**Answers to Questions in Reading Social Research**

Unit 1, Selection 1

1. According to Marx’s modernization theory, industrialization brings about predictable cultural and social changes. Give one example of these changes. What economic development, shown first in the United States, suggests that cultural change did not follow the “simple linear path envisioned by Marx”?

Examples of changes wrought by industrialization are occupational specialization, rising educational levels, rising income levels, declining fertility rates, and broadened political participation. The economic development that altered the path of industrialization was the employment of a majority of the labor force in the service sector, which characterizes “post-industrial” societies.

1. Explain how each of the following social forces challenges modernization theory: (a) the emergence of post-industrial society, and (b) the enduring influence of traditional religious values.

(a) The emergence of post-industrial society challenges modernization theory because it brings about a shift in emphasis from economic growth to quality of life and self-expression. (b) The fact that distinct religious traditions remain powerful and continue to shape society contradicts the idea, from modernization theory, that industrialization produces more or less homogeneous worldviews.

1. What do the authors hypothesize about the effects of economic development on (a) traditional versus secular values, and (b) survival versus self-expression values? That is, as economic development increases, how will each of these values change?

(a) As economic development increases, traditional values decline and secular values increase. (b) As economic development increases, survival values decline and self-expression values increase.

1. Look back at Figure 1.2. The “survival/self-expression” dimension of cultural values is at the bottom of this figure, running horizontally. On this dimension, lower numbers represent greater survival values, whereas higher numbers represent greater self-expression values (which are the opposite of survival). Looking at the left-hand side of the figure, or vertically, you’ll see that this is the “traditional/secular-rational” dimension of cultural values. Here, lower numbers represent more traditional values, whereas higher numbers represent more secular-rational values (which are the opposite of tradition). Knowing this, do the results in Figure 1.2 support the researchers’ hypotheses, if we assume that gross national product (GNP) is a good measure of economic development?

Yes, the hypotheses are generally supported. Societies with the lowest level of economic development (less than $2,000 GNP per capita) are in the lower left corner of the figure, indicating stronger traditional and survival values. Societies with the highest level of economic development (more than $15,000 GNP per capita) are in the upper right corner, showing stronger secular and self-expression values.

1. In light of the researchers’ results, what revisions do they propose to modernization theory? How does this illustrate the connection between research and theory?

The researchers’ findings suggest several modifications of modernization theory: (1) modernization does not follow a singular path, but may result in different cultural changes and, in the case of economic collapse, a return to traditional values; (2) secularization applies mainly to the industrialization phase of modernization as spiritual concerns have become widespread in advanced industrial societies; (3) cultural changes wrought by modernization depend on a society’s cultural heritage, particularly with respect to religion; (4) the United States does not exemplify the direction of cultural change in industrializing societies, as it is characterized by more traditional values than other prosperous societies; and (5) changes wrought by modernization are not inevitable but depend on many factors. Such modifications show how the development of theory is a product of an ongoing interaction between theory and research. Tests of a theory lead to revisions of the theory, which lead to further tests and theoretical revisions.

Unit 1, Selection 2

1. What, exactly, does Goffman mean when she refers to the “surveillance” of the ghetto?

By surveillance, she means the policing and supervision of the ghetto to the extent that the police are a pervasive presence, the lives of ghetto residents are constantly supervised and monitored with curfews and video cameras, and young men frequently are arrested, on probation or parole, under house arrest, or undergoing a trial.

1. How did Goffman gain access to and observe young black men in Philadelphia?

Goffman gained access by befriending a high school student, Alisha, whom she tutored, and moving into the neighborhood where Alisha lived. Through this contact, and by being introduced and accepted as Alisha’s “sister,” she was able to meet and interact with Alisha’s cousin Ronny, who introduced her to other young men.

1. Many of the men whom Goffman observed were “on the run.” Explain how even men who are not suspects in a crime may be “on the run.”

Young men with warrants for minor infractions as well as men on probation or parole, under house arrest, or on trial were concerned that the police might pick them up even if they weren’t suspects. In addition, others thought that “the police might ‘find some reason to hold them’ because of what they had done, who or what they knew, or what they carried on their person.”

1. Briefly describe how ghetto surveillance may threaten the freedom of black men in the context of (a) hospitals, (b) the police, and (c) family and friends.

(a) Because of the police presence at hospitals, men might be picked up when visiting someone or seeking needed medical care; Goffman gives an example of a man asking a cousin to stitch up his face rather than go to a hospital because he did not want to be questioned by police in the emergency room. (b) Men typically did not use the police, as they tended to avoid reporting assaults or robberies because this would provide information about themselves that the police could use to track them down. As a result, they were more likely to be robbery targets and to use violence to protect themselves. (c) Men also sometimes avoided family and friends because they might get back at them by reporting them to police or might be compelled by the police to divulge their whereabouts.

1. What do the experiences of these young black men in Philadelphia theoretically tell us about surveillance in the ghetto more generally and how it differs from prison surveillance?

The enclosed space of prisons allows for nearly complete surveillance, which leads to high levels of compliance as prisoners “come to internally monitor themselves.” By contrast, the surveillance of ghetto residents is incomplete, as residents frequently are able to break the law and evade authorities. Moreover, because the system of ghetto surveillance is designed to capture and imprison residents who have broken the law, residents are not apt to internalize norms when obeying the law puts them at risk to be arrested.

Unit II, Selection 3

1. What measures did Milgram take to protect the welfare of his subjects and to ascertain that they had not been harmed by their participation?

Milgram applied three procedures to protect subjects’ welfare and ascertain that they had not been harmed by their participation in his experiment. First, he carefully debriefed them at the end of the experiment. During the debriefing, all subjects met the victim, were told that he had not received dangerous electric shocks, and were assured that their behavior was normal. Second, he sent participants a follow-up questionnaire which asked how they felt about participating in the experiment. Third, a year after the experimental program ended, he arranged to have an impartial psychiatrist examine 40 participants who “were most likely to have suffered consequences from their participation.”

1. A guiding ethical principle of current scientific research is that “risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to anticipated benefits.” Briefly describe Milgram’s assessment of the risks and benefits of participating in the obedience experiment.

Initially, Milgram believed there was little risk of participating in the experiment because he expected that very few subjects would obey the experimenter’s commands to shock the victim. Once he found that many subjects obeyed fully and experienced stress, he still judged that “there was no indication of injurious effects.” Participants benefited, according to Milgram, by learning “something of importance about themselves and . . . the human condition.”

1. How did Milgram respond to the following criticisms? (a) Obedient subjects will be harmed psychologically because they will not be able to justify their repugnant actions to themselves. (b) Participation in the experiment will undermine future trust in authority.

(a) Milgram argues that participants are able to justify shocking the victim by believing that the act of shocking does not originate in themselves but in the authority giving the commands. (b) Milgram also argues that participation will not undermine trust in *all* authority; rather, it will inculcate a healthy skepticism about authorities who order a subordinate to harm a fellow human being.

1. What was Milgram’s ultimate ethical justification for carrying out his research?

According to Milgram, “the central moral justification” for his experiment “is that it is judged acceptable by those who have taken part in it.”

1. What do you think is Milgram’s weakest defense of his study? What else, if anything, should he have done to protect participants’ rights and welfare? (Consider the four principles outlined in the introduction to this unit.)

Insofar as many participants experienced a great deal of stress when repeatedly commanded to administer shock to the “learner,” one can take issue with Milgram’s judgment that “at no point did [subjects] run the risk of injurious effects resulting from participation.” Stress could trigger many adverse reactions. Indeed, in the first published article on the obedience experiments, Milgram (1963:377) reported that three subjects had “full-blown, uncontrollable seizures,” and one seizure was “so violently convulsive that it was necessary to halt the experiment.” Once this occurred, some social scientists argue, the entire experiment should have been terminated. At the least, Milgram should have screened subjects before their participation to determine whether they had medical or psychological conditions that might be affected by extreme stress.

In addition to not guarding against the potential harm to subjects, Milgram also did not follow current guidelines regarding informed consent. He did not obtain participants’ prior permission to place them in a highly stressful conflict situation; nor did he inform them that they had the right to withdraw from the experiment at any time. Subjects did volunteer to participate, were paid at the outset, were told that they were being paid simply for coming to the laboratory, and were physically capable of withdrawing from the experiment; however, throughout the experiment, any attempt to withdraw was met by the experimenter’s insistence that the subject continue.

Fully informing participants about the nature and purposes of the study would not have made it possible for Milgram to examine obedience to a malevolent authority. Therefore, he deceived subjects by telling them they were participating in a study on the effects of punishment on learning and by leading them to believe the shocks were real and the victim was experiencing distress. Although some critics have condemned Milgram’s research for the use of deception, deception is allowed by federal and professional ethical guidelines. When used, however, participants must be informed about any potential risks in a study, and any deception must be disclosed immediately following the experiment. Milgram failed to inform his subjects about potential risks, although he did fully inform them about his use of deception in a thorough debriefing session.

Reference: Milgram, Stanley (1963). “Behavioral Study of Obedience.” *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 67, 371-378.

Unit II, Selection 4

1. Describe the authors’ ideological position on lesbian and gay rights. Why is it important for researchers to acknowledge their personal beliefs on issues relevant to their research?

The authors state that they “oppose discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation and gender.” Personal beliefs can influence how scholars frame a research question as well as their use and interpretation of evidence; by acknowledging their beliefs, researchers may more carefully scrutinize research evidence that supports their position and may more carefully consider the work of scholars with opposing views. At the least, other scholars will be alerted to the possible impact of the researcher’s ideological position on his or her research claims.

1. What is the hierarchical model of parenting? How does this model influence the interpretation of research findings?

The hierarchical model of parenting assumes that a married heterosexual couple is the ideal model for developing healthy children and that all other arrangements are inferior. This model leads scholars to ignore or downplay differences in child development outcomes between heterosexual and lesbigay parents, lest these differences be interpreted as “deficits” for the children of lesbigay parents.

1. According to the authors’ analysis of previous research, how does parents’ sexual preference affect a child’s (a) gender identity, (b) sexual preferences and behavior, and (c) psychological well-being?

(a) The daughters of lesbian mothers engage in less sex-typed behavior than the daughters of heterosexual mothers; however, there is less consistent evidence on the gender conformity of the sons of lesbian mothers compared with the sons of heterosexual mothers. (b) Young adults of lesbian mothers are more likely to have experienced or to be open to the possibility of a homoerotic relationship, but they are not more likely to identify themselves as bisexual, lesbian, or gay. (c) There is no difference in the psychological well-being of children of lesbian mothers and children of heterosexual mothers.

1. Which broad developmental outcome most strongly challenges the conclusion that having gay or lesbian parents is *not* in the best interest of the child?

The finding of no difference in psychological well-being most strongly challenges this conclusion. More generally, as the authors report, insofar as “every relevant study to date shows that parental sexual orientation per se has no measurable effect on the quality of parent-child relationships or on children’s mental health or social adjustment,” there is no evidentiary basis that parental gender should be considered in decisions about children’s best interest.

1. Explain what the authors mean when they state that “the effects of parental gender trump those of sexual orientation.”

They mean that parents’ gender has a greater impact on a child’s development than parents’ sexual orientation. For example, children raised by a mother or by co-mother parents are likely to develop less sex-typed behavior than children with heterosexual parents because of the absence of a father’s direct and indirect influence.

Unit III, Selection 5

1. Before 1960, census enumerators classified each person’s race based on personal observation. Since 1960, the Census has used self-identification as the means of racial measurement for most households. How has this shift affected the racial classification of Blacks, Whites, and Hispanics? That is, what are the differences between *observed* and *expressed* race, according to Roth?

The shift to self-reports has had very little effect on racial statistics for Whites and Blacks, as “interviewer classifications [observed race] tend to be highly consistent with self-reports [expressed race].” However, there is much less agreement for people of other races, including Hispanics. As reported by Roth, “a comparison of self reports in the 2000 Census and interviewer observation in the 2000 General Social Survey found 97-98 percent agreement for Whites and Blacks, but only 58 percent agreement for people of other races.”

1. Roth identifies several different theoretical dimensions of race. Explain the difference between (a) *internal* and *observed race* and (b) *expressed* and *reflected race*.

(a) Internal race refers to one’s subjective self-identification—that is, the race that you think you are—whereas observed race is the race with which others identify you. In other words, this distinction captures the difference between how you see yourself and how others see you in terms of racial identity. (b) Expressed race is the race that you report that you are to others; reflected race is the race that you believe others assume you are.

1. For which of Roth’s theoretical dimensions of race did she use the 2000 Census question as the measure? How did she measure *observed race*?

Roth used the race question from the Census to measure “expressed race.” She classified a respondent’s “observed race” (White, Black, or Hispanic) based on her observations of physical appearance.

1. Describe two distinct patterns of interpreting the Census race question that Roth found among her respondents.

Roth identifies three patterns (see Figure 5.2). (1) Some respondents, thinking of themselves as a racial mixture that does not fit any of the given categories—white, black or indigenous—report “Hispanic” or some other ethnic or panethnic label that represents their “internal race.” (2) Others “mark how they believe they are seen by others, their *reflected race*, even if it differs from their *internal race*.” (3) For still others, their reported or “expressed” race differs from both their “internal” and “reflected race.” In this case, according to Roth, their response is based on their interpretation of the intent of the question or what they think is considered to be a race in the United States.

1. The measurement of race is included in the Census and many other federal surveys for the purpose of monitoring racial discrimination. How has the shift to self-identification as the means of racial measurement affected the ability to assess discrimination against Hispanic Americans?

Hispanic Americans are subjected to discrimination because of their Hispanic origin as well as their racial appearance. Studies in which racial classification is based on interviewer observation indicate that light-skinned Latinos suffer less discrimination than dark-skinned Latinos within the same ethnic group. In fact, Roth found that more of her dark respondents reported discrimination in the workplace than those with lighter skin. However, Roth further showed that persons of Hispanic origin interpret the Census race question in various ways, which often result in a “mismatch between their racial self-identification and how they appear racially to others.” Given that many dark-skinned Hispanics do not identify themselves racially as “Black,” statistical analyses that “treat racial self-identification as an indication of appearance” are likely to underestimate discrimination against Hispanics.

Unit III, Selection 6

1. How did the researchers measure time spent on housework?

Lee and Waite used two methods of measuring time spent on housework: survey questions and the Experience Sampling Method (ESM), which records a random sample of daily activities. The survey questions asked about number of hours the respondent spends on housework and the number of hours his or her spouse spends on housework. The ESM asks respondents to record their activities when signaled at eight random times during the waking hours for a period of 7 days; time spent on housework = ratio of number of times doing household tasks to total number of recorded activities multiplied by number of waking hours per week.

1. In addition to indicating whether housework was the “main thing” that respondents were doing when beeped, what else does the Experience Sampling Method (ESM) measure?

In addition to their primary activity, ESM respondents also reported their secondary activity, if any (“What else were you doing at the same time?”), and what they are thinking about when signaled.

1. According to the results reported in Table 6.1, do husbands and wives agree on the amount of time that (a) wives spend on housework and (b) husbands spend on housework? (NOTE: Unless a difference is statistically significant, you should assume that the estimates do not differ [i.e., they “agree”]).

(a) Husbands and wives tend to agree on amount of time wives spend on housework (See Total, Columns 3 and 4); however, they (b) disagree about how much time husbands spend on housework (See Total, Columns 1 and 2), with wives estimating that their husbands spend fewer hours per week (13) than their husbands report (18).

1. Using Table 6.2, compare survey and ESM estimates of wives’ and husbands’ hours spent on housework. How do they differ? Which measure results in the *lowest* estimate of husbands’ share of housework?

In general, survey self-reports are higher than ESM estimates. When taking into account reported secondary activities and mental labor, the difference between wives’ and husbands’ time spent on housework falls in between self-reports from wives (the largest difference at 13.2 hours) and husbands (the smallest difference at 7.2 hours). Thus, wives’ self-reports result in the lowest estimate of husbands’ share of housework (33%), and there is no significant difference among the three ESM estimates, which range from 38 to 40 percent.

1. What do the results of this study imply about the use of survey questions to estimate the gender gap in housework?

The use of survey self-reports provides biased estimates. First, estimates vary depending on who provides the information. Whereas husbands and wives provide similar estimates of wives’ time on housework, wives report significantly fewer hours than husbands of husbands’ time on housework. Second, both wives and husbands overestimate time spent on housework by self and spouse. Third, the gender gap reported by wives is larger than the gender gap reported by husbands.

Unit IV, Selection 7

1. Kinsey interviewed what the authors call a “sample of convenience,” or more simply, a “convenience sample.” What are the two major problems associated with this type of sample that make it impossible to use as a basis for generalizing to the larger population?

First, most basically, it is impossible to know whom the people interviewed represent; thus, you cannot know to whom the results apply. In addition, a convenience sample relies on volunteers, who may differ systematically from those who do not volunteer. For example, evidence indicates, “people who volunteer for sex surveys have wider sexual experience than those who do not.”

1. Explain why the researchers were able to separately analyze the survey responses of blacks and Hispanics but not homosexuals.

In order to have sufficient numbers of respondents to analyze blacks and Hispanics, the researchers drew a *disproportionate stratified sample*. That is, they selected proportionately more people from these groups (called “strata” in survey sampling design) than exist in the U.S. population. Not being able to identify homosexuals, however, they could not draw an expanded representative sample of gays and lesbians.

1. The survey that Michael and colleagues conducted, the National Health and Social Life Survey (NHSLS), used multi-stage cluster sampling. Describe the steps or stages involved in selecting their sample of addresses or households.

First, they randomly selected geographic areas within the U.S. Second, within the selected geographic regions, they randomly selected cities, towns, and rural areas. Third, within selected cities and towns, they randomly selected neighborhoods. Fourth, within selected neighborhoods, they randomly selected addresses. Finally, after eliminating non-resident addresses and households without eligible respondents, they randomly selected one eligible respondent to be interviewed.

1. One indicator of survey quality is the *response rate*: the number of completed interviews divided by the number of sampled or eligible households. What was the response rate of the NHSLS?

The sampling procedure identified 4,369 households with an eligible respondent. Of these eligible households, 3,432 people completed interviews. Thus, the response rate = 3,432/4,369 = .786, or 78.6 percent.

1. One way to evaluate the representativeness of a sample is to compare it with other established, scientifically valid samples of the same population. How did selected characteristics of the NHSLS compare with the same characteristics of the Current Population Survey?

The NHSLS was highly similar to the Current Population Survey with respect to age, level of education, marital status, and race/ethnicity. There were proportionately more women than men in the NHSLS; however, the researchers note that other high-quality surveys have “virtually the same percentage of men and women” as the NHSLS.

Unit IV, Selection 8

1. Why did Blee choose to interview female, as opposed to male, racist activists?

Blee points out that she “could get access to women racists and develop some measure of rapport with them”; less is known about women than men racists; and women are estimated to be the fastest growing group in the racist movement.

1. What prevents researchers from drawing a random sample of racist activists? Prior to Blee’s study, how did researchers go about studying members of racist groups?

A random sample is not possible because there is no list of racist activists available from which to randomly select respondents. Prior studies have selected small samples, typically from a single racist group or limited geographic area, of “members known personally to the researcher or referred by known members.”

1. Evaluate Blee’s study from the standpoint of generalizability. In what ways did her selection of interviewees constitute a relatively diverse, broadly based, national sample of women members of racist groups?

Using a variety of sources, Blee compiled a list of 30 racist groups with “significant numbers of women members or women in visible or leadership roles.” The groups she selected varied in ideological emphasis and form of organization and represented every region of the country. She then interviewed women from these target groups, carefully selecting women with varying positions in the groups—from leaders to rank-and-file members—and women of disparate ages.

1. Once she selected a sample of racist *groups*, how did Blee find the women she interviewed?

Mostly she used personal referrals and contacts, drawing on contacts she had established in prior research. She “also located women racists through parole officers, correctional officials, newspaper reporters and journalists, other racist activists and former activists, federal and state task forces on gangs, attorneys, and other researchers.”

1. In what ways did the women interviewed by Blee not fit the stereotypes of racist women?

Whereas the media depict racist women as “unkempt, surly women in faded T-shirts,” who are uneducated, marginal members of society raised in poor families, and “lured into racist groups by boyfriends and husbands,” Blee found: (1) women varied considerably in physical appearance; (2) most were educated (only five did not have a high school diploma; many had attended college); (3) most were not poor, having good jobs; (4) most did not grow up in poor or abusive families; and (5) many women did not become racists by following a man, but rather took varying paths into racist groups.

Unit V, Selection 9

1. In experiments, the independent (or causal) variable is manipulated. What is the independent variable in all three hypotheses? How is it manipulated?

Performing the role of a prosecuting attorney, research participants read a “Police Report” that described a contrived case. The independent variable, *severity of the crime*, was manipulated by noting in the report that the victim was either pronounced dead or fully recovered from his injuries within days, which resulted respectively in an indictment against the defendant for either murder (severe crime) or assault (less severe crime).

1. To assess whether a manipulation worked or validly operationalized the independent variable, experimenters sometimes perform **manipulation checks**. Describe the manipulation check used in this experiment. What are the results?

One of the items in the post study questionnaire asked respondents to rate the severity of the crime on a scale from 1 = very severe to 7 = not at all severe. Results showed that participants rated the murder (mean = 1.28) as more severe than the assault (mean = 3.03).

1. The experimenters measured several dependent variables or outcomes, one for each hypothesis. What is the dependent variable in Hypothesis 2? How is it measured?

The dependent variable in Hypothesis 2 is personal importance of attaining a conviction. To measure this, in the post study questionnaire, participants were asked “how strongly they felt that attaining a conviction was personally important (1 = not at all important; 7 = very important).”

1. What procedures (common to all true experiments) were applied to make sure that differences between experimental conditions were due to the manipulated variable and nothing else?

In addition to manipulation of the independent variable and measurement of the dependent variable, a true experiment must have at least one comparison or control group, random assignment to experimental groups, and constancy of conditions. In this experiment, the comparison groups consisted of participants who were prosecuting a murder and participants who were prosecuting an assault; participants were randomly assigned to these groups; and all information that participants were given about the cases was exactly the same except that the victim either died or recovered from injuries, which resulted in an indictment for either murder or assault.

1. Briefly describe the results of the experiment with respect to each hypothesis.

All three hypotheses were supported. Compared with participants prosecuting an assault, participants prosecuting a murder: (1) reported that they more strongly believed that the defendant is guilty, (2) indicated that it was personally more important to attain a conviction, and (3) were more likely to engage in misconduct by withholding exculpatory questions.

1. **Internal validity** is a matter of whether a study provides sound evidence of a causal relationship; **external validity** is a question of generalizability, or the extent to which the results may be applied beyond the context of the experiment. Evaluate the experiment in terms of internal validity and external validity.

With respect to *internal validity*, the study has all the features of a true experiment; therefore, it should provide a sound test of the causal relationship. However, the *external validity* of the study is limited. For one thing, the participants were a convenience sample of 80 students (54 females and 26 males) enrolled in introductory classes at a large Midwestern university who were paid for their participation. In addition, the experimenters concluded, “Generalizing the results of basic experiments to naturally occurring situations is not advisable . . . We cannot assume that the processes found to encourage misconduct in the laboratory operate similarly for working prosecutors or exert similar effects.” In fact, real-life situations may contain many other factors that could “alter the propensity for misconduct.”

Unit V, Selection 10

1. According to Pager, what advantages do experiments have over surveys in investigating the effects of incarceration on employment outcomes?

Surveys show that having a criminal record is associated with “negative employment outcomes.” Unlike experiments, however, this association does not necessarily imply that incarceration is the *cause* of negative employment outcomes as it is possible that the association is spurious. That is, individual characteristics such as drug and alcohol abuse or poor interpersonal skills may cause “both incarceration and poor employment outcomes.” Second, surveys have not examined the mechanisms that explain *how* incarceration affects employment.

1. Identify the three research questions addressed in this experiment.

(1) Whether and to what extent does an applicant’s criminal record affect employers’ hiring decisions? (2) Irrespective of whether an applicant has a criminal record, does race affect hiring decisions? (3) Does the effect of criminal record on hiring decisions differ for black and white applicants?

1. Which two variables are manipulated? How are they manipulated? (Be sure to describe *all* the procedures used by Pager to make sure that employers could discern that applicants possessed the manipulated characteristics.)

Pager manipulated an applicant’s *race* and *criminal record*. To manipulate race, two of the testers who applied for jobs were white and two were black. She manipulated criminal record by having one-half of the testers report that they had been convicted of a felony drug offense, for which they had served 18 months in prison. In most cases, testers reported this information in response to a direct question on an application form. For the 26% of cases where the form did not include a question about criminal history, “the tester in the criminal record condition reported work experience obtained while in the correctional facility” and “listed his parole officer as a reference.”

1. What is the dependent variable? Why did Pager choose to measure this particular outcome?

The dependent variable was whether an applicant received a callback from an employer. The reason for focusing “on this initial stage of the employment process,” according to Pager, “is because this is the stage likely to be most affected by the barrier of a criminal record.”

1. Briefly describe how Pager made sure that the only differences between job applicants were the manipulated variables.

All testers were the same age, were carefully “matched on the basis of physical appearance and general style of presentation,” and presented the same educational background and a similar work history in applying for jobs. In addition, testers were randomly assigned to the “criminal record” and “no criminal record” conditions.

1. Briefly describe the results of the experiment with respect to each of Pager’s research questions.

(1) Applicants with a criminal record were more likely to be called back than those without a record. That is, whites with a criminal record received significantly fewer callbacks (17%) than whites with no record (34%); likewise, blacks with a criminal record received significantly fewer callbacks (5%) than blacks with no record (14%). (2) Irrespective of criminal record, blacks were less likely to be called back than whites. Among applicants without a criminal record, blacks received significantly fewer callbacks (14%) than whites (34%); and among applicants with a criminal record, blacks received significantly fewer callbacks (5%) than whites (17%). (3) The affect of a criminal record appears to differ for black and white applicants. As Pager reports, “the ratio of callbacks for nonoffenders relative to ex-offenders for whites is 2:1,” whereas the “ratio for blacks is nearly 3:1.”

1. Evaluate this study from the standpoint of generalizability.

(Note: Pager’s article contains an appendix with a lengthy discussion of the “limits of generalizability,” which we did not include in our abridgement. However, you can evaluate the study’s generalizability without reading the appendix.)

As a field experiment conducted in a real-life setting, Pager’s study has greater generalizability than the laboratory experiment carried out by Lucas, Graif, and Lovaglia (selection 9). Still, characteristics of the participants, manipulations, and general setting of the study limit its generalizability. It seems likely that the testers, all of whom were college students, were more skilled interpersonally than the typical ex-offender, which may underestimate the effect of a criminal record. Although Pager attempted to create profiles that were consistent with those of real-life job applicants, the education and work histories of the applicants may be more favorable than the average ex-offender, which again would work against the negative effect of having criminal record. The time, June – December of 2001, and the setting of Milwaukee also are limiting. As Pager points out, the economic conditions in Milwaukee were relatively strong throughout the study period, and research has shown that “the level of employment discrimination corresponds closely with the tightness of the labor market.” Moreover, most of the job openings were located in outlying counties and suburbs, with many of these beyond the reach of public transportation. Testers had their own transportation, but the average entry-level job applicant may not. Finally, while Pager relied on a sample of job openings in newspaper ads, job vacancies may be advertised in other sources and many jobs are filled through networks of informal contacts.

Unit VI, Selection 11

1. Technically, these researchers used a sampling method known as two-stage cluster sampling, first selecting a sample of colleges and then selecting students within selected colleges. How did they select colleges? How were students selected?

From the American Council on Education’s list of accredited 4-year colleges and universities, the researchers selected a random sample, proportionate to enrollment, of 179 colleges. (“Proportionate to enrollment” means that the chances of a selecting a school are proportionate to the number of students enrolled. For individual students to have an equal chance of being selected, large schools must have a greater chance of being included in the sample than small schools.) Because the initial sample contained few women-only and few small colleges, they added 10 all-women’s colleges and 15 colleges with enrollments of less than 1000. Within each of the 140 colleges that agreed to participate, the researchers randomly selected every *x*th student from the student registry after a random starting point between 1 and *x*. (This technique is called a “systematic sample.” They calculated *x* by dividing the number of students in the registry by the desired sample size of 215. Thus, if 2150 students were enrolled, *x* = 2150 divided by 215 = 10, and the sample would consist of every 10th student in the student registry.)

1. The researchers used a mail questionnaire. Describe two advantages of using a mail survey, as opposed to a face-to-face interview, for this research, given the researchers’ topic and sample.

The principal advantage of a mail questionnaire survey is its relatively low cost. Given the scope of the study, which targeted a national sample, the cost per respondent would have been prohibitively expensive with face-to-face interviews. A mail survey enabled the researchers to reach a large, geographically dispersed population much more easily at substantially lower cost. A secondary advantage of a mail survey is that students may be more forthright about their drinking behavior than in a face-to-face interview.

1. What two methods did the researchers use to increase the response rate—the percentage of sampled students who completed the survey?

To encourage students to respond, the researchers used (1) follow-up mailings and (2) offered incentives for responding. They followed up the initial mailing with a reminder postcard, then a second questionnaire, and finally a second reminder postcard. They also offered a “$1000 cash award to a student whose name was drawn from among students responding within 1 week, and one $500 award and ten $100 awards to students selected from all those who responded.”

1. How do the authors define (and measure) non-binge drinking, binge drinking, infrequent binge drinking, and frequent binge drinking?

To measure alcohol consumption, the researchers asked students how recently they had a drink. Then they asked them to think back over the previous 2 weeks and to report how many times they had consumed five or more drinks in a row; in addition, women were asked how many times they had consumed four drinks in a row. “*Binge drinking* was defined as the consumption of five or more drinks in a row for men and four or more drinks in a row for women during the 2 weeks prior to the survey.” “*Nonbinge drinkers* were those who had consumed alcohol in the past year, but had not binged.” *Frequent binge drinkers* were those who had binged three or more times in the previous 2 weeks; *infrequent binge drinkers* had binged once or twice in the previous 2 weeks.

1. At the end of the selection, the authors discuss a potential limitation of surveys of alcohol use. How do they defend their results in light of this limitation?

The potential limitation is the use of self-reports to measure drinking behavior, as students may tend to under- or over-report how much they drink. In defense, the researchers make reference to other studies that “have confirmed the validity of self-reports of alcohol . . . use.” They further note that “if a self-report bias exists,” research suggests that “it is largely limited to the heaviest user group and should not be affect” their conservative estimate of heavy use based on five drinks.

Unit VI, Selection 12

1. Throughout the selection and particularly in the conclusion, Loftus consistently describes what “Americans” think about this or that. How can she make such claims if the GSS does not interview *all* Americans?

Loftus can make this claim because she (as well as other cited research) uses data from the General Social Survey, which is based on a nationally representative sample—specifically, “a national area probability sample of noninstitutionalized adults 18 years of age or older.” Thus, the data provide reasonable estimates of all U.S. residents of this description.

1. If you were to develop a prediction on the basis of Loftus’ analysis as well as prior research, would attitudes toward homosexuality become more liberal, more conservative, or not change at all over time?

Both research prior to Loftus as well as the results of this study suggest that attitudes toward homosexuality will become more liberal. However, as suggested by Loftus’ analysis, the change may be much slower regarding the “morality” of homosexuality than the granting of civil liberties to homosexuals.

1. Loftus discusses both advantages and disadvantages of using GSS data to study attitudes toward homosexuality. List one advantage and one disadvantage. On balance, do these data provide more advantages or disadvantages?

The two main disadvantages are the negative wording of questions (e.g., respondents are asked if homosexuality is “wrong”) and the focus on male homosexuals in the questions on civil liberties. The advantages are that GSS data are based on a nationally representative sample and the same questions have been asked repeatedly over time, so that changes can be traced for an extended period. On balance, it is more advantageous to have a record of change, though limited, than to have no data at all.

1. Why is the wording of survey questions so important, according to Loftus?

Wording is important because even slight changes may affect trends in attitudes. In particular, attitudes may depend on whether the question is asked about a homosexual male or homosexual female. As Loftus notes, research shows that “men report more positive attitudes toward lesbians than they do toward gay men, while women report slightly more negative attitudes toward lesbians than they do toward gay men.”

Unit VII, Selection 13

1. Why do the researchers select singles bars, cocktail lounges, and other night spots to study the “cooling out process”?

They selected singles bars, cocktail lounges, and other night spots because these are places where it is normative for men to try to pick up women. Therefore, women often find themselves in the position of wanting to reject or avoid men’s advances. They also note, “there are few, if any, public settings in which [cooling out] occurs as frequently and can be observed as readily.”

1. What three means of data collection do the researchers use?

The collected data by means of (1) *participant observation* in several nightclubs, (2) *informal conversational interviews* with patrons and employees of the nightclubs, and (3) “*semi-structured interviews* with a small nonrandom sample of bar patrons and employees and university students.”

1. How, exactly, do the researchers collect the participant observation data on male-female interaction? The researchers mention one limitation of this method. How do they overcome this limitation?

The researchers positioned themselves within the setting to both observe and eavesdrop. Loud music, however, sometimes made it difficult to eavesdrop. So, they often found it necessary to supplement their observation with “conversational interviews” in which they would ask the female “cooler” either direct questions or make declarative statements to elicit a response.

1. How do the semi-structured interviews complement the data obtained from participant observation?

By asking both men and women to discuss their experiences with the cooling-out process, the researchers were able to see if these “experiences dovetailed with our observations.” Thus, the interview data provided a validity check on the researchers’ observations.

1. Based on the section entitled “Avoidance Tactics,” provide one example of how the researchers’ participant observation data and semi-structured interview data correspond with each other?

One tactic of avoidance, as reported in informant interviews, was to be in the company of a male friend. One of the female researchers confirmed this when a male friend accompanied her during field observations. When the male friend was present, no male approached her; however, when the male friend was not present, other male patrons made advances.

Unit VII, Selection 14

1. How did the authors select their sample? In what ways does their sampling strategy resemble Blee’s strategy in drawing a sample of women who were members of racist groups (see Unit IV, Selection #8)?

The researchers selected welfare- and wage-reliant single mothers in four U.S. cities: Boston, Chicago, Charleston, and San Antonio. Within each city, they recruited mothers “by asking individuals from nongovernmental community organizations and local institutions to introduce” them to eligible mothers “with whom they had some rapport” and could vouch for the researchers’ trustworthiness. Then they asked those contacted to recommend other mothers who would be unlikely to be contacted through an organization. They also were careful to diversify the sample by interviewing equal proportions of whites, African Americans, and Mexican Americans in San Antonio and of whites and African Americans in the other three cities, and by interviewing roughly equivalent numbers of welfare- and wage-reliant mothers as well as mothers living in subsidized and private housing.

This strategy is similar to Blee’s strategy insofar as the women were selected nonrandomly by means of referrals and contacts from local institutions and officials. In addition, the women were selected systematically to represent important subgroups.

1. Why would it have been impossible to obtain the same data from these mothers using a telephone survey of a random sample?

Earlier research had shown that most respondents were unwilling to provide sensitive budget information over the phone.

1. Why is rapport so important in gathering data such as these?

Rapport was important because, without it, mothers would be reluctant to divulge sensitive information about income sources, especially sources that violated welfare laws.

1. Provide one example of how the (qualitative) quotes from mothers shed further light on the numbers in one of the tables.

Table 3 shows that welfare-reliant mothers received a substantial part of their income (estimated average of $114 to $253 in the four cities) from their family network. In support, a Charleston mother reports that since her mother and sister got jobs, “they help me with my bills from time to time.” The table also shows that welfare-reliant mothers receive network income in the form of covert and formal support from absent fathers. Another Charleston mother reported two sources of covert support; as she said, “I get $100 a month [under the table] from my son’s father and $100 a month [informally] from my daughter’s father.”

1. Finally, what are the policy implications of this study for “welfare”?

If the goal of welfare is to provide assistance in times of need, or in the case of single mothers, to provide financial support until the mother can find work that pays a living wage, the government should: (1) offer high-quality job training, (2) allow welfare recipients to count participation in training and educational programs as satisfying the work requirement, (3) expand child-care benefits for mothers who leave welfare for work, and (4) improve the collection of absent-father child support payments for low-income single mothers.

Unit VIII, Selection 15

1. What do the researchers expect to find concerning the relationship between racial conflict and portrayals of blacks in children’s books? How is content analysis well-suited to examine this expectation?

They expected to find that cultural images of Blacks would depend on the level of racial conflict in the larger society. More specifically, periods of racial conflict, which are unsettling, “should exhibit altered symbolic representation of Blacks in U.S. children’s literature.” Content analysis is designed to analyze the symbolic content of communications, which is precisely the object of this study.

1. How did the researchers code (or measure) (a) the representation of blacks in children’s picture books and (b) interracial conflict as reported in the *New York Times* *Index*?

(a) In analyzing three sets of children’s books published each year from 1937 to 1993, the researchers measured “overall visibility” by coding the percentage of books each year that portrayed at least one Black character and portrayed only Black characters. In addition, they coded *how* Blacks were portrayed in terms of geographical and temporal location, occupational roles, and whether there was interracial conflict. (b) To measure interracial conflict, they counted the number of “racial conflict events” listed in the *New York Times Index* under the following categories: “Negroes (Blacks starting in 1977), education and schools, colleges and universities, labor, housing, Ku Klux Klan, and assaults/disorderly conduct (starting in 1948), and all related subcategories.” An event was counted if it involved conflict, protest, or legal action, was public, took place in the United States, and was clearly a racial confrontation.

1. In our unit on measurement, we discussed validity, which refers to accurately measuring a concept. Another fundamental aspect of measurement is **reliability**, which refers to obtaining consistent results with multiple measurements of a concept. (a) How do the researchers in this selection ensure that their coding, or measurement, of children’s picture books is reliable? (b) In what other way(s) does this selection illustrate the concept of reliability?

(a) The researchers report that two researchers often coded each book, “with another researcher resolving ambiguities.” For one subset of books, Caldecott books, they report “high levels of inter-rater reliability [i.e., inter-coder agreement] (in the 85 percent range) for all relevant variables.” (b) One way to increase reliability is by using multiple measures. The researchers did this by using two measures of visibility, percentage of books with at least one Black character and percentage of books with all Black characters. Figure 1 shows similar trends, especially after 1960, for both measures.

1. What are the four distinct phases into which the portrayal of blacks in children’s books can be divided? Please note a couple of important characteristics of each phase in your answer.

In phase 1, from 1937 through the mid-1950s, the books are always about Whites; Blacks appear briefly in a “modest” proportion of books, but in “minor, peripheral roles.” In phase 2, from the late 1950s to mid-1960s, very few Blacks appear in children’s books. In phase 3, from the mid-1960s to 1975, the appearance of Black characters increases dramatically, with the portrayals much less stereotypic than earlier. In phase 4, post-1975, the appearance of Black characters stabilizes around 20 to 30 percent of all children’s books; however, as before, the books depict mainly surface contact between Blacks and Whites. Perhaps indicative of another phase, in the 1990s, the researchers note that the “Caldecott books present explicit interracial themes” and “address political issues.”

1. Did the results of the study support the researchers’ expectation (from question #1)? Why or why not?

The overall trend is consistent with expectations. As shown in Figure 15.4, there is an inverse relationship between the number of racial conflict incidents and the visibility of Black characters in children’s books. That is, as conflict rises, portrayals of Black characters decline, and as conflict declines, portrayals of Black characters increase. On the other hand, the decline in racial conflict cannot account for the more positive depictions of Blacks found after 1965.

Unit VIII, Selection 16

1. Sutton notes that “the distinction between criminals and non-criminals” is only one of the ways in which people are classified in modern society. What are some of the other ways, according to Sutton’s argument? And, how are these other ways reflected in the hypotheses that he develops (especially 3 through 5)?

According to Sutton, people are classified through “a range of institutions, including mental health systems, welfare agencies, unemployment bureaus, homeless shelters, and substance abuse programs,” which “constitute and manage more or less specific forms of marginality.” Hypotheses 3 through 5, respectively, relate rate of prison growth to military enlistments, school enrollments, and unemployment rates.

1. In addition to “life course patterns” that may influence imprisonment (noted in the previous question), Sutton discusses three “policy trade-offs.” As one example of these, what is the trade-off between prison and *social welfare* (Hypothesis #6)?

Sutton notes that welfare benefits provide a safety net for working families and families with children, so that in times of economic crisis, they will be less likely to turn to crime.

1. According to Sutton, how does the use of existing data across countries challenge researchers?

With respect to imprisonment rates, Sutton notes that statistical reporting practices vary across nations. The U.S.-based studies usually do not include “large numbers of unconvicted inmates and petty criminals in local jails”; by contrast, European countries, which have more centralized prison systems, typically include a substantial number of less serious offenders and unconvicted prisoners.

1. How is Sutton’s analysis both comparative and historical?

Sutton’s analysis is comparative insofar as he compares five different nations; it is historical in that he analyzes the effects of selected variables on imprisonment rates over a 30-year period, 1955-1985.

1. Do Sutton’s results support (a) his fourth hypothesis (about the relationship between men’s school enrollments and prison growth) and (b) his sixth hypothesis (concerning the relationship between welfare spending and prison growth)?

(a) The results to not support the fourth hypothesis; none of the coefficients in Table 1 (fourth row) is statistically significant. (b) Hypothesis 6 is supported; all coefficients are significant and negative, indicating that as welfare spending increases, prison growth decreases.

Unit IX, Selection 17

1. How do previous surveys and field experiments project different conclusions about the present state of racial equality in the U.S.?

Recent surveys indicate that the vast majority of whites endorse the general principle of equal treatment (e.g., over 90 percent of whites agree that job applicants should be treated equally by employers); however, experiments show evidence of discrimination “against black applicants in housing, credit, and employment markets.”

1. Compare the outcome measures in the survey and field experiment. How are they similar and how are they different?

The outcome measures consisted of employers’ responses to job applicants. In the field experiment, the researchers recorded whether employers called back a tester who applied in person for a listed job. In the survey, employers first read a vignette describing a job applicant similar to the person who previously had applied for the listed job. Then they were asked to rate the likelihood of their hiring this applicant. The profiles of the actual and hypothetical applicants were carefully matched; however, the audit experiment showed how employers responded to an actual applicant, whereas the survey showed how employers *said they would respond* to a nearly identical, albeit theoretical applicant.

1. Carefully describe how the job applicant in the audit study was similar to the job applicant in the vignette. Why is this similarity an important aspect of the research design?

According to Pager and Quillian, the two applicants were similar in race as well as “levels of education, experience, and personal qualifications,” and they had committed identical crimes for which they had been imprisoned. This similarity is crucial to the design because the only difference in the two studies should be the method or setting—that is, whether employers are responding to a telephone survey or to a tester applying in person for a job. Without this similarity, differences in applicant profiles could account for differences in employer preferences.

1. How do the results shown in Figure 17.2 augment the findings in Figure 17.1?

Figure 17.2 takes into account the fact that audit testers *without criminal records* also may not be called back for an interview. Comparing testers with a criminal record to *white* testers without a criminal record shows the impact of race while holding job qualifications constant. As the figure shows, relative to whites without a criminal record, whites with a criminal record were 50 percent as likely to be called back, whereas blacks with a criminal record were only 14.7 percent as likely to be called back.

1. Should one conclude from this study that attitudes generally are a poor predictor of behavior? Explain.

This study shows that racial attitudes measured in surveys are a poor predictor of racial discrimination in the job market. More broadly, it suggests that attitudes do not necessarily correspond to behavior. As the authors conclude, however, “surveys may provide a very close reflection of actual employer behaviors.” The extent to which they do is an empirical question.

Unit IX, Selection 18

1. Explain what the researchers mean by *abated unions*. From what data source did they develop this concept?

By “union,” the researchers mean a marriage or cohabitating relationship. Abated unions refer to a pattern in which women “have withdrawn from serious relationships with men altogether.” This concept was developed from their ethnographic data

1. (a) How did the researchers measure abuse in the field study? (b) How did they measure it in the survey?

(a) In the field study, or ethnography, the measurement of abuse was based on disclosures that participants “had been sexually abused or experienced domestic violence in childhood, adulthood, or both.” Few mothers (10%) reported this when asked specifically about abuse. Most of them (71%) revealed abuse when questioned about their health or other unrelated topics. Others (19%) disclosed abuse when the “ethnographer encountered a violent situation when visiting the participant.” (b) In the survey, respondents were asked a series of questions in an audio computer-assisted self-interview. To measure sexual abuse, the women were asked if, before they turned 18, anyone had ever tried or succeeded in doing something sexual to them or making them do something sexual against their wishes. Then they were asked if this had occurred since they turned 18. To measure physical abuse, the women were asked if, before turning 18, they had ever been hit, beaten up, burned, assaulted with a weapon, or had their life threatened by an adult in their family or household. Then they were asked four questions about whether they had suffered physical abuse as an adult.

1. *Union status* has different meanings in the field study and survey. How did the methodological approach determine the definition or measurement of union status?

In the field study, the researchers placed mothers into one of three categories: *sustained unions* in which the woman had maintained a union for most of her life with one or two men; *transitory unions* characterized by a sequence of short-term involvements with different men or on-again, off-again involvements with the same man; and *abated unions* in which the woman had ceased being involved with a man. In the survey, which could only classify women’s union status at the time of the interview, women were classified as being married, cohabiting, or single.

1. How do the effects of child abuse on union formation differ from the effects of abuse in adulthood?

The ethnographic data showed that “women who experienced abuse beginning in childhood . . . were more likely to develop a transitory union pattern”; “women who did not experience abuse in childhood but later experienced physical abuse in adulthood were more likely to display the abated union pattern than were other women.”

1. Explain how the concept of triangulation applies to: (a) observing or measuring abuse with two different methods; and (b) carrying out the study in three different cities.

(a) Using two different methods of measuring abuse, each subject to different sources of error and bias, is similar to taking directional readings from two vantage points. We are more confident when different methods produce (or point to) the same outcome just as we can pinpoint a location by using more than one vantage point. (b) Conducting the study in three cities also is analogous to triangulation as the cities differ in many ways, including regional location, population size, and proportion of ethnic/racial minorities. Thus, observing mothers in these three cities enhances confidence in the general relationship between abuse and unions.

Unit X, Selection 19

1. As pointed out in this article, a fundamental principle of social research is that “correlation [does not] imply causality.” Thus, the relationship between alcohol consumption and academic performance may be *spurious* insofar as “one or more other factors are the cause of *both* problematic alcohol use *and* academic problems.” How does the quantitative analysis undertaken by Singleton address the problem of spuriousness?

Quantitative analysis can address the problem of spuriousness by statistically controlling for variables that might produce a spurious association. In this study, Singleton controlled for the variables of academic aptitude, prior academic achievement, and parents’ level of education, any one of which could produce a spurious association between alcohol use and academic achievement.

1. Building on your knowledge of measurement in Unit III, how are “alcohol consumption” and “academic performance” operationally defined in this selection? How does Singleton perform a “partial check on the validity” of the measures of alcohol consumption? Which measure of alcohol consumption does he ultimately use in the analyses?

Alcohol consumption is operationally defined by asking students three questions, which were used to establish two measures, one based on frequency and the other on amount. To measure frequency of consumption, respondents were asked how often they drink alcoholic beverages, with response categories ranging from never (abstainers) to “about once a year” to “almost every day.” To measure amount consumed, respondents were asked how many drinks they consumed on a typical weekend night. Academic performance was operationally defined as a student’s grade-point average, both semester and cumulative, as obtained from official college records at the end of the semester when the survey was conducted. Singleton checked the validity of his alcohol consumption measures by including another, standard measure of heavy alcohol use in one of the semester surveys. Ultimately, he focused his analysis on “amount consumed” as this measure was most strongly associated with academic performance.

1. An issue that frequently comes up in quantitative analysis is the handling of missing data. How does Singleton handle missing data for the variable *parents’ income*? What are the (acknowledged) consequences of this method for the quantitative analysis?

For parents’ income, Singleton calculated the mean (or average) income for all nonmissing cases and then assigned this value to each of the missing cases. As he points out, this method may bias results, leading to an underestimate of the influence of parents’ income.

1. Based on the bivariate correlations among variables, Singleton found that every variable except students’ SAT scores was significantly correlated with—or, related to—the number of alcoholic drinks they consumed. Yet, when he conducted multivariate analyses using ordinary least squares regression of alcohol consumption on the same set of variables (see Table 19.1), he found that several of these variables were no longer significantly related to the number of alcoholic drinks students consume. Why is this the case? (Hint: Consider the logic of your answer to the first question.)

Some variables may have been spuriously associated with alcohol consumption. For example, race (“white”) may produce a spurious association between parents’ education and alcohol consumption insofar as the parents of white students have a higher level of education than the parents’ of nonwhite students *and* white students drink more alcohol than nonwhite students. Therefore, when both race and parents’ education are included in the model, the effect of parents’ education disappears (see Model 1). Alternatively, the effect of a variable may be indirect or intervening. For example, academic class may influence partying (juniors and seniors are more likely to party than first- and second-year students), which in turn influences alcohol consumption; consequently, when both variables are included in the model, the effect of academic class disappears (see Model 3).

1. Table 19.2 presents the results of the multivariate regression of GPA (cumulative and semester) on alcohol consumption and other factors. What is the relationship between GPA and alcohol consumption in these analyses? What other notable relationships change when Singleton introduces alcohol consumption into the statistical model?

All the regression models show that alcohol consumption and GPA are negatively associated; the more alcohol that students consume, the lower their GPA. In addition, when alcohol consumption is introduced into the model for *cumulative GPA*, the coefficient for intercollegiate athlete is no longer significant and the coefficient for gender reduces in size.

1. In general, how does this selection illustrate the deductive logic of inquiry and the role that quantitative data analysis plays in it? (Hint: Refer back to the unit introduction.)

The deductive logic of inquiry proceeds from theory to hypothesis to observations designed to test the hypothesis. This research is designed to test a hypothesis about the relationship between alcohol consumption and grades that is derived from previous theory and research. Accordingly, key concepts are identified, variables are measured, quantified data are collected, and the hypothesis is tested.

Unit X, Selection 20

1. In the introduction to this unit, we noted that the analysis of qualitative data begins “in the field.” How does this selection illustrate this?

As the research unfolded, Snow and Anderson reviewed Anderson’s observations and field notes almost daily for useful methodological and theoretical leads, which shaped subsequent observations.

1. In this selection, the data are based on “*600* double-spaced typed pages” (*our emphasis*)—an overwhelming number, to be sure! How many statements and individuals is the analysis of *self and identity* specifically based on? Why did Snow and Anderson focus on self and identity?

The analysis of self and identity was based on 202 statements by 70 individuals. Snow and Anderson state in the introduction that previous research and theory rarely have considered how homeless individuals construct their personal identities and maintain their self-respect while living on the street.

1. What are the three categories into which data entries are coded? (Hint: Look at endnote 4.) Under which of these three categories would the Salvation Army most likely fall?

The three categories were focal settings, cultural domains, and homeless individuals. The Salvation Army was one of 24 different focal settings.

1. What are the “three generic patterns of identity talk” found among the homeless? Provide an example of how *two* of these forms of identity talk reference one of the researchers’ “focal settings” in their data coding.

The three forms of identity talk are (1) distancing, (2) embracement, and (3) fictive storytelling. As an example of distancing, some homeless individuals dissociated themselves from street people who hung out at the Salvation Army, whom they saw as less independent. Another homeless individual, embracing his identity as a “bum,” also made reference to the Salvation Army, stating that he refused to work there because he would not be allowed to associate with his friends on the street.

1. Provide an example of how one of the “three generic patterns of identity talk” varies by time on the street, based on Snow and Anderson’s findings and observations.

Snow and Anderson note that “categorical distancing,” or dissociating oneself from other homeless or street people, occurred most often among individuals who had been on the street a relatively short time—less than six months. By contrast, the longer an individual had been on the street, the more likely that he or she used “embracement” in constructing a personal identity.

1. In general, how does this selection illustrate the inductive logic of inquiry and the role that qualitative data analysis plays in it? (Hint: Refer back to the unit introduction.)

In the inductive logic of inquiry, researchers generalize from specific observations to more general theoretical meanings. Snow and Anderson began with observations, which they carefully recorded and then coded into various categories. Based on a qualitative analysis of one of these categories—the cultural domain of self and identity, they were able to discern distinct patterns of identity talk, which yielded further insights into the relationship between personal identity and time on the street. Thus, they began with specific observations and through qualitative analysis arrived at more general theoretical meanings.