF NEXT PAGE)



35a. IF R HASN'T ALREADY VOLUNTEERED THE DETAILS:

Please tell me what sort of things this group has done ?

(PROBE: Anything else?)

Four horizontal lines for writing details about the group's activities.

Finally, I'd like to ask you a few brief questions about yourself for statistical reasons only.

(IF THERE IS RESISTANCE TO ANY OF THESE, THE FACT THAT WE ARE INTERESTED IN THIS FOR STATISTAICAL REASONS ONLY SHOULD BE EMPHASIZED ALONG WITH THE FACT THAT THE INFORMATION GIVEN IS GOING TO BE KEPT COMPLETELY CONFIDENTIAL)

(POSSIBLE RESPONSE TO COMPLAINT: We need this information to learn about how different types of people feel about crime and the police protection in Chicago. We simply use this information in order to put people into different statistical groups and categories.)

36. Do you live in a single family house ?

(1)YES

(2)NO

(9)DK

58/ \_\_\_\_\_

37. Do you rent your home (or apartment) ?

(1)YES

(2)NO

(9)DK

59/ \_\_\_\_\_

38. What kind of work do you (did you normally) do? That is what is (was) your job called ?

(PROBE: IF UNCLEAR: What did you actually do in that job?... What were some of your main duties ?...)

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

60-61/ \_\_\_\_\_

(SEE CODE SHEET)

38a.

IF HOUSEWIFE ASK: What does your husband do ?

IF STUDENT ASK: What does your father do?

(PROBE: SAME AS THOSE ABOVE )

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

62-63/ \_\_\_\_\_

(SEE CODE SHEET)

39. What is your race ?

(1) WHITE

(2) BLACK

(3) ORIENTAL

(4) AMERICAN INDIAN

64/ \_\_\_\_\_

(IF BLACK OR AMERICAN INDIAN  
SKIP TO # 41)

40. What foreign country would you say that  
most of your ancestors came from ?

(SEE CODE SHEET)

65-66/ \_\_\_\_\_

41. What was the last grade of school that you completed ?

(1) GRADE SCHOOL OR LESS  
(1 - 8)

(2) SOME HIGH SCHOOL  
(9 - 11)

(3) HIGH SCHOOL DEGREE

(4) SOME COLLEGE

(5) COLLEGE DEGREE

(6) GRADUATE WORK

67/ \_\_\_\_\_

42. What is your religious preference ?

(1) CATHOLIC

(2) PROTESTANT

(3) JEWISH

(4) MUSLIM

(5) OTHER

(6) NONE

68/ \_\_\_\_\_

43. Are there any children living with you ?

(PROBE: IF R ASKS, "WHAT IS A CHILD?" : 18 years or younger)

(1) YES

(2) NO

(9) DK

69/ \_\_\_\_\_

44. In what year were you born ?

CARD #

DECK # 2

1-4/ \_\_\_\_\_

5/ 2

CODE: AGE, NOT DATE OF BIRTH

AGE = 1975 - YEAR OF BIRTH

(97) 97 YEARS OR MORE

(98) REFUSAL (99) DK

6-7/ \_\_\_\_\_

(IF NOT ALREADY RECORDED ON THE IBM CARD ASK Q. 45, OTHERWISE SKIP TO Q. 46)  
45. What is the street name and hundred block of your address ?

(PROBE #1: We don't need your exact address - only the street name and hundred block of your address.)

(PROBE # 2: We just need a fairly close idea of the location of your residence.)

CODE CENSUS TRACT ( 4 DIGITS)	8-11/ _____
(9998)REFUSAL	
(9999)CAN'T LOCATE TRACT	
CODE COMMUNITY AREA ( 2 DIGITS)	12-13/ _____
(98)REFUSAL	
(99)CAN'T LOCATE AREA	

46. Is your family income less than \$3000, over \$3000, over \$6000, over \$10,000 or over \$15,000 ?

- (1)LESS THAN \$3000
- (2)\$3000 - \$6000
- (3)\$6000 - \$10,000
- (4)\$10,000 - \$15,000
- (5)OVER \$15,000 14/ \_\_\_\_\_
- (8)REFUSED

47. Do your parents live in the Chicago area ?

(PROBE: IF R STATES THAT PARENTS ARE BOTH LIVING BUT THAT THEY ARE SEPARATED, ASK: Does your mother live in the Chicago area ?)

(IF ONE PARENT IS DECEASED CODE FOR THE ONE PARENT THAT IS LIVING)

- |        |       |  |           |
|--------|-------|--|-----------|
| (1)YES | (2)NO | (3)BOTH PARENTS DECEASED                 | 15/ _____ |
| ↓      | ↓     |  |           |
|        | (9)DK | IF BOTH PARENTS DECEASED<br>SKIP TO # 49 |           |
| ↓      | ↓     | ↓  | →         |

48. How often do you and your parents (mother) visit each other ? Would you say about once a week, about once a month, several times a year or hardly ever ?

- (1)ONCE A WEEK
  - (2)ONCE A MONTH
  - (3)SEVERAL TIMES A YEAR
  - (4)HARDLY EVER
  - (9)DK
- 16/ \_\_\_\_\_

49. Are you married ?

(IF SEPARATED OR DIVORCED CODE NO )

(1) YES

(2) NO

17/ \_\_\_\_\_

IF NO END INTERVIEW

50. Do your husband's (wife's) parents live in the Chicago area ?

(IF ONE DECEASED CODE FOR ONE THAT IS LIVING)

(PROBE: IF R STATES THAT SPOUSE'S PARENTS ARE LIVING BUT SEPARATED ,  
ASK: Does your husband's (wife's) mother live in Chicago?)

(1) YES

(2) NO

(3) BOTH PARENTS OF SPOUSE  
DECEASED

18/ \_\_\_\_\_

IF BOTH DECEASED END INTERVIEW

51. How often do you and your husband's (wife's) parents visit each other ? Would you say about once a week, about once a month, several times a year or hardly ever ?

(1) ONCE A WEEK

(2) ONCE A MONTH

(3) SEVERAL TIMES A YEAR

(4) HARDLY EVER

(9) DK

19/ \_\_\_\_\_

Thank you very much.

END OF INTERVIEW

IMMEDIATELY AT THE COMPLETION OF THE INTERVIEW, THE INTERVIEWER SHOULD FILL OUT THE FOLLOWING:

Sex of Respondent: (1) MALE (2) FEMALE 20/ \_\_\_\_\_

Interviewer Number (always the same for the same interviewer) 21-22/ \_\_\_\_\_

Language problem? (1) YES (2) NO 23/ \_\_\_\_\_

Interview Conducted in .... (1) ENGLISH (2) SPANISH 24/ \_\_\_\_\_

In general, What was the respondent's attitude toward the interview ?

- (1) FRIENDLY AND INTERESTED
- (2) COOPERATIVE BUT NOT PARTICULARLY INTERESTED
- (3) IMPATIENT AND RESTLESS
- (4) HOSTILE

25/ \_\_\_\_\_

Was the respondent's understanding of the questions.....

- (1) GOOD?
- (2) FAIR?
- (3) POOR?

26/ \_\_\_\_\_

IF THE INTERVIEW WAS BROKEN OFF BEFORE COMPLETION:  
CODE "0" OR "00" IF THE INTERVIEW WAS COMPLETED

At what question was the interview terminated ? QUESTION # \_\_\_\_\_  
(Code as two digits: question 9 is coded as 09, etc.)

27-28/ \_\_\_\_\_

Indicate the strength of the refusal:

- (1) MILD
- (2) FIRM BUT POLITE
- (3) HOSTILE

29/ \_\_\_\_\_

Was the phone number....(1)LISTED  
(2)UNLISTED  
(SEE IBM CARD)

30/ \_\_\_\_\_

Time interview began \_\_\_\_\_

Time interview ended \_\_\_\_\_

IMMEDIATELY UPON COMPLETION OF THIS INFORMATION, GO BACK OVER THE INTERVIEW AND CODE THE APPROPRIATE DIGITS IN THE RIGHT HAND MARGIN IN THE SPACE PROVIDED. THERE SHOULD BE A CODE IN EVERY SPACE PROVIDED, EVEN IF THIS IS JUST TO INDICATE THAT THE QUESTION WAS OMITTED (IN WHICH CASE IT IS CODED WITH A "0" OR "00").

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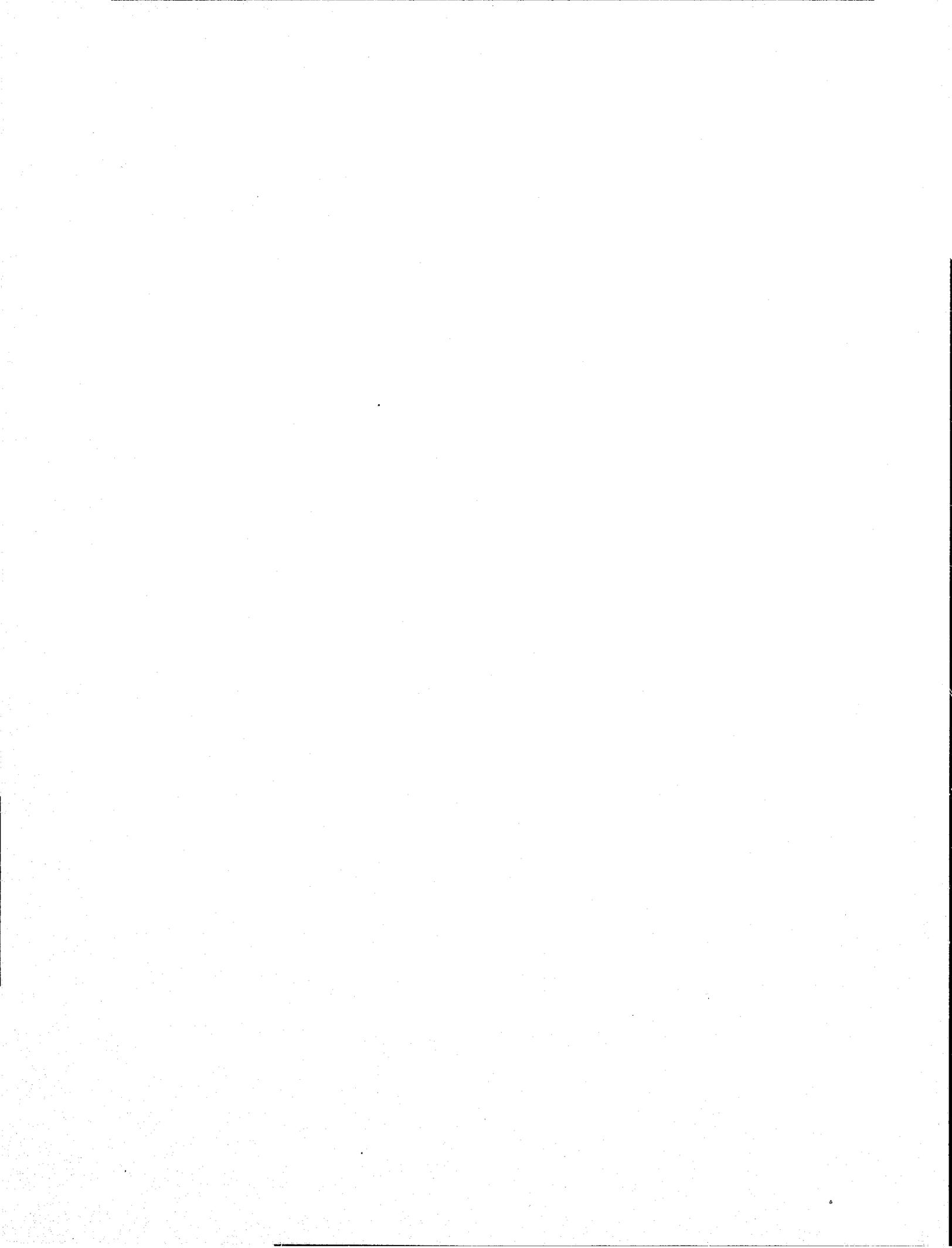
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