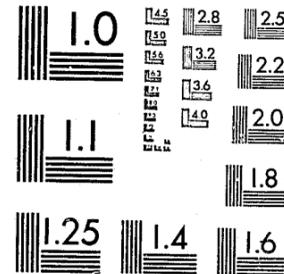


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3

Applications of the National Crime Survey
VICTIMIZATION AND ATTITUDE DATA
ANALYTIC REPORT SD-VAD-3

Assistance Administration

THE POLICE AND PUBLIC OPINION

AN ANALYSIS OF VICTIMIZATION AND ATTITUDE DATA FROM 13 AMERICAN CITIES

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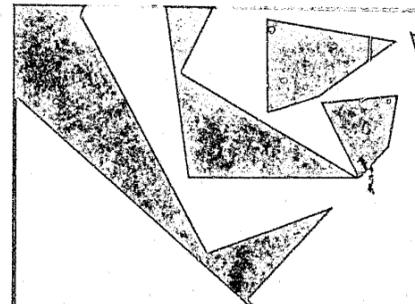
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**Applications of
National Crime Survey
Victimization and Attitude Data
ANALYTIC REPORT SD-VAD-3**

**THE POLICE AND PUBLIC OPINION:
An Analysis of Victimization
and Attitude Data
from 13 American Cities**

by **JAMES GAROFALO**
Project Coordinator

CRIMINAL JUSTICE RESEARCH CENTER
Albany, New York

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The APPLICATION OF VICTIMIZATION SURVEY RESULTS Project is funded by the Statistics Division of the National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. This research project has as its aim the analysis of the data generated by the National Crime Survey studies of criminal victimization undertaken for LEAA by the United States Bureau of the Census. More specifically, this research project, as its title suggests, encourages the use of the National Crime Survey data to examine issues that have particular relevance for *applications* to the immediate needs of operational criminal justice programs.

This aim is pursued in two ways. First, the project staff has conducted a series of regional seminars on the history, nature, uses, and limitations of the National Crime Survey victimization data. These seminars, attended by criminal justice planners, crime analysts, researchers, and operating agency personnel, have served as a useful exchange for disseminating information about the LEAA/Census victimization surveys and for soliciting from attendees suggestions for topics that they would like to see explored with the available victimization survey data. Second, based on these suggestions and on topics generated by the project staff at the Criminal Justice Research Center, the project staff has undertaken a series of analytic reports that give special attention to applications of the victimization survey results to questions of interest to operational criminal justice programs. This report is one in the analytic series.

The National Crime Survey victimization data provide a wealth of important information about attitudes toward the police, fear of criminal victimization, characteristics of victims, the nature of victimizations, the consequences of crimes to victims, characteristics of offenders, the failure of victims to report crimes to the police, reasons given by victims for not notifying the police, and differences between those victimizations that are and those that are not reported to the police.

The National Crime Survey results make available systematic information the scope and depth of which has not heretofore been available. These

data constitute a vast store of information that can be a substantial utility to the criminal justice community. Knowledge about characteristics of victimized persons, households, and commercial establishments and about when and where victimizations occur have particular relevance for public education programs, police patrol strategies, and environmental engineering. Information on the nature and extent of injury and loss in criminal victimization can provide data necessary for determining the feasibility of, or planning for, programs for restitution and compensation to victims of crime. Information about the level of property recovery after burglaries and larcenies is useful for assessing the need for property identification programs. Knowledge about the levels of nonreporting to the police and about the kinds of victimizations that are disproportionately not reported to the police give an indication of the nature and extent of biases in police data on offenses known.

These are only a few of the areas in which results of victimization survey data have the potential for informing decisionmaking and shaping public policy. It is the aim of this series of analytic reports to explore some of the potential applications of the victimization survey results and to stimulate discussion about both the utility and limitations of such applications.

MICHAEL J. HINDELANG
Project Director

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THE POLICE AND PUBLIC OPINION: An Analysis of Victimization and Attitude Data from 13 American Cities

Introduction

NO OTHER Criminal justice agency has more direct contact with the public than does the police. Courts, prisons, parole boards, and other agencies are isolated from the public to a degree that the police are not. Most citizens, at some time in their lives, have had some interaction with a policeman who was acting in an official capacity. Citizens normally must depend on a report to the police when they wish to have some event officially acted upon by the criminal justice system. At the same time, the police are greatly dependent on the reports from citizens that bring criminal activities to their attention.

The critical nature of the police role as the key interface between the criminal justice system and the public has been noted frequently. In 1967, the Task Force on Police of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (1967:144) maintained that:

. . . The police department's capacity to deal with crime depends to a large extent upon its relationship with the citizenry. Indeed, no lasting improvement in law enforcement is likely in this country unless police-community relations are substantially improved.

More specifically, the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (1968) depicted frictions between the police and minority groups as one of the factors underlying the urban riots that erupted in the mid-1960's. Commission surveys in the riot areas found that complaints about police practices led the list of citizen grievances, ahead of issues such as unemployment, housing, and education. However, the grievances expressed against the police were complex; they not only included complaints about brutality and harassment, but also reflected the belief of riot area residents that they had not been receiving adequate police protection from crime.

Recently, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1973:10) concluded that "currently, the relationship in most communities between the police and the public is not entirely satisfactory." Among other things, that report recommended (p. 17) that police agencies explicitly acknowledge their dependence on public acceptance and that the public should be surveyed periodically to determine its evaluation of the police.

The issue of citizen evaluation of the police, then, has generated a great deal of concern. Furthermore, this concern seems to be most acute with respect to police/community relations in our central cities. In addressing the issue, this report will use interview data obtained from victimization surveys conducted in 13 large United States' cities during 1975.

The National Crime Survey

Since 1972 the Bureau of the Census has been conducting the National Crime Survey (NCS) for the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA). The NCS involves a series of victimization surveys in which probability samples of households are selected, and the residents are interviewed to gather a wide range of information about certain criminal victimizations that may have occurred to them personally or to the households of which they are members.¹

The primary emphasis of the NCS is on a series of national victimization surveys being conducted in 6-month intervals and using a panel design, but surveys have also been conducted periodically in selected United States cities. The first eight cities surveyed—from July to October, 1972—were those participating in LEAA's High Impact Crime Reduction Program: Atlanta, Baltimore, Cleveland, Dallas, Denver, Newark, Portland (Oregon), and St. Louis. In the first quarter of 1973 similar surveys were conducted in the Nation's five largest cities:

¹Commercial establishments are also surveyed in the NCS, but only household and personal interview data are used in this report.

Chicago, Detroit, Los Angeles, Philadelphia, and New York City. All 13 of these cities were surveyed again during the first quarter of 1975. The data in this report are from the 1975 surveys.

In conjunction with the NCS city victimization surveys, an attitude questionnaire was administered to some respondents.² A random half subsample of all the households sampled in each city was selected for attitude interviews. In this subsample of households, an attitude questionnaire was administered to every household member 16 years old or older before the regular interviewing about victimization began.³ This report deals exclusively with the attitude subsamples.

There are actually only three items in the NCS attitude questionnaire that refer specifically to the police.⁴ However, four other aspects of the surveys make the analysis of these three items worthwhile. First, attitudes toward the police can be examined in relation to a variety of other attitude realms tapped by the surveys: i.e., the fear of crime, perceptions of crime trends, and changes in behavior as a response to crime. Second, the surveys collected a great amount of demographic information about respondents that can be related to attitudes toward the police. Third, because the attitude data were gathered in conjunction with victimization surveys, relationships can be sought between attitudes toward the police and the victimization experiences of respondents—whether they had been personally victimized during the 12 months preceding the interviews, and, if so, what the characteristics of the crimes were, whether or not the crimes were reported to the police, and so on. Finally, the large sample sizes used in the surveys permit reliable estimates of attitudes in the populations sampled and detailed analysis of the data.

Expanding on the last point, we note that about 5,000 households, or about 10,000 individuals, were sampled in each of the 13 cities for the attitude portion of the surveys. These samples are certainly large enough to make reliable estimates of what the attitude responses would have been if everyone in the cities had been

² Readers interested in the technical details about survey methodology that are not vital to the substance of this report can consult the documentation for any of the city surveys (see U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1975) because the methodologies were virtually identical in all of the city surveys. For a more general introduction to the details of the NCS, see LEAA, 1976a and 1976b.

³ The victimization portion of the surveys dealt with victimizations suffered by household members 12 years of age or older.

⁴ The NCS attitude questionnaire is reproduced in Appendix A. Note that interviewers read the attitude questions to respondents and then coded the replies; respondents were not

interviewed. The numbers appearing in the tables of this report are, in fact, estimates for the entire 13 cities population derived from weighting the results obtained in the samples.⁵

Despite the large sample sizes used in the NCS city surveys, we would have difficulty making detailed analyses of the data from any one city. This is particularly true whenever one of the variables in the analysis relates to victimization or some aspect of victimization such as non-reporting; the overwhelming majority of respondents suffered no personal victimizations during the 12 months preceding the interviews. Therefore, data from all 13 cities are aggregated in the body of this report to increase the number of cases available for analysis. The aggregation is justified on the basis of previous work showing that the patterns of victimization and attitudes do not vary much among the surveyed cities (Hindelang, 1976; Garofalo, 1977). For example, even though respondents in some cities may rate their police more highly than respondents in other cities, ratings of the police are related in the same manner to other variables (e.g., race and age) within each of the cities. To demonstrate the stability of patterns across cities, three cross-tabulations are presented for each of the 13 cities in Appendix B.

General Attitudes Toward the Police

Attitudes toward the police expressed by the 1975 samples of respondents in the 13 cities were very similar to those found in earlier (1972/73) surveys of the same cities. Table 1 shows only minor variations across the surveys in the proportions of respondents who evaluated local police performance as either good, average, or poor.

When we consider that fully 81 percent of the 1975 respondents said that police performance was either good or fair, it is apparent that a large amount of favorable opinion toward the police exists in the public mind. Although the question did not refer to specific aspects of police performance, the results are similar to those obtained in surveys other than the NCS.

In 1966, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice sponsored

shown or read the response categories appearing in the questionnaire, except in a few cases.

⁵ The Bureau of the Census uses a multiple factor weighting procedure to produce population estimates from the sample data. Because the details are not important in the present context, the interested reader is referred to the survey documentation (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1975).

Table 1 Evaluations of police performance in the 1972/73 and in the 1975 surveys of the eight Impact Cities and the Nation's five largest cities

	Evaluation of police performance					Estimated number ^a
	Good	Average	Poor	Don't know	No answer	
1972/73 Surveys	42%	37%	13%	7%	0%	(14,621,640)
1975 Surveys	40%	41%	12%	7%	0%	(15,386,335)

^a Unless otherwise noted, in this and subsequent tables, estimated numbers refer to the population estimates of the cities derived from samples taken in the NCS. The estimates refer only to persons 16 years old or older, except when age is included as a variable in the table.

several surveys that included questions relevant to relations between the public and the police. One of these—a national survey conducted by the National Opinion Research Center (NORC)—found that 91 percent of the respondents believed that their local police were doing an excellent (22 percent), good (45 percent), or fair (24 percent) job of enforcing the laws, while 77 percent thought that the police were doing a very good or pretty good job in giving protection to people in the neighborhood (Ennis, 1967:53).

Another of the Commission's studies—directed by Reiss at the University of Michigan—reported the attitudes of samples of residents from four high-crime precincts, two in Boston and two in Chicago. Respondents in these areas also gave mostly favorable ratings to “the kind of job the police are doing”; 70 percent said either very good or fairly good (Reiss, 1967:39). A similar distribution of responses was found among owners and managers of business and other organizations.

The stability of positive public evaluations of the police is indicated by a series of national public opinion polls. Harris polls conducted in 1964, 1966, and 1970 show that the proportions of respondents giving a favorable rating to the job being done by local police were very consistent, at 64 percent, 65 percent, and 64 percent, respectively.⁶

Although there are some differences among results of the surveys just cited—some of which may be accounted for by differences in the samples used (e.g. urban versus national), in question wording, and in response cate-

⁶ The 1964 and 1970 polls are reported in Hindelang, et al. (1975:188-189); the 1966 poll is cited by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (1967:145). Note, however, that in the 1970 poll, the proportion of favorable responses was 56 percent for city residents, compared to the national figure of 64 percent.

gories—all indications point to a great deal of public support for the police. This, however, does not mean that there are no complaints about the police.

Table 2 shows that fully two-thirds (68 percent) of the respondents felt that some improvement was needed in their local police; only a small portion thought that no improvement was needed. It can also be seen from Table 2 that there are virtually no differences in these proportions between the 1972/73 surveys and the 1975 surveys.

The bottom portion of Table 2 displays—for those respondents who said that improvement was needed—the distribution of suggestions that they considered as most important. It is evident that respondent preferences are in the direction asking for manpower increases, either in an absolute sense (“hire more policemen”) or in terms of specific spatial or temporal distributions (“need more policemen of certain (foot, car) type in certain areas or at certain times”). These two categories accounted for half (51 percent) of improvements perceived as most important by respondents in the 1975 surveys. Unfortunately, we cannot make direct comparisons between the improvements suggested in the 1975 surveys and those suggested in the earlier surveys because refinement of the questionnaire resulted in changes in the way some of the suggestions were categorized. Examination of the suggested improvements in the 1972/73 surveys (Garofalo, 1977) does suggest, however, that any differences in attitudes between the two sets of the survey are minimal.⁷

⁷ Some of the categories have wording that is similar enough in the two sets of surveys to make rough comparisons: the need for more policemen (26 percent in 1972/73 versus 24 percent in 1975), promptness (14 versus 15 percent), courteousness (9 versus 9 percent), discrimination (3 versus 2 percent), traffic (1 versus 1 percent).

Table 2 Perceived need for improvement of local police in the 1972/73 and 1975 surveys of the eight Impact Cities and the Nation's five largest cities

	1972/73	1975
Estimated number ^a	(13,489,638)	(14,259,389)
No improvement needed	16%	15%
Improvement needed	67%	68%
Don't know	13%	15%
No answer	4%	2%
Most important suggested improvement (1975): ^b		
Hire more policemen		24%
Concentrate on more important duties, serious crime, etc.		11%
Be more prompt, responsive, alert		15%
Improve training, raise qualifications or pay; recruitment policies		4%
Be more courteous, improve attitude, community relations		9%
Don't discriminate		2%
Need more traffic control		1%
Need more policemen of certain type (foot, car) in certain areas or at certain times		27%
Other		7%
Estimated number ^c		(9,697,652)

^aExcludes respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A).

^bResponse categories used in 1972/73 and 1975 surveys were not fully comparable.

^cOnly respondents who indicated that improvement was needed.

Variations in Attitudes Toward the Police

Respondent Characteristics

Relationships between attitudes toward the police and respondent characteristics in the 1975 data are similar to those found in previous analysis of the 1972/73 data. Table 3 shows evaluations of police performance broken down by age, race, sex, and family income.

There is substantial variation in ratings of the police by both age and race; older and white respondents were much more likely to rate police performance as good than were younger and black/other^a respondents. These

^aIn the NCS cities data sets there are three racial categories used: white, black, and other. Because there are so few respondents in the "other" category (mainly Orientals and American Indians) of the data used here, blacks and "others" have been combined, as indicated by the terminology, "black/other." However, note that blacks comprise more than 90 percent of this combined group. Note also that, according to Bureau of the Census and NCS counting rules, Spanish-Americans are classified as whites.

findings are not only consistent with the 1972/73 NCS data, but reflect patterns that have been found in virtually every project that has investigated attitudes toward the police (Reiss, 1967; Biderman, 1967; Ennis, 1967; Hindelang, et al., 1975:189, 192; Boggs and Galliher, 1975; Wismer and Brodie, 1976). Also consistent with previous research is the lack of association, in Table 3, between evaluations of the police and sex of respondents (Ennis, 1967; Garofalo, 1977). On the other hand, the absence of a relationship between family income and police ratings does not correspond to the findings of Ennis (1967:58) and a 1970 Harris poll (Hindelang, et al., 1975:189), which found more positive evaluations of the police at higher income levels. In the 1972/73 NCS data it was found that, although family income and evaluations of the police were related moderately in the full sample, the relationship virtually disappeared when the two racial categories were examined separately, that is, income was not related to evaluations of the police *within* racial groups.

Age and race—the two important explanatory demographic variables—are both related to evaluations of the police when examined simultaneously, as can be seen in Table 4. Among both white and black/other respondents

Table 3 Evaluation of police performance by selected respondent characteristics;
1975 NCS city surveys

	Evaluation of police performance					Estimated number
	Good	Average	Poor	Don't know	No answer	
Age:						
16-29	29%	48%	16%	6%	0%	(4,971,233)
30-49	38%	42%	13%	6%	0%	(4,627,084)
50 or older	50%	33%	8%	9%	0%	(5,788,018)
Race:						
White	47%	37%	9%	7%	0%	(10,872,109)
Black/other	24%	50%	19%	7%	0%	(4,514,226)
Sex:						
Male	40%	41%	13%	5%	0%	(6,882,142)
Female	40%	40%	11%	8%	0%	(8,504,193)
Family income:						
Less than \$5,000	40%	36%	14%	9%	0%	(2,898,064)
\$5,000-11,999	38%	42%	13%	6%	0%	(5,173,635)
\$12,000 or more	42%	42%	10%	5%	0%	(5,654,310)
Not ascertained	36%	40%	13%	11%	1%	(1,660,690)

Table 4 Evaluation of police performance by race and age of respondent;
1975 NCS city surveys

Race and age	Evaluation of police performance					Estimated number
	Good	Average	Poor	Don't know	No answer	
White:						
16-29	36%	45%	12%	6%	0%	(3,304,181)
30-49	46%	37%	10%	6%	0%	(3,060,294)
50 or older	54%	30%	7%	8%	0%	(4,507,635)
Black/other:						
16-29	16%	54%	24%	5%	1%	(1,667,053)
30-49	23%	52%	19%	6%	0%	(1,566,790)
50 or older	34%	43%	13%	10%	0%	(1,280,383)

the proportion of favorable police ratings increases as age increases, but at every age level white had more positive evaluations than black/other respondents. The simultaneous additive effects of race and age create a wide range in attitudes toward the police. Only 16 percent of the 16- to 29-year-old black/other respondents rated police performance as good, but this figure rises steadily to 54 percent for whites 50 years old or older. However, it is remarkable that, even among the most critical (young, black/other) respondents, only about one-quarter said that their local police are doing a poor job.

Relationships between respondent characteristics and opinions about whether and how the local police should improve their performance are quite similar to the relationships between respondent characteristics and overall ratings of the police. Opinions about the need for improvement, for example, show only minor variation by sex and by family income. On the other hand, variation does occur across age and race categories. The top portion of Table 5 shows that, within both racial groups, younger respondents were more likely than older respondents to say that their local police needed improvement. At the same time, the proportion of

Table 5 Perceived need for improvement of local police by race and age or respondent; 1975 NCS city surveys

	White respondents			
	16-29	30-49	50 or older	Total
Estimated number ^a	(3,094,806)	(2,869,279)	(4,108,765)	(10,072,850)
No improvement needed	12%	16%	22%	17%
Improvement needed	70%	68%	59%	65%
Don't know	16%	14%	17%	16%
No answer	2%	2%	2%	2%
Most important suggested improvement:				
Hire more policemen	21%	26%	33%	27%
Concentrate on more important duties, serious crime, etc.	14%	11%	7%	11%
Be more prompt, responsive, alert	15%	13%	10%	12%
Improve training, raise qualifications or pay; recruitment policies	5%	5%	4%	4%
Be more courteous, improve attitude, community relations	11%	8%	4%	7%
Don't discriminate	2%	1%	1%	1%
Need more traffic control	1%	1%	1%	1%
Need more policemen of certain type (foot, car) in certain areas or at certain times	25%	27%	33%	28%
Other	7%	8%	9%	8%
Estimated number ^b	(2,168,697)	(1,956,517)	(2,443,580)	(6,568,795)

black/other respondents who thought that improvement was needed was higher than the corresponding proportion for whites in each age group. Thus, race and age have independent effects on this component of attitudes toward the police, just as they did on overall evaluations of police performance.

The bottom portion of Table 5 deals only with those respondents who said that some improvement was needed in police performance and who reported what they believed would be the most important improvement. Again, variations across race and age subgroups are apparent. The need for more policemen, for instance, is more often suggested by white than by black/other respondents, but it is also more frequently suggested by older than by younger respondents in each racial category. In contrast, although black/other respondents were more likely than whites to suggest increased police promptness as the most important improvement needed, there is only slight variation in this response across the age categories of white respondents and virtually no variation across the age categories of black/other respondents.

As might be predicted, expressions of concern about police courteousness and discrimination are related to race and age in the bottom portion of Table 5. However, even if these two response categories are added together, they account for only 21 percent of the most important improvements suggested by young black/other respondents and 16 percent of the suggestions from young whites. Clearly, the suggested ways to improve the police reveal more concern with the efficiency and effectiveness of police operations than with the nature of citizen/police interactions, even among the respondent subgroups that are most critical of the police.

A Police Rating Scale

Table 6 shows that general evaluations of police performance and beliefs about whether or not the local police need improvement are strongly related. Even though half of the respondents who evaluated the performance of their local police as good still said that the police needed improvement, this figure rises to 78 percent and then 90 percent for respondents who evaluated their police as average or poor, respectively.

Table 5 concluded

	Black respondents			
	16-29	30-49	50 or older	Total
Estimated number ^a	(1,568,403)	(1,471,179)	(1,146,959)	(4,186,541)
No improvement needed	7%	9%	13%	9%
Improvement needed	77%	76%	69%	75%
Don't know	13%	12%	16%	14%
No answer	2%	2%	2%	2%
Most important suggested improvement:				
Hire more policemen	15%	17%	23%	18%
Concentrate on more important duties, serious crime, etc.	13%	11%	10%	11%
Be more prompt, responsive, alert	20%	20%	19%	20%
Improve training, raise qualifications or pay; recruitment policies	4%	4%	3%	4%
Be more courteous, improve attitude, community relations	15%	12%	8%	12%
Don't discriminate	6%	3%	3%	4%
Need more traffic control	1%	0%	1%	0%
Need more policemen of certain type (foot, car) in certain areas or at certain times	22%	27%	29%	25%
Other	5%	5%	5%	5%
Estimated number ^b	(1,211,944)	(1,121,660)	(795,099)	(3,128,702)

^aExcludes respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A).
^bOnly respondents who indicated that improvement was needed.

Table 6 Perceived need for improvement of local police by evaluation of police performance; 1975 NCS city surveys

Police performance	Need for improvement				Estimated number ^a
	Improvement needed	No improvement needed	Don't know	No answer	
Good	51% ^b 32% ^c	29% 83%	19% 55%	1% 26%	(6,129,207)
Average	78% 50%	5% 16%	14% 42%	2% 45%	(6,258,868)
Poor	90% 17%	2% 2%	4% 3%	5% 29%	(1,871,314)
Estimated number ^a	(9,697,652)	(2,127,837)	(2,144,832)	(289,068)	(14,259,389)

^aExcludes respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A).
^bRow percentages.
^cColumn percentages.

Because of this strong relationship, the two items have been combined to form a single police rating scale.

On the original evaluation of police performance item, responses of good, average, and poor corresponded to values of one, two, and three. These values were used as the scale score only for the respondents who said that their local police needed no improvement. For all others, the scale score was formed by adding one point to the value on the evaluation of police performance item. Thus, the police rating scale ranges from one (positive rating) to four (negative rating). Respondents with a value of one are those who evaluated the performance of their local police as good and who said that no improvement was needed; a value of four is assigned to respondents who evaluated police performance as poor and who, when asked about how the police could improve, said something other than "no improvement needed."⁹

In Table 7 the police rating scale scores are displayed by race and age. The patterns are similar to those found earlier when the items that comprise the scale were examined separately. Within each racial group, older respondents gave the police more favorable ratings than did younger respondents, and in each age category, the ratings given by whites were more positive than those given by black/other respondents.

From this point on, the summary police rating scale will be used in the analysis instead of the two separate items that comprise the scale.

⁹ They either suggested a specific improvement, said they didn't know how the police could improve, or gave no answer.

Race and age	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive)		(Negative)		
	1	2	3	4	
White:	15%	38%	38%	10%	(10,072,850)
16-29	10%	31%	46%	13%	(3,094,807)
30-49	15%	38%	38%	11%	(2,869,278)
50 or older	19%	43%	31%	7%	(4,108,765)
Black/other:	7%	21%	52%	20%	(4,186,542)
16-29	4%	15%	55%	25%	(1,568,403)
30-49	7%	20%	53%	20%	(1,471,180)
50 or older	10%	31%	45%	14%	(1,146,959)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score.

Rating of the Police and Other Attitudes

In previous analyses of the 1972/73 NCS cities data (Garofalo, 1977), evaluations of police performance were examined in relation to other attitude items in the surveys. The other attitude items fell into the general areas of perceptions of crime trends, fear of crime, and reported effects of crime on behavior. A parallel analysis of the 1975 cities data will be presented now, using the police rating scale.

Perceptions of crime trends are indexed by two attitude items in Table 8. On the first of these items, respondents were asked whether crime in their neighborhoods had increased, decreased, or remained the same within the past year or two. The second item tapped more individualized estimates of crime trends, asking respondents whether their own chances of being attacked or robbed had gone up, gone down, or remained unchanged in the past few years.

The row percentages in the top portion of Table 8 tell us that ratings of the police do not vary greatly depending on whether respondents thought that neighborhood crime had increased, stayed the same, or decreased. For example, the most positive rating was given by 9 percent of the respondents who saw crime as increasing, by 15 percent of those who believed the crime level had not changed, and by 13 percent of those who thought neighborhood crime was decreasing. But there are also column percentages in the top portion of Table 8, and they indicate that people who rated the police negatively were much more likely to say that crime had increased than were people who gave the

TABLE 8 Rating of police by two indicators of respondent perceptions of crime trends; 1975 NCS city surveys

	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive)		(Negative)		
	1	2	3	4	
Neighborhood crime trend: ^b					
Increased	9% ^c 41% ^d	30% 47%	43% 52%	17% 65%	(6,358,179)
Same	15% 53%	35% 47%	41% 42%	9% 29%	(5,392,291)
Decreased	13% 6%	34% 6%	39% 5%	14% 3%	(723,266)
Estimated number	(1,490,657)	(4,057,886)	(5,269,849)	(1,655,345)	(12,473,737)
Changes in chances of being attacked or robbed: ^e					
Up	10% 57%	32% 64%	43% 68%	14% 71%	(9,115,143)
Same	15% 36%	35% 31%	40% 27%	11% 24%	(4,023,007)
Down	16% 7%	33% 5%	39% 5%	12% 5%	(712,268)
Estimated number	(1,674,418)	(4,555,285)	(5,822,046)	(1,798,669)	(13,850,418)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score.

^b Excludes respondents who had not lived in the neighborhood long enough to estimate crime trends, who said they didn't know, or who gave no answer. For exact wording, see item 9a in Appendix A.

^c Row percentages.

^d Column percentages.

^e Excludes respondents who had no opinion or who gave no answer. For exact wording, see item 15a in Appendix A.

police positive ratings (65 versus 41 percent). The top portion of Table 8, then, appears to be presenting us with two conflicting messages.

Actually what we are faced with is the issue of whether our concern is to infer the existence of some causal mechanisms or merely to determine how well we can predict the responses on one variable given information about responses on another variable. If the purpose is prediction, then we must say that our ability to predict perceptions of neighborhood crime trends knowing rating of police is better than our ability to predict rating of police performance knowing perceptions of

neighborhood crime trends. But the fact that we can predict in one direction better than the other does not mean that any causal connection between the variables runs in the same direction.¹⁰ All of the attitudes were measured at the same time, so there is no empirical basis for saying that one preceded another in time. For the most part, we will be assuming that attitudes about

¹⁰ A common illustration is the superiority of "predicting" whether a person has ever used marijuana from knowledge of heroin use over predicting heroin use from knowledge of marijuana use; most marijuana users don't use heroin, but most heroin users have used marijuana at some time. Neither association is sufficient to infer some direction of causality.

crime are prior to ratings of the police, and we will be trying to determine if these attitudes about crime have an effect on ratings of the police rather than vice versa. The rationale for this approach is that, at least in this portion of the report, interest is focused on explaining variation in ratings of the police. Later, in examining the issue of whether or not a victimization was reported to the police, rating of the police will be treated as a predictor variable. For now, however, the police rating scale will be considered as a dependent variable, and attention will focus on the row percentages in Tables 8, 9, and 10. Column percentages are included in those tables so that the reverse causal order can be examined when it is deemed appropriate.

Returning to Table 8, the row percentages in both the top and bottom portions of the table lead to the same finding. Although there was some tendency for respondents who thought that neighborhood crime had increased or that their own chances of being victimized had gone up to give the police more negative ratings than did other respondents, the differences are not very large. Thus, it does not appear that people who perceive the risk of crime as increasing in their neighborhood or for themselves blame their local police for the increase.

Turning next to the fear of crime, we again look at two attitude items: how safe the respondents felt about being out alone in their neighborhoods at night, and the perceived relative dangerousness (in terms of crime) of their neighborhoods in comparison to other neighborhoods in the same metropolitan area. In Table 9, responses to these two items are cross-tabulated with ratings of the local police. Row percentages in the top portion of Table 9 show that respondents did not differ substantially in their ratings of the police depending on how safe they felt about being out alone in their neighborhoods at night. At the response extremes, those who felt very safe tended to give the police more positive ratings and those who felt very unsafe tended to give the police more negative ratings, but these tendencies are not very strong.

The bottom portion of Table 9, on the other hand, reveals a rather pronounced relationship between ratings of the local police and how dangerous, in terms of crime, respondents saw their own neighborhood, compared to other neighborhoods in the metropolitan area. Only 7 percent of the respondents who thought that their neighborhoods were much more dangerous than other neighborhoods gave their local police the most positive rating possible, but this figure rises to 19 percent among respondents who thought they lived in neighborhoods that were much less dangerous than others. Further

examination shows that people living in neighborhoods evaluated as much more dangerous were more than four times as likely to give the police a very negative rating than were respondents residing in neighborhoods thought to be much less dangerous than others (35 versus 8 percent).

Inspection of the marginal totals in the "estimated number" column of the lower half of Table 9 discloses that relatively few of the respondents said that their neighborhoods were much more dangerous than other neighborhoods in the metropolitan area. Yet, even if these people are combined with respondents in the adjacent ("more dangerous") category, the strong relationship between ratings of the police and perceptions of comparative neighborhood danger remains.

The two cross-tabulations in Table 9 can be examined from the perspective of column percentages. In both cases those percentages indicate that respondents who gave the police favorable ratings tended to view their neighborhoods as more secure than did other respondents. It seems conceptually more reasonable to treat ratings of the police as causally prior in these two cross-tabulations than it did in the cross-tabulations in Table 8. There is some intuitive appeal in saying that the confidence one places in local police affects feelings of security about one's own neighborhood. Yet, we will continue to use the opposite temporal conceptualization. Thus, from Table 9, we can conclude that the extent to which people feel personally safe about being out alone in their neighborhoods at night does not have much effect on their ratings of the local police, but when people evaluate the safety of their neighborhoods relative to other neighborhoods, their evaluations are related to their perceptions of the adequacy of local police performance.

Reported effects of crime on behavior and ratings of the police are jointly examined in Table 10. Effects of crime on behavior are reflected, first, by whether or not respondents believed that people in their neighborhoods had limited or changed their activities in the past few years because of fear of crime. The second item indicating the effects of crime on behavior sought to determine whether the respondent had limited or changed his or her own behavior. The absence of any substantial relationship between either of these indicators and ratings of the police is illustrated in the row percentages of Table 10. The differences between the ratings of police performance by respondents who said that behavioral changes had occurred and those who said that changes had not occurred are quite small. For example, 11 percent of the respondents who said that

TABLE 9 Rating of police by two indicators of respondent fear of crime; 1975 NCS city surveys

	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive)			(Negative)	
	1	2	3	4	
Neighborhood safety at night:^b					
Very safe	16% ^c 18% ^d	39% 16%	33% 10%	12% 12%	(1,898,696)
Reasonably safe	12% 40%	33% 40%	44% 43%	10% 32%	(5,729,744)
Somewhat unsafe	11% 22%	31% 23%	45% 26%	13% 24%	(3,455,194)
Very unsafe	11% 20%	32% 21%	39% 20%	19% 32%	(3,128,564)
Estimated number	(1,745,571)	(4,693,707)	(5,937,325)	(1,835,596)	(14,212,199)
Comparative neighborhood danger:^e					
Much more dangerous	7% 1%	23% 1%	35% 1%	35% 3%	(149,101)
More dangerous	9% 4%	26% 4%	40% 5%	26% 11%	(791,585)
Average	10% 34%	28% 36%	48% 49%	15% 50%	(6,067,640)
Less dangerous	14% 45%	37% 45%	39% 37%	10% 30%	(5,591,913)
Much less dangerous	19% 16%	43% 14%	31% 8%	8% 6%	(1,517,164)
Estimated number	(1,730,224)	(4,655,109)	(5,907,603)	(1,824,468)	(14,117,404)
^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score.					
^b Excludes respondents who gave no answer. For exact wording, see item 11a in Appendix A.					
^c Row percentages.					
^d Column percentages.					
^e Excludes respondents who gave no answer. For exact wording, see item 12 in Appendix A.					

TABLE 10 Rating of the police by two indicators of effects of crime on behavior; 1975 NCS city surveys

	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive)		(Negative)		
	1	2	3	4	
Neighborhood limiting of activities: ^b					
Yes	11% ^c 61% ^d	31% 66%	44% 73%	14% 78%	(9,603,338)
No	16% 39%	37% 34%	38% 27%	9% 22%	(4,186,901)
Estimated number	(1,694,556)	(4,531,353)	(5,780,010)	(1,784,320)	(13,790,239)
Personal limiting of activities: ^e					
Yes	11% 42%	31% 46%	43% 50%	15% 57%	(6,924,022)
No	14% 58%	35% 54%	40% 50%	11% 43%	(7,292,598)
Estimated number	(1,749,213)	(4,696,026)	(5,936,738)	(1,834,642)	(14,216,619)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score.

^bExcludes respondents who gave no answer. For exact wording, see item 16b in Appendix A.

^cRow percentages.

^dColumn percentages.

^eExcludes respondents who gave no answer. For exact wording, see item 16c in Appendix A.

they had limited or changed their activities gave their local police a highly positive rating, and the same rating was given by 16 percent of those who said that they had not limited or changed their activities. At no level of police ratings do these differences exceed 6 percent points.

By reversing the conceptualization of how the variables are ordered temporally and looking at the column percentages, the cross-tabulations in Table 10 lead to a different conclusion. And again, such a reversal seems reasonable; it does not tax the imagination to assume that the confidence people have in their police affects their decisions about whether to limit their activities. From that perspective, Table 10 shows that respondents who gave positive ratings to the police were less likely than respondents who gave negative ratings to

say that people in the neighborhood (61 versus 78 percent) or they themselves (42 versus 57 percent) had limited their activities. However, it still seems advisable to maintain our *a priori* conceptualization of police ratings as the dependent variable and to conclude—from the row percentages in Table 10—that whether or not people feel compelled to limit their activities does not have a strong effect on their ratings of the police.

Victimization Experience and Ratings of the Police

Because the NCS cities attitude data were collected in conjunction with surveys of criminal victimization, we can look for associations between expressed attitudes and the respondents' experiences as victims of crime

during the 12 months that preceded the interviews. In this section, victimization experiences will be analyzed in terms of the total number of personal victimizations suffered, the number of various types of victimization disclosed, and the total seriousness score of the victimizations reported to interviewers. The operational meanings of these variables are covered in Appendix C.

On the most general level, Table 11 shows that there is a relationship between the total number of personal victimizations respondents said they suffered and how they rated their local police: those victimized most often gave the police the least favorable evaluations. The pattern is most pronounced at the negative end of the police rating scale, with respondents who endured three or more victimizations being almost three times more likely than respondents who had no victimizations to give the police the most negative rating on the scale (33 versus 12 percent). Of course, the estimated number of individuals in each successive category of total personal victimizations decreases at a rapid rate. But the large samples used in the NCS have uncovered so many victimized individuals that even the estimated number of persons victimized three or more times (24,024) is based on a number of sample cases sufficient to support the analysis.¹¹

In previous research, the evidence concerning the relationship between victimization and attitudes toward the police is somewhat conflicting. Biderman, et al. (1967:141), in an early pilot study of victimization in three Washington D.C. police precincts, found no consistent relationship between a "crime exposure" score and an index of "propolice sentiment." However, there

¹¹The average weighting factor per sample case is approximately 100. As a rule of thumb, percentages computed on a base of fewer than 50 sample cases will be deemed unreliable and will not be reported.

are some major differences between Biderman's variables and the ones used here. The victimizations in Table 11 are all personal victimizations, while the events in Biderman's "crime exposure" score included household crimes, such as burglary and vehicle theft. Likewise, the index of "propolice sentiment" used by Biderman was a composite of six attitude items relating to specific aspects of police performance.

In a study that used a measure of police rating similar to the one used here, Reynolds, et al. (1973) found that victimization and ratings of the police were not systematically related among a sample of respondents in Minneapolis. Again, however, the victimization variable used by Reynolds included a wider range of events than the total personal victimizations variable in Table 11.

Finally, using data from a recent Denver victimization survey, Wismer and Brodie (1976) analyzed respondents' mean scores on a 10-item "satisfaction with police" scale. They found that victims differed from nonvictims only slightly, but in the expected direction (victims had more negative attitudes than nonvictims). Race and age were found to be much more strongly related to attitudes toward the police than was victimization status. However, respondents were classified as victims if they or any member of their households had been the victim of a set of crimes that included both personal and household victimizations: burglary, assault, robbery, auto theft, and larceny.

Perhaps the major difference between the present analysis and previous studies is that victimization is defined here only on the basis of personal crimes that involve contact between the victim and offender. Specifying an individual as the victim in these types of crimes is much easier than for offenses such as burglary, and it

TABLE 11 Rating of police by total number of personal victimizations suffered by respondent during the preceding 12 months; 1975 NCS city surveys

Total personal victimizations ^b	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive)		(Negative)		
	1	2	3	4	
None	13%	33%	42%	12%	(13,374,961)
1	8%	28%	41%	22%	(758,403)
2	5%	33%	35%	27%	(102,367)
3 or more	3%	32%	33%	33%	(24,024)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 142 in Appendix A) were not given a scale score.

^bSee Appendix C for definition.

is assumed that these crimes would have a greater effect on the individual than would events such as a theft of property involving no victim/offender confrontation. Therefore, in trying to relate the attitudes of individuals to the experiences of those individuals with victimization, we restrict our attention to rape, robbery, simple and aggravated assault, and larceny from the person (i.e., pocket picking and purse snatching).

The relationship between the number of personal victimizations suffered and the rating given to local police persists when each type of personal victimization is analyzed separately. As shown in Table 12, victims of each type of crime gave their local police a greater proportion of highly negative ratings than did non-victims, and those who were victims of either aggravated or simple assault more than once during the reference period gave more negative ratings than respondents who experienced only one incident of the same type of crime

TABLE 12 Rating of police by number of various types of personal victimizations suffered by respondent during the preceding 12 months; 1975 NCS city surveys

Personal victimization ^b	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive)		(Negative)		
	1	2	3	4	
Rape:					
None	12%	33%	42%	13%	(14,235,107)
One or more	7%	20%	42%	31%	(24,648)
Robbery:					
None	12%	33%	42%	13%	(13,927,992)
One	6%	29%	38%	27%	(302,625)
Two or more	4%	31%	39%	26%	(29,138)
Aggravated assault:					
None	12%	33%	42%	13%	(14,049,022)
One	7%	27%	41%	25%	(199,386)
Two or more	3%	29%	34%	34%	(19,348)
Simple assault:					
None	12%	33%	42%	13%	(14,055,005)
One	8%	33%	39%	20%	(189,271)
Two or more	4%	28%	35%	34%	(15,478)
Larceny with contact:					
None	12%	33%	42%	13%	(14,070,718)
One	11%	29%	42%	18%	(180,778)
Two or more	4%	46%	39%	12%	(8,259)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 142 in Appendix A) were not given a scale score.
^b See Appendix C for definitions.

during the reference period.¹² There are some differences in response levels across the type of crime categories—e.g., victims of two or more larcenies were much less likely to assign highly negative ratings than were victims of two or more assaults—but, in general, persons who had suffered victimizations gave the police more negative ratings than did nonvictims.

A third perspective on the association between victimization experiences and ratings of local police is presented in Table 13, where the focus is on the seriousness of personal victimizations suffered during the reference period rather than on the number or legal categorization of the victimizations. To derive the total seriousness score in Table 13, each victimization was scored by a method derived from Sellin and Wolfgang (1964).¹³

¹² There were too few multiple rape victims available for analysis.

¹³ See Appendix C.

TABLE 13 Rating of police by total seriousness score of respondents' experiences with personal victimization during the preceding 12 months; 1975 NCS city surveys

Total seriousness score ^b	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive)		(Negative)		
	1	2	3	4	
0	13%	33%	42%	13%	(13,386,955)
1-2	9%	32%	45%	14%	(694,434)
3-5	7%	29%	41%	23%	(156,925)
6 or more	7%	26%	34%	33%	(21,442)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score.
^b See Appendix C for definition.

These scores were then summed for all the victimizations suffered by each respondent. Thus, an individual with several minor victimizations could have the same total seriousness score as an individual with one very serious victimization. Table 13 shows that this alternative method of handling the idea of victimization experience produces results similar to those found in Tables 11 and 12: people with more serious victimization experiences are more likely to give their local police negative ratings. In fact, the response distributions in Tables 11 and 13 show a strong correspondence.¹⁴

Surprisingly, the relationship between experience with personal victimization and ratings of the local police is not affected by whether the victimization occurred within or outside of the city in which the victim

¹⁴ Of course, number of personal victimizations (Table 11) and total seriousness score (Table 13) are not independent because the latter is derived by summing the seriousness scores of all the personal victimizations reported to the interviewer by the respondent.

resided. In Table 14, personal victimizations are divided according to whether the victimization took place inside or outside of the city where the interview was conducted, and the data show that this division has no effect on how the police were rated.¹⁵ Even when the inside-city and outside-city victimizations are further subdivided by seriousness score (data not presented), the similarities in ratings of the police remain. Because experience with victimization has been shown to be related to ratings of the police, and because respondents were asked to evaluate the performance of their local police, the lack of any relationship in Table 14 is unexpected. One might have predicted that ratings of local police would only be related to victimization experiences occurring within the city. Unfortunately, we do not have the necessary data to explore this apparent anomaly further.

¹⁵ The numbers in Table 14 represent victimizations rather than individuals, a point that will be discussed later in the report.

TABLE 14 Victim's rating of police by whether victimization occurred within or outside of the city in which the interview was conducted; 1975 NCS city surveys

Place of occurrence	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number ^b
	(Positive)		(Negative)		
	1	2	3	4	
Inside city	8%	30%	39%	24%	(874,145)
Outside city	8%	31%	39%	22%	(62,564)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score.
^b Indicates estimated number of personal victimizations.

From the discussion in this section so far it should be obvious that ratings of the police are related to a number of factors: demographic characteristics (especially race and age), other attitudes, and exposure to victimization. It will be helpful to examine the simultaneous effects of these factors in a single model.

A Multivariate Analysis of Police Ratings

In order to investigate the joint effects of several factors on ratings of the police, multiple linear regression was used. The object of multiple linear regression is to find the linear combination of explanatory variables (in this case, age, race, number of victimizations and so forth) that best predicts scores on a criterion variable (rating of the police). The word "best" in this context means that the resulting regression equation minimizes the differences between the actual scores of individuals on the criterion variable and the scores predicted for the individuals from the regression equation.¹⁶

For heuristic purposes, all the variables used have been transformed into standardized form—i.e., with a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one. When standardized variables are used in the regression procedure, the resulting regression equation will have a standardized regression coefficient (beta weight)¹⁷ assigned to each of the explanatory variables. These beta weights reflect the effect of each explanatory variable on the criterion variable after the effects of all the other explanatory variables in the equation have been taken into account.

In addition, a stepwise multiple regression solution was utilized. With a stepwise procedure only one explanatory variable enters the regression equation at each step. First, the explanatory variable most strongly related to the criterion variable is entered into the equation.

¹⁶Multiple linear regression equations take the following form:

$$Y = a + b_1 X_1 + b_2 X_2 + b_3 X_3 + \dots + b_k X_k + e$$

where: Y = the score on the criterion variable, a = a constant, b₁...b_k = standardized regression coefficients (beta weights), X₁...X_k = scores on the explanatory variables, and e = a residual error term.

Ignoring the error term, the equation (after solving for a and the b's) can be used to compute a predicted Y value for any particular individual by inserting the X scores for that individual into the equation. The differences between such predicted Y values and the actual Y values of individuals are what the linear equation tries to minimize. See Loether and McTavish (1974) or Blalock (1972).

¹⁷These are the b values in the equation in footnote 16.

Next, from the remaining pool of explanatory variables, the one most strongly related to the criterion variable, after the effect of the variable already in the equation is taken into account, is selected. Then a third variable is selected from the pool on the basis of its relationship to the criterion variable controlling for the two variables already in the equation. The process continues until all the explanatory variables are in the equation or when some predetermined stopping rule is met (e.g., the remaining variables contribute less than some minimally desired increment of explanatory power or a specific number of variables have been entered).

Data from only the eight Impact Cities have been used in the multiple regression analysis. Because relationships in the data are rather consistent across cities (see Appendix B), it was felt that inclusion of all cities would not justify the higher computer processing costs of an already expensive procedure, computing a matrix of Pearson's product moment coefficients.¹⁸

For the first part of the analysis, a pool of 34 explanatory variables was made available for inclusion in the regression equation. Twenty of these variables reflected either respondent characteristics (e.g., race, age) or experiences with victimization (e.g., number, type, seriousness). The remaining 14 variables consisted of attitude items. A restriction was placed on the solution so that none of the attitude variables would enter the equation until all of the other 20 variables had entered. This, in effect, allows us to examine the relationship between ratings of the police and other attitudes with respondent characteristics and victimization experiences held constant. The results were as expected. Inclusion of the 20 demographic and victimization variables produced a multiple R of .31, and that figure was increased only to .36 by the addition of the 14 attitude variables,¹⁹ indicating that the attitude variables do not aid greatly in explaining ratings of the police after the effects of the demographic and victimization variables have been taken into account.

Actually, there is even a great deal of redundancy in the predictive power of the first 20 variables entered in

¹⁸A Pearson's product moment coefficient (Pearson's r) is a measure of the linear association between two variables; it can take any value between -1.00 and 1.00. The matrix of Pearson's r's between all possible pairs of the variables being analyzed provides the data necessary to derive the multiple regression equations explained in footnote 16.

¹⁹Multiple R is an extension of the Pearson's r (see footnote 18) and measures the strength of association between a single criterion variable and two or more explanatory variables; its value range is from zero to 1.00. The square of the multiple R (R²) indicates the proportion of total variance in the criterion variable that can be explained, or "accounted for" by the linear combination of explanatory variables in the multiple regression equation.

the equation. Table 15 displays the 10 demographic and victimization variables found to be most predictive of ratings of the local police. After race, age, and total seriousness score (of the personal victimizations suffered by the respondent during the reference period) have entered the equation, the only changes in the multiple R occur beyond the second decimal place. In fact, once the effects of race and age are controlled, none of the remaining variables substantially increases the size of the multiple R. Even the fairly pronounced relationships previously found between ratings of the police and experience with victimization variables (Tables 11, 12 and 13) are attenuated when race and age are controlled. The decreasing size of the beta weights shown in Table 15 also reveals that the variables entering the equation late have only small direct effects on ratings of the local police. Apparently, race and age are the primary variables to be considered in explaining variations in ratings of the police—at least with respect to the variables that are available in the NCS. The fact that variables other than race and age show decreases in explanatory power after race and age are controlled indicates that at least

some of the initial explanatory power of the other variables derives from their interrelationships with the two main variables, race and age.

The multiple regression results of Table 15 are illustrated in Figure 1. Because tabular presentation of multivariate analysis is so cumbersome, only the first three explanatory variables in the regression equation—race, age, and total seriousness score—are shown in Figure 1, and each of those variables has been dichotomized. When the total sample is divided into two racial groups, the rating of police distributions of white and black/other respondents differ from each other (e.g., 10 percent and 20 percent, respectively, give the police highly negative ratings); thus, some of the variation in ratings of the police that is present in the total sample is accounted for by the differing response patterns of the two racial groups. In the next level of Figure 1, each racial group is further divided into two age categories, and we find that, within each racial group, older and younger respondents differ in their ratings of the police. Specifically, regardless of race, younger respondents give less favorable ratings to the police than do older respondents. This illus-

TABLE 15 Results of stepwise multiple regression of ratings of police on 10 predictor variables; 1975 Impact City surveys

Predictor variable	Simple r	Regression results ^a		
		Multiple R at each step	Change in multiple R	Beta weight in final equation
Race	.226	.226	.226	.196
Age	-.219	.298	.052	-.161
Total seriousness score	.078	.302	.004	.036
Tenure ^b	.097	.303	.001	.037
Education	.050	.304	.001	.031
Number of members in household ^c	.124	.305	.001	.030
Marital status ^d	.079	.306	.001	.019
Number of aggravated assaults	.052	.306	.000	.013
Number of simple assaults	.029	.306	.000	.009
Number of robberies	.042	.306	.000	.007

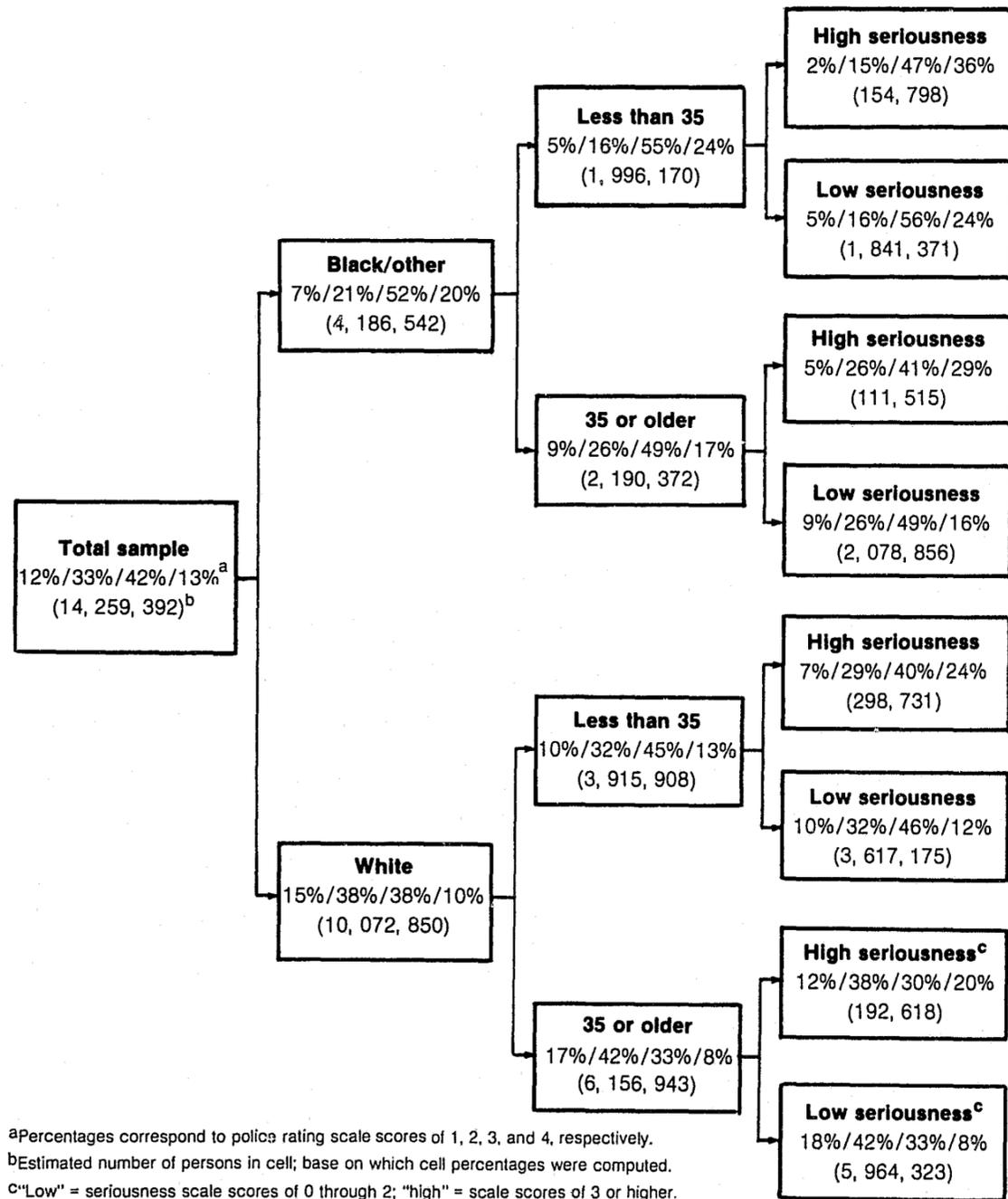
^aSee text and accompanying footnotes for explanation.

^bA dichotomous variable indicating whether the respondent was residing in a rented housing unit or one that was owned (or being bought).

^cTotal household members, regardless of age.

^dA dichotomous variable: married versus not married.

FIGURE 1 Rating of Police
by race, age, and seriousness of respondent's experiences with personal victimization during the preceding 12 months; 1975 NCS city surveys



^aPercentages correspond to police rating scale scores of 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively.
^bEstimated number of persons in cell; base on which cell percentages were computed.
^c"Low" = seriousness scale scores of 0 through 2; "high" = scale scores of 3 or higher.

trates that age accounts for some of the variation in ratings of the police, even when the effects of race are controlled, a finding that corresponds to the increase in multiple R when age is added to the regression equation (Table 15).

But Figure 1 also reveals something that is somewhat masked in the regression analysis results reported in Table 15. In the regression procedure, addition of the third explanatory variable—total seriousness score—increased the value of multiple R by a very small amount (.004). Yet Figure 1 shows that, within each race/age group, respondents with low and high seriousness scores differed considerably from each other in their ratings of the local police, especially at the negative end of the police rating scale. Among whites who were 35 years old or older, for example, 8 percent of the low seriousness score group, but 20 percent of the high seriousness score group, gave the police highly negative ratings. Figure 1 shows similar differences within each of the other three race/age groups.

The reason for the apparent discrepancy between the multiple regression results in Table 15 and the tabular results in Figure 1 is that multiple regression is concerned with the amount of total variation in the criterion variable (rating of the police) that can be explained by particular explanatory variables. Even though Figure 1 shows that low and high seriousness score respondents differ considerably on ratings of the police (with race and age controlled), the seriousness score variable does not explain much variation in ratings of the police because so few respondents have high seriousness scores. Looking at the bottom level in Figure 1, we see that each race/age group is comprised overwhelmingly of low seriousness score respondents. The small group of high seriousness score respondents contributes only a small amount to the overall variation in police rating scores, so total seriousness score cannot explain much of the variation in the criterion variable. This does not mean, however, that we should not be interested in the fact that respondents with high seriousness scores—even if they are few in number—give the police more negative ratings than other respondents. The multiple regression procedure does not fully reveal the extent to which attitudes toward the police are affected by experiences with victimization.

If our purpose had been strictly predictive, we could have allowed other attitude variables to enter the regression equation before some of the demographic and victimization variables that appear in Table 15. In fact, when we allow any of the 34 explanatory variables to enter the stepwise solution on the basis of their predictive power alone—regardless of whether they are demo-

graphic, victimization, or attitude variables—the third, fourth, and fifth variables that come into regression equation (after race and age) are all attitude variables: how safe respondents feel about being out alone in their neighborhoods during the day, the seriousness of crime relative to how it is portrayed in the media, and perceptions of neighborhood crime trends.²⁰ However, these three attitude items do not add much to the multiple R. With race and age alone as independent variables, R = .30; adding the three attitude items increases R to only .33.

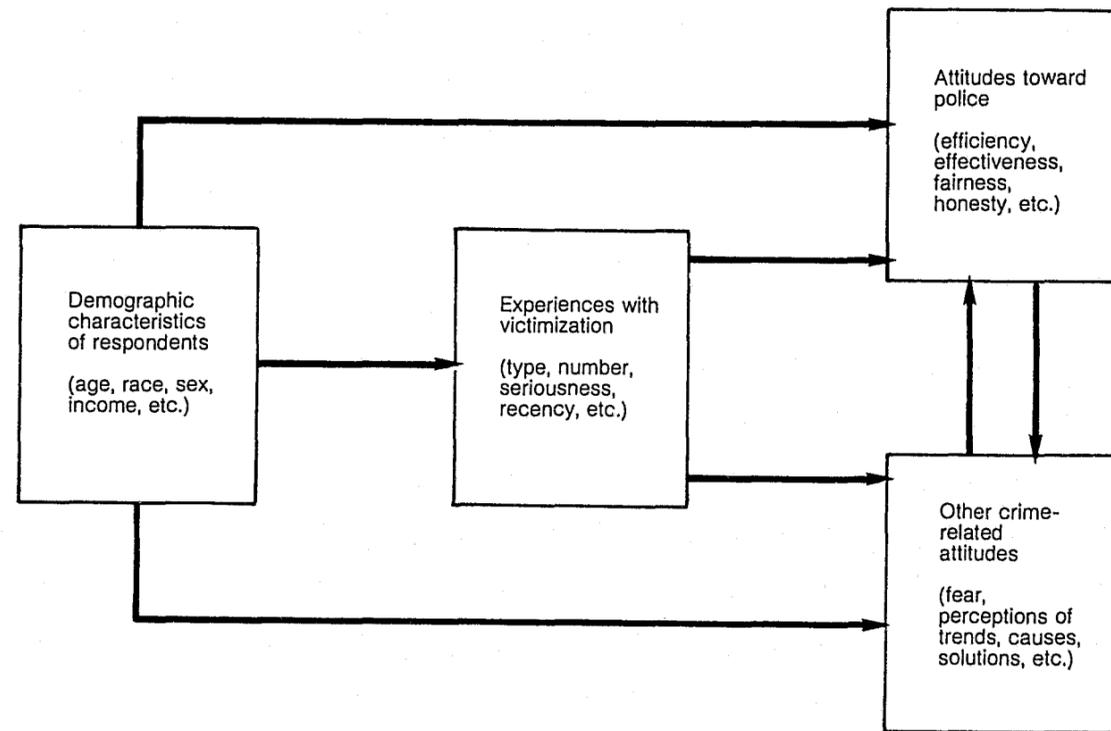
Although inclusion of attitude variables in the regression equation does permit more accurate predictions of ratings of the police, it also creates ambiguity about which variables are affecting which. For example, do people feel unsafe when out alone because they believe their police are doing a poor job, or does the perception of lack of safety produce a negative attitude toward the police? We dealt with this problem earlier when examining the bivariate tabular relationships between ratings of the police and various other attitude items. At that time it was decided, a priori, to treat the other attitudes as if they preceded police ratings temporally.

The patterns of correlations among the various types of variables examined in this section suggest a model such as the one illustrated in Figure 2. Attitudes toward the police are directly related to respondent characteristics such as age and race, and they are indirectly related to respondent characteristics through the victimization experiences that respondents have had. Age, for example, may be directly related to attitudes toward the police because of the differing social attitudes among various age groups and differing orientations of the age groups toward authority in general. But age is also related to the probability of being victimized (as well as the nature of victimization), and age may therefore be related indirectly to attitudes toward the police through differential experiences with victimization. Figure 2 shows that other attitudes relevant to crime (e.g., fear) are similarly related to respondent characteristics. Finally, these other attitudes and attitudes toward the police are interrelated, probably in a reciprocal manner. For example, a person may fear crime and then blame police ineffectiveness for not controlling the source of that fear; the belief that the police are ineffective could then create an even greater fear, more blaming, and so on.

Of course, the block diagram in Figure 2 is a crude illustration of how the various types of variables may be

²⁰See items 11b, 15b, and 9a in the NCS attitude questionnaire that is reproduced in Appendix A.

FIGURE 2 General block diagram of interrelationships among respondent characteristics, experiences with victimization, attitudes toward the police, and other crime-related attitudes



related. More explicit causal models can be constructed and tested, but that is beyond the technical scope of this report.²¹

Summary

In this section we have seen how attitudes toward the police, as indicated by a rating scale composed of two attitude items, are related to respondent characteristics, other attitudes, and the experiences of respondents with personal victimization. Of the respondent characteristics examined, race and age are most closely associated with ratings of the police; young persons and blacks rate their local police more negatively than older persons and whites, a finding that is consistent with virtually all previous research.

Experiences with personal victimization during the 12 months preceding the interview were measured in three ways: total personal victimizations, type of personal victimization (e.g., rape, robbery), and seriousness of the victimizations. All of these measures were related to ratings of the police in the same way; persons with more numerous or more serious personal victimizations tended to give their local police more negative ratings. In the multiple regression analysis, it was found that the measures of experience with personal victimization did not contribute very much to explaining variation in ratings of the police after the effects of race and age were taken into account, but another examination of the data, using tabular analysis, showed that the seriousness of respondents' experiences with victimization did affect their ratings of the police. It was suggested that these apparently conflicting results were due to the extremely skewed distribution of the seriousness scores; multiple regression analysis is not sensitive to what may even be strong effects of a variable if the variable (in this case, victimization) affects only a small proportion of the population.

Although ratings of the police were related to responses on some of the other attitude items in the survey, the contention here was that ambiguity about the temporal ordering of these variables make any inferences about causal patterns tenuous. However, the fact that ratings of the police showed no, or only slight variation across responses to certain attitude items—e.g., subjective estimates of changes in personal chances of being attacked or robbed, whether or not people in the neighborhood had limited or changed their activities

²¹For readers interested in the model testing procedures suggested by Blalock (1964) or in the technique of path analysis (Kerlinger and Pedhazur, 1973:305-330), a matrix of Pearson's product moment coefficients is provided in Appendix D.

because of crime—is at least consistent with the proposition that respondents were not blaming the police for what they perceived as the crime problem.

Attitudes Toward the Police and the Failure to Report Crime

Citizen cooperation is essential if police are to adequately perform the functions assigned to them. The majority of crimes known to the police are brought to police attention through citizen reports, generally from the victims themselves (Reiss, 1971; Hindelang and Gottfredson, 1976). Part of the concern about attitudes toward the police is that those attitudes affect the willingness of citizens to report crimes. This concern was summed up in a Task Force Report to the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (1967:144):

People hostile to the police are not so likely to report violations of the law, even when they are the victims....Yet citizen assistance is crucial to law enforcement agencies if the police are to solve an appreciable portion of the crimes that are committed.

In this section 1975 data from the eight Impact Cities and the five largest cities will be analyzed to determine the extent to which it does or does not justify the concern expressed in the President's Commission report.

A Victimization-Based Analysis

To this point the basic unit of analysis has been the individual respondent. Now, however, interest focuses on whether or not a particular *occurrence* of criminal victimization was reported to the police. Because a given individual may have suffered several victimizations during the reference period—some of which were reported to the police and some of which were not—it is necessary to analyze victimizations rather than individuals. Of course, when this is done, the attitude responses of each individual are counted once for each time he or she was victimized during the reference period. But treating victimizations as discrete events regardless of who was involved as a victim seems preferable to trying to select for analysis just one of the victimizations suffered by each person who had been multiply victimized. Because the victimizations incurred by a multiple victim may be

quite heterogeneous, the victim's attitude toward the police may affect whether some of the victimizations (perhaps, minor ones) but not others (perhaps, serious ones) are reported to the police. A victimization-based analysis does not discard information of that type.

We will be dealing only with non-series (see Appendix C) personal victimizations that involved victim-offender contact. Series victimizations are excluded because the survey collected detailed information only on the most recent event in series victimizations. Thus, some of the events in the series may have been reported to the police while others were not, but this could not be ascertained from the survey data. The exclusion of household crimes (i.e., burglary, larceny without contact, vehicle theft) is based on the difficulty of identifying a particular individual as the victim so that a specific person's attitude responses could be used in the analysis.

Ratings of the Police and Reporting of Victimization

Of the estimated 936,709 personal non-series victimizations that occurred during the reference period in the 13 cities and that involved victims who rated the police, Table 16 shows that slightly less than half (48 percent) were reported to the police. Inspection of the row percentages in Table 16 reveals that there is only minor variation in the proportion of victimizations reported to the police depending on the victim's rating

of the police. Slightly more than half (51 percent) of the victimizations involving respondents who gave the police the most favorable rating possible were reported. Victims at the negative end of the police rating scale reported slightly less than half (47 percent) of their personal victimizations to the police. Thus, ratings of the local police had little effect on whether or not a victimization was reported to the police, at least on the bivariate level.²²

The column percentages in Table 16 provide another perspective on the data by showing the distributions of police ratings for the victims of crimes that were and were not reported to the police. Given the close correspondence between these two response distributions, apparently we can discount the possibility that the experience of contact with the police, that results when a victimization is reported to them, has any significant effect on subsequent ratings of the police.

Unfortunately, it is difficult to compare the results reported here with previous research. A 1968 victimization survey in Seattle found virtually no difference between the proportion of victimizations reported to the police according to whether the victim expressed confi-

²²The police rating scale refers only to the respondent's local police, and some of the victimizations in Table 16 occurred outside of the victim's city of residence. However, the percentages in Table 16 do not change by more than one point when victimizations that occurred outside the victim's city of residence are removed.

TABLE 16 Proportions of personal victimizations reported and not reported to the police by the victim's rating of the police; 1975 NCS city surveys

Rating of police ^a	Reported	Not reported	Estimated number ^b
(Positive) 1	51% ^c 8% ^d	49% 7%	(71,671)
2	49% 31%	51% 29%	(279,608)
3	46% 38%	54% 40%	(362,257)
(Negative) 4	47% 24%	53% 24%	(223,173)
Estimated number ^b	(446,709)	(490,000)	(936,709)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score.
^b Estimated number of victimizations.
^c Row percentages.
^d Column percentages.

dence or a lack of confidence in police operations (Hawkins, 1970:122). However, the indicator of confidence in police operations²³ was more specific than the rating scale used here, and victimizations included a wide array of personal and property crimes (e.g., from rape to vandalism). On the other hand, Schneider, et al. (1975:15), using data from a 1974 victimization survey in Portland, Oregon, found a major difference between victims of personal crimes who had high and low "trust in police" scores in the proportion of victimizations reported to the police (74 versus 55 percent). While the types of crime examined by Schneider, et al. are similar to those used here, their "trust in police" scale was comprised mostly of items that asked respondents for their opinions about how the police would respond to them, personally, in certain situations (Schneider, et al., 1975: App. A).

It is possible that the lack of an overall association between ratings of police and reporting of victimizations in Table 16 might be due to the effect of some additional variables. Earlier it was found that ratings of the police varied systematically with race and age. Therefore, Table 17 presents the proportion of victimizations reported to the police by the victim's rating of the police within four race/age groups separately. The results are generally consistent with what was found in Table 16. Although older victims were somewhat more likely than ones under 35 years old to report to the

²³The indicator was: "The police seem to spend much of their time going after people who have done little things and ignore most of the really bad things that are happening."

police, reporting rates remain fairly stable across the police rating categories. The only substantial variation in reporting rates appears among older blacks where victims with negative ratings were more likely to report. Thus, the bivariate pattern found in Table 16 maintains when we control for race and age.

Previous research has demonstrated that the probability of a victimization being reported to the police varies directly with indicators of the seriousness of the victimization (Schneider, et al., 1975; Hindelang and Gottfredson, 1976) Table 18 shows the proportion of victimizations reported to the police at each level of police rating, controlling, in turn, for injury and loss. As expected, reporting rates increase at higher levels of injury and loss. However, the reporting rates are quite stable across the rows of Table 18. There are some instances of variation, but they are not extremely large. For example, in victimizations involving losses of \$50 or more, victims with negative ratings of the police had higher reporting rates than victims with positive ratings (71 versus 60 percent). The opposite, however, is true for victimizations in which the victim was injured but required no medical attention (47 versus 57 percent). The most disparate reporting rate (93 percent) in Table 18 appears for those victimizations with victims who were injured, required medical attention, and rated the police very favorably. However, that cell also contains the fewest number of cases of any cell in Table 18, so the estimated reporting rate in that cell is the least reliable in the table.

In Table 19, the relationship between ratings of the local police and the reporting of victimizations can be

TABLE 17 Proportion of personal victimizations reported to the police by victim's rating of the police, controlling for race and age of victim; 1975 NCS city surveys

Race and age	Rating of police ^a			
	(Positive)			(Negative)
	1	2	3	4
White:				
16-34	45% ^b (23,080) ^c	46% (105,272)	40% (147,561)	40% (83,905)
35 or older	54% (36,592)	49% (109,092)	52% (82,293)	51% (49,657)
Black/other:				
16-34	— ^d	45% (25,519)	50% (80,166)	44% (55,975)
35 or older	59% (7,048)	56% (39,724)	49% (52,237)	66% (33,638)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score.
^b Proportion of victimizations in cell reported to police.
^c Total number of victimizations (reported and not reported) in cell.
^d Insufficient number of sample cases to make reliable estimate.

examined according to whether the seriousness score of the victimization was low, medium, or high. Not surprisingly, the more serious victimizations were more likely to be reported regardless of the victim's rating of the police. When seriousness is controlled, however, an interesting pattern emerges. For victimizations of medium or high seriousness, reporting rates do not vary systematically according to the victim's rating of the police. However, among victimizations with low seriousness scores, there is a continuous decline in reporting rates (from 45 to 32 percent) as we move from positive to negative on the police rating scale. Thus, it appears that victims are willing to exercise more discretion about reporting to the police when the event is not very serious, a finding that is consistent with observations of police behavior that suggest that decisions to take juveniles into custody are more influenced by peripheral factors (e.g., dress, demeanor)—that is, police tend to exercise more discretion—when somewhat trivial violations are involved than when serious violations occur (Piliavin and Briar, 1964). It appears, then, that both victims and the police are more likely to exercise their own discretion about whether to invoke the formal

processes of the criminal justice system when the event in question is relatively low in seriousness.

To sum up, the probability of personal victimizations being reported to the police is not strongly dependent on how the victims evaluate their local police. Although there is an indication that the reporting rates for victimizations of low overall seriousness are associated with victim ratings of the police, the variation involved is not striking. Characteristics of the events themselves—especially indicators of seriousness—are much better predictors of whether the victimization will be reported than are the attitudes of victims toward the police.

Ratings of the Police and Reasons for Not Reporting

For each victimization that was not reported to the police, the victim was asked to specify the reason(s). The distributions of these reasons, within each category of the police rating scale, are shown in Table 20. Regardless of how victims felt about the police, they most often said that "nothing could be done" or that they "did not

TABLE 18 Proportion of personal victimizations reported to the police by victim's rating of the police, controlling for injury and for loss; 1975 NCS city surveys

	Rating of police ^a			
	(Positive)		(Negative)	
	1	2	3	4
Injury:				
No injury	45% ^b (56,303) ^c	46% (219,258)	42% (287,584)	43% (165,692)
Injury but no medical attention	57% (8,963)	46% (32,765)	53% (42,158)	47% (31,719)
Injury and medical attention	93% (6,405)	73% (27,585)	78% (32,515)	73% (25,762)
Loss:^d				
No loss	48% (40,265)	43% (174,176)	42% (234,148)	41% (143,153)
\$1-49	52% (19,751)	51% (56,003)	47% (75,731)	47% (20,444)
\$50 or more	60% (11,665)	68% (49,438)	66% (52,378)	71% (36,373)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score.

^bProportion of victimizations in cell reported to the police.

^cTotal number of victimizations (reported and not reported) in cell.

^dGross loss of cash and/or property. Includes amount that may have been recovered later (e.g., through insurance).

TABLE 19 Proportion of personal victimizations reported to the police by victim's rating of the police, controlling for seriousness of the victimization; 1975 NCS city surveys

Seriousness score	Rating of police ^a			
	(Positive)		(Negative)	
	1	2	3	4
Low 0-2	45% ^b (38,047) ^c	39% (137,313)	35% (179,233)	32% (85,938)
Medium 3-5	54% (23,146)	52% (88,847)	49% (120,120)	50% (87,941)
High 6 or more	67% (10,478)	70% (53,447)	74% (62,904)	70% (49,295)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score.

^bProportion of victimizations in cell reported to the police.

^cTotal number of victimizations (reported and not reported) in cell.

think it important enough" when asked why they did not report the personal victimization to the police. Ratings of the police, however, do not appear to influence which reasons for nonreporting were mentioned by victims; across the rating scale, there are no appreciable variations in the relative frequency with which any of the reasons are mentioned. Even a reason that might be expected to be strongly associated with attitudes toward the police—"police wouldn't want to be bothered"—does not show much variation. Victims with negative attitudes toward the police were only slightly more likely than other victims to give that reason.²⁴

Table 21 looks at attitudes toward the police and nonreporting from another perspective. The table includes only those victimizations that were not reported to the police, in which the victim gave a reason for not reporting, and in which the victim gave an opinion on the most important improvement that could be made in local police performance. The distributions of suggested police improvements in Table 21 do not appear to vary drastically according to the reason cited by the victim for not reporting the crime to the police. There are only a few noteworthy departures from the response trends. For example, victims who said they did not report to the police because they were afraid of reprisal were more likely to suggest the hiring of more policemen than were victims who did not report because they thought the victimization was a private or personal matter (25 versus 10 percent).

²⁴Although the numbers of cases become very small, indications are that this does not change much when the seriousness of the victimization is taken into account.

Summary

In this section a victimization-based analysis was used to investigate the possibility that attitudes toward the police might have some effect on whether or not citizens report their own victimizations to the police. The indications are that victim ratings of the police do influence nonreporting, at least slightly, when the victimization is of low seriousness. However, the effects of ratings of the police on nonreporting is not nearly as great as the effects of various characteristics of the incident itself, such as whether an injury occurred. In addition, there are no major associations between the reasons given by respondents for not reporting and either ratings of the police or suggested ways for improving police performance.

Conclusions

The victimization surveys conducted during 1975 in the eight Impact Cities and in the Nation's five largest cities contained only a few items pertaining directly to attitudes toward the police. However, the overall size (in terms of the number of people interviewed) and scope (in terms of the variety of information collected) of the surveys in which those attitude items were embedded has allowed a search for relationships between attitudes toward the police and a number of other important factors: respondent characteristics, experiences with victimization, other attitudes, and whether or not victimizations were reported to the police.

TABLE 20 Reasons for not reporting personal victimizations to the police by victim's rating of the police; 1975 NCS city surveys

Reasons for not reporting	Rating of police ^a			
	(Positive)		(Negative)	
	1	2	3	4
Nothing could be done; lack of proof	41% ^b	42%	42%	40%
Did not think it important enough	32%	26%	31%	25%
Police wouldn't want to be bothered	7%	5%	9%	13%
Did not want to take time; too inconvenient	7%	6%	8%	5%
Private or personal matter	11%	13%	10%	16%
Did not want to get involved	6%	4%	3%	3%
Afraid of reprisal	6%	5%	5%	3%
Reported to someone else	9%	8%	5%	5%
Other	12%	13%	11%	12%
Estimated number ^c	(35,183)	(143,042)	(194,145)	(117,630)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score.

^b Percentages sum to greater than 100 because some respondents cited more than one reason.

^c Includes only victimizations that were not reported to the police and for which the respondent gave a reason for not reporting.

Several conclusions can be drawn²⁵ from the results of the analyses that have been discussed in this report:

1. Most people give their local police relatively favorable ratings. However, this conclusion is based on responses to a very general performance evaluation question. Other studies, using a wider array of attitude items pertaining to the police, have found a great deal of ambivalence in the ways citizens perceive the police: they respect the police as protectors from crime, but they are distrustful of police power (Biderman, et al., 1967; Reiss, 1967).

2. Young and black/other respondents give noticeably less favorable ratings to their local police than do their older and white counterparts. (Table 7). It is among sub-groups such as the young and racial minorities that one would expect to find the

²⁵To be precise, the conclusions can be treated as valid only for the 13 cities surveyed. However, the cities vary greatly personal victimizations variable is controlled. The *r* between age the patterns in the data are quite stable across the cities. Therefore, it seems reasonable to assume that the conclusion reached here will hold for other large U.S. cities.

least satisfaction with the existing social order and, correspondingly, the greatest desire to change existing arrangements. The very nature of the police role, however, often places the police in conflict with such desires. This tentative explanation is an inference from the findings with respect to race and age. However, the conclusion is not supported by the findings for family income; low income respondents were as likely to give the police positive ratings as were high income respondents (Table 3).

3. Even among respondents sub-groups with the least favorable ratings of the police, extremely negative ratings do not predominate. For example, only 25 percent of the youngest black/other respondents gave the police highly negative ratings (Table 7).

4. Despite favorable ratings of the police, most people think that there are ways for the police to improve their performance. When respondents were asked to specify ways for improvement, the suggestions mainly concerned increases in police personnel

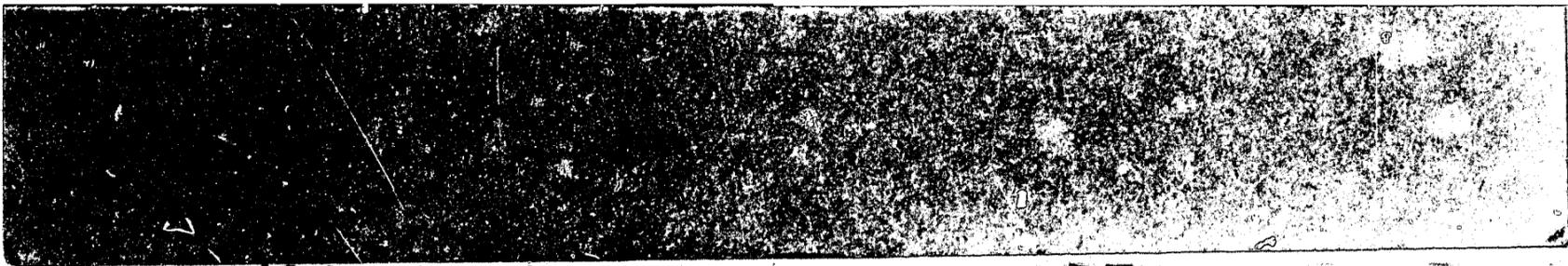


TABLE 21 Most important suggested improvements for local police by reasons for not reporting personal victimizations to the police; 1975 NCS city surveys

Reasons for not reporting	Most important suggested improvements ^a									Estimated number ^b
	Hire more policemen	Concentrate on more important duties, etc.	Be more prompt, etc.	Improve training, etc.	Be more courteous, etc.	Don't discriminate	Need more traffic control	Need more policemen of certain type, etc.	Other	
Nothing could be done; lack of proof	20%	13%	15%	3%	13%	2%	1%	28%	6%	(151,861)
Did not think it important enough	18%	14%	12%	4%	16%	2%	2%	25%	8%	(104,368)
Police wouldn't want to be bothered	21%	17%	17%	5%	12%	3%	0%	17%	7%	(32,862)
Did not want to take time; too inconvenient	16%	18%	9%	4%	9%	3%	0%	29%	11%	(24,182)
Private or personal matter	10%	15%	15%	5%	13%	3%	3%	24%	11%	(49,203)
Did not want to get involved	20%	10%	19%	3%	6%	2%	0%	21%	18%	(12,817)
Afraid of reprisal	25%	14%	14%	4%	13%	3%	0%	20%	7%	(18,102)
Reported to someone else	17%	9%	14%	5%	11%	2%	1%	30%	10%	(22,272)
Other	16%	15%	10%	7%	11%	1%	0%	25%	15%	(45,045)

^aSee item 14b in Appendix A for exact wording of category labels.

^bIndicates number of unreported victimizations in which the victim cited the reason for not reporting shown. Numbers sum to more than the total number of unreported victimizations because some victims cited more than one reason for not reporting.

or redistributions of current police personnel and duties. The suggested improvements do not indicate a great amount of dissatisfaction with policemen already on duty (Table 2).

5. Citizens do not appear to blame the police for what they perceive as the crime problem. This conclusion is based on the lack of any strong, consistent relationship between ratings of the police and such things as perceptions of crime trends and the fear of crime (Tables 8 and 9). Apparently respondents did not think that the crime problem was attributable to any deficiencies in the job being done by their local police.

6. Actual experiences with victimization, however, were related to ratings of the police, with those having more serious experiences with victimization during the preceding 12 months giving the police more negative ratings (Tables 11 and 13). This pattern remained even after the effects of race and age were controlled (Figure 1).

7. Overall ratings of police performance do not have a strong influence on whether or not a victim reports a crime to the police. Two caveats must be noted for this conclusion. First, ratings of the police tend to have a slight effect on whether or not victims of *non-serious crimes* report the crimes to the police. Second, the global nature of the police rating scale employed in this analysis may mask associations between the willingness to report victimizations and attitudes about specific aspects of police performance or behavior (e.g., how effective are the police in recovering stolen property or apprehending offenders²⁴). In any case, the data used here show that characteristics of the victimization itself—e.g., injury or loss suffered—have much more effect on whether the event is reported to the police by the victim than does the victim's rating of police performance.

Overall, the results seem to imply that any programs that try to improve relationships between the police and

public may not produce great changes in public attitudes if the effort is focused on improving the image of officers already in the field; the public already evaluates them quite highly. Given the nature of improvements suggested by the respondents, more success might come from instituting department-wide reorganizations and reallocations of resources that are responsive to public desires. For example, a well-publicized transfer of more officers to patrol duty might increase both the sense of security and cooperation with the police among the public, regardless of any actual effects on the amount of crime occurring. The NCS data show that respondents do not blame the police for crime and that even victims of crime do not rate the police much differently than nonvictims, unless their victimization experiences were quite serious, and that involves only a small proportion of the population.

On the other hand, black/other and young respondents consistently give less favorable ratings to the police than other respondents. The size of the disparities cannot be attributed to the fact that black/other and young people suffer high rates of personal victimization.²⁶ Exploration of the sources of dissatisfaction among these two subgroups of the population would appear to be a fruitful area of research for a program aimed at improving police/community relationships. Any overall gains in positive public evaluations of the police almost have to be made among minority racial groups and the young because the rest of the public already holds the police in fairly high regard; in short, improvement should be sought among subgroups that have the most room for improvement.

²⁴The Pearson's r between race and rating of the police is .23, and the figure remains the same when the total number of personal victimizations variable is controlled. The r between age and rating of the police decreases only marginally (from .22 to .21) when a control for total personal victimizations is introduced.

APPENDIX A National Crime Survey Attitude Questionnaire (1975)

Form Approved: O.M.B. No. 41-R266

FORM NCS-6 (10-7-71)

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC STATISTICS ADMINISTRATION
BUREAU OF THE CENSUS
ACTING AS COLLECTING AGENT FOR THE
LAW ENFORCEMENT ASSISTANCE ADMINISTRATION
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE

**NATIONAL CRIME SURVEY
CENTRAL CITIES SAMPLE**

ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE

NOTICE - Your report to the Census Bureau is confidential by law (Public Law 93-83). All identifiable information will be used only by persons engaged in and for the purposes of the survey, and may not be disclosed or released to others for any purpose.

A. Control number

PSU Serial Panel HH Segment

B. Name of household head

C. Reason for noninterview

310 TYPE A TYPE B TYPE C

311 Race of head
1 White
2 Negro
3 Other

312 TYPE Z
Interview not obtained for -
Line number

313 _____
314 _____
315 _____

CENSUS USE ONLY

316 1 317 318 319

HOUSEHOLD ATTITUDE QUESTIONS
Ask only household respondent

Before we get to the major portion of the survey, I would like to ask you a few questions related to subjects which seem to be of some concern to people. These questions ask you what you think, what you feel, your attitudes and opinions.

320 1. How long have you lived at this address?
1 Less than 1 year
2 1-2 years
3 3-5 years
4 More than 5 years - SKIP to 5a

ASK 2a

321 2a. Why did you select this particular neighborhood? Any other reason? (Mark all that apply)

1 Neighborhood characteristics - type of neighbors, environment, streets, parks, etc.
2 Good schools
3 Safe from crime
4 Only place housing could be found, lack of choice
5 Price was right
6 Location - close to job, family, friends, school, shopping, etc.
7 House (apartment) or property characteristics - size, quality, yard space, etc.
8 Always lived in this neighborhood
9 Other - Specify _____

(If more than one reason)
b. Which reason would you say was the most important?
Enter item number

322 _____

323 3a. Where did you live before you moved here?
1 Outside U.S.
2 Inside limits of this city
3 Somewhere else in U.S. - Specify _____

State _____
County _____

324 b. Did you live inside the limits of a city, town, village, etc.?
1 No
2 Yes - Enter name of city, town, etc. _____

325 _____

326 4a. Why did you leave there? Any other reason? (Mark all that apply)

1 Location - closer to job, family, friends, school, shopping, etc., here
2 House (apartment) or property characteristics - size, quality, yard space, etc.
3 Wanted better housing, own home
4 Wanted cheaper housing
5 No choice - evicted, building demolished, condemned, etc.
6 Change in living arrangements - marital status, wanted to live alone, etc.
7 Bad element moving in
8 Crime in old neighborhood, afraid
9 Didn't like neighborhood characteristics - environment, problems with neighbors, etc.
10 Other - Specify _____

(If more than one reason)
b. Which reason would you say was the most important?
Enter item number

327 _____

328 5a. Is there anything you don't like about this neighborhood?
0 No - SKIP to 6a
1 Yes - What? Anything else? (Mark all that apply)

1 Traffic, parking
2 Environmental problems - trash, noise, overcrowding, etc.
3 Crime or fear of crime
4 Public transportation problem
5 Inadequate schools, shopping facilities, etc.
6 Bad element moving in
7 Problems with neighbors, characteristics of neighbors
8 Other - Specify _____

(If more than one answer)
b. Which problem would you say is the most serious?
Enter item number

329 _____

330 6a. Do you do your major food shopping in this neighborhood?
0 Yes - SKIP to 7a
1 No - Why not? Any other reason? (Mark all that apply)

1 No stores in neighborhood, others more convenient
2 Stores in neighborhood inadequate, prefers (better) stores elsewhere
3 High prices, commissary or PX cheaper
4 Crime or fear of crime
5 Other - Specify _____

(If more than one reason)
b. Which reason would you say is the most important?
Enter item number

331 _____

332 7a. When you shop for things other than food, such as clothing and general merchandise, do you USUALLY go to suburban or neighborhood shopping centers or do you shop "downtown?"

1 Suburban or neighborhood
2 Downtown

333 b. Why is that? Any other reason? (Mark all that apply)

1 Better parking, less traffic
2 Better transportation
3 More convenient
4 Better selection, more stores, more choice
5 Afraid of crime
6 Store hours better
7 Better prices
8 Prefers (better) stores, location, service, employees
9 Other - Specify _____

(If more than one reason)
c. Which one would you say is the most important reason?
Enter item number

334 _____

INTERVIEWER - Complete interview with household respondent, beginning with individual Attitude Questions.

NCS 6 ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE

INDIVIDUAL ATTITUDE QUESTIONS - Ask each household member 16 or older

KEYER - BEGIN NEW RECORD

Line number _____ Name _____

337. How often do you go out in the evening for entertainment, such as to restaurants, theaters, etc.?

338. Do you go to these places more or less now than you did a year or two ago?

339. Why? Any other reason? (Mark all that apply)

340. Which reason would you say is the most important?

341. CHECK ITEM A

342. When you go out to restaurants or theaters in the evening, is it usually in the city or outside of the city?

343. Why do you usually go (outside the city/in the city)? Any other reason? (Mark all that apply)

344. Which reason would you say is the most important?

345. How would you like to get your opinions about crime in general. Within the past year or two, do you think that crime in your neighborhood has increased, decreased, or remained about the same?

346. Were you thinking about any specific kinds of crimes when you said you think crime in your neighborhood has (increased/decreased)?

347. How about any crimes which may be happening in your neighborhood - would you say they are committed mostly by the people who live here in this neighborhood or mostly by outsiders?

348. Within the past year or two do you think that crime in the United States has increased, decreased, or remained about the same?

349. Were you thinking about any specific kinds of crimes when you said you think crime in the U.S. has (increased/decreased)?

350. How safe do you feel or would you feel being out alone in your neighborhood AT NIGHT?

351. How about DURING THE DAY - how safe do you feel or would you feel being out alone in your neighborhood?

352. CHECK ITEM B

353. Is the neighborhood dangerous enough to make you think seriously about moving somewhere else?

354. Which reason would you say is the most important?

355. How do you think your neighborhood compares with others in this metropolitan area in terms of crime? Would you say it is -

356. Are there some parts of this metropolitan area where you have a reason to go or would like to go DURING THE DAY, but are afraid to because of fear of crime?

357. How many specific sections? - If not sure, ASK

358. How about AT NIGHT - are there some parts of this area where you have a reason to go or would like to go but are afraid to because of fear of crime?

359. How many specific sections? - If not sure, ASK

360. Would you say, in general, that your local police are doing a good job, an average job, or a poor job?

361. In what ways could they improve? Any other ways? (Mark all that apply)

362. Which would you say is the most important?

363. How I have some more questions about your opinions concerning crime. Please take this card. (Hand respondent Attitude Flashcard, NCS-574) Look at the FIRST set of statements. Which one do you agree with most?

364. Which of the SECOND group do you agree with most?

365. Do you think PEOPLE IN GENERAL have limited or changed their activities in the past few years because they are afraid of crime?

366. Do you think that most PEOPLE IN THIS NEIGHBORHOOD have limited or changed their activities in the past few years because they are afraid of crime?

367. In general, have YOU limited or changed your activities in the past few years because of crime?

INTERVIEWER - Continue Interview with this respondent on NCS-3

APPENDIX B Selected Tables for Each of the 13 Cities (1975)

This Appendix is meant to serve two purposes: to illustrate the degree to which patterns in the NCS attitude data are stable across the individual cities surveyed, and to present individual data for each of the 13 cities surveyed. Three tables have been selected for each city. Each table reflects one of the central aspects of the analysis presented in the body of this report. The selected tables are:

- B-1: Rating of police by race and age of respondent
- B-2: Rating of police by total number of personal victimizations suffered by respondent during the preceding 12 months
- B-3: Proportion of personal victimizations reported to the police by victim's rating of the police, controlling for seriousness of the victimization.

For each of the tables, data for each of the eight Impact Cities (in alphabetical order) are presented first, followed by the five largest cities (in alphabetical order).

Unlike the text of the report, no attempt is made in this Appendix to avoid presenting percentages that are based on small numbers of sample cases, although whenever the base (denominator) of a percentage consists of about 50 or fewer sample cases, the base is footnoted. For the reader who is interested in trying to make a rough assessment of the reliability of some

estimate within a given city, the approximate average weighting factor for sample cases in each city is provided below. To obtain a general idea of the number of sample cases on which a particular estimate is based, take the weighting factor for the relevant city and divide it into the estimated number of cases appearing in the table.

Eight Impact Cities:	Approximate Weighting Factor
Atlanta	35
Baltimore	55
Cleveland	45
Dallas	60
Denver	40
Newark	25
Portland	30
St. Louis	40

Five Largest Cities:	Approximate Weighting Factor
Chicago	210
Detroit	100
Los Angeles	200
New York City	510
Philadelphia	125

TABLE B-1-ATLANTA Rating of police by race and age of respondent; 1975 NCS

Race and age	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
White:					
16-29	7%	33%	46%	13%	(121,297)
30-49	6%	28%	53%	13%	(42,305)
50 or older	7%	31%	48%	14%	(31,325)
Black/other:					
16-29	8%	25%	54%	12%	(164,418)
30-49	6%	19%	61%	15%	(68,583)
50 or older	8%	25%	54%	13%	(53,349)
	14%	36%	41%	8%	(42,487)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

TABLE B-1-BALTIMORE Rating of police by race and age of respondent;
1975 NCS

Race and age	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
White:	15%	43%	33%	9%	(305,942)
16-29	10%	35%	43%	12%	(89,022)
30-49	15%	40%	35%	10%	(80,909)
50 or older	19%	51%	24%	6%	(136,011)
Black/other:	8%	27%	49%	16%	(271,627)
16-29	4%	18%	57%	21%	(106,652)
30-49	7%	29%	50%	14%	(85,138)
50 or older	12%	38%	39%	11%	(79,836)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

TABLE B-1-DALLAS Rating of police by race and age of respondent;
1975 NCS

Race and age	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
White:	13%	44%	36%	7%	(415,820)
16-29	9%	38%	44%	9%	(138,321)
30-49	12%	44%	37%	7%	(129,554)
50 or older	17%	49%	28%	5%	(147,946)
Black/other:	9%	24%	49%	18%	(135,763)
16-29	6%	18%	54%	22%	(60,554)
30-49	10%	24%	51%	15%	(46,072)
50 or older	15%	35%	37%	12%	(29,137)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

TABLE B-1-CLEVELAND Rating of police by race and age of respondent;
1975 NCS

Race and age	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
White:	10%	31%	44%	15%	(266,123)
16-29	5%	23%	53%	19%	(85,223)
30-49	8%	30%	46%	16%	(70,329)
50 or older	15%	38%	35%	12%	(110,571)
Black/other:	5%	15%	50%	29%	(165,832)
16-29	3%	10%	51%	36%	(58,826)
30-49	5%	13%	54%	29%	(53,916)
50 or older	9%	23%	47%	22%	(53,090)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

TABLE B-1-DENVER Rating of police by race and age of respondent;
1975 NCS

Race and age	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
White:	15%	41%	35%	8%	(327,677)
16-29	8%	32%	47%	13%	(121,668)
30-49	14%	42%	36%	8%	(86,752)
50 or older	24%	50%	22%	4%	(119,256)
Black/other:	8%	26%	47%	18%	(36,658)
16-29	4%	21%	48%	27%	(14,134)
30-49	6%	26%	53%	15%	(13,322)
50 or older	18%	36%	36%	10%	(9,202)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

TABLE B-1-NEWARK Rating of police by race and age of respondent;
1975 NCS

Race and age	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
White:	11%	28%	46%	15%	(99,922)
16-29	8%	22%	52%	18%	(29,510)
30-49	11%	26%	47%	16%	(29,126)
50 or older	14%	35%	40%	11%	(41,286)
Black/other:	4%	14%	54%	28%	(115,402)
16-29	3%	10%	53%	34%	(42,574)
30-49	5%	12%	56%	27%	(44,845)
50 or older	6%	21%	51%	23%	(27,983)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

TABLE B-1-PORTLAND Rating of police by race and age of respondent;
1975 NCS

Race and age	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
White:	12%	45%	36%	7%	(255,245)
16-29	6%	37%	48%	10%	(90,164)
30-49	10%	46%	36%	8%	(61,062)
50 or older	17%	52%	26%	5%	(104,018)
Black/other:	11%	28%	41%	20%	(21,262)
16-29	8%	21%	44%	26%	(8,553)
30-49	12%	27%	44%	18%	(6,736)
50 or older	15%	39%	33%	13%	(5,973)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

TABLE B-1-ST. LOUIS Rating of police by race and age of respondent;
1975 NCS

Race and age	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
White:	19%	43%	32%	7%	(214,371)
16-29	10%	32%	47%	11%	(59,832)
30-49	17%	42%	34%	7%	(46,297)
50 or older	24%	49%	23%	4%	(108,243)
Black/other:	7%	23%	52%	18%	(134,632)
16-29	4%	15%	56%	25%	(50,712)
30-49	5%	23%	54%	18%	(39,309)
50 or older	14%	33%	44%	9%	(44,611)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

TABLE B-1-CHICAGO Rating of police by race and age of respondent;
1975 NCS

Race and age	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
White:	14%	40%	37%	10%	(1,377,243)
16-29	7%	30%	49%	14%	(432,065)
30-49	13%	39%	37%	11%	(382,469)
50 or older	20%	47%	27%	6%	(562,709)
Black/other:	5%	16%	54%	25%	(717,230)
16-29	4%	11%	53%	32%	(285,124)
30-49	5%	15%	55%	25%	(253,561)
50 or older	8%	23%	54%	15%	(178,545)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

**TABLE B-1-DETROIT Rating of police by race and age of respondent;
1975 NCS**

Race and age	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
White:	18%	39%	34%	9%	(463,794)
16-29	13%	32%	43%	13%	(143,815)
30-49	15%	40%	34%	10%	(105,823)
50 or older	22%	43%	29%	6%	(214,156)
Black/other:	6%	25%	54%	15%	(439,224)
16-29	4%	17%	60%	20%	(169,106)
30-49	5%	25%	55%	15%	(140,294)
50 or older	10%	35%	44%	10%	(129,824)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

**TABLE B-1-LOS ANGELES Rating of police by race and age of respondent;
1975 NCS**

Race and age	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
White:	16%	45%	30%	9%	(1,513,017)
16-29	12%	36%	41%	11%	(429,104)
30-49	14%	47%	29%	9%	(475,537)
50 or older	22%	51%	21%	6%	(545,375)
Black/other:	7%	24%	54%	16%	(396,815)
16-29	5%	15%	58%	22%	(140,059)
30-49	6%	25%	54%	15%	(143,826)
50 or older	10%	33%	47%	10%	(112,930)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

**TABLE B-1-NEW YORK CITY Rating of police by race and age of respondent;
1975 NCS**

Race and age	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
White:	14%	33%	42%	11%	(3,864,857)
16-29	10%	29%	48%	13%	(1,120,660)
30-49	14%	32%	42%	12%	(1,145,900)
50 or older	16%	37%	38%	9%	(1,598,297)
Black/other:	8%	32%	43%	17%	(1,180,310)
16-29	6%	17%	54%	23%	(419,054)
30-49	8%	19%	51%	21%	(455,877)
50 or older	8%	32%	43%	17%	(305,379)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

**TABLE B-1-PHILADELPHIA Rating of police by race and age of respondent;
1975 NCS**

Race and age	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
White:	18%	39%	34%	8%	(847,542)
16-29	12%	30%	46%	12%	(250,118)
30-49	16%	40%	35%	9%	(224,195)
50 or older	24%	45%	26%	6%	(373,229)
Black/other:	7%	20%	51%	22%	(407,369)
16-29	2%	11%	54%	32%	(144,471)
30-49	7%	20%	53%	20%	(134,936)
50 or older	12%	29%	46%	12%	(127,961)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

TABLE B-2-ATLANTA Rating of police by total number of personal victimizations suffered by respondent during the preceding 12 months; 1975 NCS

Total personal victimizations ^b	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
None	8%	29%	51%	12%	(270,133)
One	9%	26%	40%	25%	(13,605)
Two or more	—	41%	31%	28%	(1,977)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^b See Appendix C for definition.

TABLE B-2-BALTIMORE Rating of police by total number of personal victimizations suffered by respondent during the preceding 12 months; 1975 NCS

Total personal victimizations ^b	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
None	12%	36%	41%	11%	(529,673)
One	9%	31%	40%	20%	(39,893)
Two or more	6%	32%	38%	24%	(8,002)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^b See Appendix C for definition.

TABLE B-2-CLEVELAND Rating of police by total number of personal victimizations suffered by respondent during the preceding 12 months; 1975 NCS

Total personal victimizations ^b	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
None	8%	25%	47%	20%	(401,497)
One	7%	22%	41%	31%	(26,341)
Two or more	5%	29%	34%	32%	(4,118)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^b See Appendix C for definition.

TABLE B-2-DALLAS Rating of police by total number of personal victimizations suffered by respondent during the preceding 12 months; 1975 NCS

Total personal victimizations ^b	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
None	12%	40%	39%	9%	(523,833)
One	7%	30%	43%	20%	(23,591)
Two or more	3%	32%	44%	21%	(4,160)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^b See Appendix C for definition.

TABLE B-2-DENVER Rating of police by total number of personal victimizations suffered by respondent during the preceding 12 months; 1975 NCS

Total personal victimizations ^b	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
None	15%	40%	36%	9%	(339,330)
One	9%	35%	35%	21%	(21,692)
Two or more	9%	18%	48%	25%	(3,913)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^b See Appendix C for definition.

TABLE B-2-NEWARK Rating of police by total number of personal victimizations suffered by respondent during the preceding 12 months; 1975 NCS

Total personal victimizations ^b	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
None	8%	21%	50%	21%	(205,120)
One	6%	14%	46%	33%	(9,323)
Two or more	5%	18%	41%	36%	(1,039)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^b See Appendix C for definition.

TABLE B-2-PORTLAND Rating of police by total number of personal victimizations suffered by respondent during the preceding 12 months; 1975 NCS

Total personal victimizations ^b	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
None	12%	44%	36%	8%	(258,319)
One	10%	34%	42%	15%	(14,711)
Two or more	8%	34%	30%	27%	(3,477)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^bSee Appendix C for definition.

TABLE B-2-ST. LOUIS Rating of police by total number of personal victimizations suffered by respondent during the preceding 12 months; 1975 NCS

Total personal victimizations ^b	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
None	15%	36%	39%	10%	(330,648)
One	11%	30%	42%	17%	(16,224)
Two or more	4%	11%	46%	38%	(2,130)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^bSee Appendix C for definition.

TABLE B-2-CHICAGO Rating of police by total number of personal victimizations suffered by respondent during the preceding 12 months; 1975 NCS

Total personal victimizations ^b	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
None	11%	32%	43%	14%	(1,941,937)
One	7%	25%	43%	25%	(127,343)
Two or more	1%	29%	37%	34%	(25,193)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^bSee Appendix C for definition.

TABLE B-2-DETROIT Rating of police by total number of personal victimizations suffered by respondent during the preceding 12 months; 1975 NCS

Total personal victimizations ^b	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
None	12%	32%	44%	12%	(835,839)
One	8%	28%	44%	20%	(55,696)
Two or more	8%	26%	46%	20%	(11,483)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^bSee Appendix C for definition.

TABLE B-2-LOS ANGELES Rating of police by total number of personal victimizations suffered by respondent during the preceding 12 months; 1975 NCS

Total personal victimizations ^b	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
None	15%	41%	35%	9%	(1,795,105)
One	9%	36%	36%	19%	(99,054)
Two or more	7%	25%	25%	43%	(15,878)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^bSee Appendix C for definition.

TABLE B-2-NEW YORK CITY Rating of police by total number of personal victimizations suffered by respondent during the preceding 12 months; 1975 NCS

Total personal victimizations ^b	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
None	12%	31%	44%	13%	(4,760,090)
One	8%	27%	42%	23%	(251,485)
Two or more	4%	50%	30%	17%	(33,591)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^bSee Appendix C for definition.

TABLE B-2-PHILADELPHIA Rating of police by total number of personal victimizations suffered by respondent during the preceding 12 months; 1975 NCS

Total personal victimizations ^b	Rating of police ^a				Estimated number
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4	
None	15%	33%	40%	12%	(1,183,435)
One	9%	27%	41%	23%	(60,045)
Two or more	6%	21%	32%	41%	(11,430)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^bSee Appendix C for definition.

TABLE B-3-ATLANTA Proportion of personal victimizations reported to the police by victim's rating of the police, controlling for seriousness of the victimization; 1975 NCS

Seriousness score ^b	Rating of police ^a			
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4
Low	54% ^c	24%	24%	28%
0-2	(784) ^{d,e}	(2,434)	(3,306)	(2,131)
Medium or high	58%	63%	51%	56%
3 or more	(598) ^e	(3,197)	(3,998)	(2,732)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^bSee Appendix C for definition.

^cProportion of victimizations in cell reported to the police.

^dTotal number of victimizations (reported and not reported) in cell.

^eEstimate based on about 50 or fewer sample cases may be unreliable.

TABLE B-3-BALTIMORE Proportion of personal victimizations reported to the police by victim's rating of the police, controlling for seriousness of the victimization; 1975 NCS

Seriousness score ^b	Rating of police ^a			
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4
Low	45% ^c	31%	35%	41%
0-2	(1,601) ^{d,e}	(3,365)	(4,519)	(2,368) ^e
Medium or high	75%	65%	59%	55%
3 or more	(1,466) ^e	(8,535)	(12,360)	(7,904)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^bSee Appendix C for definition.

^cProportion of victimizations in cell reported to the police.

^dTotal number of victimizations (reported and not reported) in cell.

^eEstimate based on about 50 or fewer sample cases may be unreliable.

TABLE B-3-CLEVELAND Proportion of personal victimizations reported to the police by victim's rating of the police, controlling for seriousness of the victimization; 1975 NCS

Seriousness score ^b	Rating of police ^a			
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4
Low	43% ^c	36%	32%	33%
0-2	(1,039) ^{d,e}	(3,681)	(7,178)	(4,328)
Medium or high	51%	65%	54%	61%
3 or more	(1,293) ^e	(5,045)	(7,920)	(7,665)

^aRespondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^bSee Appendix C for definition.

^cProportion of victimizations in cell reported to the police.

^dTotal number of victimizations (reported and not reported) in cell.

^eEstimate based on about 50 or fewer sample cases may be unreliable.

TABLE B-3-DALLAS Proportion of personal victimizations reported to the police by victim's rating of the police, controlling for seriousness of the victimization; 1975 NCS

Seriousness score ^b	Rating of police ^a			
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4
Low 0-2	41% ^c (1,631) ^{d,e}	34% (6,636)	32% (6,715)	34% (3,461)
Medium or high 3 or more	64% (835) ^e	55% (4,670)	50% (8,511)	53% (3,716)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^b See Appendix C for definition.

^c Proportion of victimizations in cell reported to the police.

^d Total number of victimizations (reported and not reported) in cell.

^e Estimate based on about 50 or fewer sample cases may be unreliable.

TABLE B-3-DENVER Proportion of personal victimizations reported to the police by victim's rating of the police, controlling for seriousness of the victimization; 1975 NCS

Seriousness score ^b	Rating of police ^a			
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4
Low 0-2	49% ^c (1,806) ^{d,e}	38% (5,782)	26% (6,334)	29% (3,598)
Medium or high 3 or more	53% (1,133) ^e	59% (4,503)	46% (6,330)	39% (3,961)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^b See Appendix C for definition.

^c Proportion of victimizations in cell reported to the police.

^d Total number of victimizations (reported and not reported) in cell.

^e Estimate based on about 50 or fewer sample cases may be unreliable.

TABLE B-3-NEWARK Proportion of personal victimizations reported to the police by victim's rating of the police, controlling for seriousness of the victimization; 1975 NCS

Seriousness score ^b	Rating of police ^a			
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4
Low 0-2	17% ^c (443) ^{d,e}	30% (1,047) ^e	38% (2,353)	34% (1,930)
Medium or high 3 or more	60% (266) ^e	50% (821) ^e	62% (3,009)	62% (2,160)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^b See Appendix C for definition.

^c Proportion of victimizations in cell reported to the police.

^d Total number of victimizations (reported and not reported) in cell.

^e Estimate based on about 50 or fewer sample cases may be unreliable.

TABLE B-3-PORTLAND Proportion of personal victimizations reported to the police by victim's rating of the police, controlling for seriousness of the victimization; 1975 NCS

Seriousness score ^b	Rating of police ^a			
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4
Low 0-2	47% ^c (1,296) ^{d,e}	28% (4,705)	24% (5,459)	32% (2,459)
Medium or high 3 or more	50% (993) ^e	48% (3,998)	46% (3,711)	55% (2,667)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^b See Appendix C for definition.

^c Proportion of victimizations in cell reported to the police.

^d Total number of victimizations (reported and not reported) in cell.

^e Estimate based on about 50 or fewer sample cases may be unreliable.

TABLE B-3-ST. LOUIS Proportion of personal victimizations reported to the police by victim's rating of the police, controlling for seriousness of the victimization; 1975 NCS

Seriousness score ^b	Rating of police ^a			
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4
Low	41% ^c	38%	37%	28%
0-2	(927) ^{d,e}	(3,071)	(5,164)	(2,143)
Medium or high	77%	68%	49%	45%
3 or more	(1,126) ^e	(2,924)	(4,591)	(2,954)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^b See Appendix C for definition.

^c Proportion of victimizations in cell reported to the police.

^d Total number of victimizations (reported and not reported) in cell.

^e Estimate based on about 50 or fewer sample cases may be unreliable.

TABLE B-3-CHICAGO Proportion of personal victimizations reported to the police by victim's rating of the police, controlling for seriousness of the victimization; 1975 NCS

Seriousness score ^b	Rating of police ^a			
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4
Low	38% ^c	38%	30%	23%
0-2	(9,152) ^{d,e}	(28,410)	(30,698)	(21,546)
Medium or high	60%	61%	58%	59%
3 or more	(7,436) ^e	(30,317)	(31,461)	(29,173)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^b See Appendix C for definition.

^c Proportion of victimizations in cell reported to the police.

^d Total number of victimizations (reported and not reported) in cell.

^e Estimate based on about 50 or fewer sample cases may be unreliable.

TABLE B-3-DETROIT Proportion of personal victimizations reported to the police by victim's rating of the police, controlling for seriousness of the victimization; 1975 NCS

Seriousness score ^b	Rating of police ^a			
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4
Low	43% ^c	46%	35%	38%
0-2	(3,025) ^{d,e}	(10,098)	(16,817)	(5,617)
Medium or high	75%	66%	57%	59%
3 or more	(4,759) ^e	(13,269)	(23,174)	(11,952)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^b See Appendix C for definition.

^c Proportion of victimizations in cell reported to the police.

^d Total number of victimizations (reported and not reported) in cell.

^e Estimate based on about 50 or fewer sample cases may be unreliable.

TABLE B-3-LOS ANGELES Proportion of personal victimizations reported to the police by victim's rating of the police, controlling for seriousness of the victimization; 1975 NCS

Seriousness score ^b	Rating of police ^a			
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4
Low	35% ^c	35%	36%	33%
0-2	(6,851) ^{d,e}	(22,269)	(24,288)	(17,413)
Medium or high	46%	57%	58%	46%
3 or more	(5,538) ^e	(24,392)	(24,234)	(23,149)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^b See Appendix C for definition.

^c Proportion of victimizations in cell reported to the police.

^d Total number of victimizations (reported and not reported) in cell.

^e Estimate based on about 50 or fewer sample cases may be unreliable.

TABLE B-3-NEW YORK CITY Proportion of personal victimizations reported to the police by victim's rating of the police, controlling for seriousness of the victimization; 1975 NCS

Seriousness score ^b	Rating of police ^a			
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4
Low 0-2	52% ^c (11,588) ^{d,e}	45% (52,412)	39% (66,481)	34% (25,491) ^e
Medium or high 3 or more	53% (12,993) ^e	53% (55,439)	62% (66,431)	63% (50,465)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^b See Appendix C for definition.

^c Proportion of victimizations in cell reported to the police.

^d Total number of victimizations (reported and not reported) in cell.

^e Estimate based on about 50 or fewer sample cases may be unreliable.

TABLE B-3-PHILADELPHIA Proportion of personal victimizations reported to the police by victim's rating of the police, controlling for seriousness of the victimization; 1975 NCS

Seriousness score ^b	Rating of police ^a			
	(Positive) 1	2	3	(Negative) 4
Low 0-2	39% ^c (4,657) ^{d,e}	34% (12,119)	32% (18,286)	23% (10,024)
Medium or high 3 or more	63% (2,624) ^e	64% (10,174)	55% (16,145)	61% (15,895)

^a Respondents who did not express an opinion on the evaluation of police performance question (item 14a in Appendix A) were not given a scale score. The construction of the police rating scale is described in the text.

^b See Appendix C for definition.

^c Proportion of victimizations in cell reported to the police.

^d Total number of victimizations (reported and not reported) in cell.

^e Estimate based on about 50 or fewer sample cases may be unreliable.

APPENDIX C Definitions of Victimization Experience Variables Used in Report

One primary feature of the National Crime Survey is the collection of detailed information about victimizations suffered by respondents during the survey reference period. The information made it possible for the victimizations to be grouped according to a variety of crime classification schemes. For ease of communication, this report has used a classification system that essentially parallels the one used in the Uniform Crime Reports (UCR). Five basic crime categories have been included in the report (definitions adapted from LEAA, 1976a:177-179):

Rape: Carnal knowledge through the use of force or threat of force, including attempts. Statutory rape (without force) is excluded. Includes both male and female victims.

Robbery: Theft or attempted theft, directly from a person, of property or cash by force or threat of force, with or without a weapon.

Aggravated assault: Attack with a weapon resulting in an injury and attack without a weapon resulting either in serious injury (e.g., broken bones, loss of teeth, internal injuries, loss of consciousness) or in undetermined injury requiring 2 or more days of hospitalization. Also includes attempted assault with a weapon.

Simple assault: Attack without a weapon resulting either in minor injury (e.g., bruises, black eyes, cuts, scratches, swelling) or in undetermined injury requiring less than 2 days of hospitalization. Also includes attempted assault without a weapon.

Larceny with contact: Theft or attempted theft, directly from a person, of property or cash without force or threat of force.

The category of **Total Personal Victimization** was formed by summing the rapes, robberies, aggravated assaults, simple assaults, and larcenies from the person for each respondent.

Like the UCR system, attempts and completed crimes are included within each category. Unlike the UCR, however, only crimes against individuals are considered in this report; for example, robberies and larcenies committed against business establishments are excluded. Furthermore, the larceny category only includes those crimes in which the victim and offender came into contact; thefts of unattended personal property are not included in the category. In sum, only personal crimes involving victim/offender contact were

included because it was assumed that such experiences would be most likely to have effects on the attitudes of the individuals surveyed.

Exclusion of series victimizations

Under certain circumstances, NCS interviewers were allowed to treat a group of victimizations as a series victimization. When that occurred, only one incident report was completed for all of the events in the series. The Bureau of the Census instructed its interviewers to use the following three criteria in deciding to treat events as a series victimization:

1. The incidents must be very similar in detail.
2. There must be at least three incidents in a series.
3. The respondent must not be able to recall dates and other details of the individual incidents well enough to report them separately.

The interviewers were further instructed to use the series classification only as a last resort.

Series victimizations accounted for only a small proportion of the total number of incident reports completed by the interviewers. More important, the third criterion above means that, by definition, the events involved in series victimizations are only vaguely recalled by respondents. The details recorded in the incident report refer to the most important and recent event in the series, and one cannot be sure of how adequately those details represent prior events in the series. In fact, if the respondent is not sure about when the events occurred, one cannot even be confident that all the events in the series occurred within the reference period. For all of these reasons, series victimizations were excluded from that analysis in this report. Readers interested in a comparative analysis of series and non-series victimizations in the NCS data can consult Hindelang (1976: App. F).

Derivation of seriousness scores

Victimizations vary widely in seriousness, even within the same crime classification. Robberies, for example, range from attempts to take property accompanied by verbal threats to thefts of a large amount of money in which victims suffer near-fatal injuries. It is possible to compare victimizations in terms of seriousness by

assigning standardized weights to the relevant characteristics that make up each victimization. One often used system of seriousness weighting was devised by Sellin and Wolfgang (1964) on the basis of interviews in which respondents were asked to rate the seriousness of a variety of events that differed in certain elements. The seriousness weighting procedure arrived at by Sellin and Wolfgang has been adapted to the scoring of NCS victimizations.¹

Rather than present the complete scoring algorithm that appears in Bureau of the Census tape documentation, some illustrations of the seriousness weights used will adequately convey the meaning of the scores. For example, if the victim suffered minor injuries that required no medical attention, a weight of 1 was assigned; however, if the injury required medical atten-

tion, but no hospitalization, the weight was 4, and if hospitalization was necessary, the weight assigned was 7. Likewise, weights ranging from 1 to 5 were used depending on the value of money or property stolen or of property damaged. The use of a weapon by the offender resulted in 2 points being added to the seriousness score. In very minor victimizations, a seriousness score of zero is possible.

In those portions of the report in which individuals were the units of analysis, the *Total Seriousness Score* variable refers to the sum of the seriousness scores for all the relevant personal victimizations suffered by the individual during the reference period. In the victimization-based analyses, the *Seriousness Score* variable refers to the seriousness score of each victimization taken separately.

¹Research is in progress, in conjunction with the National Crime Survey, to expand and refine the seriousness weighting procedures.



APPENDIX D Correlation Matrix of Selected Variables

Matrix of Pearson's Product Moment Coefficients for selected variables^a;

Attitude subsample, eight Impact Cities, 1975, aggregate

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	
1. Tenure	1.00	-.304	-.131	-.172	.208	.152	.040	-.020	.025	.062	.027	.040	0.37	.025	.066	
2. Family income		1.00	.123	-.111	-.248	-.232	-.101	.363	-.162	-.034	-.018	-.037	-.007	.004	-.009	
3. Number of members			1.00	-.355	-.072	.224	-.006	-.036	-.047	.020	-.001	.007	.030	.011	.019	
4. Age				1.00	-.148	-.117	.049	-.292	.204	-.103	-.041	-.034	-.093	-.084	-.136	
5. Marital status					1.00	.138	.115	-.031	.078	.082	.024	.054	.049	.036	.076	
6. Race						1.00	.043	-.138	.023	.007	.004	.035	-.005	-.034	.010	
7. Sex							1.00	-.029	-.110	-.059	.038	-.048	-.069	-.036	-.072	
8. Education								1.00	-.142	.001	.006	-.022	.008	.029	.036	
9. Employment									1.00	.025	.009	.021	.020	-.003	.012	
10. Total victimizations										1.00	.181	.582	.585	.552	.744	
11. Rapes											1.00	.016	.002	.014	.288	
12. Robberies												1.00	.075	.035	.531	
13. Aggravated assaults													1.00	.108	.544	
14. Simple assaults														1.00	.243	
15. Total seriousness score															1.00	
16. Entertainment																
17. Out more or less																
18. Neighborhood trend																
19. Crime committers																
20. U.S. trend																
21. Safety at night																
22. Safety during day																
23. Comparative danger																
24. Police rating																
25. Chance of attack or robbery																
26. Crime in media																
27. General activity limiting																
28. Neighborhood activity limiting																
29. Personal activity limiting																

^aSee following pages for descriptions of variables.

Matrix of Pearson's Product Moment Coefficients for selected variables^a;
 Attitude subsample, eight Impact Cities, 1975, aggregate (continued)

	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
1. Tenure	-.005	.061	.009	-.044	.070	.097	.086	-.139	.097	.054	.014	-.001	.045	.045
2. Family income	-.285	-.119	-.006	.059	-.046	-.210	-.185	.194	-.031	-.079	-.042	-.024	-.092	-.115
3. Number of members	-.023	-.038	-.002	-.035	.034	-.044	.007	-.018	.124	.044	.020	-.003	.003	-.027
4. Age	.408	.143	.013	.120	-.021	.209	.154	.079	-.220	-.024	.033	.091	.089	.134
5. Marital status	-.051	-.068	.024	-.027	.069	.065	.052	-.068	.079	.098	.006	-.001	.021	.005
6. Race	.163	.146	.023	-.033	.037	.157	.203	-.143	.226	.068	.066	.081	.148	.152
7. Sex	.130	.050	-.003	-.005	.002	.380	.233	-.033	.001	-.058	.060	.040	.043	.172
8. Education	-.352	-.078	.004	.008	-.060	-.183	-.185	.120	.050	-.064	-.045	-.018	-.089	-.108
9. Employment	.112	.044	.016	.026	.028	.050	.055	.003	-.003	.058	.026	.010	.022	.017
10. Total victimizations	-.046	.016	-.052	-.038	-.004	.018	.033	-.053	.064	-.019	.028	.019	.028	.033
11. Rapes	-.017	.006	-.009	-.017	-.002	.028	.024	-.020	.020	-.014	.012	-.002	.007	.018
12. Robberies	-.012	.029	-.042	-.007	.006	.038	.049	-.047	.042	-.012	.030	.018	.037	.036
13. Aggravated assaults	-.049	-.008	-.022	-.038	-.005	-.030	-.011	-.020	.052	.003	.008	.003	.005	-.003
14. Simple assaults	-.045	-.008	-.024	-.026	-.004	-.015	-.011	-.017	.029	-.017	.006	.002	-.006	.002
15. Total seriousness score	-.080	.009	-.052	-.043	-.002	-.002	.013	-.050	.078	-.020	.031	.011	.024	.026
16. Entertainment	1.00	.260	.009	.022	.031	.251	.237	-.052	-.050	.021	.055	.052	.098	.157
17. Out more or less		1.00	-.024	.019	-.012	.170	.150	-.034	.035	-.032	.069	.076	.105	.187
18. Neighborhood trend			1.00	.071	.186	-.169	-.163	.181	-.086	.251	-.100	-.092	-.179	-.150
19. Crime committers				1.00	-.003	-.050	-.059	.179	-.068	.013	-.006	.029	-.004	-.009
20. U.S. trend					1.00	-.046	-.027	.010	-.023	.249	-.109	-.122	-.082	-.069
21. Safety at night						1.00	.602	-.261	.075	-.142	.149	.155	.266	.384
22. Safety during day							1.00	-.265	.112	-.103	.135	.125	.232	.310
23. Comparative danger								1.00	-.127	.068	-.032	-.018	-.153	-.133
24. Police rating									1.00	-.041	.098	.055	.102	.077
25. Chance of attack or robbery										1.00	-.144	-.146	-.150	-.176
26. Crime in media											1.00	.132	.141	.154
27. General activity limiting												1.00	.468	.306
28. Neighborhood activity limiting													1.00	.483
29. Personal activity limiting														1.00

^aSee following pages for descriptions of variables.

Description of variables in correlation matrix

1. **Tenure:** Residing in a housing unit that is owned or being bought (1) or is being rented (2).
2. **Family income:** Total money income from all related household members 12 years or older during preceding 12 months. Original variable was coded into 13 categories; midpoints of these categories were used. Because family income data were not obtained for a relatively large proportion of cases (about 10 percent), an estimation procedure was used; white respondents for whom family income was not ascertained were assigned the median income of white families in the cities, and black/other respondents were assigned the median income of black/others.
3. **Number of members:** Number of members in the household to which the respondent belonged.
4. **Age:** Respondent's age at last birthday.
5. **Marital status of respondent:** Married (1) or currently not married (2).
6. **Race of respondent:** White (1) or black/other (2).
7. **Sex of respondent:** Male (1) or female (2).
8. **Education of respondent:** Highest grade attended, recoded to a range of from zero to 22.
9. **Employment status of respondent:** Currently employed, keeping house, going to school, unable to work (1), or unemployed, retired, other (2).
10. **Total victimizations:** Total non-series personal victimizations (as defined in Appendix C) suffered by respondent during reference period.
11. **Rapes:** See Appendix C.
12. **Robberies:** See Appendix C.
13. **Aggravated assaults:** See Appendix C.
14. **Simple assaults:** See Appendix C.
- 14a. **Larcenies:** A coding error in compilation of the matrix prevented inclusion of this variable.
15. **Total seriousness score:** See Appendix C.
16. **Entertainment:** Item 8a in attitude questionnaire (Appendix A).
17. **Out more or less:** Created from item 8b in attitude questionnaire. More (1), about the same (2), less for some reason other than crime or fear of crime (3), less because of crime or fear of crime (4).
18. **Neighborhood trend:** Recoded from item 9a in attitude questionnaire. Increased (1); same, don't know or haven't lived here that long (2); decreased (3).
19. **Crime committers:** Recoded from item 9c in attitude questionnaire. People living here (1); no crimes happening in neighborhood, equally by both, don't know (2); outsiders (3).
20. **U.S. trend:** Recoded from item 10a in attitude questionnaire. Increased (1); same, don't know (2); decreased (3).
21. **Safety at night:** Item 11a in attitude questionnaire.
22. **Safety during day:** Item 11b in attitude questionnaire.
23. **Comparative danger:** Item 12 in attitude questionnaire.
24. **Police rating:** Scale ranging from 1 (positive) to 4 (negative). Derived from attitude questionnaire items 14a and 14b, as described in text of report.
25. **Chance of attack or robbery:** Recoded from item 15a in attitude questionnaire. Gone up (1); haven't changed or no opinion (2); gone down (3).
26. **Crime in media:** Recoded from item 15b in attitude questionnaire. Less serious (1); about as serious or no opinion (2); more serious (3).
27. **General activity limiting:** Item 16a in attitude questionnaire.
28. **Neighborhood activity limiting:** Item 16b in attitude questionnaire.
29. **Personal activity limiting:** Item 16c in attitude questionnaire.

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