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National Institute of Justice
United States Department of Justice
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Weapons, Crime, and Violence in America
An Annotated Bibliography

by
James D. Wright
Huey-tsyh Chen
Joseph Pereira
Kathleen Daly
Peter H. Rossi

November 1981

U.S. Department of Justice
National Institute of Justice
Introduction

What to do about weapons, and about the crime and violence that result from them, are perennial issues on the nation's political agenda. The issues themselves, of course, are highly politicized and hotly contested, and these characteristics are also often shared by the research that has been done on them. Groups and organizations favoring stricter controls over the ownership and use of weapons have sponsored or conducted themselves a sizable fraction of the existing research; groups opposed to such controls have produced another sizable fraction; and even the ostensibly "neutral" academic researchers who have ventured into the area have frequently been compelled to come down on one side or the other of the issue. The net result is that the existing published literature on weapons, crime, and violence in America is a bewildering morass of contradictory claims and inconsistent research results.

It is not an exaggeration to state that virtually any position one might wish to take in what has been called the "Great American Gun War" (Bruce-Biggs, 1976) can be bolstered to some extent by some piece of research data. Thus, the pro-control advocates have "their" research findings, and the anti-control advocates have "theirs." Systematic or detailed consideration by either camp of the other's evidence is rare. Each simply goes its own way, firm
in its belief that the cause is righteous and the methodology pure, often oblivious to, or in some cases openly contemptuous of, the counter-claims and counter-evidence amassed by others.

There is a viewpoint, often advanced by outsiders to social-scientific research, that reality is infinitely malleable in that people "find" only what they wish to find, or in other words, that research on social issues is intrinsically ideological in nature and result. While this thesis is true in the highly restricted sense that people seldom find things they do not bother to look for, we reject it in the more general sense: our position is that social realities are as palpable and as real as physical realities, and that if there are contradictory claims made about some aspect of those realities, then at least one (or, of course, both) of the claims must necessarily be false.

It follows from this position that the literature on weapons, crime, and violence, being plagued by contradictory claims, is therefore rife with false claims—many of them, to emphasize, being supported, to one or another extent, by research findings. A second direct implication is thus that much of the available research has been poorly done; Research designs have been employed that are inadequate to the analytic task; Inappropriate statistical analyses have been undertaken; Sampling has been haphazard and biased; Measurement has been shoddy; Conclusions and findings have been inappropriately over-generalized; And so on. For this reason, there is a self-evident pressing need for a critical evaluative review of the literature in question, a "sifting and winnowing," as it were, through the extant research literature to discern that which is valid and valuable and that which is not. And such, indeed, was the intent of the larger research program of which this annotated bibliography is a part.

In 1979, the Social and Demographic Research Institute of the University of Massachusetts received a grant from the United States Department of Justice to conduct a compendious, indeed encyclopedic, review of the existing state of knowledge in the area of weapons, crime, and violence. The project was conceived mainly as a "stock-taking" effort: new research data were not to be collected; rather, the existing literature in the area comprised the primary data for the research. In this sense, then, the present volume contains the "data base" for the project as a whole.

We emphasize in advance that the "critical evaluative review" noted above is not contained in this volume. It is to be found in a companion volume from the project, entitled Weapons, Crime, and Violence in America: A Literature Review and Research Agenda. In a sense, then, the present volume is the databook describing the gross morphological characteristics of data that are analyzed in considerable depth elsewhere.

The presentation in this volume thus consists of brief (seldom more than one page) descriptions of the methods and findings of previous research on weapons, crime, and violence. Many of the studies summarized in one or two paragraphs here are discussed for several pages in the companion volume. Inconsistencies in findings across studies are seldom noted here, but are discussed at length (and, where possible, resolved) in the literature review itself. Most of the annotations that appear here contain descriptions, not evaluations, of the studies in question; here, we have tried to state
what the authors of the study did and what they concluded from it; whether the procedures followed were reasonable, or the conclusions sound, are matters that are addressed in the other report.

When we undertook this review, our intention was to include every piece of prior research relevant to the subject matter in hand. We have, almost certainly, failed to achieve this goal. We are reasonably confident that all major studies in the area have been included here, and a sizable share of the less important literature has also been annotated. But in a field where new research appears almost daily, and where much of the relevant literature exists in fugitive mimeographed documents and out-of-the-way journals, no pretense to complete coverage can be made. We would, of course, be grateful to anyone who might call our attention to significant material that has been overlooked.

There are at least two previous annotated bibliographies available in the "weapons and crime" area. One is entitled, Weapons Use (no date) and is available through the National Criminal Justice Reference Service; the second is entitled, Firearms Use in Violent Crime (1978), prepared for the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice by Marla Wilson Ray, Robert N. Brenner, and Marjorie Krakits. There is, necessarily, a substantial overlap between these volumes and the present one, but there are also some differences that bear a brief note.

First, the present bibliography contains a significant amount of material that has appeared since the publication of the other bibliographies, so the present compilation is proportionally more current. Secondly, both these volumes, but especially the second, contain an important class of relevant material that is not contained here, namely, material specifically related to legislation and hearings in the gun control area. Chapter Two of the Ray et al. bibliography will prove a useful beginning point for scholars with interests in this aspect of the literature.

It is conventional to arrange the entries in a bibliography such as this into various topical areas. We have made several attempts to do so but failed to arrive at a classification system that both would do justice to the richness of the materials and avoid tedious cross-referencing or duplicate entries. Instead we have provided topical guides to the entries while the entries themselves are simply arranged in alphabetical order. A coding system was devised that covered the major broad topics included, the types of evidence and data used, and the date of publication. The codes and entries are shown in the topical guide that follows this introduction. We hope that this method provides sufficient guidance to the reader.

One final caveat: There is a vast polemical and periodical literature on issues relevant to weapons, crime, and violence, very little of which is annotated here. Virtually all literary, political, or news magazines, and most major newspapers, will run occasional pieces on weapons, crime, or related topics; the various gun magazines are another dense source of polemical and periodical materials. In general, we have not annotated purely polemical pieces, and we have made no attempt whatever to include material appearing in the non-social science periodical press. These rules, however, were relaxed in the cases where
the piece in question is widely regarded as "classic" (for example, Bruce-Biggs, 1976) or where significant empirical materials are contained within an essentially polemical tract (for example, Kates, 1978).

A TOPICAL INDEX TO THE BIBLIOGRAPHY

Listed below are the serial numbers and the evidence base codes for each of the articles listed by topical code. Note that articles and books with more than one topic are listed twice, once under each of the topics.
Explanation of Bibliographic Codes

Each entry in the annotated bibliography has been given a thirteen digit alphanumeric code. An explanation of the code follows:

1. First Five Digits: Consists of the first two letters of first author's name plus a three digit serial number that represents (in most cases) the position of the entry in alphabetical order. Thus "AB013/" would represent Abel's article that is 13th in the order of the bibliography.

2. Digits Six and Seven: Represents the last two digits of the year of publication. Thus "AB013/56/" represents Abel's article published in 1956. Code "XX" is used for undated publications.

3. Digits Eight Through Eleven: Represents codes for up to two major topics covered in the entry. Codes for topical entries are as follows:
   - 01 = General Article or Book on Weapons Related Public Issues.
   - 02 = Treatment of Weapons Related Crimes in the Criminal Justice System. E.g., studies of length of sentences given to weapons offenders.
   - 03 = Policy Analysis and Impact Studies. Studies of the affects of gun control legislation or regulation of imports, etc.
   - 04 = Studies of Popular Opinion on Weapons Related Public Issues. Polls on approval of gun registration, prohibition of handgun ownership, etc.
   - 05 = Special Groups' Opinions on Weapons Related Public Issues. E.g., polls of police chiefs on gun regulation.
   - 06 = Studies of Ownership and Usage of Firearms.
   - 07 = Studies of Psychological Factors in Gun Ownership and Use.
   - 08 = Studies of Weapons Related Phenomena. Studies of suicide, homicide, robberies and the use of guns in such events.
   - 09 = Regional and Cultural Factors in Weapons Ownership and Use.
   - 10 = Bibliographies on Weapons Related Topics.

Thus an entry "AB013/56/0405/" refers to Abel's 1956 article on police chiefs' and public views on gun registration.

Note: If an article does not have a special topic, as e.g. bibliographies, then both codes are listed as follows: "/0000/". If an article deals with only one topic than the second topic is coded "00".

4. Digits Twelve Through Fifteen: These codes are used to indicate the major empirical evidence bases used in the article or book, as follows:
   - Digits 12 and 13: First evidence base
   - Digits 14 and 15: Second evidence base

Note that the absence of any particular evidence base is noted by "00".

The codes are as follows:
- 01 = Sample Surveys
- 02 = Laboratory or Field Experiments
- 03 = Aggregate Crime Statistics
04 = Demographic and Vital Statistics
05 = Criminal Justice System Data (other than crime statistics), e.g., average length of sentence, plea bargain rates, etc.
06 = Direct Observation, Informal or Systematic
07 = Other Official Statistics, e.g., number of gun license.
08 = Other Archival Data

Thus the code "AB013/56/0405/0100/' refers to Abel's 1956 article on public opinions and police chiefs' opinions on gun control issues based on sample surveys.

01 General Article of Book on Weapons, Gun Control, or Related Topics

1. AL001/75/0000
2. AM002/76/0000
3. BA004/66/0304
4. BO017/76/0500
5. BK020/76/0000
6. CO030/73/0000
7. GO074/78/0000
8. KA099/79/0000
9. KE100/76/0000
10. KU111/73/0000
11. MA124/74/0000
12. ME127/76/0000
13. MI130/76/0307
14. NA134/75/0000
15. NE135/69/0308
16. PE147/67/0000
17. SH163/73/0000
18. SP170/75/0000
19. US176/XX/0300
20. US177/XX/0307
21. US181/78/0000
22. YE195/76/0000
23. Z1199/72/0000
24. Z1201/75/0500
25. Z1204/81/0000
Treatment of Weapons Related Crimes in the Criminal Justice System

1. AS003/68/0304
2. BE009/77/0300
3. BE010/77/0300
4. BE011/80/0300
5. BL012/70/0600
6. CO041/79/0500
7. DA045/74/0000
8. HE080/78/0100
9. HE082/75/0500
10. J0092/79/0100
11. LA112/78/0300
12. MI128/76/0305
13. NA134/75/0000
14. PE147/67/0000
15. SE160/76/0700
16. S1164/78/0305
17. US176/XX/0300
18. US177/XX/0307
19. VE183/77/0506

Policy Analysis and Impact Studies

1. BA004/66/0204
2. BE009/77/0103
3. BE006/68/0304
4. BE018/77/0305
5. CO031/78/0000
6. CO035/79/0304
7. CO039/80/0800
8. CO040/80/0800
9. CO04a/81/0800
10. DE048/79/0304
11. DE050/79/0300
12. DE051/77/0300
13. HA049/79/0300
14. HA052/79/0300
15. DO054/74/0000
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17. ET060/73/0300
18. FI064/76/0307
19. GE070/69/0305
20. GE072/78/0300
21. GR075/72/0300
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23. HE083/69/0200
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29. KA098/78/0000
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31. KE101/80/0000
32. KE102/73/0307
33. KL010/79/0000
34. KL104/79/0307
35. KR107/67/0300
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38. LE114/81/0000
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05 Special Group’s Opinions on Weapons Related Public Issues

1. BR019/76/0401

06 Studies of Ownership and Usage of Firearms

1. BL013/74/0304
2. BO015/79/0708
3. BO016/80/0100
4. BR018/77/0305
5. BU021/77/0106
6. CA023/79/0100
7. CL029/XX/0708
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9. CO033/78/0304
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12. CO037/81/0103
13. CO038/81/0103
14. CO039/80/0800
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16. CO049/81/0800
17. DA045/74/0000
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20. DE049/79/0100
21. D003/76/0100
22. E0056/77/0600
23. EX059/72/0100
24. FY067/80/0305
25. FY068/76/0305
26. HA078/77/0100
27. HE080/78/0100
28. KO106/68/0700
29. KR098/68/0300
30. LI116/80/0100
31. MA125/76/0103
32. MC126/74/0307
33. MI130/76/0307
34. MO131/81/0307
35. NO136/78/0100
36. RE151/71/0103
37. SC157/62/0103
38. US179/76/0105
39. US180/76/0600
40. US182/XX/0600
06 Studies of Ownership and Usage of Firearms (continued)

41. WI185/75/0100
42. WI186/76/0100
43. WI188/78/0600
44. WI192/81/0100
45. WI193/75/0100
46. ZI202/76/0500

07 Studies of Psychological Factors in Gun Ownership and Usage

1. BE007/68/0200
2. BE008/67/0200
3. BU022/72/0200
4. CA023/79/0100
5. CLO29/XX/0708
6. DR049/79/0100
7. EL057/71/0200
8. FI063/69/0200
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3. ELO058/76/0100
4. GA069/71/0304
5. MAD76/69/0304
6. MAO79/76/0300
7. ROO69/70/0001
8. LOI15/74/0300
9. OC137/78/0100
10. RE151/71/0103
11. W0190/67/0306
12. W0191/67/0300

Bibliographies on Weapons Related Topics

1. CH028/77/0000
2. PR147/67/0100
3. RA150/78/0000
This report was part of a continuing series of reports dealing with the issue of gun controls. This report is divided into four parts, entitled: Myths and Realities; Existing Controls - Federal, State and Local; Methods of Control; and a Summary and Conclusion. The report critiqued, using available data, the following 8 "myths": Guns don't kill people-people kill people; "I need a handgun for self-protection; "the Second Amendment guarantees my right to keep and bear arms"; "Handguns serve a valid sporting purpose"; "The Saturday night special accounts for most of the crime with handguns"; "The public will never support handgun control"; "The gun lobby is omnipotent".

The next section provides a brief description of various gun control legislation starting with the National Firearms Act of 1934. This is followed by a report on the methods of control which includes a description of the major licensing and registration proposals as well as a short synopsis of gun control recommendations of selected national commissions.
Askrant, Albert P. and Paul V. Joliet 

This book discussed the annual injuries and deaths incurred from accidents and suicide in the U.S., using statistics from the early 60s and drawing upon other studies. Detail on the variation by demographic group, region of the country, means of injury or death were presented. Historical trends were highlighted. The book provided a good, if now dated, overview of the features of accidental and criminal death and injury from the use of firearms.

Bakal, Carl 

A broad number of topics related to firearm use in the United States are examined. Gun control in other countries is reviewed in order to show the inadequacy of firearm regulation efforts in the U.S. A review of ineffectual policies and regulations enacted by various states and a discussion of the federal government's failure to enact legislation controlling firearms are presented. Murder rates in major American cities are examined in addition to the rates of gun use by type of crime. A separate section analyzed the relationship between the victim and offender in crimes involving guns. The arguments for and against gun control are examined. Particular attention is paid to the position of the opponents of gun control. The author critically evaluates the arguments of anti-control groups, especially the position and role of the National Rifle Association in the gun control debates. The American fascination with guns is also analyzed, including a brief analysis of how the gun has become an important ingredient of American Culture. Finally, tables of statistics of gun related deaths are provided and summaries of state and federal laws are also included.
The Bartley-Fox Amendment, which took effect in Massachusetts in 1975, provides for a mandatory sentence of one year for those convicted of carrying a firearm without a permit. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the impact of the law in Boston. Data were mainly gathered from the Boston Police Department, court records, and other official sources.

The sample for analysis consisted of 1082 cases — all violent crimes that allegedly involved a firearm in about a one year period in Boston.

It was found that the law does not add to the probability that those accused of homicide or armed robbery will be imprisoned, since most homicide and armed robbery defendants already get prison terms. However, there was an effect for the crime of aggravated assault. Because the scope of the firearm statute is limited, more than a third of the prosecutions for illegally carrying a firearm fail to produce a conviction. However, where a case fit within the bounds of the statute, lower court judges did appear to be applying the mandated penalty. The introduction of Bartley-Fox dramatically increased the issuance of F.I.D. cards and licenses to carry. Bartley-Fox is apparently successful in gaining compliance with the firearm permit element, but its impact on violent crime is mixed. The data showed a reduction in the use of firearms in assaults, but not in robbery.

The author examined a number of studies and concluded that gun controls had not reduced homicide rates. The author reviewed the classic Wolfgang study (1958), data from the California Department of Justice and the Krug study (1967), among other, which all showed that eliminating guns would not significantly decrease the criminal homicide rate. He argued that there is no correlation between reductions in homicide rates and firearm licensing. It was further argued that if guns were not available, other methods would be used in homicides and that there were many states with high percentage of guns where the crime rates are low. The author states that the potential costs of implementing and enforcing gun control programs are prohibitively expensive given the results that could be achieved. He did however, favor federal legislation which would eliminate problems for persons having to carry firearms across state lines.
The purpose of this article was to address the question, "what effect do available weapons and vicarious experiences with violence have on a person who is 'ready' to commit an aggressive act?"

One hundred University of Wisconsin students participated in two experiments designed to measure observed behavior in different sets of circumstances. First, students were intentionally, but secretly, angered by the experimenter. Guns had been left in the presence of some of the angered students and it was these students who exhibited the most aggression as measured by the number of electric shocks they gave their counterparts in the experiment. This is what Berkowitz called the "weapons effect", where hostile acts stem from unconscious motivations stimulated by the operation of aggressive cues which in this case was a gun.

The second experiment, which used filmed violence, indicated that students viewing a violent film and who thought the violence was justified responded more aggressively than other groups in the experiment. The author claimed that witnessed violence can serve as a stimulus for the viewer especially if the viewer encounters someone whom he associated with the deserving victim in the film he had just seen.

The author concluded that these experiments indicated that even the casual sight of a gun can sometimes stimulate aggressive behavior and that contrary to the catharsis theory prediction, the sight of violence can increase the chance that a viewer will express aggression himself.

This study attempted to test the hypothesis that weapons serve as aggression-eliciting stimuli, causing an angered individual to display stronger violence than would be shown in the absence of weapons. One hundred male undergraduates enrolled in introductory psychology courses were used as the research sample. By doing a publicity task, a student's performance was evaluated by his partner (confederate) in the form of electric shocks, with one shock signifying a very good rating or seven shocks signifying a very bad rating, and then the student was given an opportunity to shock his partner. In some cases a 12-gauge shotgun and a .38-caliber revolver were on the table near the shock key. These weapons were told to belong, or not to belong, to the available target person. In other instances there was nothing on the table near the shock key, while for a control group two badminton rackets were on the table near the key. The experiment was carried out in a 2 x 3 factorial design, with the 7th group serving as a control. It was found that the greatest number of shocks were given by the strongly aroused subjects (who had received seven shocks) when they were in the presence of the weapons. The authors concluded that the presence of the weapon might have elicited an intense aggressive reaction from the person with the gun, assuming his inhibition against regression was relatively weak.
Bernstein, Ilene N., W. Kelley, and P. Doyle

Data from about 1200 male defendants arraigned in a New York City court on felony charges during December, 1974 through March, 1975 were analyzed. The study was concerned with testing the potency of the labeling-interactionist perspective, in addition to the organizational constraints of the court in adjudication decisions. Three successive court decision stages were examined, each identified as a dummy dependent variable in a multiple regression equation: Y₁, whether a case was dismissed or not; Y₂, whether or not the defendant was adjudicated guilty, but not convicted and therefore not sentenced (termed "adjournment in contemplation of dismissal"—ACD—a special category of conviction in this New York City court); and Y₃, for those not dismissed or ACD'd, the sentence severity for defendants convicted.

For the first decision outcome, dismissal, defendants' social attributes (color and education) had no significant effects, but there were effects due to the judge presiding and the type of crime charged. The authors interpreted the results of this decision point as reflecting the strength of the evidence against the defendant, with only modest support for the factors that the labeling-interactionist perspective identifies. Of note here, however, was that those defendants who were pre-trial detained were more likely to have their cases dismissed.

For the second decision point, ACD or not, there again seemed to be no significant effects for the social attributes of defendants; at this decision point, organizational imperatives and prior criminal record appeared to have the largest influence.

For the sentencing decision, white defendants and those who had been employed for longer periods of time were more severely sentenced. As was found in the ACD decision, the defendants' prior record and pre-trial release status were important factors in predicting sentence severity; in this instance, those who were pre-trial detained were more likely to receive a more harsh sentence.

Bernstein et al concluded that the emphasis on social attributes of defendants should be redirected to consider the following factors in court decisions: organizational imperatives of the court, expectations and values of those making decisions, and the effect of a disadvantaged status acquired in prior deviance processing stages.
Bernstein, Ilene N., Edward Kick, Jan T. Leung, and Barbara Schulz
1977b "Charge reduction: an intermediary stage in the process of labelling criminal defendants." Social Forces

Data from about 1400 male and female defendants arraigned and convicted in a New York City court on charges of burglary, larceny, assault, and robbery during December, 1974 through March, 1975 were analyzed. This study was concerned with the factors that contributed to the plea bargaining process. More specifically, using the amount of charge reduction as the dependent variable, the analysis focused on whether the favorability of charge reduction was related to other factors than the alleged crime.

Multivariate analyses were carried out for two decision points: Y1, case disposed or not at the first court appearance and Y2, severity of convicted charge at a subsequent court appearance, in order to determine whether ascribed characteristics of defendants (age, sex, and color) contributed to charge reduction outcomes, and whether organizational imperatives of the courts (e.g., to clear the dockets) contributed to charge reduction outcomes.

For defendants whose case was disposed of at their first court appearance, sex and color had no significant effects on the amount of charge reduction, but age did: older defendants had more favorable outcomes. For defendants whose case was disposed of at a later court appearance, whites appeared to have more favorable charge reductions than blacks.

Turning to their analysis of the severity of the most severe charge for which the defendant was convicted, controlling for the severity of the first presentation charge, they found that older defendants were more likely to be convicted on a less severe charge; however, blacks and females were more likely to be convicted on a more severe charge.

One problem with the study is the construction of the dependent variable "amount of charge reduction." The metric used assumed an equal distance between charge severity categories (from the New York State Penal Code), an assumption that is problematic given the strong qualitative differences in moving from a felony charge to a misdemeanor charge, in comparison to moving from a more severe misdemeanor charge to a less severe one.
Bernstein, Ilene N., John Cardascia, and Catherine E. Ross
1980 "Sex differences in the processing of criminal defendants." In D. Kelly Weisberg (ed),

Data from about 3000 male and female defendants arraigned
and convicted in a New York City court on 11 types of felony and
misdemeanor charges during December, 1974 through March, 1975
were analyzed. The focus of the study was to determine whether a
similar set of factors predicted adjudication decisions for men
and women for three court decisions points: Y_1, whether the case
was dismissed or fully prosecuted; Y_2, for defendants not dismissed,
the severity of the sentence imposed; and Y_3, whether the
defendant spent any time imprisoned, either before conviction
(pre-trial detained) or after conviction (sentence involved a
prison term).

For the first decision point, sex did not have any
statistically significant relationship to the probability of having
the case dismissed. For the second and third decision points,
the effect of sex did appear to influence the severity of the
sentence (males were 12% more likely to receive a "harsh" sentence)
and whether any time was spent imprisoned (males were 32% more
likely to spend any time imprisoned).

In a comparison of the factors which predicted each of the
decision outcomes for males and females, there were no
differences in the dismissal decision, but there were some differences for the
two subsequent court decision points. For sentence severity,
sex interaction effects were identified as follows: for men,
sentence severity appeared to be more affected by prior
criminal record; for women, there was a stronger positive
effect of having no prior convictions and a stronger negative
effect of having other cases pending. For "any time imprisoned,"
more differences were found between men and women; in particular,
(1) the severity of the offense had a strong effect for
males, but had no effect for females and (2) the effect of the
type of crime (whether it was a property or personal crime) was
important for females, but not for males. Females charged with
personal crimes were more likely than males to spend any time
imprisoned. In addition, the effects of marital status and
primary parental responsibilities had effects on "any time
imprisoned," with married men and women and those with primary
parental responsibilities less likely to be imprisoned.
Black, Donald

Black examined the factors underlying the production of official "crime rates." Rather than viewing "crime rates" as (1) imperfect measures of the "actual rate" of crime or (2) an index of the activity of social control agents, Black outlined an alternative formulation. He suggested that official rates of crime are "social facts—an empirical phenomenon with its own existential integrity." Thus, he theorized that crime rates are "socially recognized deviant behavior."

Systematic observational studies of police work in Chicago, Boston, and Washington, D.C., police precincts were conducted during the summer of 1966 to explore his thesis. Observers accompanied patrolmen on work shifts, and a total of over 5,700 incidents were observed and recorded. About 10% of these incidents were analyzed in this paper.

Black concluded that the factors which led to higher probabilities of official reporting of crime by the police were: (1) greater legal seriousness of the complaint; (2) the complainant's observable preference for police action; (3) a greater relational distance between the complainant and the suspect; and (4) greater complainant deference toward the police. "Class" differences were found with "white collar" complainants more apt to have their incidents recorded than "blue collar" complainants. However, there appeared to be no racial discrimination in crime reporting by the police.

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Block, Richard

This paper focused on changes in patterns of age, race and sex distribution, motive and gun use for both victims and offenders involved in crimes of homicide. The data consisted of 7045 cases collected from the police records of the homicide division of the Chicago Police Department and consisted of all crimes labeled by the police as criminal homicides. Two analytic techniques were used: rates of victimization and offenses and excess increase analysis. The latter technique involved creating a rate of victimization and offenses for age, race and sex specific population categories for 1965 and then using population distribution estimates for 1974 and the number of homicides expected in 1974 based upon 1965 age, race and sex specific rates was calculated. The projected counts were then compared to real counts and an estimated number of excess homicides in 1974 was calculated. Descriptive analysis was presented throughout the paper.

The author concluded that the number and rate of homicides had increased in Chicago from 1965 to 1974. He discerned a pattern of homicide based on family feuds and arguments between friends. There was also a pattern of homicides based on robbery which had increased much more rapidly than homicides among family members and between friends. There had also been an increase in the number of black male victims and offenders. Much of the increase in homicide was accounted for by an increase in homicides with guns. The author also concluded...
that gun control legislation up to 1974 had not aided in preventing an increase in homicides by guns and that more effective controls were required. This study also reported some comparative data on whites, blacks and latinos.

Block, Richard

Using records of the Chicago Police Department for crimes of homicide, aggravated assault, and robbery over a ten-year period (1965-1974), Block analyzed the features of violent crime incidents which result in death or injury. The characteristics of violent crime were modeled by Block to include demographic factors (age, color, and sex of victim and offender), setting and environment of the crime, the actual crime event (including interaction of victim and offender), and the outcome of the crime (injury, death, success).

His analysis of the features of homicide, robbery, and aggravated assault showed that robbery and assault were two basically different forms of crime with the potential for death; and that homicide was a subset of all violent crime which was differentiated only by the characteristics affecting either fatality (use of a firearm) or police notification. Further analyses explored the ten-year trends in violent crime in Chicago, the environment of criminal violence, and the situational aspects of violent crime (victim-offender action and reaction).

In discussing the policy implications of his research, Block concluded that certain methods could be used to reduce some types of instrumental criminal violence (e.g., by "restructuring" poor communities and by reducing the availability of guns and increasing
penalties for the use of guns in crime). For criminal violence which was "non-intended" or "impulsive" (e.g., aggravated assault), Block argued that little could be done in the way of improved law enforcement techniques or penalties which could reduce this form of violent crime.

Bordua, David J. and Alan J. Lizotte

The purpose of this study was to develop a model which defines situational and cultural climates for legal firearms ownership. The analysis was based on aggregate county-level data collected for each of 102 counties in the State of Illinois. Firearms ownership was measured by the number of persons in each county holding Firearms Owners Identification Cards (FOIC). Sporting culture was measured by subscription to sporting-oriented magazines (Sports Afield, Field and Stream, and Outdoor Life).

A path analytic model was constructed to predict legal gun ownership for men, women and minors. Exogenous variables in the equations included: median income, percent of people below low income, percent net migration, percent population 18-34 year-old black, percent population who are veterans, percent urban, etc. Exogenous variables (with respect to FOIC variables) were total number of hunting permits, sporting magazine subscription rate, and violent crime rate. R² of the model was .49 for men's FOIC; .70 for women's FOIC; and .16 for minors' FOIC.

It was found that sporting culture variables are the only determinants of male FOIC ownership with violent crime having no effect. In turn, the percentage of veterans in a county is a strong indicator of sporting culture. Furthermore, minors' gun ownership is strongly influenced by men's ownership. Gun ownership among women, on the other hand, was correlated with high rates of violent crime. The results thus suggest that most gun ownership responds to a sporting culture, not to a culture
of violence. The authors suggest that further research should focus on women's gun ownership as it relates to self-defense.

The author looked at the social meaning of control as constructed through the polling practices of both pro and anti gun control groups. The author focused on 4 phases of opinion measurement of gun control. Phase one was dominated by pro-control forces who with an article by Hazel Erskine (1972) argued from the context of opinion polling that people wanted gun control. Phase two was characterized by the appearance of the National Rifle Association sponsored DMI Poll whose findings became a sophisticated counter to previous public opinion polls on gun control. Phase three centered on the 1976 Massachusetts referendum on whether to prohibit ownership of handguns. The "benchmark product" was Holmberg and Clancey's post-mortem analysis of why the referendum failed. Phase four dealt with the appearance of two major studies, a pro-gun control study by Caddell and an anti-gun control study by NRA and DMI.

The paper focused on phase two and three, arguing that the Massachusetts referendum provided a "test" of the competing interpretations and meanings of firearms and gun control to the public. Though no statistical analysis was presented, findings from the 1975 DMI study, the 1977 Caddell-Massachusetts study and the 1977 Illinois study (Bordua et al) were used throughout the paper.

The author assessed the findings of the DMI study using his...
own 1977 Illinois study as a check. Counter to the pro-control argument, NRA concluded from the DMI data that only 13.5% of the public mentioned crime as an important national problem and only 18% saw it as an important problem in their county. In addition, only 10% thought steps like gun control should be taken to reduce crime. In other words, gun control and crime control were not seen as synonymous to the general public.

The author assessed the questions and responses used to tap:
1) salience of gun control, 2) effectiveness in crime control of firearm regulation, 3) compliance with gun control laws, 4) protection as a motivation for gun ownership and, 5) civil liberties or the right to bear arms as a form of anti-gun control beliefs and 6) attitudes towards specific gun control measures. Overall the DMI study found no real support for gun control or bans among the general population. The author concluded that the public doesn't care about gun control, nor would it be effective in reducing crimes and that ownership of guns is an appropriate means of protection. He also concluded that gun control is a civil liberties issue. The author's own data, though at times slightly at variance with the DMI findings, showed that the pro-gun control lobby turned out to be more in tune with the general public opinion than did the anti-gun lobby's findings. A test of this assertion, the author claimed, was the 1976 Massachusetts referendum calling for a ban on private ownership of handguns. Of the 77% of all eligible voters who voted on the handgun proposition, 69% opposed the ban. The author concluded that the pro control lobby misread the attitudes of the public towards gun controls.
of their jurisdictions (e.g. population density or violent crime ratio) strongly opposed the placing of restrictions on long gun ownership and rejected the restriction of handguns for home and business use. There was some variation of results with officials from high-crime areas and correspondingly from areas with large police departments voicing opposition to the carrying of handguns.

General agreement was reported on the need to ban "Saturday Night Specials", mandatory sentencing for illegal use and possession of firearms and on registering and identification of handguns.


Brill’s study centered on the following: (1) the types of firearms used in specific types of violent crimes; (2) firearms commerce, including interstate traffic, firearm theft, and age of crime-related firearms; (3) an assessment of federal and local police efforts in responding to and enforcing current firearms regulations; and (4) an identification of the data collection gaps on firearms production and confiscation.

Ten cities were studied by Brill: Atlanta, Baltimore, Boston, Chicago, Detroit, Houston, New York, Philadelphia, San Francisco, and Washington, DC. These cities were compared with respect to their 1974 UCR rates of murder, robbery, and assault and the types of weapons used in these incidents and (2) their 1974 or 1975 police department ballistic reports and reports on confiscated firearms. Brill used the UCR data to rank order cities by their firearms abuse rate (rate/100,000 of murder, robbery, and assault committed with firearms), by a choice-availability measure (proportion of murders, robberies, and assaults committed with firearms), and their overall ranking by the UCR 7 index offenses. Firearms confiscated in the 10 study cities were analyzed with respect to (1) rates of confiscation, (2) "police effort measure" (firearms confiscation rate divided by firearms abuse rate), (3) types of firearms confiscated, (4) location of confiscations, and (5) leading manufacturers of firearms confiscated.
In an effort to resolve the findings of ATF's Project Identification study on confiscated handguns in 16 cities with his results, Brill uncovered a number of problems with the ATF study which he argued led to some misleading conclusions. Specifically, Brill found that (1) perhaps 20-25% of handguns confiscated may not have been associated with any criminal violation, (2) some unspecified amount of pre-screening by police departments and the ATF trace center excluded an unknown number of "old guns" from the study, and (3) confiscated handguns are continually referred to as "street crime" guns in the ATF study, when Brill's research revealed that roughly 20-30% of handguns confiscated were literally related to "street" incidents.

Features of handguns confiscated in Brill's study cities are, however, similar to the profile of those in ATF's study: about 40-45% had calibers of .32 or greater, about half were "cheap" (i.e., worth less than $50-60), and about half had a street age of 3 years or less.

Brill pointed to two important areas for future research: (1) the extent to which the firearms market is highly integrated on a nationwide basis with particular manufacturers consistently represented in confiscated handgun samples and (2) the degree to which stolen firearms constitute an important source of handguns eventually associated with criminal use.

A comparison of the 10 cities police departments' policies with respect to the handling, storage, and disposal of confiscated firearms was made that revealed large variation among large police departments in their firearms handling practices. Brill concluded with an analysis of the regulatory potential which ATF presently has, but does not implement or cannot enforce in controlling firearms commerce.
This is a comprehensive and critical evaluation of several arguments commonly advanced in favor of "stricter gun controls." As such, the article is commonly recognized as a classic in the polemical literature. The author emphasizes that there is no credible research to show that gun laws affect violent crime. International comparisons of crime rates and gun laws are inherently meaningless, since there are vast differences in culture, history, law, and social structure from one nation to the next. No one has yet realistically calculated the probable costs of national "gun-control" legislation of any sort; under plausible assumptions, the costs are likely to be high, and the effects on crime incommensurate. Implementation and enforcement of such legislation would also be problematic. Gun ownership is an element in certain American subcultures whose values are different from the liberal, urban values of gun control advocates. Under the conditions that exist in the contemporary society of the United States, gun control has practically nothing to do with crime control.
Third, do patterns of acquisition and transfer of handguns among the offenders differ significantly from those patterns observed among non-offenders? Fourth, the study wanted to determine which characteristics distinguished handgun offenders from the non-offenders. Fifth, the study wanted to assess the effectiveness of the "three years to life" mandatory sentence law for use of a firearm during the commission of specific felony offenses.

Among other things, the study concluded that there was little support for the extreme handgun strategies of either complete prohibition or no restrictions. There was support for handgun registration (77%), a "cooling-off" period prior to purchasing a handgun (78%), and a requirement of financial responsibility as a condition for handgun ownership (70%).

Approximately 76% of all felony handguns and 51% of all privately owned handguns were acquired by their owners in a manner that circumvented Federal and State laws relating to handgun ownership and transfers. Finally, a set of recommendations based on the study's findings were included in the report.

This study attempted to investigate the hypothesis whether or no there is a relationship between firing a weapon and enhancing aggression.

In addition to the experimental treatment used in Berkowitz and LePage's study, this study also included firing a small airpowered rifle; otherwise, the research design and procedure are generally similar to Berkowitz and LePage (1967). About 100 undergraduate subjects were assigned to five experimental conditions. Analysis of variance was used to analyze the data. No evidence was found that the presence or firing of guns enhances subsequent aggression.

The author wanted to investigate the effects of parental influence and socialization on gun ownership and attitudes toward ownership. In addition, social background variables were measured to determine the social conditions under which relationships between parental ownership, victimization, gun control, and attitudes toward gun control operated. The author used a broader measure of victimization, one which extended five years into the past and that included close acquaintances, so that the measure might detect a relationship where narrower definitions did not. A seventeen item questionnaire was administered to 467 night students enrolled at California State College in San Bernardino. No mention of how the students were sampled was made. The analysis consisted of zero-order and conditional correlations. Females accounted for 49% of the sample, males for 51%.

Approximately 57% of respondents' parents owned guns and 52% of the respondents owned guns. Gun ownership and opposition to controls were highly correlated. In addition, parental ownership and victimization are positively related to gun ownership, though victimization was the weaker correlation.

The author concluded that victims of crime whose parents owned guns were much more likely to own guns and oppose gun control legislation. It appeared that this largely white middle-aged, middle-income group had simply converted from sporting to defensive use of guns. Those whose parents did not own guns were more likely to react to victimization by not owning guns and by favoring gun control. Finally the author claimed that each group appeared to be reacting to the rising tide of illegal violence and crime on the basis of predisposition and a rational calculation for survival.
California Department of Justice.


This series of reports prepared by the California Bureau of Criminal Justice began in the early 1960's. Earlier reports used limited sources of data; however, as a result of additional data collection methods, reports now present a much more comprehensive report on crimes of homicide.

The 1973 report provided statistical data on total homicides, number of peace officers killed, number of persons killed by police officers, other willful homicides and type of weapon used. In addition, breakdown of number of suspected homicides by jurisdiction was presented. A section on homicide among citizens is provided which includes victim's age by sex, circumstance (e.g., spouse kills spouse, robbery, rape, etc.) and race. Tables are included on victim's age by homicide and rate per 100,000 population. Most of the statistics are presented using race as a control and tables are presented on the age, sex, race of the victim by the race, sex and age of the offender. Finally a table on multiple homicides occurring in 1972 and 1973 is provided.

The 1974-1976 report had changes in the presentation and detail of homicide statistics. The report is divided into two parts: first, a focus on willful homicide, and second, a focus on justifiable homicide. The report contains data on willful homicides for each year from 1971 to 1976, rates of homicides per 100,000 since 1954 to 1976 by county. A second section deals with the victims of homicide for years 1974 to 1976 and presents data on willful homicide crimes by victim's age and sex and by type of weapon, circumstance precipitating the event, victim-offender relationship. Data on offender's age and sex and prior criminal record and disposition of those arrested for homicide are also presented.

The report contains tables on police officers killed, weapon used and precipitating event. In addition, data are provided on justifiable homicides by peace officers, by the sex and race of the victim, weapon used and precipitating event and by the same control variables used in justifiable homicides by private citizens.

The 1977 report provides the same tables as the 1974-1976 report and in addition provides breakdowns on willful homicides and use of hand-guns and long guns in residential and non-residential areas. Willful homicides were also presented by size of county, victim's race, location of homicide by victim's age and sex and by victim's wound area. Further tables include arrests for murder by county of arrest, disposition of cases involving adults arrested for murder, type of disposition by arrestee's age and sex.
This report was based on the findings of a 1978 sample survey representative of the total United States adult population (N=1500). Purpose of the study was to measure citizen awareness, knowledge of and experience with handguns. It also measured the public's reaction to the concept of gun control. Analysis consisted of cross-tabulations using standard socio-demographic variables as controls.

The study found that approximately 25% of all U.S. households have at least one handgun. Twice as many households in the South and Central regions have handguns as do households in other parts of the country. The main reason given for ownership of a handgun was protection; however, it is noted that only 3% of those households which have handguns for protection had ever used them for self-defense. Where there was a handgun owner in the household, handgun accidents were more likely to occur (7%) than in households where no handgun was present (2%). The report estimates that at least one in seven adults have had either a close relative or friend involved in a gun accident and that in 50% of these accidents someone was killed. With respect to handgun violence, at least one adult in nine had been attacked or threatened with a handgun and 20% of these cases resulted in injury.

Respondents were given 17 handgun proposals to be evaluated on a 4 point scale ranging from strongly favor to strongly oppose. A substantial majority, over 80%, favored some kind of handgun registration.

A somewhat smaller yet clear majority, 75%, wanted some form of licensing of handguns. Respondents also favored mandatory sentences for persons using a gun in a crime (83%) but there was a somewhat smaller proportion (55%) who favored mandatory sentences for all persons carrying a gun without a license. Most respondents (58%) opposed a ban on the future manufacture and sale of all handguns and were also clearly opposed to using public funds to buy back and destroy existing handguns on either a mandatory (62%) or voluntary (56%) basis.

Respondents placed themselves on a seven point scale which ranged from favoring to oppose the banning of all private ownership of handguns. A majority, 51% opposed such a ban, 31% were in favor and almost 20% were somewhere in the middle. Respondents were also asked to agree or disagree with a series of arguments raised by opponents and proponents of handgun licensing. Small majorities disagreed with the statements that licensing would prevent law-abiding citizens from protecting themselves, that it would violate people's constitutional rights and that licensing is another government step in interfering with people's lives and freedoms. No majority of opinion was reached on the idea that licensing will diffuse the pressure for total gun control, that it is the first step in confiscating all guns and that licensing would reduce crime.
Firearms Control — A Select Bibliography. Toronto, Canada: Centre of Criminology, University of Toronto, 37 pp.

This unannotated bibliography includes English language publications falling mostly in the time period 1960-1976. The following topics are addressed: general issues and problems of control, firearms legislation (statutes and commentaries), and specific aspects of firearms control (constitutional issues; handguns, firearms, and the police; firearms and violent behavior). An appendix presents organizations and publications concerned with the firearms question.

Clotfelter, Charles T.

This study empirically estimated the effects of crime and civil disorder on the demand for handguns. Data on handgun sales were gathered from six states that require sales records over a period of years: Connecticut, Indiana, Michigan, Maryland, New York, and Pennsylvania. Annual observations for these five states were pooled together to yield a sample of the 48 observations. In addition, data for 23 counties in Maryland plus Baltimore City yielded 192 observations pooled over 8 years. The rest of the data were gathered from a variety of sources which included The New York Times, national polls, UCR, etc.

Regression analysis was used to analyze the data. The annual stock of handguns was regressed on several independent variables: number of incidents of civil disorder, population size, per capita income, homicide rate per 100,000, other violent crimes per 100,000, percent of black, etc. This study focused on fear of crime and civil disorders to explain the pattern of handgun sales.

It was found that although crime rates were not statistically significant factors in handgun demand, the extent of urban riots in the nation at large was a significant determinant, with the previous year's disorders being less important than the current year's. Furthermore, income, racial composition, etc., were unable to explain the upward trend in sales of handguns.
The purpose of this report was to present the major arguments for and against gun control. After the arguments had been presented a discussion of the issues relevant to these positions was made. Attempts were also made to present evidence on the tenability of certain assertions. A digest of the Gun Control Act of 1968 (Public Law 90-619, H.R. 17735) was also included.

A brief discussion of the gun control program in England was presented and was followed by a discussion of the gun control provisions in the state of Ohio, cities, New York State and New York City.

This report attempted to analyze the extent of firearm use in violent crime; the relationships between firearm availability, violent crime, and handgun control; and the costs of various types of gun control systems. The report recommended that the development and enactment of further legislation restricting handgun availability be made by Congress. Although this report provided a beginning source of information on debates within the firearms control and violent crime relationship, it did not address the implications or efficacy of its policy recommendations.

While it suggested that handgun availability should be reduced, if offered no clear evidence that this could be done or that it might actually reduce violent crime. Although as the title implies, this was a study of the "effectiveness and costs" of handgun control, there was no analysis of the costs and benefits associated with the implementation of more uniform handgun regulations nationwide.
This study develops a "strategic choice" analysis as a perspective to organize the empirical data on urban robbery and yield some insights into the role of guns in robbery. Strategic choice analysis posits that observed robbery patterns are the aggregative results of choices made by individual robbers, and that these choices can be understood in terms of the robber's need to intimidate his victim and his desire to acquire as much money as possible with the minimum effort.

The sample of this study was 8,816 noncommercial robberies taken from the National Crime surveys during 1972-1973. The data are nationally representative.

It was found that robbers tend to choose victims with similar demographic characteristics such as race, sex, and age. Regarding patterns of weapon use, the proportion of gun robberies varies by these demographic characteristics. Guns are less likely to be used by single offenders than by multiple offenders. Furthermore, less potent (i.e., unarmed) robbers tend to choose more vulnerable victims (women, elderly, etc.), while more potent (i.e., armed) robbers tend to choose less vulnerable victims. There is a positive relationship between serious injuries and property losses, and between the deadliness of the offender's weapon and the amount of property loss. Gun robberies, that is, are more lucrative. Finally, gun robberies are less likely (than knife or unarmed robberies) to result in an injury requiring medical care or other serious injury, but more likely to result in the victim's death.

This study attempted to analyze the relationship between gun availability and the robbery crime for the 50 largest U.S. cities. Data were gathered from Uniform Crime Reports and National Crime Panel surveys. Gun density or availability in each city was measured by the average of the percent of suicides committed with a gun and the percent of homicides committed with a gun. This measure, although indirect, correlates respectably well with available survey data for the same cities. The dependent variables were the robbery rate per 1,000 population, and the gun and nongun robbery rates per 1,000. The independent variables included the gun density index, gun regulations, crime rates other than for robbery, regional variables, and other social-demographic variables.

The general findings of this study were: (1) an increase in the density of guns in a city has no effect on the overall robbery rate but is associated with an increase in the proportion of robberies which involve a gun; (2) the per capita rates of gun and nongun robbery murder are closely proportionate across cities to the rates of gun and nongun robbery, respectively; (3) gun robberies are almost three times as likely to result in the death of the victim as nongun robberies. This implies that the per capita rate of robbery murder increases with the density of guns in a city. Finally, state regulations requiring purchase permits have little if any direct effect on the robber's choice of weapon, but this does not take the quality of the state's enforcement into account.
Cook, Philip J.

Cook discussed the policy debates over proposed legislation to eliminate cheap and easily concealable handguns, the so-called "Saturday Night Specials." He examined the potential crime reduction effects of a ban on domestic sales of these types of guns.

He found that concealability and price were the two main characteristics of handguns that have a direct link to use in crime. However, other characteristics usually attributed to "Saturday Night Specials," e.g., small caliber and poor quality were relevant factors insofar as these features were related to price and size.

Data on guns confiscated during ATF's Project Identification and Operation CUE were used in his analysis. From a policy perspective, concealability was found to be the major feature of "crime guns," but the price factor was almost impossible to determine, given existing data. Cook concluded that small caliber handguns were not overrepresented as "crime guns."

Cook, Philip J.

Using Edward Jones III and Maria Ray's (1980) tabulations of state and local firearms regulations, Cook analyzed the proportions of the U.S. population presently required to undergo police review to purchase a handgun. He estimated that as of 1977, approximately two-thirds of the population were subject to various types of police checks in buying a handgun.

In addition to making these estimates, Cook presented a brief survey of the historical developments of federal controls on firearms, and loopholes in past laws and the current Gun Control Act of 1968. State regulations were briefly and succinctly reviewed, in addition to a selection of some local jurisdictions' regulations. The paper provided a descriptive analysis of the types of handgun regulations currently in place, emphasizing the increasing role of states and local jurisdictions in controlling handgun sales.
Cook, Philip J.  
1980  "Reducing Injury and Death Rates in Robbery."  

The purpose of this study was to develop recommendations for the effective sentencing of robbery defendants, especially armed robbers who cause injury or death to their victims. Data were gathered from a variety of sources, mainly the Criminal Victimization Surveys (with 10,000 reported robberies), Prosecutors Management Information System for Washington, D.C. (with 1,302 robbery cases), and local police and court files in a few cities (about 67 cases).

The local data from Atlanta and Dade County, Florida, and the victimization survey data, showed that most robbery murders are apparently the result of a decision to kill or at least to do great harm to an unresisting victim, rather than the result of victim resistance or other provocation. Further, groups of three or more robbers are much more likely to assault and injure the victim. Other analysis suggests that robbers who cause injury tend to be less professional and more violence-prone than other robbers. The author suggests that the amount of gratuitous violence in robberies might well be reduced through incapacitation and deterrence if robbers who injured their victims were singled out for relatively harsh treatment in the court.

Finally, the author argues that a gun emphasis policy in prosecution and sentencing might reduce the robbery murder rate to the extent that it caused reductions in the gun robbery rate, but at the cost of increased robbery injury through the substitution of other weapons for guns in robbery.

Cook, Philip J.  
1981a  "The Effect of Gun Availability on Violent Crime Patterns."  

In the face of little hard evidence and much heated debate, Cook outlined the implications of various "gun control" strategies on the distribution, seriousness, and incidence of violent crimes. He focused on patterns of victim-offender relationships, types of weapons used, and injury sustained for crimes of criminal homicide, robbery, and serious assault. Empirical studies by Zimring, Skogan, Conklin, and Cook's previous work are presented.

Cook found that higher gun use in criminal homicide and robbery is associated with less vulnerable targets or victims. Thus, for homicide, a reduction in gun availability may reduce the least vulnerable types of potential victims (e.g., law enforcement officers, people with bodyguards, youthful men). For robbery, there may be a reduction of commercial robberies or of well-defended victims. The implications of Cook's "vulnerability" thesis is that a reduction in gun availability would change the distribution of violent crime victims, with greater concentration on vulnerable victims.

Examining the seriousness of violent crime (injury or death from incidents), both the assailant's intent and the lethality of the weapon are related to the probability of injury or death. "Intent" to harm or kill varies over time and differs from city to city, although Cook argued that the number of deliberate (unambiguously intended) deaths from gun assaults or robberies is
low compared to those that are ambiguous or occur in the "heat of the moment." The presence of a gun in a robbery reduces the chances of injury to a victim but increases the likelihood of death compared to other weapons used. Thus, for both assault and robbery a pattern of greater "objective danger" is found with guns compared to other weapons. Cook believed that a reduction in the availability of guns would increase the robbery injury rate (i.e., the weapon substitution thesis), but reduce the robbery death rate.

In examining the impact of the reduction of gun availability on the incidence of criminal violence, Cook argued that it is unlikely that violent confrontations and attacks would be reduced, but that the criminal homicide rate would decline. Cook concluded that the various types of "gun controls" are not a cure nor a solution to the "violent crime problem." However, such controls may reduce deaths from violent crime.


Essentially an expansion of an article in the Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences (see Cook, 1981a). Expansion consists of sections on the measurement of the availability of guns and the "effective price" of weapons in which the author reviews and evaluates alternative measurement modes. A short section concludes the pamphlet on suggested future research, including further empirical work on how criminals obtain their weapons and further theoretical work on the modelling of the use of weapons in crime.

Reviewing the screening provisions of the 1968 Gun Control Act and those of the several states, the authors come to the conclusion that Federal provisions are extremely weak and easily circumvented, while most state systems that are more restrictive are also weak in reliance on record systems that are far from complete. Thus the Federal laws only require that a licensed dealer not knowingly sell to an out-of-state purchaser or someone who falls within some specified category (e.g., convicted felon, illegal alien, etc.). State systems which require police clearance tend to fail because insufficient time is given for the clearance process and/or because e.g., good centralized records of convicted felons or former mental patients do not exist. The authors suggest that a screening system which would make it difficult to become a dealer (and hence make it easier to regulate the fewer dealers that would result), and place some of the responsibility for positive screening on the dealer would be effective. Screening systems that would delay possession of a weapon long enough for a thorough records check would also raise the effectiveness of a screening system.

(Appears to be a shortened and edited version of CO 039.)

This was a good and easily understandable review of current handgun controls and an analysis of the impact of instituting the proposed Handgun Crime Control Act (HCCA). Features of the Gun Control Act of 1968 (GCA) were compared to the HCCA, and a review of current state and local firearms regulations was presented.

Cook and Blose's assessment of the feasibility and cost of the transfer and registration provisions of the HCCA concluded that the licensing provisions are similar to those already in effect in half of the states, and that manufacturer and importer receipt of dealer sales records was entirely feasible. These features of the HCCA, the authors felt, were not "radical departure from the status quo."

However, they suggested that it was difficult to foresee whether there would be citizen compliance with and effective enforcement of the provision that all handgun transactions be recorded by a licensed dealer. Another immediate problem identified was the degree to which individual states could perform the necessary criminal record checks, specifically, the extent to which information on individuals was complete and accessible. Since not all states could conduct reliable criminal record checks, and not all states have licensing requirements requiring such checks, the FBI's identification division might be utilized. However, the authors noted that existing FBI regulations and federal statutes governing FBI activities currently do not permit FBI criminal record checks unless states enact authorizing legislation. Thus, if the HCCA were implemented, some states could block the use of FBI criminal record checks, and effectively block the implementation of the HCCA.
The purpose of this study was to evaluate the policy of giving priority to defendants accused of firearms crimes in comparison with those accused of crimes with other weapons. Data were gathered from Prosecutor's Management Information System (PROMIS) in the District of Columbia for the years 1973-1976. It was found that firearms offenders are no more likely than other offenders to recidivate over the period of the study. Further, the crimes of firearms offenders who did recidivate were no more serious than those of other recidivators. Thus, there is no discernible effect of firearms use on subsequent criminality.

The more lethal the weapon used to commit a robbery, the less likely the victim is to be attacked or injured. However, when an attack does occur, the likelihood that the victim will be killed increases with the lethality of the weapon.

Weapon defendants are more likely to be convicted and incarcerated than other offenders, and receive, on the average, longer sentences. This was true for all types of weapons, whether gun, knife, or something else. The authors thus suggest that there is a weapon emphasis rather than a specific gun emphasis in the D.C. Superior Court.


This book described in detail the many features of the four major UCR-defined violent crimes (criminal homicide, rape, aggravated assault, and robbery). A 10% random sample of offense and arrest reports was obtained from police departments in 17 major U.S. cities during 1967. These data were analyzed with respect to the following: (1) victim-offender racial composition, (2) victim-offender interpersonal relationship, (3) motives of offender, (4) victim precipitation during the incident, (5) weapon used and injury incurred, and (6) spatial and distance patterns. City and regional variations in each of these areas were explored; in addition, comparisons were made of the 17-city aggregate and violent crime data from other countries.

Unifying this analysis were comparisons of the 17-city violent crime patterns with those of other single-city analyses of violent crime. Similarities and differences among the four violent crimes were discussed, and an overall descriptive assessment of national and regional patterns of violent crime was presented.
This study analyzed 57 gunshot homicides in home settings in Wayne County, Michigan over a three-month period in 1969. Information was collected from the medical examiner's office, police files, and the prosecuting attorney's office. The data indicated that homicide victims were predominantly black (90%), male (over 70%), under 30 years of age, unemployed, and poorly educated. Likewise, the majority of killers were black (about 71%) and male (about 61%). Revolvers and shotguns were most frequently used in these homicides; very few of these weapons were registered. Over half the homicides occurred on weekends; 48% occurred from 6:00 p.m. to 6:00 a.m. Marital conflict was the most important precipitating event (36%), followed by interfamilial conflict (21%), and parent-child conflict (12%). Only 12% involved strangers.
The author proposed a plan that would have reduced firearm induced violence in Michigan but which may have been generalizable to other locations. The objective of the plan was to focus on violence that occurs between neighbors and friends, that is, violence involving persons who can lawfully purchase firearms. The author's plan was devised to build upon existing Michigan state laws forbidding persons who are mentally incompetent or disturbed or who have been convicted of a crime from purchasing firearms.

The author called for the establishment of an agency which would have collected information on persons admitted to either a public or private psychiatric hospital or who were convicted for a crime of violence. The plan would have required the cooperation of hospitals to fill out a registry card and forward it to a Central Violence Control Registry. Dealers would have to check with the Registry before selling weapons or ammunitions to a "registered" person. The aim of the plan was not to remove firearms from persons or limit rights to bear arms but rather to keep firearms from persons deemed most dangerous. Registered persons would have the right to appeal any decision made by the Violence Control Registry.

Studies of the relationship between violence and firearms possession are reviewed and conclusions drawn. Studies conclusively show that where firearms are readily available, they will be frequently used as a method of killing. Reduction in the availability of firearms, however, cannot be shown unequivocally to cause a significant reduction in the rate of violent deaths. This suggests that, in the absence of firearms, persons who intent to cause death as a means of coping with conflict and frustration and resolving perceived difficulties will find other means for achieving their ends. The absence of clear conclusions about the results to be achieved from strict gun control suggests that a policy of permitting gun ownership for those who meet certain standards while prohibiting it to those considered high-risk would be a rational compromise between the extremes of those favoring and opposing gun control. A handgun user, whether that person uses guns for sport or protection, would be required to undergo screening procedures, such as suitable psychological tests that could be quickly administered. Persons with criminal records or histories of mental illness would not be permitted to own guns. Also, before any approved applicant could purchase a firearm, he/she would be required to produce a training certificate from an approved course in firearms use and safety. A refresher course would be necessary before each license renewal. References are provided.
This report presents results and findings from two surveys on gun control and related issues done by DMI under commission to the National Rifle Association. Both surveys (one face-to-face, the other by telephone) are based on national probability samples of registered voters; both were conducted in 1978. Topics covered include: gun ownership, reasons for gun ownership, uses of firearms in self-defense, crime and fear of crime, opinions about gun control in general, opinions about gun control as a means of crime control, and related issues. An extensive discussion of the substantive results of the surveys, and a comparison between them and results from a Caddell poll of the same year, are available in Wright (1981).

Deiner, Edward and Rick Crandall
1979 "An Evaluation of the Jamaican Anticrime Program."

In 1974 Jamaica implemented a sweeping anticrime package which included severe penalties for illegal possession of guns, censorship of gun scenes from television and movies, and greatly broadened police powers. The purpose of this study was to assess the impacts of these programs. Jamaican crime statistics from 1964 to 1975 were gathered from governmental sources. Data were analyzed by quasi-experimental time series analysis.

It was found that there were overall declines for all categories of crime available for analysis after the implementation of the anticrime package. Both the monthly and long-term yearly data indicated a significant decrease in crime. Specifically, during the first year after enactment, there was a 14% reduction in homicide, a 32% reduction in rapes, a 25% reduction in robberies, and a 37% reduction in nonfatal shootings. A further analysis showed that in a one year period, both gun and nongun crimes dropped. It was concluded that anticrime measures of these sorts can reduce crime. The authors suggest that the reason for the reduction in crime was mainly fear of apprehension and lengthy imprisonment, rather than a decrease in number of guns in circulation.
This study attempted to explore the reasons behind gun ownership and to study the personalities of gun-owners. The total sample contained 37 male gun-owners and a comparison sample of 23 nongun-owners matched on SES, living area, occupational level, education, and age. Data were mainly analyzed by Chi-square test and principle component analysis. Both standard psychological tests (Thematic Apperception, the F Scale, and the California Psychological Inventory) and a questionnaire were administered to all subjects.

It was found that gun-owners tend to have early socialization experiences with guns and grew up in rural areas or small towns, compared with nongunowners. Recreation was cited by most subjects as the primary reason for owning a gun. The gun-owners were more likely to have personalities which were characterized by lower sociability and higher need for power than the nongun-owners. However, there was no evidence that the average gun-owner exhibits atypical or abnormal personality characteristics. The arrest and conviction rate was somewhat (although not significantly) higher among gun-owners than nongun-owners. The small, atypical sample seriously limits the generalizability of these findings.
In April, 1975, Massachusetts passed a law that mandates a one-year minimum sentence on conviction of carrying a firearms without a license. This study attempted to assess the impact of this law on the incidence of homicide, assault with a gun, and armed robbery in Boston. The data were collected from monthly offense reports provided by the City of Boston from January 1966 to October 1975.

A rather complicated time-series model was used to analyze the data. The results indicate that the law significantly reduced armed robbery and gun assault, but not homicide, presumably because most homicide occurs in the home, where the law does not apply. On the other hand, the reductions in armed robbery and assault were substantial, amounting, in the case of armed robbery, to a 27% decrease in the months immediately following passage.

The two additional articles listed in the heading for this abstract are comments and rejoinder generated by the first article. Hay and McCleary dispute on technical and substantive grounds the particular ARIMA model used to capture the characteristics of the time series used by Deutsch and Alt, claiming that other models more faithfully and persis-
Violence-related items from a 1973 national survey of 1,504 persons are examined to explore at the microlevel the validity of the concept of a Southern regional subculture of violence. Analysis of the survey data reveals that lifelong residency in the South increases the probability of owning a gun and of being opposed to gun control regulation. However, being a Southerner is negatively associated with the likelihood of having been assaulted and of granting approval to assaultive behavior. Examination of other variables (age, race, sex) shows that sex, not regional residency, exerts the most pronounced influence on violence-related measures. The survey data do not confirm the existence of a divergent value system among Southerners. It is suggested that if a regional culture of violence once existed in the South, it has vanished over the years. A list of references is included.
Drooz, Richard B.
1977

This article was a statistical and substantive critique of C. Browning's article, "Handguns and Homicides: A Public Health Problem" (JAMA, 1976). Drooz claims that Browning's assertion that a very large proportion of homicides are accounted for by intrafamily crimes of passion has been disproved by a 1975 New York City Police Department study which found that intrafamily killings made up 5.5% of homicides, whereas 91.9% of homicides involved a killer and victim who were unrelated. The author also states that Browning, who compares the U.S. homicide rate with that of other countries and found the U.S. rate 3.5 to 10 higher, hides the fact that in two of those countries, Israel and Switzerland, virtually the entire population is armed. The author argues that although there were 2.5 million new handguns sold in the U.S., it is not surprising given an expanding population and the number of persons whose occupation require them to carry guns. Drooz criticizes Browning for stating that a loaded firearm is 6 times more likely to accidentally kill a family member without also mentioning that most firearms are unloaded when stored away. The author also criticizes Browning for quoting findings which claim "high rates of gun ownership are associated with high rates of gun violence" because the same author that Browning cites later modified this claim by acknowledging that increases in firearm crimes were occurring in areas with lower than average gun ownership rates.

El-Guebaly, N. and M Lee
1977

It has been noticed that law enforcement agencies and workers in the field of alcoholism are regularly exposed to the dilemma of having to deal with an intoxicated person in possession of a gun uttering homicidal or suicidal threats. This study attempted to undertake a preliminary survey of individuals with problems arising from the joint abuse of alcohol and possession of a gun, the goal being to identify significant characteristics that might be helpful in screening potential gun misusers.

Data were obtained from drug-related referrals of the Royal Ottawa Hospital. Among the 592 referrals, a total of 20 male alcoholics with gun problems were picked out and were also matched by time of referral, age (within 5 years) and socioeconomic class with 20 control alcoholics. Chi-square tests were used to statistically compare the alcoholics with gun problems, their controls, and the total referrals. The results mainly indicated that the alcoholics with gun problems were not significantly different from other groups in terms of personal and familial variables, marital status, major drug used, emotional problem, etc. However, potential violence, measured by the Nicol's Violence Scale, was found to be higher among experimentals than controls.
One hundred and four male undergraduates were used in an unsuccessful replication of the experiment by Berkowitz and LePage (1967). Contrasting the initial 1967 results, there is no observed "weapons effect" on aggression in these data.

Ellis, Desmond P., Paul Weiner, and Louie Miller, III

This piece consists of two parts: first, a critique of some previous literature dealing with the "Southern subculture of violence," and secondly, a presentation of original data bearing on the theme. Concerning the first, the author notes that the concept of a "Southern culture" has not been fully explicated in prior work. The "Southern culture" effect has been taken, in essence, as the residual regional effect left over once certain selected background variables have been controlled. Thus, structural or demographic variables that are not controlled may account for the residual regional effect, independently of any "Southern culture." Direct measures of Southern culture would be needed to confirm a subcultural explanation.

Original data presented in the article come from three sources: the 1968 Harris survey commissioned by the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, a 1966 survey of criminal victimization, and data collected by the author in Wisconsin and North Carolina. Key findings from all three sources are as follows:

(i) Contrasting the basic descriptive finding from which the subcultural thesis derives, aggravated assaults are less common in the South than outside it. Self-reported fist-fighting was also lower among Southerners.

(ii) In general, Southern migrants to the north were also less likely to report fist-fighting than native-born Northerners. (iii) Finally,
general attitudinal approval of violence was as high outside the South as within it. For various reasons discussed by the author, none of these findings is definitive with respect to the subcultural theory, but they do suggest, in contrast to the theory, that "violence itself is probably not a prominent part of the normative system of the South" (p. 488).


This study compiles and discusses public opinion data on gun control and gun ownership issues from a variety of polls dating back to 1938. Two-thirds or more of the U.S. electorate has wanted access to guns to come under some kind of official supervision for as long as modern polling has been in existence. Even a majority of gun owners themselves believe guns should be registered (61% in 1971). The level of support for gun registration has been surprisingly stable, even throughout the 1960's violence, assassinations, and other firearms abuse.

Since 1959, and with only a few exceptions, both Gallup and Harris have found 48% to 51% of American households possessing a weapon of some kind. Gun ownership is higher in rural areas than urban areas, and higher in the South than elsewhere.
This study examines the relationships among gun control "leniency," firearms availability, and violent crime across selected cities, states, and nations. For cities and states, there is no apparent relationship between gun control leniency and the homicide rate; homicide responds more to population density, growth rate, and general socio-economic conditions than to the leniency of extant gun laws. The authors argue that this is because there is insufficient variance in gun control leniency across U.S. cities and states, and for this reason, they regard international comparisons as more informative. Comparisons of the U.S. with 11 other nations show that gun laws are generally stricter, and homicides lower, elsewhere than in the United States, but there are too many sources of uncontrolled variation across these nations to have much confidence in the zero-order result.
Farberow and Schneidman estimated that the ratio of attempted to completed suicides was 8:1. The authors then compared the rates of attempted to completed suicides by examining the means taken to commit suicide. They found that there was a higher incidence of female than male suicidal attempts, but a lower incidence of the use of more lethal means by females attempting suicide.

To examine possible demographic and attitudinal correlates of crime defense orientations (self- or police protection), data from black and white nationwide modified probability samples were assessed. The data were from a 1968 survey by Opinion Research Corporation and were based on interviews with 551 whites and 468 blacks. Of the blacks, 65 percent indicated that they had to be prepared to defend their own homes against crime and violence, while only 24 percent felt this should be left to the police. Of the white sample, 52 percent felt self-defense was needed while 41 percent were willing to leave protection to the police. Blacks under 30 years old were the most likely of all respondents to support a self-defense orientation. Among blacks, self-defense orientation decreases with age; among whites there are only slight age-related differences in orientation. Among blacks, those living in the Northeast and North Central regions were most likely to be home-defense oriented, while Southern and Western blacks were least defense oriented. However, Southern whites were the most likely to be home defense oriented and a majority of North-Central whites were self-defense oriented. The majority of Northeastern and Western whites were willing to leave protection to the police. For whites, self-protection orientation decreases with population density, while the opposite is true for blacks: rural whites and blacks in large urban areas were most self-defense oriented. Among both blacks and whites, the highest socioeconomic status respondents were the least
likely to be home-defense oriented. Both blacks and whites who were
defense-oriented were more likely to own a gun and more likely to know
others who had bought a gun for self-protection than were those who
were police-oriented. In general, self-defense orientation tended to
be associated with both a fear of crime and violence and a critical
attitude toward police capabilities of providing adequate protection
for the home and family. In regard to police actions against rioting
blacks, self-defense oriented whites felt police were too soft, while
the majority of blacks felt police were too brutal. Home defense-
oriented whites were more likely to hold generally negative attitudes
towards blacks than were police-oriented whites. While there has not
as yet been large-scale violence or wholesale breakdown of stability
and legality despite the increasing emphasis on private home-defense
measures and protective organizations, findings suggest that there is
a significant potential for the breakdown of law and order. References
and tabular data are provided.

Fischer, Donald G., Harold Kelm, and Ann Rose
1969 "Knives as Aggression-Eliciting Stimuli." Psychological
Reports 24(June):755-760.

This study replicates the Berkowitz-LePage "weapons effect" study
(1967) using 64 undergraduate student subjects and three kinds of knives
(switchblade, carving knife, and common table knife) as the aggression-
eliciting stimuli; otherwise, the design and analysis are similar to
the Berkowitz-LePage original. Findings show the predicted enhanced
aggression among male, but not female, subjects.
Fisher, Joseph C.
1976 "Homicide in Detroit: the role of firearms." Criminology
14 (November): 387-400.

This study was designed to investigate the extent to which the rising homicide rate in Detroit could be attributed to the increased availability of firearms. Firearms availability was measured by the guns registered and the number of licences to purchase that were granted each year. Figures on accidental deaths and yearly population were collected from the Department of Health; statistics on homicides, gun availability and the probability of apprehension were supplied by the Detroit Police Department. The data showed that, during the period 1963 to 1971, homicides by handgun increased seven times while those involving long guns increased by 13 times. Murder by knife and other means showed a less spectacular rise, doubling and tripling respectively over the same period.

The independent variables were factor analyzed and three orthogonal variables were extracted: 1) the willingness of local residents to use means other than violence to settle disputes (violence factor), 2) the economic activity of the city (economy factor), and 3) firearms availability (firearm factor). Homicide rates from 1963 to 1971 were regressed on these three variables. Both violence and firearms factors were found to be statistically significant. It was concluded that much of the increase in the homicide rate could be attributed to an increase in handgun murders. Furthermore, the data suggested a positive relationship between guns and the homicide rate: Firearms availability accounted for one-quarter of the rise in homicides.

The purpose of this study was to examine the attitudes and opinions of Florida youth towards crime, gun control, and related issues. 425 persons were selected through a systematic cluster sample and interviewed. The major findings are as follows: 1) More than two-thirds of all respondents thought all guns should be controlled. Support for gun control was higher among females, nonwhites, and the unemployed. 2) About 64% of the respondents knew basically what a "Saturday Night Special" was. Men and whites were more likely to know this term than females and nonwhites. 3) About half of the respondents who knew the meaning of the term "Saturday Night Special" thought that banning such weapons would help reduce crime. 4) 20% of the respondents in the study over age 21 said they owned a handgun; owners tended to rural, male, white, and employed.
Fordi, Ann

This study replicates the Berkowitz-LePage (1967) "weapons effect" study with data on 100 Swedish male high school students. The design represents a slight modification of the Berkowitz-LePage original: some subjects were only shown weapons, and others were asked to handle them. Results are consistent with the original findings.
The geographic distribution of shooting by New York City Police officers during 1971-1975 were examined and their relation to community characteristics analyzed. The study postulated that the higher the crime arrest rate and the reported police homicide rate of a neighborhood, the higher the police shooting rate. It was also hypothesized that both these relationships will be highest for shootings involving on-duty police officers and lowest for shootings involving off-duty police. The data employed were the New York City Police Department records of all reported shootings. A 5-year total of 2,746 shooting incidents were analyzed. Arrest and homicide rates and shooting rates were the variables used. Results showed both hypotheses as correct. The data also revealed that the relationship between arrest rates and total shooting rates was significant as was the relationship between homicide rates and police shootings. Thus, there were high correlations between extreme police-citizen violence and indices of threats to police and general public safety. Police violence varies as the policeman reacts to the community as he perceives it, and it is likely that the geographic distributions of police shootings also parallel variations in the indices. It is unlikely that social forces contributing directly to public safety from crime affect police shootings independently of the public safety construct. Comparisons of ratios of violent felony arrests to shootings among police agencies might provide useful information about the effects of varying firearms policies and
other organizational and environmental influences. Tables, notes, and references are included.

Data on all reported incidents involving discharges of firearms by police and/or assaults on police in New York City from January 1, 1971 through December 31, 1975, are analyzed. The data, which were taken from the New York City Police Department Discharge Review Board, reflect 3,573 distinct incidents involving 4,904 officers, of whom 3,827 discharged their firearms in 2,926 shooting incidents. The report examines the nature of firearms assault incidents, the effects of administrative restraints and review procedures on shooting discretion, and the effects of certain organizational variables (e.g., personnel deployment practices) on shooting. Shooting incidents occur predominantly at night in inner-city areas and are most often preceded by robberies. The incidents are distributed fairly consistently between summer and winter and among the days of the week. Black officers use their guns (justifiably and otherwise) more often than whites, are assaulted more often than whites, and are more likely to work in precincts in which violence is commonplace. Few shootings are one-on-one situations. Minority opponents (citizens involved in confrontations with police) are more likely than whites to be armed. Black opponents are likely to be armed with guns and to be in the company of others during a confrontation. Hispanic opponents are more likely to be alone, tend to be older than other opponent types, and frequently use knives against police. White opponents frequently use vehicles to assault and/or to flee from police. Stringent guidelines and review procedures appear
to have had a significant impact on the nature and frequency of ex-
treme police-citizen violence in New York City. However, the frequency
with which New York police are prosecuted or disciplined for using their
guns makes it clear that administrative actions cannot eliminate unwise
or unjustified shootings. The analysis also reveals that violative
and criminal shootings by police are more common among off-duty officers.
Another major finding is that the manner in which personnel are de-
ployed apparently affects the frequency with which police-citizen vio-
lence occurs. Three recommendations emerge from the study: (1) Police
agencies should try to minimize the possibility that deviant individuals
will get the chance to use firearms unlawfully or unwisely by working
to develop screening, socialization, and performance-monitoring devices;
(2) Agencies should scrutinize their enforcement and deployment policies
to be certain that officers are not unnecessarily placed in situations
in which they will frequently be required to resort to shooting as a
means of survival; and (3) Agencies should develop shooting policies
and review procedures that provide clear guidelines consonant with
agency and community philosophy. Comments on police suicides, a police
shooting typology, a bibliography and supporting data are included.

Gastil, Raymond D.
1971
"Homicide and a regional culture of violence."

This paper considers evidence on the hypothesized "Southern
subculture of violence," namely, the view that the high rate of
homicide in the South results from a regional culture that glorifies
or condones interpersonal violence. The analysis is based on
aggregate data for the 50 states. The dependent variable is
the state homicide rate, and the independent variables include
an "Index of Southernness" (a basically arbitrary numerical
collection based, roughly, on the proportion of the state's
population born in the South), along with selected other indicators
of economic well-being, per cent nonwhite, population size of the
state, and so on. Data were regressed stepwise; the "Index of
Southernness" consistently gave significant increments to R² under
several different specifications of the regression model. The
author concludes from this that the "regional subculture" hypothesis
is sustained, but several subsequent studies, e.g., Erlanger (1973)
and Loftin and Hill (1974), have demonstrated that this conclusion
does not follow from the evidence and analysis presented in the
article.
The current controversy over gun control centers on whether legislation is inherently capable of reducing crime and deaths by shooting. This study attempted to present empirical evidence on this issue. The sample included both 50 states and 129 cities whose population exceeded 100,000 in 1960. Gun control regulations of each state and city were coded into eight categories and each category assigned a weight. Each state or city was then scored on gun control regulations by summing the weights across eight categories. Dependent variables in this study were death and crime rates. Other explanatory variables in the analysis were income, education, police employees, race, population density, age, and licensed hunters. About 30 different measures of gun control regulations were tried in the analyses, with the measure yielding the highest $R^2$ being selected for the final analysis.

The results indicated that stricter gun control legislation was related to fewer total deaths by homicide, by suicide, and fewer firearm accidents. The magnitude of the effects suggested that measures similar to the ones then in force in New Jersey might save between 4,200 and 6,400 lives in the nation as a whole each year. However, the data showed no significant effect on aggravated assaults. Finally, except for robbery and total suicide, income was negatively correlated with deaths and crime rates; education was an important factor only for suicide and robbery; the relationship between the number of police personnel per capita and the death and crime rates was generally positive.

Gelles, Richard J.

Gelles and his colleagues conducted interviews with a selected sample of Manchester and Portsmouth, New Hampshire, residents to understand features of family violence. The sample included 20 families who had come to the attention of a private social agency, 20 families drawn from police records where there were reports of domestic strife, and 40 families or individuals who were neighbors of the social agency and police files sample.

Excerpts from interviews were presented in the text, together with estimates of the annual amount of family violence from the sample's experiences. Gelles reported that in about half of the 80 families, there had been one or more instances where husband or wife used physical violence; for one-quarter of the sample, conjugal violence was a regular occurrence, ranging from daily to 12 times per time. There were large differences among the frequency of violence by each of the types of families sampled, however. Parent-child abuse was also explored, with parental differences, motivations, and rationales for abusive behavior discussed.

The book concluded that (1) family violence is a learned behavior with violent family members having been exposed to violence domestic scenes while growing up and (2) family violence grows out of social structural factors in which families are embedded. While the nature of Gelles' sample makes generalizations to the nation inappropriate, his analysis made an important contribution in this hard-to-research area.
Due to the dramatic rise of violent crimes in Jamaica, in March of 1974 the Gun Court Act was passed which was specifically designed to curb gun crimes. This Act treats illegal possession of firearms as a major indictable offense, makes it illegal for a gun owner to lose the gun through negligence, provides for joint police and military patrol, etc. This study attempts to assess the impact of the Gun Court Act on gun crimes, using before-and-after comparisons. Data were obtained from police department files for one year on either side of passage.

The data showed that after passage, the overall gun murders declined by 56%; shooting with intent to kill declined by 37%; and armed robbery dropped by 28%. Other crimes stayed about the same or fluctuated slightly, suggesting that the results do not reflect a simple change in reporting practices. The Act was apparently more influential in the urban areas than in rural areas.


Gil utilized official child abuse reports made during 1967 and 1968 in the U.S. (N=13,000 reported incidents), together with case studies of about 1400 incidents reported in some 40 cities and counties to estimate the extent and the correlates of child abuse. In addition, a national sample of over 1500 adults was interviewed, and a six-month sample of daily and periodical newspapers and magazines published in 1965 was surveyed.

From the national survey of public attitudes about physical child abuse, Gil estimated that the maximum incidence of child abuse in the U.S. during 1965 ranged from 2 to 4 million cases. He concluded that the physical abuse of children is not a rare and unusual occurrence in American society, but instead should be understood as a consequence of "cultural norms" which sanction violence against children. While cultural forces were identified as the primary factor in producing high levels of child abuse, Gil also pointed to class and ethnic differences, bio-psycho-social functioning of individuals and families, and environmental events.

Gil's analysis and interpretation of the incidence of and factors leading to child abuse pointed to a change in theoretical work and intervention conducted up to the early 1970s. He specifically identified social structural and cultural factors, not individual "deviance" (the latter a favorite of social workers) in understanding and responding to the problem of child abuse, a problem a termed "endemic."
Godwin, J.

Case studies of selected types of murder illustrate the pervasive nature of homicide in the United States and the problems it creates for the criminal justice system. Possible remedies are considered. Following an overview of the crisis situation the crime of murder has caused in American society, historical and social aspects of murder are examined, with attention to murder within the context of family conflict, the history of gangland and frontier violence, and murder as a crime of passion. The role of juveniles, women, and homosexuals as victims or perpetrators of indiscriminate, premeditated, crime-related, or mass murder is examined, as are organized crime slayings, apparently senseless murders, and murder in the ghetto. Finally, political homicide, the problems posed by apparently insane murderers, the role of guns in homicide, and the murder patterns of the institutionally deranged, escaped criminals, and supposedly rehabilitated offenders are discussed, along with the breakdown of the criminal justice system and federal efforts to remedy the system’s inability to stem the increase in homicide across the nation. A selected bibliography and an index are included.

Greenwood, Colin

This study assessed whether or not firearms controls in England and Wales successfully reduced the number of serious crimes in which a firearm is used or carried. 367 offenses in which a firearm was involved were selected from police files of two cities and two counties in England and Wales. In addition, time series data were gathered from the Commissioner’s Annual Reports for a 25-year period.

There have been several firearms control measures implemented in England and Wales since the beginning of the 19th century, but time-series figures on robbery in which a firearm was carried or used clearly indicate a continuous and substantial rise in spite of the introduction of these measures. However, the above pattern did not show in firearms accidents or suicides. The author suggests that law-abiding citizens, but not criminals, comply with firearms control legislation. To deal with the criminal use of firearms by placing more restrictions on legitimate users is not likely to achieve the desired result.
This article addresses the so-called "Southern subculture of violence" hypothesis (see annotations for Gastil, 1971; Loftin and Hill, 1974). The article notes the generally high level of interpersonal violence in the South and discusses some of the relevant Southern history. Statistical evidence on Southern violence, derived from several sources, is also presented and analyzed. Several competing explanations for the distinctiveness of violence in the South (e.g., the predominance of blacks, higher levels of poverty, lower levels of urbanization, etc.) are explored and rejected.

Multiple regression analysis of aggregate data for states shows a strong regional effect even with urbanization, education, income, unemployment, wealth, and age held constant. The author concludes that these results support the view that Southern violence results from "a Southern world view that defines the social, political, and physical environment as hostile and casts the white Southerner in the role of the passive victim of malevolent forces" (p. 524).

Decisive critiques of the research design and conclusions are to be found in Erlanger (1976) and Loftin and Hill (1974).
do particular types of firearms play a prominent role in criminal abuse generally? Second, how effective are controls like registration, strict licensing or banning and is strict sentencing an effective deterrent? Third, does citizen ownership of arms deter crime, and what are the social costs involved, for example, were law-abiding citizens prosecuted under stricter control laws?

Hare, G.S., P. Klaus, and E.D. Bunten

This report analyzed the results of a National Bureau of Standards' survey of a stratified probability sample of 440 state, county, and municipal police departments. As the title of the report indicates, two major types of information were collected: police usage of and experience with body armor, and police confiscations of weapons. The report's emphasis was on the former topic, but its findings on weapons confiscated are reviewed here.

Based on their sample response, one can extrapolate the number of weapons confiscated in 1971 (about 260,000), 70% of which were handguns, and 30% longguns. No information was collected on the circumstances surrounding the confiscations. Information was presented by jurisdictional size and type of police department for the annual number of weapons confiscated.

Variables associated with criminal homicide and homicide rates in Detroit, Michigan, are examined for evidence pertaining to the subculture of violence theory. The analysis encompasses two levels: a macrolevel (census tract) examination of homicide rates; and a microlevel examination of individual cases of homicide. The study sample includes all 1,871 homicides (except excusable and justifiable homicides) recorded by the Detroit Police Department from January 1, 1970 to January 1, 1973. Major findings are as follows: Black homicide offenders were involved in homicides between strangers more frequently than white homicide offenders; the frequency of homicides committed by females was greater for blacks than whites; race was related to use of weapons other than handguns in homicide; juveniles were more likely than adults to use weapons other than handguns in homicides; blacks were more likely than whites to be involved in homicides with more than one offender. The macroanalysis shows a moderate relationship between the percentage of blacks in a census tract and the tract's homicide rate, and a stronger correlation between homicide rates and percentage of census tract residents with incomes below the poverty level. The moderate relationships between homicide and variables examined are said to indicate that subcultures refer not so much to regional structures or subsocieties as to the tendency of people who live together to share a set of values toward life and to transmit those values to succeeding generations. The data also suggest that there is not a single, generalized type of subculture characterized by higher rates of violence, but rather a variety of subcultures, some more violent than others. A third implication is that violence in many situations is functional and serves to provide support for existing norms. Further implications are discussed. Supporting data and a bibliography are provided.
Hay, Jr., Richard A. and Richard McCleary
1979  "Box-Tiao Time Series Models for Impact Assessment: A
Comment on the Recent Work of Deutsch and Alt," Evaluation

See entry under Deutsch and Alt (1977).
Heaphy, John F.  

The purpose of this study was to provide additional knowledge of police working conditions and practices. Specifically, the report is intended to provide the reader with a broad statement of selected facets of current administration and operational practices in the nation's larger police departments. The General Administrative Survey of Police Practices dates back to 1951. This 1977 survey includes information on cities whose population is over 250,000. A mail questionnaire was sent to 56 police departments and 50 questionnaires were returned. Analysis consists of presenting data showing the range (minimum and maximum) and median of selected variables for each department and breakdowns are also shown by geographical region and by various other city population characteristics.

Part One of the report contains per capita costs of policing and the number of sworn officers per 1000 population. Data was presented on the range and median values of police annual salaries, annual paid vacation, paid holidays and sick leave. Also included were personnel benefits of offices broken down by region of the country and size of city. The composition and promotion of personnel including separate breakdowns for women and minorities are included. In addition, data on whether or not a department has or uses computers, the number of complaints per 100 sworn officers and the number of unmarked units was reported.

Part Two contains relevant information for each individual depart-
ent included in the survey. Included are estimates of the 1975 population, the land area, total budget, salary budget, salary budget as a percent of total budget, all by city. Also presented are the educational levels of officers in the department. On equipment, the type of sidearm and type of ammunition used and the number of incidents involving firearm use by officers is also shown. Retirement provisions, pensions, and other fringe benefits are also reported by department. The minimum, maximum and median salary by level of personnel is provided and the distribution of personnel by unit (vice, youth, internal affairs, patrol, etc) and the number of women and minorities by rank are also shown. Finally, a copy of the questionnaire is attached.


131 children with gunshot wounds were admitted to Detroit General Hospital between 1962 and early 1971. The authors obtained information on 80 of these cases and conducted home interviews on 60. The data indicated that the number of gunshot wounds in children increased dramatically after 1967. Of the 80 victims, 71% were male and 67% were black. Parents of victims were poorly educated and held menial jobs; nearly 50% of these homes were female-headed. Nineteen of the 42 guns that could be identified were handguns. The owner of the gun was usually the parent of the victim. The gun was typically kept loaded in the parent’s bedroom. About 80% of the guns seemed to come from questionable sources. Thirty of the 80 cases occurred during the winter; Saturday was the most popular day; the majority of the cases occurred in the evening; about half of the cases occurred indoors; and in 70% of the cases, there was no adult supervision of the children involved at the time of shooting. Ten children died, 47 children recovered completely, and 23 left the hospital with a disability. The authors concluded that children are for the most part innocent victims of gun availability.
A sample of 504 convicted adult felons is studied using both causal modeling and path analysis techniques to determine the effects of sex, race, socioeconomic status, and other variables on judicial sentencing. Data were obtained from records of the King County Superior Court, Seattle, Washington. The eight individual resource variables considered were sex, race, age, marital status, education, socioeconomic status, work history, and dependents. Intervening variables believed likely to mediate portions of the sentence were primary offense, prior record, use of weapon or violence, number of initial charges, bail, plea, probation, and prosecution presentence recommendations. Analysis of the 504 offender records showed that only 5 of the individual variables had statistical significance on sentence: sex, race, education, work history, and dependents. Sex as a variable was complicated by the fact that females were less likely to have prior records, to be convicted of offenses involving a weapon, or to be convicted of robbery. Race as a variable had little direct effect, but was closely related to the fact that nonwhites were more likely to have had prior criminal records, more likely to have used a weapon or violence, and were more likely to be convicted of robbery. Those with more education, a better work history, or dependents were also less likely to have more serious charges placed against them. Variables which appeared to be most responsible for mediating the total effects were prior record, use of weapon or violence, bail, and the prosecution and probation presentence recommendations. It was also found that while the prosecutor's recommendations for each sentence were significantly related to that sentence, the probation presentence recommendation was significant only for jail time and incarceration sentences. The problem of sentencing disparity is discussed. Recommendations for further research are made.
Hiett, Robert, Harrison Youngren, David Freund, Jay Kennerly, William Schonike, Hang Teng Wong, and Bryce W. Rucker
1969 "A study of the effectiveness of gun control advertising." 

This study attempted to test the hypothesis that gun control advertisements alter subjects' attitudes toward gun control. A non-random post-test only design was used for this study. Subjects were students in six sections of an introductory sociology class at Southern Illinois University. The experimental group (N = 86) consisted of four of the sections and were shown series of public service print and television ads, including some gun control materials. The control group (N = 33) consisted of the remaining two sections and were shown the same ads except that the gun control materials were excluded. Subjects did not know they were participating in a gun control study. Attitudes towards gun control were measured by a Likert-type scale. The results indicated that exposure to pro-gun control advertisements had no effect on the gun control attitudes of the subjects.

Hindelang, Michael J.
1976 Criminal Victimization in 8 American Cities: A Descriptive Analysis of Theft and Assault. 
Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.

Hindelang detailed the history and development of victimization surveys and described the results of the 1972 surveys of 8 American cities: Atlanta, Baltimore, Cleveland, Dallas, Denver, Newark, Portland (Oregon), and St. Louis. He found that across these cities there was similarity in the personal characteristics associated with the risks of victimization and in the characteristics of the incidents themselves (e.g., the extent of reporting to the police, the nature and extent of physical injury, amount of financial loss). However, the levels of victimization across the cities showed considerable variation. Hindelang showed that the rates of victimization were closely linked to characteristics of victims, more especially, age, sex, marital status, family income, and race.

Hindelang has done some of the best analytical work to date with victimization data, using victimization data to derive a theoretical grounding to the probability of victimization. This book will provide the reader a good review of the victimization survey methodology, types of information gathered, and rationale for survey questions, in addition to his descriptive analysis of two types of incidents.
Aspects of forcible rape are examined based on data obtained from a victimization study, Offender-Based Transaction Statistics (OBTS), and national offense, arrest, and parole data. The authors stress the lack of a definitive body of information about forcible rape from which generalizations may be made, but contend that a useful composite picture of the nature of this crime, its victims and perpetrators, and societal reaction may be obtained through simultaneous examination of data from various sources. A large-scale victimization survey, contracted by LEAA with the Bureau of the Census, was conducted in 1972 and involved probability samples of 10,000 households in each of 13 major U.S. cities. Results showed that there were 315 reported rapes for every 100,000 females age 12 years and older in the 13 cities. Attempted rapes reported to the interviewers outnumbered completed rapes by about three to one. Black/others and younger persons were found to have disproportionately high rates of reported rape victimization. Findings, some of which are presented in tabular form, were compiled for race of victim, race correlated with age of victim, major activity of victim, marital status of victim, time and place of occurrence, number of victim and number of offenders, victim-offender relationship, use of weapons, use of self-protective measures, injury, and failure to report victimization to police. A study of police statistics on rape focuses on the Federal Bureau of Investigation’s Uniform Crime Reports for the 40-year period from 1933 to 1973. Over these 4 decades, the reported rape rate increased 557 percent — an increase of more than three times the overall increase for reported violent index crimes. Judicial processing of offenders is examined through OBTS, in which the offender serves as the unit of count as he proceeds through the criminal justice system. OBTS compiled in California show that, although a relatively large proportion of offenders are dismissed before court processing, those convicted of rape are likely to be sentenced to jail or prison. The Uniform Parole Report data indicate that only homicide parolees serve longer terms than rape parolees. The authors caution that each information source has its own limitations; these shortcomings increase with the distance of the statistic from the crime.

Hindelang used UCR arrest rates and national NCS victimization data to (1) compare sex differences in criminal involvement using both measures and (2) to determine whether there have been changes in female involvement in criminal activity.

He found that overall the two data sources were in strikingly close agreement with each other regarding the relative frequency of male or female involvement in crimes. In particular, men dominated as arrestees and offenders in crimes of rape, robbery, aggravated assault, and simple assault. Women were most likely to be involved in theft crimes that did not require force. Examining trends in female involvement in crime using the NCS data, he found only a small and inconsistent variation, with the exception of a slight rise in female offenders involved in larceny. Lastly, Hindelang explored the reporting practices of victims to determine whether there were differentials by sex of victim and sex of offender in reporting incidents. His results showed that contrary to other assertions, male victims were more likely to report incidents involving female than male offenders. However, female victims were less likely to report female offenders than male offenders.

Hindelang's analysis questioned both the "new female criminal" theories of Freda Adler and Rita Simon, in addition to labeling-interactionist expectations for "deviance processing."


Hindelang et al analyzed 1972 victimization data for 8 U.S. cities. The focus of their analysis was on the patterns of risk factors associated with criminal victimization and on correlates of characteristics of criminal incidents, rather than on absolute levels of victimization. They introduced a novel statistical approach to understanding victimization incidents, using Predictive Attribute Analysis (PAA) solutions. Rather than the usual emphasis on the legal classification of criminal events, they focused on the extent of personal harm (either injury or property loss) to the victim as a result of a crime. PAA solutions were presented to show the probability of victimization, victimization with injury, and victimization with property loss. These analyses were used for developing a theory of personal criminal victimization which pointed to age, sex, marital status, family income, and race as salient dimensions in the likelihood of being victimized.

The authors utilized a creative method for analyzing victimization data, extending more into the theoretical domain that past victimology research.
This study is a statistical analysis of homicides and suicides in Cuyahoga County, Ohio (Cleveland and its suburbs) for the period 1938 to 1971. Since all homicides and suicides were examined by the county coroner, data consisted of coroner reports. Total population figures from the 1940, 1950, 1960 and 1970 Censuses were used at the denominator in determining all rates. Homicide and suicide rates were analyzed with respect to location of the incident (city or suburb), sex and race of the victim, and method of lethal violence (firearm, nonfirearm). Justifiable homicides were subdivided on the basis of the person who killed (police officer or private citizen). Results were presented by use of graphs.

In Cuyahoga County, homicide rates (homicides per 100,000) increased slightly from 1940 (5.5 per 100,000) to the mid 1960's (6.6 per); however, by 1965 the homicide rate increased to 9.4 per 100,000 and by 1971 it had jumped to 18.7 per 100,000. The suicide rate also showed marked increases. The rates for homicides and suicides were much higher in the city than in the suburbs.
are wholly inadequate to the protection of the people..."

The author concluded that perhaps only a grave domestic gun
catastrophe will have to occur in order for the country to deal with
the gun situation.

Inciardi, James A. and Anne E. Pottinger (eds)

Ten articles are contained in this edited collection, each
having a bearing on the question of violence in the
U.S. Given the global possibilities of such a topic, the
book was limited insofar as there was no unifying theme or
theoretical orientation used to discuss the historical or
contemporary problem of violent crime.

The collection included Einstadter's examination of 19th
century robbery and outlawry, DeZee's very superficial discussion
day of gun control and federal legislation, Williams and McGrath's
analysis of social characteristics of urban gun owners, Skogan's
discussion of weapon use in robbery, Rose and Randall's examination
of the prosecution of rapists, Doerner's and Humphrey and Palmer's
critical discussion of the South as a regional culture of violence,
Gold and Nolte's analysis of trends in violence in high schools,
Dorin and Johnson's case study of George Jackson's experiences
in Soledad prison, and Hallowell's historical analysis of the
contained and legalized violence in professional hockey.
An examination of incidents involving firing of shots by police officers found degree of hazard of situation most closely related to number of shots while race of victim had little correlation. A metropolitan police department which requires a report every time a police officer's weapon is discharged was used for this study. Examination of records from 1970 to 1972 found that 166 shots were fired at black suspects, 96 at white suspects. When these figures are compared by population of beat in which the shootings took place, it was found that blacks are disproportionately involved in shooting incidents with police but that white suspects are hit more often. Also, more shots are actually fired at white suspects. The city surveyed is 75 percent white, 25 percent black; black shooting incidents were 64.4 percent compared to 35.6 percent white. However, based on number of arrests and contacts with police, the ratio of shots fired at black suspects was lower than at white suspects. The most significant predictor was hazard of situation. Officers fired about 2.0 shots at unarmed suspects, 2.4 at armed, and 3.3 at suspects who were armed and firing at officers. Average number of shots aimed at white suspects was 2.9; at black, 2.0. Whites sustained 1.8 hits; black 1.3. Since greater citizen contact was correlated with higher shooting incidence, this study may have implications for policing strategies. Larger police forces relative to citizen populations may provide greater opportunity for violent confrontations between police and the public.

Jones, David A.

Jones aimed to study the disposition of criminal cases in the U.S. during the mid-1970s, from the detection and arrest of criminal suspects through the formal charging process, pre-trial discovery and screening procedures, and so on to guilty plea or trial, conviction, acquittal or dismissal. The focus was primarily upon the factors contributing to plea bargaining and the implications of this for defendants adjudication in criminal courts.

Forty judicial units (state courts) were selected for field visits and were the object of analysis. At each site, interviews were conducted with a judge, prosecutor, and public defense attorney; interviews focused on the roles of each court agent in plea bargaining, case dismissal, and sentencing or sentencing recommendations.

Jones has provided one of the most comprehensive analyses of the plea bargaining process, exploring the mechanics of guilty plea negotiations and the patterns of plea bargaining across judicial units and sizes of criminal courts. His analyses were further strengthened by placing contemporary court practices in historical perspective, by examining trends in judicial proceedings since the 1930s.
Jones, Edward D., III
1981

This article is a commentary upon and rebuttal of a Report issued by the U.S. Conference of Mayors extolling the efficacy of a District of Columbia law that in effect ruled out the ownership of handguns except under very restrictive conditions. The Report of the Mayor's Conference compared trends in crime rates in the District with those of "comparable" cities and regions in the U.S. for periods before and after the enactment of the handgun control law and showed that crime rates declined more in D.C. than in the "comparable" jurisdictions. The author shows that the jurisdictions chosen and the crime rates used were faulty. When trends in D.C. are compared with comparable places such as Baltimore, MD and nearby Virginia and Maryland suburbs for crimes in which guns are ordinarily or frequently used, the advantage of D.C. disappears. Indeed, the apparent decline in crime rates appears to have been a trend shared with nearby Virginia and Maryland suburbs.

Jones, Edward D. III

Jones pointed out the deficiencies of Murray's (1975) "Handguns, gun control laws and criminal violence." Murray concluded in this piece that there was no empirical relationship between (a) firearm violence and handgun restrictions, (b) handgun ownership and handgun restrictions, and (c) firearm violence and handgun ownership.

Jones cited the following problems in Murray's analysis. First, Murray's measures of firearm violence include both (1) firearms-related incidents (firearms suicides, accidents, and homicides) and (2) incidents that might have involved firearms (aggravated assault and robbery). Second, in testing his hypotheses Murray separates independent variables of SES and handgun control laws in two separate equations predicting violent crime. Third, Murray does not test whether his measures of SES were multicollinear, thus reducing the chances of finding significant effects. Fourth, regional and state-level data are combined in the analysis (regional data on gun ownership and state-level data on crime and SES). Fifth, Jones argued that Murray should have used a set of simultaneous equations to test his hypotheses, rather than single equation models.

For these reasons and for other non-trivial errors, Jones concluded that Murray's analysis was "seriously flawed" and his conclusions were therefore highly questionable.
Jones, Edward III and Marla Ray

Jones and Ray analyzed handgun regulations at the federal, state, and local level. Their local-level analysis included 30 U.S. cities.

This report is the best, most recent compilation of handgun regulations, containing many tables on the state-level dealer requirements, dealer fees, purchaser requirements (eligibility), and carrying requirements. The city-level data are the first presented in the firearms regulations area that can be immediately understood and compared across cities.

In addition to gross features of handgun regulations, Jones and Ray provided specific information on the costs for licenses-to-purchase and applications-to-purchase handguns, waiting periods, police checks on prospective buyers, and fees for dealer and owner licenses. As well, they attempt to compare the differences between the two commonly used handgun control systems (application- and permit-to-purchase systems) in terms of the screening efficacy of each.

This publication is excellent for descriptive detail on how handguns are regulated in the U.S. It does not contain much in the way of analytical work, more particularly, the implications of more restrictive regulations in one jurisdiction embedded in or surrounded by areas have less restrictive regulations.

Kaplan, John

Drawing upon law enforcement experiences with liquor and drug prohibition, the author attempts to draw up a balance sheet of costs and benefits (broadly construed) that would result from outright prohibition of the possession of handguns and from the prohibition of sales of handguns. Kaplan points out that the prohibition of possession is likely to produce a circumstance similar to liquor prohibition in which there were many violations of the law because the use of liquor was widespread (like the ownership of weapons today), and persons were criminalized de jure but without the full backing of general consensus.

The costs of full enforcement to the criminal justice system would be overwhelming, likely leading to selective enforcement that would create problems of equity in treatment at the hands of the law. These and other reasons lead the author to believe that outright prohibition of handgun possession would lead to a public policy that would erode confidence in the law and achieve nowhere near its goals.

The prohibition of gun sales, however, might be more manageable from the viewpoint of enforcement. However it appears unlikely to the author that it would be possible to suppress the rise of a black market in handguns which might raise the costs of gun acquisition to criminals but would not effectively bar access to handguns.
The rising rate of police deaths in the line of duty and the increasing rate of violent crime are discussed. From a high in 1973 of 134 police officers killed in the line of duty, the number decreased to 93 officers in 1977. However, in 1979 56 police officers were murdered between January and June, according to FBI statistics. Of the 56 officers, 29 were killed in Southern states, 12 in the North Central states, 11 in Western states, and 4 in the Northeastern states. The majority of officers killed were shot with handguns. Late night and early morning hours were the most frequent times of death. According to the 1977 statistical report, increasing numbers of officers killed knew their assailants. The increase in law enforcement officers murdered coincides with a national increase in the murder rate and violent crime rate. Through the summer of 1979, violent crime rose 17 percent over 1978, and murder rose nationally by 9 percent. Although the number of murders is increasing, proportionally the types of murders remains about the same, with over half of the homicide victims having a prior acquaintance with their killers. Undermanned police forces are cited by many police agencies as being a primary reason for the increase in violent crime, but are only one of a complex network of causal factors. Among criminologists, there is apparent agreement that the upsurge of violence in the South is related to extremely rapid growth, which attracts criminal elements; also, handguns are easy to obtain. Law enforcement officials in the Northwestern cities of Seattle, Washington and Portland, Oregon attribute their relatively low homicide rates to mild climate, low poverty rate, low unemployment, and good police-community relations.

The author states that he will present a cost-effectiveness analysis of any Federal legislation imposing a New York type of handgun control system on a nationwide basis. This article focuses on the social costs of any such attempts. The author forcefully argues that banning guns raises the issue of equal protection under the law. Since eligibility for handgun permits will be at the discretion of the police or some other agency, certain citizens will be unjustly denied permits, just as in New York where law-abiding citizens may not carry weapons but influential citizens gain almost automatic access to handguns. In the event of any federal permit law, millions of citizens will be imprisoned for failure to comply with the law. This should not be the case, the author argues, since only .003% of handgun owners in the U.S. are every involved in any murder. Handgun owners who do murder someone are not typical of all handgun owners but of murderers. To effectively ban the other 99.997% of handguns would be almost impossible. Efforts to enforce handgun bans would take efforts away from the real problem of reducing crime. The author goes on to critically evaluate the work of pro gun control advocates particularly the work of F. Zimring (1968). He maintains that the evidence does not support the arguments of the proponents of gun control. The author concludes that the costs of handgun prohibition will include: the jailing of thousands of people who believe they have the right to carry guns and who will unjustly be jailed; a tremendous economic burden which the implementation of such a program would entail and; finally, a constitutional issue would arise from the "terrible increase in police power" needed to enforce any such federal permit.
This is a collection of essays, some published previously elsewhere, others written specifically for the volume, all written by persons who fall easily within the broad rubric of "liberalism" as this term is conventionally applied, all arguing one or another case against further restrictions on the manufacture, ownership, or use of handguns. Topics covered range from a "History of Handgun Prohibition in the United States," to "Comparative Cross-Cultural Statistics," to "The Effect of Handgun Prohibitions in Reducing Violent Crime." The use of handguns in self-defense and various legal and Constitutional issues are also discussed. The themes and ideas argued here are too diverse to permit any easy summary. The general tone is contained in the Editor's "Introduction:" "There is every difference between not liking something--or even thinking it evil--and thinking it should be proscribed by government" (p. 4). Most of the essays in the volume have a frankly polemical bent, but many of them also contain useful compilations or reinterpretations of relevant data as well.

This book, written by two historians, concerns the history of how guns became an important ingredient in the American way of life. The authors make no attempt to take sides on the current gun control debate nor do they provide a statistical analysis of firearm use in the United States. Instead, the authors pieced together from their research how it was that the gun had become an ingredient in our national experience and to determine why and in what ways "it became both a fixture and shibboleth in American life." The book begins with a brief history of Europe's experience with firearms from the early 1500's through the late 1700's. The remaining chapters focus on the American experience with firearms starting with the colonial era. The book is divided into nine chapters and focuses on the following topics: "Firearms in the European Experience"; "The Origins of a Weapon-Bearing Society"; "The Heritage of the Second Amendment"; "An American Industry"; "Firearms in the settled area of nineteenth -century American"; "Firearms and the Frontier Experience: the 19th Century"; "The beginning of Controversy: the Sullivan Law"; "The Interwar period" and; finally, "The Crisis of the Sixties".

The authors conclude that at the present a gun controversy has emerged pitting "Cosmopolitan America" against "Bedrock America". They think that time is working against the gun since there is an increased social consciousness which finds the excesses of the gun
intolerable. The city they claim is the enemy of the gun and urbanization in this country is growing.


The author uses a "victimless crimes" perspective to analyze some of the possible costs of gun control legislation. The argument is made that restrictions on the ownership or use of firearms are similar to past or present restrictions on alcohol, narcotics, marijuana, and other regulated substances and activities, that is, all of these are attempts to regulate "the willing exchange, among adults, of strongly demanded but legally proscribed goods or services." Drawing on the parallels to Prohibition and the criminalizing of marijuana, the author discusses eight major potential costs: (i) potential law enforcement excesses, for example, illegal search and seizure procedures, (ii) discriminatory enforcement and the possibility of police corruption, (iii) criminal profits that ensue from the inevitable black market for strongly-demanded goods, (iv) bureaucratic abuses of various sorts, (v) additional strains on an already-overloaded criminal justice system, (vi) possible labelling and corrupting effects that ensue when these activities are defined as illegal, (vii) the diversion of resources from other, potentially far more effective ways of dealing with criminal violence, and (viii) loss of respect for the law, the police, the courts, and the criminal justice system in general. The author concludes that some consideration of costs along these lines should be made before new gun control legislation is considered.
The purpose of this study was to assess the relationships among gun control laws, availability of firearms, and violent crime by comparing England (which has a restrictive firearms policy extending back over fifty years) with Switzerland (which allows free access to firearms). Data were gathered from governmental publications provided by both countries.

Switzerland has a very liberal gun control policy. There are no federal firearms control laws in Switzerland except a regulation which specifies that the sale of firearms and ammunition should be approved by the Swiss Federal Council. Although exact figures are not available, it is estimated that 1.98 million households in Switzerland contain at least one firearm. However, the crime rate in Switzerland is quite low; in 1970, the murder rate per 100,000 was .65.

The Firearms Control Act of 1968 in the United Kingdom provides for licencing the ownership of firearms. Anyone who manufactures or deals in firearms must maintain a register of all transactions in weapons and ammunition. It is estimated that there are 1.5 million legally-owned weapons in England and Wales. The rise in violent crime in recent years is alarming. For example, the murder rate per 100,000 in 1964 was .09, and in 1968, .15. The problem is confounded by the complete abolition of the death penalty.

The author suggests that criminals commit crimes with whatever weapon is available. According to the above analyses, the author concludes that no positive correlation exists between the prevalence of civilian-owned firearms and the incidence of violent crimes.
In this paper, the author argues that some of the most crucial factual assumptions underlying the arguments in favor of the regulation and restriction of firearms are highly suspect. Gun control advocates and social scientists working in the area of crime and violence have been largely uncritical of the assumptions underlying pro gun control arguments. The author claimed that existing evidence does not support many of the commonly held stereotypes of gun use in violent crime and gun ownership. Based on his previous work, the author critically evaluates six of the implicit premises of gun control policies aimed at the reduction of homicide. He concludes that these premises are shown to be weak when evaluated against existing evidence.

The author concentrated on policies aimed at restricting or banning ownership of firearms, especially handguns. He concluded that the question still remains whether greater deadliness of firearms is due to technical characteristics of the weapon or whether the deadliness is due to differences in the intentions and intensity of motivation of people who use the weapons. Second, contrary to the work done in the tradition of Berkowitz and LaPage, the author raises the possibility that guns are as likely to inhibit assaults as to incite them and that gun ownership may therefore have no effect at all on the incidence of assaults. Third, claims which state that if handguns were made prohibitively expensive and thus more difficult to obtain, demand for handguns would drop are not necessarily correct. The author suggested that a switch to rifles or shotguns would occur and that the demand for guns is highly inelastic. Fourth, the author argues that the belief that the protective efficacy of firearms is nothing more than self-delusion is not supported by available evidence. When crime victims do have the opportunity to use guns for defense against victimization the weapons are effective for that purpose. Fifth, contrary to the belief that homicide occurrences are crimes of passion that occur randomly across the population, the author contended that domestic killings are rarely isolated outbursts of previously nonviolent people but rather are usually part of a pattern of violence engaged in by people who are known to the police and others as violence-prone and thus identifiable. Finally the author presents evidence that contradicts arguments which claim that to the extent that poverty, the root cause of violent crime, cannot be dealt with immediately, the next best policy alternative is to reduce and or restrict gun ownership. Based on his past research, the author states that reducing gun ownership would not have a larger relative payoff in homicide reduction than crime control alternatives, and in this sense it (gun control) is not the "best" single policy for reducing homicide.
This study attempted to examine the question: Does the death penalty and/or the levels of gun ownership influence the rate of homicide in the U.S.? Data were gathered from a variety of sources such as Uniform Crime Reports, U.S. Bureau of Prisons, U.S. Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco and Firearms, etc. for the period 1947 to 1973; time-series analyses were performed.

It was found that a significant reciprocal relationship exists between gun ownership level and the homicide rate, with crime pushing up gun ownership levels and gun ownership in turn pushing up the homicide rate. The certainty of arrest and conviction for homicide has a significant negative effect on the homicide rate, while the homicide rate in turn has a negative effect on the certainty of punishment. Furthermore, the imprisonment of criminal offenders has an incapacitative effect on homicide rates. However, the analysis failed to detect evidence of deterrence effects of capital punishment on homicide rate.


This study examined death certificates (and, in 77% of the cases, birth certificates) for 133 Michigan gunshot fatalities under the age of 16 from 1970 through 1975. Blacks are heavily overrepresented; also, black victims tend to be younger and handguns are far more frequently involved in black than in white deaths. The over-representation of blacks among victims may be attributable to differences in the promptness of response by police or medical emergency units or differences in the level of medical care available to each racial group, or both. Furthermore, gunshot mortality rates are negatively related to socioeconomic status.
This was a study of the use of firearms during the urban civil disorders of the 1960's. The authors looked at the role firearms played in the 1967 urban riots which occurred in Newark and Detroit. They found that the number of firearms purchased and registered by both private citizens and the police had significantly increased just before the disorders actually took place. They did not find, however, that there was much violence by firearms during the riots themselves and that the role of firearms was exaggerated by public officials and the media. The authors concluded that there is nevertheless a need to regulate firearms through licensing and registration.

The purpose of this study was to test the hypothesis that states with firearms licensing laws have lower crime rates than other states. Data were collected from F.B.I. crime statistics for 1965. The states were divided into 36 "license" states and 14 "nonlicense" states. The analysis consists of single zero-order comparisons between these two groups of states.

The results indicate no statistically significant difference in crime rates (homicide rate, robbery rate, aggravated assault rate, and overall serious crime rate) between states that have firearms licensing laws and those that do not. Furthermore, crimes in which firearms were misused constitute only three percent of the total. In other words, firearms licensing laws, even if highly effective, would not be likely to cause any appreciable decrease in the overall crime rate.

The author's interpretation of the results is that the incidence of non-felony homicide is not related to availability of firearms, that criminals are not deterred in their quest for firearms by firearm laws, and that such persons persist in carrying weapons regardless of any law which has so far been enacted, that many firearms are stolen and available to the criminal through illicit channels, and that criminals will substitute other weapons in the commission of crimes when firearms are not available.
The purpose of this study was to test the hypothesis that there is a direct causal relationship between the availability of firearms and crime rates. The author argues that if the availability of firearms were indeed a cause of crime, crime rates should rise and fall fairly consistently with rates of firearms ownership. The data on crime rates in the 50 states were collected from the F.B.I.'s Uniform Crime Reports. Firearms ownership was measured by the rate of hunting license holders. Bivariate correlation analysis was used to measure the degree of association between firearms ownership and crime rate.

The results showed that the correlation coefficient between firearms ownership and total serious crime is -0.44; between firearms ownership and murder and non-negligent manslaughter, -0.12; between firearms ownership and aggravated assault, -0.42; and between firearms ownership and robbery, -0.42. The negative coefficients mean that crime is lowest where gun ownership is highest, the opposite result of that suggested by the initial hypothesis. The absence of controls for degree of urbanization, economic level, and other factors that affect both crime and gun ownership, however, caution against drawing any substantive conclusion from these zero-order results.

The purpose of this study was to illustrate statistically that the criminal misuse of firearms is not a substantial part of the overall crime problem and that firearms control legislation is not an effective measure to reduce the crime rate.

During the period 1910 to 1967, the firearms homicide rate dropped, while the rate of firearms ownership in the United States increased. The author argues that these data are not consistent with a contention that firearms are a causative factor in homicides.

Furthermore, according to F.B.I. Uniform Crime Reports and other official data, there were 3,243,390 serious crimes committed in the United States in 1966. Firearms of all types were involved in only 109,734, or 3.4%, of them; rifles and shotguns were involved in less than 0.5%. In terms of total crime (excluding traffic offenses), crimes involving firearms of any type constituted about 0.3%; and those involving rifles and shotguns, 0.05%. If firearms were to be completely eliminated from society, and no other weapons substituted for them, the United States would still have 96.6% of its serious crime, and 99.6% of its total crime. Thus, crimes involving the misuse of firearms account for a minimal part of the total crime picture, and firearms legislation would be correspondingly limited in its effectiveness in reducing crime rates in the United States.
The purpose of this study was to examine some of the potential costs and benefits of firearms registration programs. Several states already require firearms registration, and so some data on costs are available. For example, in testimony before the Senate in 1968, IRS director Sheldon Cohen stated that the costs of establishing a centralized computer system capable of registering 75 million firearms would amount to more than $25 million, with an annual continuing cost of about $22 million. If licensing as well as registration is included initial costs could rise to $1 billion or more. The author also notes several indirect costs to gun owners (licensing fees, notary fees, etc.) and to the public (more taxes).

Concerning potential benefits, a questionnaire was sent to 50 state law enforcement agencies, asking them to report on any cases of crimes known to them to have been solved through the tracing of a firearm by serial number during 1959-1968. Forty-four states returned the questionnaire; the data showed six homicides, six robberies, and no aggravated assaults listed as having been solved through the tracing of a firearm by serial number. Thus, the author argues, the direct benefits of national gun registration appear to be rather modest. Better cost benefit data should be compiled before a national registration system can be seriously considered.
This dissertation reports the development of an accurate predatory robbery index constructed from police data on completed robberies involving the use of a gun. A victim survey indicates that such robberies are highly reported. Research conducted with the support of LEAA indicates that socio-economic conditions of victims are correlated with decisions to report robberies. If certain population groups, such as whites, females, and the elderly, are more likely to call the police than others, then robbery statistics of the Uniform Crime Reports (UCR) may not reflect actual crime rates. Rather, a high robbery rate for a city reported by the UCR may only indicate a disproportionate group of persons predisposed to seek official assistance. A more accurate measure of public safety involves use of the number of noncommercial robberies committed by strangers expressed as a ratio to the total population of vulnerable residents. Comparison of Baltimore police data and results of a victimization survey of 23,467 residents indicate that robberies involving the use of a gun were highly reported to the police and were uniformly reported by all groups within the population. Noncommercial robberies are characterized by their occurrence in the evening and in places of public access. Most were committed by small groups of young black males against lone victims who were physically assaulted in some manner. Of the 13,681 incidents uncovered, only 7,685 (56.2 percent) had been reported. Variables associated with reporting are seriousness of the crime and sociodemographic characteristics of the victim. Implications and recommendations are discussed. Specifications for assigning seriousness scores in data analysis are appended. Tabular data and bibliography are provided.
Persons arrested in Philadelphia for assault, robbery, rape, and criminal homicide are investigated to determine if they share common characteristics or can be identified as several types of violent criminals. Pennsylvania criminal codes are based on the assumption that violent offenders can be classified into groups requiring different processing, punishment, and treatment. Based on an alternative approach, it can be hypothesized that no significant correlations will be found between individuals arrested for violent crimes and their past criminal histories; in addition, no significant differences will be identified in the degree of injury inflicted on their victims across the five violent crime categories. The sample consists of roughly 2,000 persons arrested for any of the five categories of violent acts in 1975. Using police arrest records, a 10 percent random selection of names is made for robbery, aggravated assault, and simple assault, while all the names of murder and rape arrestees are included. The personal, socioeconomic, and demographic characteristics of each group are compared as they relate to the offender, the victim, and the crime setting. In order to predict violent behavior, criminal histories of offenders are rated by the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Scale of Crime Seriousness. The results are compared with an assessment of their current offense by the Sellin-Wolfgang seriousness of injury scale, also used to discover whether the same amount of injury was inflicted in all the offenses in each official violent crime category. Analyses of the data confirm the unpredictability of violent crime and produce no important associations between past and current violent offenses. The variables of age, sex, race, economic status, and living conditions have no conclusive effect on the violence scores. A slight tendency toward increased violence occurs when victims attack first, other offenders and defendants are drinking, the defendants use guns, and when relationships between the defendant and the victim change. Males are more closely associated with violence than females and young peer groups more than older populations, but the correlations are not conclusive. Tables and a bibliography are provided. The appendices contain statistics on violent crime, Philadelphia census tracts, crime seriousness scores, data on the variables analyzed, and coding formulas.
Leff, Carol Skalnik and Mark H. Leff

The authors review the history of Federal gun control legislation starting with the 1919 legislation imposing an excise tax on firearms and ending with the 1938 Federal Firearms Act. Noting that the legislation was particularly ineffective in accomplishing any objectives, other than a decided decline in the use of machine guns in crime, the authors attribute the failure of the Federal legislation to growing opposition to gun control and a relative weakening of the constituency in favor of such controls. Indeed, the major accomplishment of the Department of Justice's attempts to get gun control was to strengthen the opposition and to foster the growth of the National Rifle Association during the period in question. At the end of the period under study, initiative had completely passed into the hands of the NRA whose major views were incorporated as the major provisions of the 1938 Act.

Leynes, Jacques-Philippe, and Ross D. Parke
1975 "Aggressive slide can induce a weapon effect." European Journal of Social Psychology 24 (June): 775-7

This study replicates the "weapons effect" on aggression as reported in Berkowitz and LePage (1967), using 53 freshmen as subjects and a pictoral representation (a slide) of a gun as the stimulus. The design, analysis, and findings are otherwise similar to the Berkowitz-LePage original.
Lizotte, Alan J. and David J. Bordua  

This study examines differences between sporting and defensive patterns of firearms ownership in the State of Illinois. Data were gathered from a sample of 764 telephone interviews from heads of households in Illinois. Respondents owning guns were asked why; responses were coded into "sporting" vs. "protection" gun ownership.

Since dependent variables (firearms ownership for sport and firearms ownership for protection) are dichotomous, the authors used Nerlove and Press' Modified Logistic Response Model rather than ordinary least squares. A path analytic model was constructed to show causal processes among variables. With respect to firearms ownership for sport, income, sex, parents' gun ownership, and age at first gun are the only significant determinants. Sex, parents' gun ownership and county hunting all have indirect effects on gun ownership for sport through age at first gun. With respect to the defensive ownership of guns, however, the county crime rate was the only significant predictor. Generally, sporting gun use appears to be a function of socialization into a gun-sport culture, while gun ownership for protection responds strongly to violent crime.
There is considerable data to suggest that veterans are more likely than nonveterans to own guns. Two factors have been suggested to explain this differential. First, veterans might be socialized into firearm ownership while in the military and then carry this socialization through life. Second, veterans might differentially own guns because they acquire them in the military and return to civilian life with the guns. The authors empirically tested two alternative explanations of veteran gun ownership. First, that there is a selection bias in the military, where enlistees tend to come from rural backgrounds and hence, veterans would be more likely to have been socialized into gun use at an early age and more likely to continue this usage later in life. Second, veterans might prefer living in rural areas and this would provide them with a hunting and sport-shooting climate which would be conducive to gun ownership.

Data were collected in the spring of 1977 from an initial sample of 764 telephone interviews with heads of households in the state of Illinois. In Chicago, random digit dialing was used and in the rest of the state, numbers were randomly selected from directories. Since the variance of a dichotomous variable was to be explained, problems were encountered in using ordinary least squares. A Modified Logistic Response Model was used for analyzing the data (Moolove and Press, 1973).
Seven independent variables were used to control for childhood socialization into firearms ownership for sport: sex, race, education, size of place when 16 years old, region at age 16, age when first gun was acquired, and having been trained to use a gun. There were also 7 variables which control for current situation: size of place, income, county hunting rate, household hunting, respondent's hunting, subscription to sporting magazines, and gun ownership.

The authors concluded that being a veteran was not a significant predictor of gun ownership for sport. The relationship between military gun use and gun ownership for sport is due to childhood socialization variables, (age at first gun, parents gun ownership and sex) and current situation (income). The authors also predicted gun ownership for protection and found that violent crime in the area is the only significant predictor or owning a gun.

The authors concluded that socialization plays a strong role in the sporting use of guns. Parent's ownership, age at first gun and sex were strong predictors of gun ownership for sport. Military socialization, however, is not related to gun ownership for sport or protection.


This study of the hypothesized "Southern subculture of violence" consists of two parts: first, a thorough methodological critique of some of the previous research in the area (especially Hackney, 1969, and Gastil, 1971); and secondly, a reanalysis of state-level aggregate data bearing on the topic. Key problems in prior research identified here are (i) poor measurement of the critical variables, (ii) mis specifications of the model of homicide, and (iii) no allowance in previous models for nonlinear effects. Corrections for these shortcomings in a reanalysis of state-level data show that poverty is routinely the best predictor of the homicide rate, and that net of poverty and a few other confounding variables, the effects of region per se are negligible and insignificant. These results thus tend to disconfirm the "regional subculture of violence" thesis.
In 1976 a new law went into effect in Michigan which provided for an additional two years (non-concurrent) sentence for felonies conducted with guns. At the same time the Detroit prosecuting attorney declared that he would not plea bargain away the charges resulting from the new law. Sufficient publicity was given to the legal changes in the month preceding the implementation of the law. The authors present an analysis of the law’s impact in Detroit.

The first part of the analysis takes sentences given out in the Detroit courts for convictions on crimes that sometimes involve guns, e.g., homicide, robberies, aggravated assaults, and estimates the differences in sentences meted out before and after the law went into effect. A slight effect is shown for assaults and robberies but not for homicides.

The second part of the analysis consists of applying ARIMA time series models to trends in crime rates before and after enactment. The zero-order effects appear to be quite impressive with a decided decline in homicides and robberies in the city of Detroit. The ARIMA analyses, however, indicate that the effects are not likely due to the change in laws but are ones which affected a wide spectrum of crimes whether or not guns are ordinarily involved. Thus auto theft declined as well as homicides. The authors conclude that the much-vaunted decline in crime in Detroit is likely due to causes other than the change in penalties for the use of firearms.

For the past several years, the manufacture and sale of realistic toy guns for children has been an issue of some public controversy. Since there might be some correlation between adult violence and childhood exposure to war toys, some people object to the marketing of toy guns, and picketing protesting the manufacture and sale of such toys has occurred in many communities.

This study attempted to test the hypothesis that picketing depresses the sale of these toys. An unobtrusive experimental design was used to test the hypothesis. The experiment was carried out in a department store on 309 female and 143 male toy buyers. Two picket signs, reading "Toy Gun Today Means Real Gun Tomorrow," were displayed by undergraduate students in front of the store. The experiment was conducted over six consecutive mornings, picketing occurring on the second, fourth, and sixth mornings and no picketing on other days. Each day, observers inside the store were posted at the cash registers and tallied the number of persons who bought toy guns. The data indicated a significant tendency for picketing to depress the sale of toy guns, for both males and females.

Because of the serious consequences of the growing number of human injuries that involve firearms, the authors argue that gun control has become a public health concern. In 1975, Massachusetts implemented a new gun control law, the Bartley-Fox law, which mandated a one-year jail sentence for illegally carrying a gun. According to the authors, the effects of this law are now becoming visible. Homicides caused by firearms to Massachusetts residents decreased from 141 in 1974 to 97 in 1976, a drop of 31%. However, suicide by firearms increased from 154 in 1974 to 186 in 1976, an increase of 21%.

The authors suggest that the major defect of the Bartley-Fox law is that it is not designed specifically to reduce the number of firearms in circulation, a necessary step, they say, if firearms violence is to be reduced. As compared with 13 other countries, the United States has a handgun homicide rate 3.5 to 10 times higher than the overall homicide rate elsewhere. A survey carried out by the Massachusetts Research Center estimated that there are about 350,000 handguns in Massachusetts. The Department of Public Health recently launched a "Program for Prevention in Massachusetts" to reduce death and injuries caused by firearms.


Drawing upon the microeconomic model of criminal behavior proposed by Gary Becker, the authors attempt to build a causal system in which crimes that use guns (e.g., homicide, robberies, and assaults) are determined by the probability of apprehension and the severity of punishment as well as the relative attractiveness of legal and illegal activities. Equations are constructed that attempt to account for the rates of such crimes across the 50 states, taking into account proxies for the above variables as well as measures of the weapons regulations in force in each of the states. Since apprehension and punishment severity are mutually determined, the authors use a two-stage least squares approach to estimation (although the precise formulations are not shown). Findings indicate that firearms regulations variables are not consistently significant and in any event do not account for much of the variation in rates of homicide, robbery and assault across the fifty states.
Psychological explanations of suicide often cite the concept of "lethality of intent" to explain differences in outcome. In other words, individuals who use firearms to kill themselves are seen as more serious in intent than those using less deadly methods. A more sociological perspective emphasizes the social and cultural availability of the various means of self-destruction. This study attempts to show that regional and sex differences have an influence on the availability of firearms as a means of self-destruction. Data were collected from a non-probability sample of 743 undergraduates from two universities in Georgia and Wisconsin. Chi-square tests showed Southerners were more likely to have had experience with firearms than non-Southerners, and males more often had such experience than females. Finally, the data on Vital Statistics of the United States in 1970 on actual methods used by the suicide population are found to be consistent with the regional and sex differences in familiarity with firearms found among these respondents. The authors thus suggest that methods of suicide are basically independent of reasons for suicide and factors such as differing patterns of socialization appear to offer more fruitful areas for research in understanding the relationship among sex, region, and method of suicide.
This report provides information on the incidence of gun ownership and gun violence for the state of Massachusetts. Part of the data is based on a public opinion survey carried out by the Massachusetts Research Center. 503 Massachusetts residents of voting age were selected from telephone directories by the use of random numbers in March, 1976. Other data were gathered from a variety of official sources such as UCR.

It is estimated that there are 350,000 hand guns in Massachusetts. In other words, 11.8% of the households in the state possess at least one handgun. Handguns are the primary murder weapon in Massachusetts, and all categories of gun crimes have risen sharply since 1968. The survey data also indicated that 93% of Massachusetts residents think there should be gun control laws. 91% favor licensing of handguns, 67% favor mandatory sentencing, and 44% favor the banning of private ownership of handguns.

This study illustrates the extent and impact of firearm crimes in the City and County of Honolulu. The number of firearms involved in crimes has been growing steadily in Honolulu since 1964. The most deadly, and preferred, crime weapon is the handgun. Also since 1964, there has been an increase in the number of guns registered and gun permits issued. 63% of the weapons recovered by the Police Department over a two-month period are handguns, another indication of the preferred use of handguns by criminals.

In Honolulu, 51.2% of the homicides reported between 1968 and 1973 resulted from gunshots; the use of firearms in aggravated assaults has increased from 28 in 1964 to 97 in 1971; handguns account for 275 of the 300 armed robberies committed in 1971, and 38% of all robberies. In addition, firearms are used in 16% of the reported rapes. Finally, gunshots account for 22% of the suicides in Honolulu reported between July 1, 1968 and June 30, 1973.
Various handgun and firearm control issues are discussed, with special attention to Federal efforts and the New Jersey handgun control laws. The purposes of this paper are to: (1) present a picture of how many handguns there are in the U.S. and their relationship to crime; (2) describe the pros and cons of handgun controls; (3) examine various types of existing and proposed controls, including Federal, state and foreign laws; (4) discuss Saturday Night Specials and their relationship to handguns in general; and (5) compare arguments for the banning versus the regulation of handguns. First, firearm, handgun, and criminal statistics are discussed. It is noted that no less than 40 million firearms are owned by Americans, with 2.5 million added to this pool every year. It is also noted that levels of firearms ownership vary significantly by geographic region and that these regional variations correlate very closely with levels of firearm violence. Next, the pros and cons on handgun controls are examined. The legitimate uses of handgun control, and the Wolfgang substitutions hypothesis are discussed. The substitution hypothesis holds that, in the absence of handguns, criminals intent on violence will merely substitute some other weapon (e.g., a knife or explosives). This is followed by an overview of existing control regulations, including the National Firearms Act of 1934, the Federal Firearms Act of 1938, the Gun Control Act of 1968, and handgun legislation pending before the 94th Congress. Finally, individual discussions are provided regarding state gun control laws, New Jersey handgun control laws, foreign efforts at gun control, the role of the Saturday Night Special, and the banning versus the regulation of handguns. Alternatives to strengthening handgun control are provided, and recommendations are presented concerning handgun registration, manufacture, sale and disposition. Tabular data and reference notes are provided.
The "carrying concealed weapons" (CCW) statute was passed by the Michigan legislature in order to discourage the carrying of firearms in situations where they might be used to commit serious crimes. This study attempted to determine whether judges in Detroit courts deal with CCW cases and offenders in a manner likely to accomplish the statutory purpose. Data were gathered directly from the court: every fourth case was selected from the file; the total sample size was 464 CCW cases.

It was found that in 9.3% of the CCW cases, the defendant was allowed to plead guilty to a lesser offense at the initial appearance. Twenty-one percent of the CCW cases were dismissed at the preliminary examination stage. At the plea negotiation stage, 59.3% of those bound over for trial on CCW charges (a felony with a 5-year maximum sentence) were pleaded guilty to attempted CCW (a felony with a 2-year maximum sentence).

Of the 348 defendants reaching the trial stage, 24% of the cases were dismissed, and 7.5% were found not guilty. The overall sentencing pattern given to 232 guilty CCW defendants was as follows: only a total of 18% of those convicted were sentenced to some form of confinement, while the remainder either received probation and/or a fine, or a suspended sentence. Finally, only 7.2% of all convicted defendants were sentenced to a prison term exceeding one year; 4.7%, between 3 months and one year; and 5.5%, less than 90 days. Both the high dismissal rate and the relative leniency of sentences suggest that CCW cases are not considered as serious crime by judges.
Certain shootings are justified or unjustified; 3) Most shootings are called justified by departments, and very few are referred for criminal charges; 4) While the number of minorities shot is greater than their proportion in the general population, it is not inconsistent with the number of blacks and minorities arrested for serious felonies; and 5) A sizable percentage of the shooting incidents involved out-of-uniform officers.


Statistics related to gun control were indexed by 48 items. Subject matter and alternative subject titles are cross-referenced. For example, a typical question is "To what extent are firearms used in murder and what are the trends". This question is placed under the subject heading, "Murder, Firearms" and a short response is provided: "Firearm murders are on the increase absolutely and proportionately. Since 1970, firearm murders have increased over 50%—about twice the rate of increase as murders as a whole. One out of every two murders is now by gunshot." This short response is followed by a more detailed answer in the event more information is requested. The data was compiled from various sources, including Statistics Canada. There are 19 pages of short and detailed information and the information is also provided in French.
The author lays out the major ways in which criminals could obtain weapons, estimates the number of such transactions by each method, and then suggests a strategy for control based on such estimates. Purchases from licensed dealers constitute one source, but estimates of the number of weapons passing from that source to the criminal population are uncertain although it is clear that there are few impediments of any serious sort to such transfers. Another source constitutes private transfers and while the number of such transfers may be estimated very roughly, the proportion involving criminals is not estimable. Thefts are a third source and since it is likely that these constitute direct transfer into criminal hands, it is likely that the 100 to 150 thousand handgun thefts constitute an important source of handguns for criminals. The author investigates the possibility of a black market in handguns in which illegal firms specialize in such commodities but comes to the conclusion, based on a small-scale ATF investigation in Boston, that these firms are likely to be very small and to be part of some more generalized fencing operation. Finally, relying on an ATF study that traced crime-related guns through from purchaser to as far as possible, it appears that criminals, especially robbers, purchase stolen guns or directly steal such guns. These sources of guns used in crime suggest that local law enforcement officials might do more to interfere with the flow of weapons into criminal hands than increased federal enforcement efforts.
This study examines the relationships among gun control legislation, access to handguns, and rates of violence. Data were gathered for 50 states in 1970 from census and other federal sources.

Multiple regression was used in the analysis. Gun control legislation was measured by a series of seven questions concerning the presence or absence of specific gun control measures in each state. Each was treated as a dummy variable. Other independent variables included population density, percent black, percent unemployed, percent below poverty line, median years of education, median family income, etc. Dependent variables in this study consisted of a variety of crimes such as homicide, assault and robbery. The results indicate that gun control laws have no significant effect on lowering rates of violence associated with firearms. Furthermore, proportional gun ownership across 4 regions (gathered from polls) was regressed on the same independent variables, and no correlation between ownership and gun control laws was found. Finally, violent crimes were regressed on the gun ownership and all the other independent variables, with the result that differential access to handguns had no significant effect on violent acts.
National Rifle Association
1975 Firearms and Laws Review, Denver, CO.

This review contained easy to understand digests of state laws regulating handgun and longgun purchase, possession, and carrying requirements. The review was aimed toward users of firearms, describing whether permits were necessary to purchase, possess, or carry handguns or longguns, and the types of carrying restrictions (on person or in a car) applicable in each state. Selected city regulations were covered for some large cities, including New York City, New Orleans, Miami, and Chicago.
This study describes and analyzes issues related to firearms and crimes in the United States. Data were gathered from a variety of sources including Uniform Crime Reports, police departments, national polls, Vital Statistics, etc.

It was estimated that there were 90 million firearms in civilian hands in the United States in 1964, 24 million handguns, 35 million rifles, and 31 million shotguns. Ownership of rifles and shotguns is highest in rural areas and towns, but handgun ownership is highest in towns and large cities. Sales of longguns doubled from 1962 to 1968, and in the same period sales of handguns quadrupled. Americans are dying from firearms accidents at a rate of about 2,900 per year; another 20,000 persons suffer accidental firearms injuries each year. Firearms were used in 63% of homicides, 37% of robberies and 21% of aggravated assault. Handguns are the predominant firearm used in crime. Guns seem not to be an effective means of protecting the home against either the burglar or the robber. The authors suggested that gun use in violence rises and falls with gun ownership. Serious efforts at state and local firearms regulations have been hindered by the interstate flow of firearms. Public opinion has favored some kind of firearms regulation since 1930.

The authors suggested that gun control systems that substantially reduce the number of guns are effective in reducing the level of gun violence.
One hypothesis suggested by the "Southern subculture of violence" thesis is that Southern culture socialization within the family has a lifelong effect on individuals which is reflected in differential gun ownership, and that the differential ownership of guns results in higher rates of homicide. The purpose of this study was to test the gun ownership part of the hypothesis. Data were taken from the 1973 and 1974 General Social Surveys of the National Opinion Research Center.

Ordinary least squares regression analyses were used to analyze gun ownership and pistol ownership. Independent variables in the equations were region of adolescence, current region, size of place of adolescence, family income, current city place, education, and age. The results indicated that region of adolescence was not significant, although current region was. The findings about regional effects suggest that one's current region, but not region of one's adolescence, has an important impact on gun and pistol ownership. Both income and religion, compatible with previous findings, also had strong effects on gun and pistol ownership. Size of place of origin was also strongly related to pistol and gun ownership. The same data were reanalyzed using log linear analysis, with essentially the same results. The authors concluded that their findings cast doubt on specific parts of the subcultural explanation for regional differences in gun ownership.
This study attempts to replicate Berkowitz and LePage's (1967) weapons effect study. The authors argue that Berkowitz and LePage weapons effect would be accounted for by subject awareness and desire to cooperate with the experiment. Three replicated experiments were carried out with sample sizes of 62, 34, and 75 undergraduate students for each. The first two replication attempts failed: the results of weapons presence, demand awareness, evaluation apprehension or the interaction effects were inconclusive. With some modification, the third replication attempt succeeded.

The data indicated that the effect was obtained only with slightly sophisticated subjects who were aware of the purpose of the guns. Aware subjects who were apparently experiencing little evaluation apprehension cooperated with the hypothesis, while aware subjects who did experience evaluation apprehension did not act in accordance with the hypothesis. The authors concluded that there is a complex interplay between sophistication, demand awareness, and evaluation apprehension in experiments designed to study the weapons effect. Finally, the authors cautiously suggest that the weapons experiment is not evidence for the conditioning theory and cannot be generalized to non-laboratory situations.

Parras, W., and J.W. Pedroncelli

Trends in armed robbery over a five-year period and patterns of armed robbery reported to the Albuquerque police during a two-and-one-half month period. Armed robbery increased 374 percent over the five-year period, a much faster rate of increase than was experienced by the population. Armed robbery tends to be a seasonal crime; the last six months of each year examined in this study experienced higher incidences of armed robbery than did the first six months. Analysis of the patterns of armed robbery indicated that most armed robberies occurred during the police department's swing shift (70 percent), occurred between 5 p.m. and 12 a.m. (74 percent), occurred at convenience food stores, commercial establishments and on the highway (86 percent), were committed by lone offenders (65 percent), and involved extensive use of firearms (74 percent). Appended material includes guidelines for preliminary planning and data collection methods related to statistical investigation, and a bibliography of technical reports and working papers published by the Criminal Justice Program, Institute for Social Research and Development, University of New Mexico.

The authors construct a simultaneous equation model of crime generation and crime control to illustrate that both the offense rate and the certainty of punishment depend on factors causing crime, the resources devoted to apprehension and conviction, and the severity of punishment. Based upon Uniform Crime Reports from 1961 to 1970, the author attempted to test some hypotheses concerning murder, assault, gun use, and deterrence which are derived from these theoretical models.

Regression analysis indicates that in the ten years studied, murders committed with a firearm have been increasing much more rapidly than those committed with knives and other weapons. Most of the increase can be attributed to rising assaults with firearms among family and friends, rather than to felonious activities involving strangers -- such as robbery. The increase in murders committed with a firearm results from an increase in both the assault rate and the fraction of assaults involving firearms. A final analysis indicates that gun use in assault can be deterred by the certainty and the severity of the penalty for criminal homicide. However, gun density (measured by the rate of fatal gun accidents) plays a minimal role in deterring the use of guns in assault.


This study assesses the effects of handgun density and police effectiveness on the homicide rate under a framework of cost minimization. Time series data from 1951 to 1968 collected from Uniform Crime Reports, and data on the weapons stock from Newton and Zimring (1969) are the basis of the analysis. The "effectiveness of law enforcement" was measured by the fraction of offenses cleared by arrest.

Two simultaneous equations were systematically derived from the cost minimization framework in a log linear form. In the first equation, the homicide rate was regressed on the clearance rate and gun density. In the second equation, the clearance rate was regressed on the homicide offense rate, employees per capita allocated to crime, and the "other offense" rate.

The results showed a relatively high elasticity on the gun density variable with respect to homicide rate. This lends indirect credence to the notion that effective handgun controls may reduce homicide. The clearance rate had a strong impact on homicide in the expected direction, which is not consistent with the common belief that aggravated assault tends to be impulsive or expressive. The effect of employees per capita allocated to crime was insignificant. In general, certainty of apprehension showed the largest negative effect on homicides.
Pierce, Glenn L. and William J. Bowes

Taking advantage of the introduction of new legislation -- known as the Bartley-Fox Amendment -- that fixed a mandatory one-year sentence for illegal unlicensed carrying of weapons in Massachusetts, the authors at­tempt to assess the impact of the law by comparing Massachusetts crime trends from 1973 through 1976 with nearby states, by comparing Boston with comparable cities in the region and by modelling time series (month by month) for relevant crimes in order to detect shifts in crime commission rates after the legislation was put into place.

Data used were obtained from UCR detailed tapes for Massachusetts and comparable jurisdictions in the region, and from the Boston Police Department manual and computerized crime records.

Findings were as follows: First, although Bartley-Fox reduced the incidence of gun-related aggravated assaults, there was a compensating increase in non-gun assaults, suggesting a substitution effect. Secondly, Bartley-Fox reduced the number of gun robbers in Boston immediately after enactment and had a decided effect on other Massachusetts jurisdictions within a year following enactment. In Boston there was a tendency for gun robberies to revert to pre-Bartley-Fox levels in the year following enactment. Thirdly, Bartley-Fox had a moderate effect in lowering the gun homicide incidence in the Boston jurisdiction, especially for homicides which were not related to other felonies (i.e., armed robbery). All three sets of findings obtained in both time series analyses within the jurisdiction in question and in comparison with other jurisdictions.

(See also entries for Rossman et al., 1979; and Deutsch and Alt, 1977.)
See Pierce and Bower (1979) of which the current article is a slightly revised and edited version.
The purpose of this study was to analyze the crime of aggravated assault with particular interest in establishing patterns of crime. The data consisted of a random sample of 25% of the 965 crimes classified by the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department as aggravated assaults for the period January 1, 1961 to December 31, 1961 (N=241). Copies of the offense reports for each case in the study were obtained as well as the arrest records of both the offender and the victim. Data were analyzed in terms of a set of formulated hypotheses which were concerned with the following variables: time, location, season of the year, weapon, reporting, injury, police processing, alcohol involvement and relationship of offender and victim.

The patterns discovered showed that the crimes were just as likely to occur in summer months as in winter months. The assaults were more likely to occur between 6PM Friday and 6AM Monday. Most of the offenders were from lower socio-economic groups. The weapon most commonly used by both males and females was the knife followed by guns. White offenders were much more likely to use personal force than were blacks. In summary, the authors concluded that their findings were very similar to those of Marvin Wolfgang (1958) who had carried out a similar analysis on the crime of homicide.
Characteristics of criminal homicides occurring in Houston, TX, from 1958 through 1961 and in Philadelphia, PA, from 1948 through 1952 are compared. The Philadelphia statistics are from a study of 588 cases of criminal homicide involving 430 offenders and 425 victims. Comparisons are drawn with regard to the race, ethnic group, and sex of victim and offender; the method of assault; the time and place of the incident; the type of interpersonal relationship between victim and offender; homicides involving husbands and wives; and the relationship between victim and offender in terms of race, ethnic group, and sex. In addition to the comparison with the Philadelphia findings, the Houston data are compared with data from an earlier study of Houston homicides from 1945 through 1949. Homicide rates in Houston are about double those in Philadelphia. Blacks account for a smaller proportion of homicides in Houston than in Philadelphia. In Houston, black homicide rates are about six times as high as those for "other whites," with rates for Latin-Americans falling in between. Shootings account for almost two-thirds of the homicide deaths in Houston, compared to one-third in Philadelphia. Death by beating is less frequent in Houston than in Philadelphia. In both cities, criminal homicide most often involves a victim and offender who are members of the same race, who know each other, who are male, and who live at the same address or within a mile or two of each other. Supporting data are included.

President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice

This report was one in a series of Task Force reports produced in the late 1960s, which examined the levels of crime, its economic impact, and policy directions. The report presented an extensive descriptive analysis of all features of crime known at that time, deriving primarily from the UCR reports, supplemented with the recent introduction of victimization data findings. In addition the report cites a vast array of sociological, legal, and economic studies that bear in some way on the "crime problem." In addition to discussing the usual UCR types of incidents, the report contained a chapter each on professional crime, white collar crime, and riots and crime.

The report concluded that more and better statistics were needed to assess the "crime problem" in order to better cope with rising levels of crime.
Each of these reports was conducted for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, but undertaken by different survey research organizations and academic institutions. Each provided information on the feasibility of implementing a national annual research effort in collecting victimization data, the methodological problems in obtaining data from respondents, and an assessment of the types of questions that might be included in a national victimization survey.

Field Surveys I focused on the amount of crime experienced in Washington, D.C., with the view to developing a reliable and practical victimization survey methodology.

Field Surveys II presented the results of a national survey of a probability survey of 10,000 households during the summer of 1966. The amount of crime, features of criminal incidents, impact on victims, and attitudes toward the police were collected and analyzed.

Field Surveys III focused on the incidence of victimization and citizen attitudes toward crime in high crime areas of Washington, D.C., Boston, and Chicago.
This article analyzes South-nonSouth differences in several matters related to the theme of violence, all in the context of the "Southern subculture of violence" hypothesis. (See citations for Gastil, 1971; Loftin and Hill, 1974.) Data are derived from secondary analyses of several Gallup polls taken in the period 1959-1968; topics covered in the analysis include gun ownership, hunting, opinions on gun control, attitudes and experiences with corporal punishment, etc. In all cases, the South-nonSouth differences are significant and in the expected direction, and test-factor standardization of the results for education, urbanization, and industrialization reduced only slightly the South-nonSouth differences. Thus, the effect of region in these results is largely independent of these factors. Some discussion of the overtime trends in the South-nonSouth differences is also provided. The author concludes that for the period in question, the South had "the dubious distinction of being in the vanguard of a national trend—it was the most violent region in an increasingly violent nation" (p. 443).

The Bartley-Fox Law, which went into effect April 1, 1975, maintained the general structure of Massachusetts' gun control statutes and in addition, added a mandatory minimum one year sentence for those convicted of illegally carrying a firearm. The law prohibited suspended sentences, probation or other means of avoiding sentencing a defendant convicted under the new law. Since the law had a focus on the illegal use of firearms, this report tried to answer whether the law did affect assaults, robberies and homicides and how it was that the Massachusetts' Criminal Justice System adapted to the mandatory sentencing scheme.

The report covers the legislative history of the Bartley-Fox law and sets out the legal issues associated with it. Also included is a substantive discussion of the law's effect and an analysis of the law's impact on specific types of crime. The effect of the law on the decision to make arrests is assessed and also the impact of the law on the courts is examined.

Briefly, the report argues that the Bartley-Fox law substantially reduced the incidence of gun assaults but it increased the number of non-gun assaults in the state. In addition, the law had a moderate deterrent effect on gun robberies; however, there was evidence that by 1977 after a moderate reduction in gun robberies, the incidence of gun robberies for certain types of targets, e.g. taxi, residential and street robberies began to increase. The study also found that there
was some confusion on the part of police officers and court officials as to whether or not the law applied in a person's home or place of business.


Synopses are presented of four studies that provide insights into the nature and extent of fear of crime in the public schools. A longitudinal study of 532 young black males and their parents in Philadelphia, PA, found that many of the youths and parents regarded crime and violence in the schools and on the streets around the schools as a serious problem. These fears were most prevalent among lower-class families. Relocation to safer areas or schools, banding together to oppose threats to personal safety, truancy, and dropping out of school were among approaches taken by youths and parents to alleviate their fears. An analysis of national crime survey data on victimization in the public schools of 26 cities found that 270,000 personal victimizations -- 8 percent of all such victimizations in the cities surveyed -- took place in the schools. Most in-school crimes involved either petty theft or minor assault, few involved weapons and/or offender-victim physical contact, and few (including those in which teachers were victims) were reported to the police. A reexamination of data from the National Institute of Education's Safe School Study Report to Congress found the following student characteristics to be associated with fear of crime: poor grades and reading ability, negative attitudes toward school authorities and fellow students, poor social interaction, and lack of self-confidence. An ongoing study of the extent and causes of delinquent behavior among a national sample of youths includes a small component on victimization and should produce national estimates of victimization rates and of the social and behavioral characteristics of young victims.
Homicide rates are analyzed for age, race, and sex of the victim; location of the incident; type of homicide; method of lethal violence; and race and sex of assailant. Analysis of homicide patterns in Cuyahoga County, Ohio (Metropolitan Cleveland), for 1958-1974 discloses the following major trends: a dramatic rise in overall homicide rates in the city (320 percent) and suburbs (200 percent); an increase in justifiable homicides; a doubling of percentage of homicides incident to other felonies; a markedly increased incidence of homicide among younger persons; a conspicuous rise in firearm killings (now 81 percent of all homicides); and a continued preponderance of intraracial homicide, with the highest rates among nonwhite males in the city. The trends in Cuyahoga County are consistent with those in other United States metropolitan counties.

Homicide is responsible for a major part of the decreased life expectancy among young, urban, nonwhite men. The factor most consistently associated with these trends is the increased use of handguns.

This study is a statistical description of accidental firearm fatalities in Cuyahoga County (Cleveland), Ohio, from 1958 to 1973. The data showed a threefold increase in the rate of such death since 1967. In the city, accidental firearm deaths occur most frequently among nonwhite males; conversely, in the suburbs, the majority of victims are white males.

In the city, the average annual rate of accidental firearm deaths for white males rose from 0.3 per 100,000 for the period 1958-1962 to 0.6 for 1963-1967, and to 1.4 for 1968-1973. For nonwhite males, the increase was from 1.5 to 1.7 and then to 5.6. For suburban white males, the rate of accidental firearm deaths per 100,000 rose from 0.2 to 0.3, and then to 0.6. In the total of 148 accidental firearm fatalities studied, 83% of the deaths resulted from mishaps with handguns; 78% occurred when someone was handling or playing with a gun; and 48% of the deaths involved someone who had been drinking alcohol. The majority of all victims were in the 25-34 age range. The data also suggested that during 1958-1973, only 23 burglars, robbers or intruders in Cleveland were killed by intended victims, or roughly a sixth the number of fatal firearms accidents. The authors conclude that a firearm in the home is more likely to cause an accidental death than to be used to deter an intruder.
This study was prompted by the experiences of a British psychologist during a visit to Chicago in 1976, whereupon she became interested in the atmosphere of tension and fear of violence she sensed in the city. The author accompanied a police squad-car unit on its usual Saturday night patrol through a high-rise Chicago ghetto, an area described as an arsenal of weapons, an area where disputes are common and where it is understandable why police overreact. The author in examining why city dwellers were enveloped by fear cited the following reasons: first, American cities are so racially mixed that isolated racial and ethnic ghettos tend to exist; second, the widespread use of firearms and the frequency with which they are used to settle disputes and; third, a fear that does not allow people to walk the streets, parks or to use public transportation in turn creates a situation that makes the streets an extremely dangerous place to be. The author concluded that in Britain, urban poverty must be addressed, and police efforts aimed at controlling weapon use must be supported.
Starting with the observation that clear majorities of the American public have favored some sort of gun control through registration of handguns, the authors raise the question why there has not been enacted corresponding legislation. Suspecting that opponents of gun control may feel more strongly about their position than proponents, the authors asked a series of questions on the intensity (how strongly do you feel about this?) and the centrality of the issue (how much would this issue affect your voting for a candidate?). Neither intensity or centrality distinguish between the two groups. However, as shown in another survey question, gun control opponents were much more likely to translate their opinions into actions in the form of writing letters, contributing money and the like. The authors interpret the findings as indicating that the opinions that are brought to the attention of legislators are simply much more likely to be sentiments of opposition than of support for such legislation. A further interpretation is that the opponents of gun control legislation are much better organized and therefore in a better position to provide opportunities for "action."

It has been argued that there is a discrepancy between the demands of public opinion and actual public policy on gun control, with the public demanding stricter controls than have so far been enacted. One interpretation of this discrepancy is that legislators may have a truer understanding of mass sentiment on gun registration than the polls present, and that the typical Gallup-NORC item somehow fails to capture adequately the political strength of public sentiment against gun registration (GR). Three hypotheses are offered in this connection: 1) GR sentiment tends to vary appreciably with question wording, and therefore is less crystallized than survey data suggest, 2) Anti-GR opinions are held with greater intensity than are pro-GR opinions, and therefore have different consequences for political action, and 3) Anti-GR opinion is located particularly among those with greater political knowledge, and thus has a disproportionate impact on legislators.

Data were obtained from three national surveys administered in 1975, 1976, and 1977. In general, the results do not support any of the above hypotheses. (1) Clear majorities favor gun registration however the question is asked, which is inconsistent with the hypothesis that public opinion is "uncrystallized," and therefore uneffectual, on this issue. (2) In general, pro-GR sentiments were somewhat more strongly held than anti-GR opinions, the precise opposite effect to that suggested in the second hypothesis above. (3) There were no significant differences in political knowledge between pro-GR and anti-GR
groups. The authors conclude that the apparent discrepancy between public opinion and public policy in this area has little to do with the structure of public opinion per se.
The objective of this research was to survey, analyze, and make recommendations to ATF on the existing systems and future requirements for tracing firearms involved in crime. Data were shown on the usage of the National Firearms Tracing Center, the reasons given for tracing firearms, the types of firearms traced, the reasons that a firearm could not be successfully traced, and the usefulness of the trace in solving crimes.

Five alternatives for future gun tracing activities were discussed, and the report recommended that ATF create a centralized automated records system for all newly manufactured guns and standardize gun tracing systems at the state and local levels.

The report provided very sketchy information on the use of the ATF trace service for the 29 U.S. cities studied. The rationale for the use of these cities and the basis for their selection was not presented; it appears to be one of convenience. The report suffered from a lack of methodological rigor.

The author focuses on suicide rates by method, sex and lethality. Statistics indicated that firearms are by far the most frequently used method of suicide followed by poison and then hangings. There were, however, differences by sex. Men were much more likely than women to use firearms as a suicide method. The author discusses three possible explanations for this: first, it is hypothesized that violence is acceptable by male norms; second, that females fear disfigurement; and third, that there are differences in the actual intention to die by sex. In that men are more likely to choose a firearm as a method of suicide and that men are more likely to complete a successful suicide, the hypothesis which states that there are differences in intent to die is partially supported. The author stated that in order to reduce death by suicide, it is necessary to restrict access to firearms and lethal drugs.


Using data from the 50 states, Seitz attempts to show how gun control legislation affects gun accessibility and in turn the commission of homicide. Noting a .98 correlation between total homicide rates and gun-related homicides, Seitz asserts that accessibility of guns does not involve substitution of other weapons when guns are not available.

Computing a gun accessibility index for each of the states by factor analyzing across the 50 states correlations among firearm accident rates and robberies, Seitz constructed a firearms accessibility index from resulting factor scores. Reasoning that the culture of violence among non-whites would produce a different relationship between homicide rates of non-whites and gun control laws, Seitz hypothesizes two models, one for whites and the other for non-whites, of the effect of gun control law on accessibility of firearms and hence effects on homicide. Among whites, gun control laws would have both a direct effect by reinforcing the prevalent norms against interpersonal violence and an indirect effect by reducing firearms accessibility. Path analysis purportedly shows that both such effects occur for whites. Among non-whites, because the culture of violence supports the use of firearms, the only (indirect) effect of gun control laws would be to reduce accessibility of firearms which in turn would reduce the incidence of homicide. Path analysis is said to confirm this model as well.

It should be noted that the presence or absence of gun control legislation in each of the states is modeled by a dummy variable that takes
on the value of 1.0 when a state has both gun purchase and gun carrying regulation and the value of 0.0 if otherwise. In the analysis each state is treated as a unit and no other characteristics of states are entered into the analysis (e.g., socio-economic level, age composition, and so on.)

Sherrill, Robert

This book is by an investigative reporter whose previous assignments included writing for The Nation and The New York Magazine. This book has been written in a journalistic, almost humorous, fashion. The author provided no statistical analysis but rather covered several areas related to the use and history of firearms in American culture. His book attempted to piece together the history of firearms in America from newspapers and other historical accounts, much of it anecdotal. Through the use of vignettes, the author covered the multifaceted experience of Americans and firearms in a somewhat satirical manner. The author examined Congressional attempts at gun control legislation since the 1930's and the efforts of the National Rifle Association to weaken such Congressional efforts. Also, a discussion is provided of the role of persons like Senator Thomas Dodd, who represented the firearms industry interests, in thwarting other gun control efforts.
Information on arrestees and the circumstances surrounding the arrest is provided, and a comparison is made between the handling of women and men in the pretrial and trial processes. Data for this study were provided from the Prosecutor's Management Information System of the District of Columbia and the national arrest statistics from the Uniform Crime Reports for 1974 and 1975. It was found that in 1974 and 1975 women in Washington, D.C., accounted for about 15 percent of all arrestees, compared with the national rate of 16 percent. They were most likely to commit victimless offenses, with prostitution being the major offense in this category. Compared with national statistics, however, women arrested in the District were more likely than women in the nation as a whole to be charged with violent offenses and robbery.

Eighty-two percent of all female arrestees in the District of Columbia were black, with the average age being 28 years. Over 70 percent acted alone, used a weapon, and in the case of violent offenses, a relative or friend was the victim. Women were less likely to be charged with felonies than were men; and about 40 percent of the women, as compared with 50 percent of the men, had been arrested before. In tracking women through the various stages of the criminal justice system, it was found that about the same percentage of women as men had their cases dropped by the prosecutor or dismissed by the judge. There were some differences within offense categories; for instance, women charged with property or economic offenses were more likely to have the charges "nullled." Among the 30 percent of defendants who pled or were found guilty, a greater percentage of men than women were sentenced to prison. Caution is urged by the researcher in interpreting any of these results, because there were unexplained, wide fluctuations in statistics examined between 1974 and 1975. The appendices provide statistics used and the results of the analyses.
Skogan, Wesley G.

Skogan compared the official vs. victimization survey derived rates of robbery and auto theft to show that official crime rates are useful indices of the proportional distribution of crime in a city. As such, comparison across cities using official crime rates may be more appropriate than other researchers have believed.

The UCR and victimization rates were compared for 10 cities; robbery and auto theft were chosen as the crime categories since they are the best matched categories for UCR and victimization data comparisons. A Pearson correlation between survey and official rates for auto theft was .94, while that for robbery was .39. Skogan then compared the often used correlates of crime (population, proportion non-white, proportion under 18, proportion employed, those below poverty line) using both measures of the "crime rate." He was interested to determine whether different conclusions on the correlates of crime would be made using UCR or victimization data. His conclusion was that official crime rates and victimization survey estimates of crime would produce the same set (and of roughly the same magnitude) of predictor variables.

Although Skogan acknowledged the measurement problem in official crime rates, i.e., that they are not good measures of the "actual" amount of crime, he showed that official crime rates if used appropriately can tap particular inter-city variations and correlates of crime.

Skogan, Wesley G.

Skogan utilized 1973 national victimization data to examine the characteristics of victim reporting of incidents to the police. He found that there were no racial differences in propensity to report crimes, but that women were somewhat more likely to report crimes to the police than men. Those in the very youngest age group (12-19) were least likely to report crimes, while those older had a similar rate of reporting. Examining victim-offender relationships (stranger or known to victim), he found that for two major crime types, rape and assault violence with theft, that there were large differences in whether victims reported the incidents depending on whether they knew the offenders (less likely to report if offender was known to victim); for other crime categories, there were few differences in whether the offender was known to the victim in terms of reporting practices.

Citizen reporting of incidents was tied more to the characteristics of incidents. For example, in robbery incidents, 23% that did not involve assault or use of a weapon or which were unsuccessful were reported to the police. In contrast, 72% of robberies which were successful, did involve major assault, and did involve the presence of a weapon were reported. Similarly, the reporting of larcenies increased as the amount of property taken increased.

Skogan compared measures of (1) the official crime rate with survey measures of crime and (2) each of these measures with the "true" crime rate. He explored the implications of his analysis for criminal justice planning.

Using victimization data of commercial and household robbery and burglary for 26 cities, Skogan found that much inter-city variation in the reporting of these incidents (from the victim surveys) was attributed to the seriousness of the offense and the inter- or intra-racial composition of the victim-offender relationship. Although overall citizen non-reporting of incidents occurred for one-half of these incidents, police recording practices also contributed to a lower official measure of crime. Police recording of incidents varied highly from city to city, but overall represented an additional filter of about one-half of incidents reported to them.

Skogan concluded by outlining a problem that plagues police departments who attempt to be accurate and responsive to citizen complaints: where "crime rates" are relatively higher, citizen perceptions of the effectiveness of the police are lower. Thus, there are good reasons for police departments to ignore complaints or to overlook reports in the official production of crime rates.


This edited collection of 12 articles contained many of the papers presented at a conference on victimization held at the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration in 1975. The focus, as the title implies, was on presenting the current work of researchers engaged in analyses of victimization data.

The book highlighted the major issues dealt with by victimologists, with some of the major writers in the field represented. Both national trends and local uses of victimization data were analyzed. Articles included the following: Gottfredson and Hindelang's analysis of bodily injury, Park's examination of citizen attitudes and perceptions resulting from police encounters in reporting victimizations, DuBow and Reed's analysis of the limits of victim surveys, Cook's analysis of offender's "strategic choice" in committing robbery, Jones's cost analysis of victim compensation, and Tuchfarber et al's recommendations for reducing the cost of victim surveys.
The purpose of this paper was to analyze: a) socio-demographic correlates of gun control, b) the relationship between attitudes towards gun control and crime and punishment and c) the inter-relationship between various gun control attitudes. Data from 12 surveys which used a "police permit question" were obtained from the American Institute of Public Opinion (Gallup) for the years 1959, 1963, 1965, 1966, 1967, 1971, and 1972, the General Social Survey, National Opinion Research Center, 1972, 1974, 1975, 1976, 1977, and the Survey Research Center, University of Michigan, 1975, 1976. Relationships were examined using "D-Systems" which inspects for differences between categories, tests for significance and determines whether difference is constant over time or whether differences interact with time.

The author found that women have been consistently less opposed to the requiring of police permits for guns than men from 1959 to 1975 by about 16.5 percentage points. There was no relationship, however, between age and gun control attitudes over the period studied suggesting constant opposition over time. Black attitudes have at times fluctuated significantly but with no discernable trend. Overall, however, Blacks tend to be less opposed to gun control than whites. Community type (from rural to large city) and region exhibit independent influences. Rural communities were the most opposed to control as were the South and West with opposition being highest in rural communities within rural regions. The oldest immigrants were most opposed to control and most recent immigrants and blacks the least opposed. "Old stock" consists of Protestant, rural non-northerners and this group was also most likely to have guns and most gun owners are anti-controls.

Despite rises in crime, pro and anti control support has remained constant. There is little relationship between attitudes towards control and attitudes toward stronger punitive measures toward criminals. Finally, attitudes toward control varies according to the severity of control and weapon specified. Permits and registration are opposed by 25-30% while a ban on all handguns was opposed by 60% and confiscation of all guns was opposed by 85%. Further analysis showed that there were severity and type of weapon dimensions in attitudes toward gun control.
The need for greater attention to crime reduction by state and local planning agencies is also stressed.
This book explored the longitudinal and cross-sectional trends and relationships among three major variables: crime rates, public opinion about crime, and public opinion on controlling crime. Public opinion data used were the National Opinion Research Center’s General Social Surveys, Gallup, and Harris polls. The authors examined the relationship in trends in crime rates, media coverage, and public opinion; the fear of crime and attitudes toward punishment; and the relationship between fear of crime and liberal vs. punitive attitudes toward controlling crime and criminals.

Problems were found in identifying clear-cut relationships among these variables, and the authors concluded that a better understanding of the factors that contribute to public opinion was required. Toward that end, they identified “attribution” (the development of ideas about the causes and effects of things in public opinion) and “salience” (the experience and concern with the problem at hand) as two critical factors in interpreting public opinion on social issues, like crime.

Data on 444 homicide defendants and 432 victims are analyzed and compared with data from earlier studies, and implications for several theories concerning violent behavior are discussed. The analysis covers the social characteristics of defendants and victims, the legal history of defendants, social and demographic relationships between defendants and victims, and circumstances of the offense. In the jurisdiction studied, the majority of homicide defendants and victims were black lower-class and working-class males. The majority of homicide defendants had been previously arrested for criminal offenses. Some interaction prior to the murder existed between the defendant and the victim in virtually all cases. Defendants and victims not only were closely related in terms of social ties, but also were frequently of the same sex, race, and age. Over half of the defendants were charged with murders that took place in the home. The gun was the most common murder weapon. Theories of social disorganization, frustration-aggression, and subculture of violence are reviewed in light of the data. It is noted that, on the basis of the observation that most homicide offenders come from the black lower classes, social scientists and laypersons have concluded that violence is predictable among these groups. The effects of such a conclusion on the lives of those who are defined in its terms are questioned. Supporting data are included.
To determine patterns of adolescent violence and compare them with previous findings combining data from adults and juveniles, a study was conducted of 95 violent juvenile offenders in California. Subjects were juveniles incarcerated for violent offenses between June 1973 and March 1977. All 95 youths had taken their victims' lives or assaulted them with a deadly weapon and had been a direct participant in the act. Data were collected by semistructured interviews and by review of official records. The study's subjects were similar in class, ethnicity, urban background, and prior arrest records to those in other percent studies of assaultive adult and juvenile criminals. Data show that crimes most often occurred in late evening hours. In contrast to findings for adult crimes, 37 percent of the violent offenses were committed during another felony, usually a robbery; 21 percent were committed during gang warfare. Moreover, almost half of the victims were completely unknown to their assailants; another 39 percent were casual acquaintances. Victims were often older Caucasians. Over three-fifths of the offenders had taken alcohol, either alone or with other drugs, shortly before the assault. Results indicated that three-quarters of the assaults belonged to two categories: felonious and dyssocial. The findings on guns, alcohol, and time of assault indicate that government may need to reconsider such restrictive measures as firearms registration, strict liquor law enforcement, and curfews for offenders. Although these measures present
many political and practical problems, they merit consideration in view of changing patterns of violent crime. Tables, a figure and a reference list are included.
The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of evaluation apprehension and subject sophistication on aggressive responses to the presence of weapons. The research design and procedure were generally similar to Berkowitz and LePage (1967), except that the level of evaluation apprehension and subject sophistication were held constant. 54 undergraduate students were randomly assigned to each experimental condition. Results were that Berkowitz and LePage's weapon effect was only found in less apprehensive and less sophisticated subjects.
Begun in 1977, and annually updated since then, the Sourcebook is an excellent comprehensive source for information and statistics on all aspects of the criminal justice system. Major topic categories are the nature and distribution of known offenses (UCR and LEAA victimization data), characteristics and distribution of persons arrested, judicial processing of defendants in federal and military courts, and persons in correctional institutions.

One other major category includes a potpourri of features of the criminal justice system, including the amount of funds expended by law enforcement agencies; number of criminal justice agency staff, their salaries, and levels of educational attainment; various legislation on controlling firearms, drugs, and gambling; and legal rights and rules concerning parole, the treatment of prisoners, and the treatment of criminal defendants in courts.

The Criminal Justice Research Center, Albany NY annually compiles the Sourcebook; however, further information and requests for criminal justice data for researchers can be made through the data archives group at the University of Michigan.
These LEAA publications discussed the methodology involved in the NCS, presented the findings for cities in the city sample, and showed the annual national incidence of victimization in the U.S. Attitudinal data for victims and non-victims were also analyzed. LEAA victimization analyses focused on the following aspects of crime experienced: incidence (rates) of victimization for personal crimes of larceny, assault, robbery, and rape; for household crimes of burglary, larceny, and motor vehicle theft; for commercial crimes of burglary and robbery; demographic characteristics of persons victimized; rates of citizen reporting of incidents to police; characteristics of the crime incidents (place and time); use of weapons in incidents; and victim injury, financial loss, and days lost from work.
This brief report described a sample of 300 handguns confiscated during ATF's Project Identification study. These handguns were subject to more close examination to determine how they entered criminal channels and what their life history was from the time of first sale to their implication in a crime. Information was obtained by tracing the handguns from the first retail sale to the last known owner; of the 300 handguns, 256 were successfully traced.

The analysis of these handguns revealed that 22% had been stolen at some point in their history, 29% were identified as "Saturday Night Specials," and 66% were confiscated during a "street crime" (although what constituted a "street crime" was not discussed). All the handguns confiscated had been purchased out-of-state. Of note were the significant proportions of first purchasers who had felony convictions (6%) or a criminal arrest record (19%) at the time of purchase.
U.S. Department of Treasury, Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, and Firearms.  

Published annually, ATF's Guide is a compilation of the actual state legislation and local ordinances regulating handguns and longguns. In addition, the text of the Federal Gun Control Act of 1968 is reprinted.

Each year revisions are made to the Guide by an ATF postcard mail survey to approximately 45,000 political subdivisions. The card requests that the texts of state or local laws be sent, in addition to indicating whether there have been any changes in the laws. For their 1978 publication, they had a 57% response rate; it is unknown whether the non-respondents have no firearms ordinances, no new firearms ordinances, or simply did not respond to the mailing card.

The Guide is useful for obtaining the actual text (edited somewhat) of the laws regulating firearms in many U.S. jurisdictions; however, the absence of many jurisdictions in the Guide which do have firearms regulations makes the Guide incomplete.

As well, in the production of the Guide, there is no editorial perogative exercised (with the exception of making excerpts of the full legal text) or introductory remarks made about the firearms regulations in each of the states, making it difficult for the untrained legal person to make sense of a complex, conflicting, and diverse array of legal approaches to the regulation of firearms.
U. S. Department of the Treasury, Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, and Firearms. (undated)


ATF's CUE operation involved a concerted effort of increased ATF manpower and other investigative resources in the cities of Washington, D.C., Chicago, and Boston, beginning in the spring and summer of 1976. This report evaluated the results of the operation (which is "ongoing") as of June, 1977. Control cities of Los Angeles and St. Louis were used in the analysis.

The objectives of CUE were (1) to step up prosecution efforts of federal violations of the criminal use of firearms and explosives, (2) to investigate and reduce major illegal sources of "street type" firearms and explosives, (3) to educate dealers and audit their operations in compliance with federal law, and (4) to trace all firearms confiscated in the three cities to determine the types and sources of these firearms and the flow of firearms from first retail purchaser.

Of particular interest in the CUE study are comparisons of the types and features of firearms confiscated, the types of incidents with which these firearms are associated, and the changes pre-CUE and CUE in the types of firearms confiscated.

Of the total firearms confiscated, about 20% were associated with either murder, rape, aggravated assault, or robbery. The "violent crime" handguns had different characteristics than other handguns confiscated, the latter handguns more likely to be pistols than revolvers, to have larger calibers and longer barrel lengths, and to be of lesser value.

The report maintained that one of the impacts of CUE was that it "forced the criminal violator to seek alternative, more difficult sources of supply for firearms used to perpetrate illegal acts," notably in the (1) types of handguns associated with particular violent crimes, (2) interstate or intrastate sale of these handguns, and (3) age of handguns confiscated. Except for the latter result, there is little support in the data presented to support these claims. Examining the data presented, one found few differences pre-CUE and CUE in the types of handguns and interstate or intrastate sale of handguns for the cities of Chicago and Washington, D.C., while there were some changes in Boston's confiscated handguns. However, the age of confiscated guns appeared to be "older" for all three cities after the implementation of the CUE operation.
This monograph reports on the results of two studies undertaken by the Vera Institute whose purpose was to understand what happens to felony arrests in the criminal process and why. First, the researchers gathered and analyzed court records from arrest through disposition for a probability sample of 1886 cases out of approximately 100,000 that were commenced by arrests on felony charges covering every major crime category in four boroughs of New York City (Staten Island was excluded). This sample was used to identify and quantify the layers in the process at which deterioration of charges takes place. Second, the researchers conducted interviews with the principal officials—police officers, prosecutors, defense attorneys and judges—involved in an additional probability sample of 369 felony arrests which had resulted in dispositions in 1973 so as to determine the reasons for the disposition. This sample provided a close look at the layers identified in the first sample. Chapter One provided a description and general findings of the first sample and the results were presented in tabular form. Analysis consisted of frequencies and percentages. There are separate chapters dealing with the following types of felony arrest: assaults, rape, murder and attempted murder; robbery; burglary; grand larceny; and criminal possession of dangerous weapons. Each chapter contains fact patterns for the felony arrests, deterioration of the arrest and factors explaining the disposition of the arrest. AnalysisConsists of percentages and presentation of excerpts, which are candid views of decision makers, obtained from the second sample. Some of the major findings were that 43% of the cases commenced by felony arrest and disposed of in the Criminal Court were dismissed and 98% of the cases that ended in conviction were disposed of by guilty pleas rather than trial. Approximately 74% of the guilty pleas were to misdemeanors or lesser offenses and 50% of the guilty pleas were followed by “walks”, 41% by sentences of less than a year in prison. Finally, only 9% of the guilty pleas were followed by felony time sentences and only 2.6% of cases were disposed of by trial.

This study replicates Zimring's (1968) Chicago study with data on 82 homicides collected from the New South Wales Police Department of Australia. Findings are in all cases consistent with those reported by Zimring.

Four out of five of these killings involved friends, lover, spouse, family members or neighbors. Two-thirds resulted from altercations, especially domestic conflict, clashes over money, sex, liquor, children and romantic entanglements. 62 percent of the attackers in serious assaults and 69 percent of those responsible for homicides had been drinking. Gun attacks in New South Wales were 2.7 times more likely to result in a death than knife attacks (the ratio in Zimring's study was 2.3). The author concludes, with Zimring, that there would be less homicidal death if there were fewer guns in private hands.


A social-psychological study of the attitudes of persons who own firearms in the United States. Based on a survey of the pertinent literature, the authors constructed five propositions and tested them using data gathered by the National Opinion Research Center in 1973. The results showed as expected that liberal persons are less likely to own guns than non-liberals; persons who are more violence prone are more likely to own guns; and more pessimistic persons are less likely to own guns. The study also indicated that those who have been criminal victims are more likely to own guns, but not to the degree expected. The unexpected result was that those who expressed fear of their neighborhoods were less likely to own guns than those who do not fear their neighborhoods. The authors are unable to provide any satisfactory explanation for this surprise finding.
The authors contend that there was much supposition concerning gun ownership in our society but very little measurement testing. The authors wanted to test five hypotheses concerning gun ownership. First, that victims of crime will be more likely to own guns than will nonvictims; second, persons who express fear will be more likely to own guns than will persons who do not; third, liberalism will be negatively related to gun ownership; fourth, pessimists will be less likely to own guns than will non-pessimists; and fifth, violence proneness will be positively related to gun ownership. Data for their analysis were taken from the 1973 General Social Survey conducted by the National Opinion Research Center (N = 1504). For violence proneness, liberalism, pessimism, scales were constructed consisting of 5 items (4 for pessimism). Scale score item correlations of less than .35 were deleted from the final scale. Fear in neighborhood was measured by a single item, victim status was determined by 3 questions, and gun ownership was determined by a single question.

The data were analyzed and presented by use of zero-order and conditional correlations (gamma) between independent variables and gun ownership.

The study found that victims do tend to own guns more than nonvictims but the association was weak. Contrary to the authors' initial hypothesis, there was a negative relationship between fear in one's neighborhood and gun ownership. Of those persons who scored low on the liberalism scale, 36% owned guns as opposed to 43% of those who scored high on the liberalism scale. Finally, as violence proneness increases so does gun ownership and that the likelihood of gun ownership decreases as pessimism increases.
On rape convictions in the District of Columbia from January 1971 to December 1976. The characteristics of the defendants arrested for sexual assault during a 56-month period and their recidivist behavior is examined. A description of the prosecution of the different types of sexual assault is presented. Treatment of forcible rape cases, from the initial police report to the offender's conviction, is examined. This report refutes many of the myths commonly associated with sexual assault; for instance, children are frequently molested by friends, relatives, or acquaintances rather than by strangers. In adult assault cases, a weapon is often used, but not in the case of children. Although the media may often give wide coverage to multiple rape offenders, the typical sexual assault arrestee has not attacked women or children on multiple occasions. During the period of study, the defendants as a group were not highly recidivistic. The number of reported rape cases has been declining in the District of Columbia since 1973, which may be a result of the severe sentences that are generally handed down by the judges. The conviction rate for those persons accused of sexual assault has not been good, regardless of whether the victim was male, female, or child. However, the age of the victim and the suspect were related to the conviction rate. Young defendants were most likely to be convicted, and young and old victims were most likely to see their cases end in conviction. The chances of conviction were increased if a sodomy charge was brought in rape cases and decreased if the victim had a prior arrest record. A major problem in rape convictions is the victim's credibility. Sexual assault victims are not believed as frequently as victims of other crimes. Evidence, witnesses, and proof that the victim does not know the attacker all help the chances of obtaining a conviction. It has been suggested that forcible rape should be considered a type of felonious assault under the law so that the details of the encounter would be less important than the fact the victim suffered a violent personal attack. A multivariate analysis of the probability of conviction and the results on the probability of conviction in forcible rape cases are appended. Notes, charts, and graphs are provided.
Wilson, M. and P.B. Higgins  
1978 "Television's Action Arsenal -- Weapon Use in Prime Time,"  

To describe the nature and extent of televised weapons use, 73 hours of prime-time "action" shows were observed and analyzed between March and August 1977; findings are reported. The study was limited to the use of weapons that can be held in the user's hand, i.e., handguns, long guns, knives, sticks, clubs, pipes, and other objects used to stab, hit, or choke. Each time such a weapon appeared, the following were noted: type of weapon; manner of weapon appearance (shown, used to threaten, or actually used); reason for weapon appearance (robbery, to make or resist an arrest, premeditated murder, etc.); character types of the weapon user and target; and result of the weapon's appearance or use (injury to or resistance by target, misses, etc.). This information was then analyzed by computer. Among the major findings are the following:

1. In the 73 hours of prime-time television viewed, weapons appeared 658 times, an average of almost 9 per hour. Of these, 432, or 68 percent, involved actual confrontations between the user of the weapon and another individual.

2. Handguns were involved in 468 of the total 648 appearances, or 72 percent, and in 340 of the confrontations, or 79 percent.

3. Whites and males were the overwhelming majority of both users and targets of weapons.

4. Weapon users in confrontations were about evenly divided between police officers (includes also private detectives, security guards, and others who, by profession, are authorized to carry weapons) and bad guys/criminals.

5. Only 36 on-screen deaths were inflicted, an average of about 1 death for every 2 hours of viewing.

6. Of 265 shots fired by handguns, 84 percent were misses; only 8 percent resulted in injury, and 7.5 in death. It was also noted that, contrary to popular criticism, the incidence of blood or other signs of suffering is negligible. This fact, combined with the large proportion of "misses" when shots are fired, attaches an unrealistic and potentially dangerous lack of severity to the consequences of weapon use. The researchers recommend further study on the nature and effects of television violence. Supporting statistics are presented in tabular form. Appendices include the form used for recording data on weapon appearance, a table of weapon uses recorded but excluded from analysis, a list of criminal types seen on television, a methodology supplement, and a tabulation of weapon appearances, injuries, and deaths by program episode.
In this classic study, the author analyzes criminal homicides using Philadelphia, Pennsylvania as a case study. He had wanted to determine whether criminal homicides exhibited an objective order, or regularity and what was it. Analysis was based on all criminal homicides in Philadelphia from January 1, 1948 to December 31, 1952. He had used 4 main sources of data: the police records of the Homicide Squad of the Philadelphia Police department, court and judicial reports and records of prison commitments. Analysis consisted of frequencies, numerical and percentages and chi-square tests of significance. There were 627 total homicides in Philadelphia from 1948 to 1952, averaging about 125 homicides per year or an annual homicide rate of 6.1 per 100,000. The author sought answers to the following questions regarding homicide victims and offenders: their race, sex, age differences, methods and weapons used to inflict death, seasonal patterns, spatial patterns, the relationship between the presence of alcohol and homicide, the degree of violence in homicide, motives, the relationship between victim and offender, homicide-suicide, court dispositions, and insanity. The author found, among other things, that criminal homicides were largely unplanned acts but there were discernable empirical uniformities of specific social phenomena. The number of strong associations found led the author to suggest that there may exist a “sub-culture of violence” which may or may not define assaults as wrong or antisocial. This study was the first of its kind, since no previous study had studied criminal homicide with as much detail and precision as was done here.
This book was edited by one of the pioneers in criminology and expert in the area of criminal homicide. The author argued that much of the research already carried out by researchers is at the level of descriptive analysis and had not contributed to a higher order of abstraction and general theory construction. Wolfgang provides an abbreviated analysis of his prior work, *Patterns in Criminal Homicide*, and concluded that homicides are principally crimes of passion or violent slayings that are not premeditated or psychotic manifestations. He argued that there exists a subculture of violence where there is a conflict between prevailing middle class values and the values of a subsocial or subcultural group.

The other articles in this book covered a broad area of concern. Included are articles on homicides in a cross-cultural perspective focusing on England, Ceylon and Africa. There is a discussion of the victim's role in precipitating criminal homicide. Also covered were articles which focused on the psychological and psychiatric aspects of criminal homicide. Wolfgang makes no attempt to integrate the findings of the contributors though a final chapter by Wolfgang and Ferracuti on the "Subculture of Violence" binds to some extent the theoretical contributions of the other researchers as they relate to the notion of subculture of violence.

*Wolfgang, Marvin F.*

*Wolfgang, Marvin and Franco Ferracuti*

This book is a joint effort of a sociologist (Wolfgang) and a psychologist (Ferracuti). Their purpose was to integrate empirical data on crime collected in various disciplines. They explain what it is they are trying to do by discussing the "meaning of integration" as it relates to criminological theory. The meaning of criminology is defined, as is the scope of the field. The major trends and theories in clinical and sociological criminology are analyzed and an attempt is made to unify the findings from both fields. Next, the authors examine the meaning of "subcult-re" and propositions derived from their conceptualization of subculture is presented. Violence, particularly homicidal violence, is examined from biological, psychiatric, and psychological perspectives. Finally, social investigations of homicides as they relate to the concept of subculture of violence are presented.

This paper compares results from two surveys of public opinion and gun control conducted in 1978: one done by Decision Making Information, Inc., under contract to the National Rifle Association (DMI, 1978), and the second done by Cambridge Reports, Inc., under contract to the National Center for the Study and Prevention of Handgun Violence (Cambridge Reports, Inc., 1978). Despite the obvious differences in outlook between the two client organizations, results from the two surveys are virtually identical on all points where a direct comparison is possible. These results tend to sustain the following substantive conclusions:

About half the households in the US possess at least one firearm; 20-25% possess a handgun. Guns owned for sport and recreation outnumber guns owned for protection and defense by about 3 to 1. Large majorities of the public favor measures that would require registration or licensing of firearms, but not if the costs of such measures were inordinately high. Equally large majorities oppose an outright ban on the ownership of handguns, and in general, measures substantially more strict than licensing or registration requirements do not enjoy majority support. Majorities approaching 90% believe they have a right to own a gun; a large majority also agrees that a licensing requirement for handgun ownership would not violate that right. Although there is a high level of popular support for registration and licensing measures, no more than about half the population feels that such measures would cause crime to decrease; many measures other than "gun control" are thought to be more effective towards this end.
Wright, James D. and Linda L. Marston

The purpose of this research was to provide empirical evidence on the social and economic characteristics of people who own guns. Data were obtained from the National Opinion Research Center's 1973 General Social Survey; the total sample size was 1504 persons aged 18 and over.

Data from previous surveys dating back to 1959 show that the rifle has replaced the shotgun as the most frequently possessed firearm, and among those owning a weapon, the incidence of handgun ownership has increased by about ten percentage points. The analysis shows a disproportionately high proportion of weapons ownership in the South, in rural areas and small towns, among Protestants, and in the middle and upper-middle classes. The authors argue that, contrary to a common belief, weapons ownership is primarily a middle class, not a working class, phenomenon. Regression analysis of the above variables confirmed, generally, the same patterns. Further analysis of the data for central cities and their suburbs showed the same general patterns. The data also suggest that anticipation and expectation of crime and similar urban degradations are more important determinants of weapons ownership than actual experiences with crime. Finally, support for gun control measures is higher among nonowners than owners, both in the nation at large and among urban and suburban whites. Still, about three-fifths of the owners also support stricter controls.

Yeager, Matthew G.

The United States Conference of Mayors came out in favor of a ban on the manufacture, importation, sale and private possession of handguns except for the use of law enforcement officers, the military and sportsmen; and was also in favor of mandatory minimum prison sentences for gun crimes. In this report, the pros and cons of mandatory sentencing for gun crimes is discussed with special consideration given to the judicial system's need for efficiency, the goal of fairness, plea bargaining, use of prosecutorial discretion, defendant's right to a jury trial and availability of prison facilities. Though public opinion strongly recommends the imposition of harsh mandatory sentences, the report suggests that the most viable approach may be the curtailment of handguns.

Four assumptions behind the call for harsh mandatory sentences are: 1) violent offenders who are convicted under our legal system are responsible for the bulk of violent crime; 2) since most of these offenders are recidivists, imprisoning them will significantly reduce the quantity of criminal violence; 3) mandatory prison sentences represent an effective deterrent to those individuals planning to use a weapon in the commission of a crime; and 4) mandatory penal servitude will have little adverse effect on the criminal justice system as a whole. This report evaluates whether the evidence supports mandatory
sentences as a solution for the reduction of handgun violence.

Evidence in four broad areas was reviewed: crime and the probability of apprehension; crime and penalties; recidivism and criminal violence; mandatory prison sentences and their impact on the criminal justice system. Report concluded, among other things, that there is not sufficient evidence to support the claim that harsh prison terms meted out to gun offenders will curb violent crime. Research does not support the assertion that a core of violence prone persons account for a disproportionate amount of violent crime. The report contends that it is doubtful incarceration of violent offenders will significantly reduce the level of serious crime. The cost of incarcerating all gun offenders is so prohibitive as to undermine the effectiveness of the criminal justice system.


In this report, the authors argue on the basis of available data that handgun ownership is related to the increase in crimes of violence, especially homicides and fatal accidents involving family members. Handgun ownership is not an effective method of self-defense and it poses more of a danger to family and friends than to an intruder. Victimization data showed that private handgun ownership was not a significant deterrent to crimes of burglary, robbery, assault or rape. The surprise nature of most crimes makes it highly unlikely that a victim would have time to use a handgun. In fact, using a weapon to confront or resist an armed attacker resulted in a higher probability of injury or death to the victim while taking flight or no resistance at all was found to result in less injury to the victim.
In this paper the author examined a number of similarities and differences in firearms use in interpersonal relationships between victim and offender. The paper is a survey of the main findings of several studies both within the United States and outside. No attempt was made to critically evaluate studies upon which findings were based. The author asserted that few homicides due to firearms use could have been avoided if firearms were not available because the offender would probably select another weapon to achieve the same goal; however, further research is needed to determine whether other weapons would be used if no gun was available. The contention that firearms have been found to be the most common weapon used by assailants in the US is contradicted by evidence presented in some studies. There may be variation in primary weapon by race and sex. The author also contends that though stabings outnumber shootings, they result in fewer fatalities and that the absence of guns though not reducing the number of attacks may reduce the number of homicides.

The author also argued that weapon use varies across countries but there appears to be, regardless of country, a tendency for homicides to occur primarily among intimates, that is, spouses, close friends, relatives, etc. There is, however, variations in the motives that lead to homicide. There is thus a need to look at the situations out of which homicides occur rather than emphasis on age, race, etc.
shown to have a very high rate of gun ownership. Regional stratification was not taken into account in the use of these figures, which produced false associations, and possibly bid genuine associations of some magnitude. In the final section of the report, the number of registered hunting licenses is used as an index of firearms ownership. However, this is very misleading -- a very large portion of American gun ownership is related to household protection, particularly in reference to handguns. Handgun ownership constitutes a considerable proportion of total gun ownership and is poorly reflected in hunting license statistics. The statistical arguments can be attacked on many different bases. This report was cited in the "Congressional Record" during 1967 and 1968.

It is felt that because of the flaws of methodology and interpretation, further study is needed. Graphs and tabular data, but no references, are included.

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This study considers the issue whether the elimination of guns would reduce the numbers of criminal homicides. If most homicide results from a single-minded determination to kill, then, presumably, murderers would find other ways to achieve their aims even in a no-gun condition. If, in contrast, most homicide is spontaneous and tends to occur simply because the means of violence (a gun) are at hand, then reductions in gun availability should reduce criminal homicide.

Data consist of 554 homicide cases from the Chicago Police Department. Analysis is based on information contained in the homicide report form. The author suggests that these data tend to favor the second hypothesis noted above: that most homicide is spontaneous. Specific findings supporting this suggestion are: (i) More than two-thirds of these homicides involved persons known to each other before the attack. (ii) 82% of them were accompanied by altercations. (iii) Only 30% of the victims of fatal gunshot attacks were wounded by more than one shot. (iv) In about half of the incidents, either the victim or the offender had been drinking alcohol.

A second premise in the argument is that the most probable substitute weapon -- a knife -- is substantially less lethal than a firearm. Data on wound locations (serious vs. non-serious) for knife and firearms attacks suggest that the proportion of "attacks in earnest" are about the same for both; still, gun attacks are about five times more likely than knife attacks to result in the victim’s death. These data are interpreted by the author as implying (1) the underlying motivation in most homicide
is ambiguous, not single-minded, (ii) these motivations are equally ambiguous for both gun and knife attackers, and thus (iii) the lethality differential between guns and knives reflects the intrinsic lethality of the weapon, not the single-mindedness of intent. If (i) through (iii) were true, then reductions in the number of firearms would reduce violent killings.

Zimring, F.E.

The factual relationship between guns and violence and the purpose and limits of different types of gun control laws are discussed, as well as some areas in need of further study. Many opponents of gun control state that we have not a gun problem but a crime problem, that firearms would not contribute to our crime problem if we had no crime. However, it must be pointed out that a serious assault with a gun is five times as likely to cause death as a similar attack with a knife, the next most dangerous weapon. Handguns are a particular problem, as they are small and easily concealable; they account for more than 80 percent of gun killings and nearly all gun robberies in large cities. The primary reason given for owning a handgun is self-defense, although statistics have shown that a gun in the home is more likely to kill a family member than an intruder, and is likely to be ineffective in defending the home. A review of the primary gun control law proposals reveals a number of basic problems which must be considered. Many antigun control groups do support laws which would create mandatory, stiffer penalties for crimes using guns, in the hope of discouraging criminals from using them. However, it is not desirable to make the penalty for gun robbery so high that the extra punishment risked if the robber kills his victim seems relatively small. Another approach which has been proposed is to forbid certain high-risk groups, such as those with serious criminal records, the very young, and drug addicts, from owning guns. Most states have some form of high-risk ownership prohibition, however, many do not require proof of eligibility. Even if the laws
were enforced, they would be ineffective, since most gun homicides are committed by those who would still be eligible for gun ownership. A system of licensing gun owners would be an improvement over a simple ban on ownership, as it would require proof of eligibility. However, it is at this stage that gun enthusiasts draw the line and start opposing controls, because licensing imposes costs on all gun owners. However, even if it could be implemented, licensing still would not prevent most murders. Gun registration, a system strongly opposed by gun owners, would require that the owner provide information about the guns he owns, thus making each legitimate gun owner responsible for his firearms. The system would simply be a support for any other system that prohibits certain people from owning guns. The most extreme solutions yet proposed have involved the banning of handguns except for those who can prove they need them (such as the police). This move is bitterly opposed by gun owners. One major problem with such a ban is that there remains a question of whether the restriction can actually reduce the number of handguns in circulation enough to bring about a significant reduction in gun violence. The author concludes that any gun control law will be an experiment, as we do not know what effect it will have on the crime problem. However, the homicide rate is so high that it is a necessary experiment.


The purpose of this study was to compare the effects of low-caliber with high-caliber firearm attacks on death rates in order to test the hypothesis that weapons dangerousness has a significant impact on the death rate from assaults. Data were gathered from an analysis of fatal and nonfatal attacks reported to the Chicago Police over a 5-month period. The sample contained 932 cases, the great majority of them attacks with handguns.

The analysis compared the death rate from gun attacks by wound location, number of wounds, and gun caliber. The data showed that, independent of wound location and number of wounds, gun caliber was correlated with the death rate. The overall result was that .38-caliber attacks are more than twice as deadly as .22-caliber attacks. Among the less commonly used calibers, .25- and .32-caliber firearms were found more likely to kill than .22's by a considerable margin and less likely to kill than .38-caliber attacks. However, there is no significant difference between .25- and .32-caliber attacks in the death rate. In general, these data support the conclusion that the probability of death in a handgun attack increases with the caliber of the weapon.
The purpose of this article was to increase knowledge about the effect of governmental efforts to control firearm violence and secondly, to gain some perspective on the difficulties of empirically studying "legal impact". The article is divided into four sections. In part one, the origins and antecedents of the Gun Control Act of 1968 are reviewed. The author starts with a history of the major issues and efforts that led to the adoption of the Federal Firearms Act of 1938. Part two, "The ends and means of the Gun Control Act", covers the major events that led up to the passing of the 1968 Gun Control Act, in addition to the main objectives of the act. The major aims of the Act, a series of criminal prohibitions, are subsumed and addressed under the heading of "State Aid", "Ownership prohibitions", and "Limitations of Importation".

In section three, the author measures the impact of the 1968 law by focusing on three areas. First, he presented data on the administration of the Act; second, the rate of civilian acquisition and use of handguns after the "Saturday Night Special Ban" was explored; and finally, the interstate flow of handguns into states and cities that restricted gun ownership was analyzed.

Finally, the author discussed the broader implications of this study.

The first half of this study attempted to test the "new gun" hypothesis that a disproportionate percentage of handguns confiscated by metropolitan police will have been in circulation for relatively short periods of time. Data were collected from the Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, and Firearms. Eight sample cities were Dallas, Denver, Kansas City, Oakland, Miami, Minneapolis, Philadelphia, and Seattle.

It was found that all cities showed newer handguns dominating the confiscation statistics. Seven of the eight cities show guns manufactured after 1970 to account for about half of the total traced confiscations. All eight cities typically experience a year-to-year backward decline in percentage of confiscated guns. For example, the number of confiscated guns made in 1973 is higher than those made in 1972, and so forth. The data also showed that this new gun phenomenon cannot be explained by the noted variation in production and imports, since the new gun effect has increased when the annual handgun introduction rates have remained relatively stable.

In the second half of this study, the author generally discussed some implications of these data for criminological researches and policy analyses. For example, data on handgun age can be used to evaluate police efforts to reduce gun traffic, the impact of gun introduction rates, the relationship between gun availability and gun crime, etc.
This study attempted to illustrate that the increase in robbery killing in Detroit was due to the availability and use of weapons rather than the increase in the number of robberies. Data were gathered from the Detroit Police Department from 1962 to 1974. During the period under study, the number of robberies increased from 4,200 to 20,000 and the number of robbery killings rose from 15 to 155. The author argued that the former was not a sufficient explanation of the latter for two reasons: (1) a fourfold increase in robbery cannot completely explain a ninefold increase in robbery killing; (2) while the relationship between robbery and robbery killing trends is close through the period 1962 through 1970, the two trends diverge dramatically after 1971.

The author used several strategies to show the relationship between the availability and use of weapons and robbery killings: (1) The author calculated simple correlation coefficients between weapon choice (gun, knife, other weapon, or no weapon) and robbery deaths. It was found that only gun robbery had a statistically significant effect. (2) Using the police data on deaths and estimating the relative frequency of gun vs. knife, other weapons, and no weapon from the victim survey, gun robbery appears to be 2.10 times as deadly as a knife; 2.76 times as deadly as "other weapons;" and 11.06 times as deadly as strong-arm robbery. (3) The correlation between percent of total robberies involving a gun (as a measure of firearms availability for robbery) and robbery death rates was .68. The data also showed, recently, the majority of all robbery killing victims were black. Finally, the author claimed that the above evidence suggest that effective firearms control measures may affect both the frequency and lethality of robbery.
Zimring, Franklin E.

Drawing mainly upon existing studies and analyses of handgun ownership, the author speculates that future policies might be a continuation of the present policy of support for state and local attempts to control handguns or a much greater federal effort aimed at reducing the number of handguns in civilian possession. Zimring does not believe that the latter would be likely to occur unless the household possession of handguns were to lose legitimacy in the eyes of the majority of the American public, a problematic outcome that is likely only if other methods of household protection become more prevalent. Otherwise the present patchwork of state and local regulations appear to be the most likely extension into the future.