

I N T E R V I E W E R S '  
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ELMO ROPER and ASSOCIATES

## Chapter I

### THE FIRST QUARTER CENTURY

In one sense, the history of opinion and marketing research is as old as civilization--if one wishes to use the all-encompassing definition that it is the assembling of facts about people's opinions, attitudes, habits and activities. As the profession of opinion and marketing research is practiced today, however, its history is a short one. In fact, its inception dates from the late 1920's. So that you will have some background of how this profession (as we like to think of it) or this business (as some prefer to think of it) in which you are so important a part has developed, we will outline briefly in this chapter some of the forces that brought it into being and have influenced the course of its history.

In the small towns of early America there was little need for opinion research, for everyone was in intimate contact with public opinion. A storekeeper didn't have to wonder what his customers wanted; they told him. A town official didn't have to speculate about what the citizens thought should be done; they told him in the town meeting. Nor did an individual have to wonder long what the community as a whole thought of his actions: their disapproval or approval made itself quickly felt by glances, words, or the absence of words, or swift and explicit community action--legal or otherwise. Public opinion was the opinion of one's friends and neighbors, and its communication was speedy and direct.

Today the lines of communication are drawn thin, in many cases to the point where they have snapped. Public opinion is now, more often than not, the opinion of large, widely scattered, heterogeneous groups of people, whether it is opinion about a candidate or a candy bar, and it is usually out of the personal reach of the person or group about whom the opinion is held.

At the same time, public opinion has become more important than ever before, because the risks of decision have become so great. The risks

of decision in national and international affairs are all too apparent. But the risks of decision in business have also become enormous. The costs of tooling up for, producing, advertising and distributing a new product now can run into the millions of dollars, and a few serious miscalculations of the public's taste can bring industrial giants to their knees.

With the increasing complexity of society and the increasing difficulty of communication came the need for more precise means of measuring public opinion. With the development of the science of opinion sampling, the means became available. The theory of sampling is actually very old. For example, producers and buyers of wheat long ago discovered that if they randomly took a sampling of buckets of wheat out of a carload and tested them, they would get a pretty good idea of the quality of the whole carload. In the late 1920's it occurred to some people that this theory, which works so well with physical things, might also work in the measurement of human behavior. When this revolutionary idea was put into practice, marketing research was born.

Our firm was born along with it. In 1934, during the formative years of the profession, Paul Cherington, Richardson Wood, and Elmo Roper decided to join forces and founded the firm of Cherington, Roper and Wood, which began doing research for industrial clients and shortly after started conducting a regular survey on subjects of public interest for Fortune Magazine. Two years later the Fortune Survey published our first election prediction, which came within one percentage point of the 1936 popular vote and irrevocably linked us, in the public's mind, with political polls. By 1937 both Paul Cherington and Richardson Wood had left the partnership and the firm became known simply as Elmo Roper, under which name it was to continue for 18 years until in 1955 it again became a partnership with the title of Elmo Roper and Associates.

The firm's growing pains during this period have closely paralleled

the struggle toward maturity of the whole opinion research field, which has continually sought to develop better and better answers to two basic questions: "Who to ask?" and "What to ask them?"

The very early attempts at "Who to ask?" can only be described as somewhat "stumbling." At first, they included a minimum of the true elements of sampling and a maximum of simply piling up a large number of interviews--with little regard for the importance of who was being interviewed and sometimes little regard as to whether everyone was actually being interviewed. (In fact, when we first started in business, the practice was to "farm out" the interviewing to other organizations. We had no interviewing staff of our own. On an early job, we hired Dun and Bradstreet to make a check on the interviewing and had to stop the job in the middle and start again from scratch because they discovered that some of the interviews hadn't been made at all, and the questionnaire forms had been filled in by the interviewers themselves. The next half year was spent assembling our own interviewing staff, which we have relied on ever since.)

The first sampling improvements came with realization that a so-called "sample" could be more misleading than informative unless it represented different kinds of people as they exist in the population in proper proportions. (For example, a fur manufacturer could be very far misled as to the potential national market for mink stoles, even with a 10,000 sample--if that sampling consisted of women found walking along Fifth Avenue in New York.) This realization led to the technique now known as "quota sampling"--so-called because it required interviewers to fill "quotas" of so many people of differing "key" characteristics. With this method, interviews were assigned to specific cities, towns and rural areas in proportions according to Census statistics. Then, within these cities, towns and rural areas, interviewers were required to go out and find so many men and so many women, so many young people and so many older ones, so many rich and so many poor, again in proportion

to the population, because all of these characteristics--sex, age, economic level, as well as geographic location--had been found to be "key" factors in determining differences in how people think or act.

While even the first quota samples were a great improvement over earlier methods, they can only be described as "loose" at best. The towns selected often depended on such "scientific" data as good railroad connections or a comfortable hotel to stay in while you trained interviewers--or because you knew someone who lived there who might make a good interviewer. The final samples tended to include a rather high proportion of "easy-to-find" groups. An interviewer might well save up all of her lower middle income men until the last minute because she knew she could always count on going to the fire-house and complete her quota there--provided there was no fire. Despite these weaknesses, the early quota samples usually worked out surprisingly well, because it turned out that the "key" characteristics of being young, male, in the middle income bracket, and living in a small midwest town (the factors that were controlled) were actually more "key" in determining many opinions and actions than whether a person was a fireman, a policeman, or a grocery clerk. The 1936 election results were dramatic proof of the superiority of quota sampling to techniques previously used. In that election, which the quota samples predicted accurately, the Literary Digest's poll, which depended on interviews mailed to telephone subscribers, resulted in the prediction of a Landon landslide and in the magazine's demise. While hundreds of thousands of replies were mailed back to the Literary Digest, they largely came from people in the upper economic brackets--both because many in the low economic brackets (who were predominantly for Roosevelt) weren't sent a ballot because they didn't have telephones, and because people in the highest economic brackets (who were stronger for Landon) tend in greater proportions than others to answer mail surveys.

A steady process of refining and tightening up procedures developed

quota sampling into a highly useful method for many purposes. But quota sampling has certain inherent weaknesses. There is always the possibility that some "key" characteristic that has an important bearing on the subject at hand may be lost sight of or can't be "quota'd" for. For example, in studying the public's attitudes toward the question of prohibition, what are the "key" characteristics? Are they entirely sex, age, economic level, the part of the country where they live, etc.? Or does something like a person's religion play an important part? Statistics aren't available for assigning quotas accurately by religion within an interviewer's territory. Also, there is a limit as to how many different characteristics can practically be assigned in quotas. Finally, no matter how carefully "quota sampling" may be done, in the last analysis it leaves a good deal of the choice of who gets interviewed and included in the sample up to the various individual judgments and preferences of the interviewers.

Recognition of the potential weaknesses in the quota system led statisticians to an entirely different approach to sampling--which has become known (as well as mis-known) under the term "probability sampling." This, in short, is the method of selecting respondents by mathematically determined and random means. If the theory of probability sampling could be worked out in practice, no one would have to doubt that every group in the population was represented in exactly proper proportions--whether sick or well, stay-at-homes or gad-about, whether introverts or extroverts, whether cranks or lovely people. But people won't always cooperate as do grains of wheat in a barrel. Some people don't like to stay home; some get sick; some just plain refuse to be interviewed even when they are well and at home. Therefore, while most samplings of public opinion today start out based on probability theory and carry probability techniques as far as possible, they all have to make certain modifications in order to take into account certain hard-to-get groups in the population. Different organizations favor different kinds of modifications;

and certain kinds of studies lend themselves to one kind of modification better than others. We will describe in a later chapter the nature of the modifications that, by trial and error, we have found to work out practically. But, briefly, the modifications used today are of two kinds. One of them uses the principle of "weighting" which means mathematically estimating what the answers of unobtainable respondents would be based on the answers of respondents who are obtainable. The other uses the principle of substituting respondents who have similar characteristics (such as sex, age, where they live, etc.) for those who are unobtainable.

Just as the statisticians have contributed to improvements in "Who to ask?"--or sampling procedures, many others have contributed to "What to ask?" One problem in "What to ask?" has always been to elicit information through questions that are simple and clear and which won't by their wording tend to influence the answers in one direction or another. We found out very early in our life that the way questions are asked can have a great influence on the kind of answers received--particularly on subjects that people don't know much about or on which they haven't formed opinions. To cite one example, just before World War II we asked two matched samples these two questions: "Should the U. S. do everything it can to aid Britain in its war against Germany?" and "Do you think the U. S. should become involved in a plan to aid Britain in its war against Germany?" We found the public quite eager to "do everything possible" but much less ready to "become involved in a plan"--which apparently had certain subversive connotations. Through the years we have learned by trial and error to avoid the obvious kinds of "loaded" questions, but every question we ask is thoroughly pretested to insure against some unsuspected bias.

Creative contributions to questionnaire construction as well as techniques of asking questions have come from experts in a number of related fields--sociologists, anthropologists, political scientists and psychologists

among them. A distinct contribution of the last group, the psychologists, has been to add depth and subtlety to question-asking, providing better techniques for discovering not just what people do and think, but why they do or think it. From time to time, the course of marketing research may have been deflected too much by one or another of these disciplines with attending claims to have found the solution to all research problems, but ultimately the insights of all of them have become part of the varied battery of techniques that good opinion and marketing research relies on.

We have now passed the quarter century mark. Public opinion research, although it still is and well may always be a halfway house between an art and a science, is entering its maturity. In its experimental beginnings in the early 1930's, few people had heard of surveys, and interviewers had to explain what they were all about to respondents. One heard time and time again the complaint: "They can't be any good because no one ever interviewed me." The number of research firms could be counted on your fingers. The size of our office staff was four; and we had no nationwide staff of interviewers. Today there are few who haven't heard of public opinion surveys. Many universities not only have courses in public opinion research but several have public opinion research operations of their own (like the Bureau of Applied Social Research at Columbia; the National Opinion Research Center at Chicago; the Institute for Communication Research at Stanford). Many corporations have added market research departments. Our firm now operates with an office staff of around thirty and an interviewing staff of well over two hundred. And the field has developed to the point where it has acquired its own professional organization, the American Association for Public Opinion Research, numbering some 509 members.

But most important--the means have been developed for collecting information not only useful for makers of products but also of great potential value to our democratic society. As Elmo Roper said in 1959 to an audience at



Boston University: "Public opinion research can explore the areas of ignorance. It can find out whether opinion is based on facts, on an awareness and comprehension of the realistic situation, or made up instead of fears and fantasies, of wishful thinking or blind tradition--and how much of both. In other words, public opinion research can help give a sense of direction and perspective. And, if opinion is not in accord with the realistic situation, the next question to be asked is 'Why?' On this question too, public opinion research can shed light. And only when the full story is available on why men believe what they do is it possible to formulate effective means of changing those beliefs.

"The other main function of opinion research is to make the common man articulate. When he goes into the polling booth, he has a chance to vote for Smith or Jones, and that's all he can do; opinion research can spell out the public's mandate. In the phrase of Wilson Wyatt, a capable and experienced politician, 'It restores the town meeting to American democracy.'"

## Chapter II

### DIFFERENT KINDS OF RESEARCH DONE BY

#### ELMO ROPER and ASSOCIATES

Editor's Note: The subject of this chapter was, we feel, well and adequately treated in a speech made by Burns Roper before the Textile Section of the New York Board of Trade on January 18, 1961. We are therefore printing below the speech as it was given at that time.

Mr. Garretson asked me if I would take about twenty minutes to tell you a little bit about marketing research and what our firm does. Actually, I can describe what we do much more briefly than that by giving you my father's definition of a marketing research consultant:

"A marketing research consultant is a man who knows less about your business than you do, but who gets paid more for telling you how to run it than you could possibly make out of the business even if you ran it right instead of the way he told you to."

Speaking more seriously, this comes at a very fortuitous time from my point of view. We have just done some research in connection with an article we are doing, the purpose of which is to answer a question we frequently get asked, "What do you people do between elections?" We have made an analysis of all of the studies we have done over the last ten years. Let me first give you a brief run-down of these studies in terms of the types of research they represent.

Brand image and consumer demand	29%
Public relations, employee relations, corporate image	15%
Political studies	13%
Product and package design	13%
Other public affairs	12%
Advertising effectiveness	8%
Media, readership, listenership	7%
Legal, testimony	1%
Other	2%

Another way of illustrating the variety of uses there are for what might be broadly classified as marketing research are the kinds of clients or subjects we have done research for. We classified the studies we had done in another way and found we could fill the alphabet.

Automobiles, Banks, Cigarettes, Discrimination, Education, Food, Gasoline, Hospitals, Insurance, Jets, Kitchens, Liquor, Magazines, Newspapers, Oil, Pills, Quiz Programs, Rugs, Stores, TV Sets, Utilities, Vacation, Wallpaper, Xenophobia, Ypsilanti, and Zeitgeists.

In fairness, I should point out that certain letters gave us a little trouble. "K" presented no trouble for we have done work on kitchen equipment, but "X" was a bit difficult. We had to resort to Xenophobia, which means hatred of foreigners. Several years ago we did a study on the American public's attitudes toward a certain foreign born minority group, and it's on this basis that we can claim to have done a study in Xenophobia. "Y" was easy for we did an employee attitude study at Ford's Ypsilanti plant, but "Z" was a bit difficult. "Z" is "zeitgeists," which for the benefit of the uninformed means "temper of the times." In view of this meaning, actually all of our studies fit into this category.

I hope these two listings--the first by function; the second by product or subject type--will serve to illustrate that there is a very great variety of uses for research. But while such listings may make the point that research can do an awful lot of different kinds of things for an awful lot of different products or subjects, it doesn't do much to make it clear specifically just what kind of things research can do. Let me cite a few examples of specific studies.

I mentioned that brand image and consumer demand studies constituted 29% of the studies we have done over the last 10 years--the biggest single category. In the alphabetical listing I led off with automobiles. For a number of years we did an annual study for the Ford Motor Company, which had a

number of different purposes. One of its purposes was to find out how many people planned to buy cars both new and used during the ensuing year. Another purpose was to find out what makes of cars they planned to buy, and why that make rather than one of its competitors. We questioned those who planned to buy further in order to find out what models they planned to buy--sedans, convertibles, station wagons or whatever--and what equipment they planned to get--radios, heaters, automatic transmissions, power steering and so forth. Such information was of value to Ford on a relatively short-term basis from the point of view of scheduling. Should they schedule more or less station wagons this year than last; more or less automatic transmissions; more or less "8's" as opposed to "6's"? From a long-range point of view the study permitted them to spot trends in demand before they became significant. A 2% figure last year that became a 4% figure this year and an 8% figure next year would indicate the beginning of a trend that should not be ignored. While these numbers I have cited are small, the rate of increase is sizable.

In addition to questioning prospective buyers, the entire public was questioned about each Ford-made car in relation to its competitors in the same price class. They were questioned as to which car in the low-priced field they thought was best looking; most comfortable, most durable, had the best performance, was most economical and so forth. And they were also asked which car in the low-priced field they would be most apt to buy if they were buying a new car today. This permitted Ford to see what progress they were making in eliminating certain of the unfavorable attitudes or stereotypes about the Ford and also how well they were capitalizing on their strengths. In addition, by correlating Ford's rating on such factors as economy, comfort and so forth with the question of which car people would be most apt to buy, they were able to determine what factors were most important to people in deciding what make of car to buy.

I mentioned public relations, employee relations and corporate image

inventory and liquidation costs that would have been involved if they had gone ahead and made the product without pretesting it first.

We have also done product and package design studies in a variety of other fields. We have pretested the acceptance of color and color combinations for various kinds of consumer goods. We have pretested the acceptance of television cabinet designs. We have measured the potential market for new silverware patterns in comparison to existing silverware patterns of known sales volume. We have pretested the acceptance of all aspects of new cigarette brands. In fact, we did most of the consumer testing of the now famous Marlboro cigarette with its flip top box. We tested the acceptability of the taste of the product, the type of filter, the flip top box and the surface design on the flip top box.

In connection with product and package design studies, I should point out that the public is not capable of designing a new product. You can't go to a cross section of consumers and say, "What do you think will be the new fashion color for the fall season?" or "What would you like your next television set to look like?" You can, however, take a selection of designer designed colors or designer designed television cabinets to the public and find out which of them evokes the greatest consumer acceptance. And hence, which of them is apt to be successful and which is apt to lay an egg.

I don't want to spend time illustrating every type of study we do, but there is one rather unique application of the public opinion research technique that I think is worth mentioning. I mentioned that eight of the studies we had done in the past ten years were classified as "Other." Among these eight are a couple of studies we have done for a private individual--a very wealthy gentleman. In addition to investing his money in comparatively sound and conventional ways, this gentleman also likes to bail out smaller companies that are in trouble if these smaller companies have sound, inherent values. In assessing whether or not to put his money into a particular company, this gentleman will frequently ask us to do a study in order to assess

the merits of the company. Sometimes we will do a consumer study among users of the type of product the company makes to find out how well satisfied they are with it. Sometimes we will do studies among the company's competitors to find out highly regarded they are in the field. Sometimes we will do a study among companies who supply the company in question as well as its competitors. Often the company will be the manufacturer of a product or service sold to other manufacturers. In such cases we will often interview the customers and prospective customers of this company to see how they regard the company's product or service in relation to those of competitors. These studies are usually small and do not bulk large in our total business. Only eight of the 428 studies in the last ten years are classified under "Other" and not all eight of these are studies of this type. However, as testimony to the value of this type of study, I can say that this client first had us do such a study in 1935; the most recent study we completed for him was completed about a year and a half ago.

I hope these examples will serve to illustrate some of the kinds of uses that have been made of our kind of research. There are few limits to the ways in which such research can be used. If a company or an individual or an organization has a problem and the public or segment of the public that he does not know personally holds the answer to this problem, then research can be of value in solving a problem. Basically, all research is, is the systematic collection of data concerning the habits, attitudes, preferences, views, usage or ownership of products or services from the public or a segment of the public. If advertising and public relations activities are viewed as the dissemination of information from a company or organization to the public or to one or more segments of the public, then the kind of research we practice is the reverse of advertising and public relations. Rather than disseminate information to the public, we collect information from the public or from particular segments of the public, process it, analyze it and feed it back to management.

I should point out that research findings are not a substitute for

## Chapter III

### HOW A SURVEY MOVES THROUGH OUR ORGANIZATION

No two surveys or research projects are exactly alike. In fact, it has been our policy to standardize neither techniques nor our approaches to problems, but rather to take a completely fresh look at the problems of each new client as they have come along, and a fresh look at recurring problems of old clients. At the same time, there are some basic elements and procedures that apply to all research.

A survey begins when a client decides he wants to know something and comes to Elmo Roper and Associates for an answer. He may want to know how his product stands competitively, how he can increase sales, why his product isn't selling better, how the public might react to the development of a new product, whether or not people think his company is a "good corporate citizen," or he may want information that will provide better guidance for an advertising campaign. Whatever he wants to know, the first question to be resolved is: Can the answer be obtained by survey techniques? If it appears that it can, then a potential survey comes into being. The survey becomes actual, however, only (1) when it is agreed that the job is one for which the Roper organization's facilities are fitted, (2) when it is decided that the purpose of the job is one that the Roper firm believes is legitimate, (3) when a study has been designed that gives hope of providing useful answers. XX

Not all research projects are the kind that require interviews to be made with a structured questionnaire. For example, some studies consist entirely of "depth interviews"--a term used to describe an interview in which the respondent is introduced to certain topics and encouraged to talk freely and at length. The interviews are sometimes summarized and sometimes written up as near verbatim as possible after the interview is concluded. This kind of a study is more "qualitative" than "quantitative"; it usually requires a relatively small number of interviews; and it has to be done by people

especially trained for this type of interviewing.

Since the purpose of this handbook is to indoctrinate and serve as a continuous guide to interviewers who will be interviewing samplings of the population with structured questionnaires, we will henceforth concentrate on this kind of survey.

Responsibility for designing a study and carrying it through ✓

This responsibility is carried out by partners, research associates, and research assistants, and it is indeed a "team" function. Once the decision is made to proceed with a survey, a "team" is assigned to it. This usually consists of two partners (one acting as project director; the other as consultant and backstop); and one or more research associates and assistants.

This "team" is responsible for designing the plan of the study, calling on and working with outside consultants when called for, putting the plan into effect, working closely with the various departments as the study moves along, and interpreting or analyzing the results when the tabulations are completed. (We have three "outside consultants" who work with us on a regular basis--and who are on call for all jobs requiring their special abilities. Some projects, however, have required further types of specialized knowledge and in those instances we have used other consultants on a temporary basis.)

It hardly needs to be pointed out that a proper design for a study is the most important part of the whole project. A research project can have no virtues that are not built into it at the start; and it can provide no areas of information that have not been planned for at the beginning. Put more concretely, you can't get answers from people to questions you don't put to them, and you can't get percentages that are meaningful unless you know what kinds of people they are percentages of. You may get out less than you



put into a research study, but you cannot get out more than you put into it.

There are two basic decisions that must be arrived at in designing a study (the interviewing type of marketing research study). One is deciding what information is to be sought from people. The other is determining from what people the information is to be obtained. Making the first decision is a process that leads ultimately to the construction of a questionnaire. Making the second decision leads to what is called the "sample" or "cross section," which means the specification of what kinds and how many people are to be interviewed, and what population groups these respondents are to represent.

WHAT  
from  
WHO

Developing the questionnaire and working out the sample design are usually done concurrently--once the decisions have been made as to what they are to accomplish.

### The Sample

Working out the sample design for any given study is the joint responsibility of the "research team," our statistician, and our statistical consultant.

Since we have a later chapter devoted specifically to sampling and how a sample gets implemented from your end, we will only discuss it generally here.

The theory of sampling is just what it sounds like. It consists of finding out from a part (or sample) of any given "universe" the information desired. In our meaning, a "universe" can be the universe itself, the United States, any other country, a state, a city, or any other definable group of people. If a sample is both large enough and properly representative of a group or universe as a whole, it describes the universe as a whole within very close limits. For example, suppose your "universe" is a city and you wanted to know how many women in the city have blond hair. One way to find out is to

visit every woman in the city and count up how many have blond hair. A costly method. But by going to a cross section of women in that city and finding out what percentage of them have blond hair, you can with confidence apply that percentage to the total number of women in the city and come very close to knowing exactly how many blonds there are--provided your cross section is a representative sampling of all women in the city.

Of course, before one can design a sample, one has to decide what it is to be a sample of; in other words, what group of people, or population, or universe is to be investigated. In the course of a year the Roper organization investigates all sorts of different universes, and for each one a different sort of sample is necessary. Here are some examples of different universes for which we have had to design samples recently:

The total adult population of the United States

The upper-economic population of the New York metropolitan area

Buyers of a magazine sold only in grocery stores

Top executives of certain kinds of business firms who are potential customers for a large corporation

Subscribers to a nationally distributed magazine

Heads of households living in a territory serviced by a particular public utility

In actual practice, a good many of our samples of a prescribed "universe" start out being cross sections of the total population, and for this reason: We want to end up with a balanced sample of some segment of the population, and no one knows who they are or just where they are to be found. To illustrate, some of the universes we have wanted to study have been potential voters, cigarette smokers, smokers of certain brands, beer drinkers, airplane travelers, and so forth. In order to obtain a proper sampling of these segments of the population, we have had to start with a cross section

of the total population, and then establish who qualifies as being a member of the universe to be studied by asking questions to establish their membership in that universe.

There are various ways of solving the problem of obtaining a sample of the population (or of any given universe) that is representative of the whole, and the Roper organization uses a number of different methods depending on the problem in hand. But whatever the method or techniques used, theoretically all sampling techniques employ some system of random selection of respondents who will in the end have the same basic characteristics as exist in the total universe being sampled. (More about this in Chapter VIII)

### The Questionnaire

The "research team" is entirely responsible for the questionnaire. They not only develop it, but they are also responsible for seeing to it that it works--which means testing it themselves in its various phases.

Questionnaire development is both an art and a science. It is an art because the choice of words and phrasing in individual questions has to be based on a "feel" for what particular words mean to different kinds of people, and what kinds of things they will answer. It is a science because a good questionnaire is based on experiment; before it is used it is always put to a series of tests.

Unless a study is an unusually simple one or the subject is one with which we have had a good deal of previous experience, the first step consists of conducting a number of "depth interviews" (which we have already described) with various kinds of people. These depth interviews provide us with some idea of the framework of thought into which the particular subject fits in people's minds. Before starting to draw up a structured questionnaire, it is important to know the varieties of thinking, the varieties of actions and habits, and the range of possible attitudes that are important to the solution. Furthermore, even though a client may believe he knows all

of the facets of his problem when he comes to us, it sometimes happens that he has missed entirely some important aspect that needs to be included in the study design.

After an adequate amount of depth interviewing has been done, the next step is to design the questionnaire itself. Designing a questionnaire does not just mean sitting down and writing questions. Producing a final questionnaire combines the process of question writing, testing with people out in localities where interviewing is done, rewriting, and testing again until each question and the questionnaire as a whole works in actual practice.) To be described as one that works, a questionnaire (and every question in it) must be understandable to respondents; it must tap attitudes or opinions that people already have--or make provisions in the recordings for absences of them; it must not include wordings that influence respondents to answer one way or the other (unless this is an intentional part of the study design to elicit some special kind of information); the order of the questions must be such that asking the earlier questions does not bias the answers to later questions; and the questions should not embarrass respondents or inquire into matters so much their private concern that they will not answer honestly. When a final questionnaire fulfills these criteria, it is ready for the printer and, after the interviewer's specifications are written, for you in the field. The interviewing department now takes over.

#### The Interviewing

Once the questionnaire is developed and the sampling plan worked out, the interviewing department is responsible for getting the job into the field and getting it back. In fact, by the time the questionnaire is ready to be sent into the field, the interviewers will already have been notified and at this point, all that remains to be done is the mailing.

Since this whole handbook is concerned primarily with interviewers

and interviewing and since the next chapter is entirely devoted to the interviewing department, we will not go into any further details about the interviewing process at this point. We would just like to remark that no survey can be better than the interviewing done on it. It is the interviewers who gather the actual data, and only if that data is accurately and fully recorded, can the report based on it be valid and useful.

### The Coding

Once the interviewing department is through checking and editing the questionnaires that have come back from the field to make certain that no gaps are left in the sample, the coding department takes over. The coding department is responsible for coding all of the "open-ended questions." These are the questions that call for an answer written out in the words used by the respondent. For example, "Why" questions are usually of this kind. "Coding" means affixing a code number or answer classification number to every single reply to every open-ended question.

But before actual coding starts, the coding department first has to develop the master code. The first step is to take a sample of the questionnaires that come in and transcribe each answer to an open-ended question onto a separate card. The coding department then sorts these cards into piles that "go together" in the sense that the answers on each of the cards in a given pile all mean approximately the same thing, (i.e. "It's very large," "It's so roomy," "I like all the space in it," "It's so spacious," "You have plenty of room to turn around in it," etc.). Depending on the complexity and range of answers to any given question, we may end up with 4, 12, 15, 24 or even more different categories of answers. When the categories are all agreed upon by the coding department in conjunction with the research team, a descriptive heading or caption is written for each and to each is assigned a code number. This is the master code for the question.

Once the master code is set, the next step is to classify the answers to the given question on each questionnaire. The coder reads each answer, decides in which category it belongs, and assigns to it the proper code number.

### The Tabulating

The tabulating department is responsible for putting all of the information gathered in the questionnaires into statistical form. Before tabulation begins, the tabulating department has been supplied with specifications from the research team showing all of the breakdowns and cross tabulations that will be necessary for proper analysis of the job. For example, the answers to most questions are separated to show how the different groups (men vs. women, respondents of different ages, different economic levels, etc.) in the population answered them. These are called "breakdowns" because they are breakdowns of the total population interviewed. In addition, the answers to many questions are analyzed by the answers given to other questions in order to show what patterns of thinking or behavior tend to go together. (For example, how many who voted for Eisenhower also planned to vote for Nixon.) These are the cross tabulations.

The first step in the tabulating process is to transfer every single answer on every questionnaire to a "punch card"--so called because an operator punches a series of holes in a card in the numbered position that represents each answer.

Next the punch cards are run through a machine which mechanically counts the "holes" in each location on the punch card. For example, the number of 16-4 holes (16th column of holes from the left, 4th hole down the column) would show the number of people who answered "yes" to a particular question, while a count of the 16-5 holes would show the number of people who answered "no." After all the answers to all questions have been tabulated, the counts

are percentaged. The results are then typed in the form of tables. Now the survey is ready to go back to the research team for analysis.

### Analysis

Analysis is the process of determining what the results mean. The analyst tries to find in the results the answers to the client's problem and to state the findings of the study in such a way that their meaning will be clear to the client.

THEORY OF SAMPLING

This chapter deals with how you obtain a proper sampling of respondents, concentrating on how you get to your locations and the ground you cover there in getting your respondents. It takes you to the point of where and how you contact your respondents--as distinct from how you conduct the interviews which will be discussed in a later chapter.

But before we discuss procedures, we believe it will help you to understand something about the theoretical sampling considerations that lie behind these procedures.

As we have indicated in the earlier chapters, there are variations in sampling methods. These variations are determined by what kind of information is sought from what kind of a "universe," and how precise it has to be.

"Universe" is the statistical term for whatever group is being sampled. It could be the universe--when we reach the stars; it could be the world; or a country, state or city; a company's marketing territory; a company's employees, stockholders or customers; or it could be part of a population (rich people, poor people, Methodists, owners of automobiles or whatever).

Most population sampling today basically uses the theory of "probability" sampling. In principle, a probability sample is one in which every person in the "universe" has an equal or, if not equal, a mathematically known chance of being interviewed. For example, a perfect probability sample would be one where everyone in a given "universe" was listed, and every "nth" person selected for inclusion in the sample--and interviewed. Every research firm would like to be able to say that each of their samples consists of a strict probability drawing of respondents with 100% accomplishment of an interview made with every designated respondent. This is impossible simply because some of the designated respondents can't be found or won't be interviewed even when found. Therefore, various "modifications"



have been developed to get around this fact. These modifications have in common that they use probability procedures up to a point, then employ certain practical procedures beyond that point in order to make the final samples as representative as possible of the total population.

In any population sampling (whether of the nation, a state, a county, a city) locations for interviewing can be--and usually are--determined by probability methods. For example, in our nationwide sample, selection of specific interviewing locations has been done in three separate stages:

1. The first stage consisted of drawing a nationwide sample of counties at random proportionate to population within various geographic sections of the country as defined by the Census. This means that we first listed every county within each geographic section in order according to its population size. We then took an "interval"--which was the figure arrived at by dividing the total number of sampling locations into the total population figure for the geographic section. Wherever this "interval" fell into a county, that county was assigned as a sample point.

The second stage consisted of selecting the cities, towns and rural areas within each county selected. This stage was done on the same principle as the first stage, with the specific localities (cities, towns and rural areas) selected at random proportionate to their populations.

The third stage (which is done anew for each survey) selects the specific interviewing locations within each city and township that had been designated in the second stage. Once the locations (blocks or routes) for interviewing are selected, a number of different procedures can be used for determining what people are to be contacted for inclusion in the sample. It is at this stage of the process that the problem of "accomplishment" arises--which simply means the problem of obtaining completed interviews with the people who should be interviewed and compensating for the fact that some people can't or won't be interviewed. Thus, this is where "modifications" of probability

sample designs are employed.

Briefly described, the most commonly used procedures for determining and obtaining individual respondents today are these:

✓ 1) Call-back sampling. This method selects specific households on a random basis, determines the specific individual within the household--also on a random basis--who is the candidate to be interviewed, and requires interviewers to make up to so many call-backs to "get" the specified individual. The final sample includes only those individuals who have been designated and can be found and will be interviewed after the required number of call-backs have been made. In this kind of sampling, the "modification" from probability design consists of the handling of those designated individuals who can't be found or won't be interviewed. Sometimes this is done by a process of mathematical "weighting" in the tabulated results; sometimes the fact of non-accomplishment is simply ignored or just mentioned in a footnote.

2) The "at-homeness" procedure. Like the call-back method, this method also selects specific households, the specific individual within the household who is to be interviewed, and includes in the final sample no one except the designated respondents who are interviewed. However, this method requires no call-back interviews on the designated individuals when they are not at home or won't be interviewed at the time the interviewer makes the first call. Instead, a method of mathematical "weighting" of the results is used. A good part of this "weighting" is based on the frequency-at-home information supplied by the respondents interviewed--thus the title "at-homeness" for this procedure. For example, a respondent who has been at home consistently, would

only be counted one time in the final tabulated results; a respondent who has been away from home consistently would be counted several times over on the theory that his habits and characteristics are representative of those other people who couldn't be interviewed because they were not at home.

3) Sampling that controls for "key" characteristics.

Quota

This method neither requires call-backs nor uses mathematical weightings to get around the problem of people who can't or won't be interviewed. Instead it requires that--within the interviewing locations designated--a specific number of interviews be made with men and/or women of different age levels in accordance with Census statistics. Often a specific number of employed women are required as well in order to insure their inclusion in the sample in proper proportions.

Each of these methods of determining individual respondents to be included in the sample has its own merits--as well as limitations. And while these brief descriptions of the procedures may sound simple, their implementation is far from simple.

The rest of this chapter will be concerned with how the third procedure (the one that controls for key characteristics) is employed. We have two reasons for concentrating on this one: 1) it is, in our opinion, the superior one of the three procedures when both costs and accuracy of results are taken into account for most studies, and thus our interviewers will be using it more often than the other two procedures; and 2) an interviewer who has mastered its handling, can with ease handle either the "call-back" procedure or the "at-homeness" procedure.

SAMPLING PROCEDURES

Since there are so many parts to this chapter, we are indexing  
it below:

Theory of Sampling - Pages 1 - 4

General Approach and Procedures Common to All Interviewing - Pages 5 - 8

Handling Block Assignments - Pages 9 - 27

In Cities of 50,000 or more population - Pages 10 - 14

In Cities of 2,500 to 50,000 population - Pages 15 - 22

Counting dwelling units - Pages 17, 18

Posting the number of dwelling units - Page 19

Calculating how many interviews to get from each  
block - Pages 20 - 22

General directions for Block Assignments - Pages 23 - 27

How to select male blocks - Pages 23 - 25

Procedure at the block - Pages 25, 26

If you can't complete your assignments on the  
selected blocks - Pages 26, 27

Handling Assignments in Places Under 2,500 Population (Small  
Towns and Open Country) - Pages 28 - 36

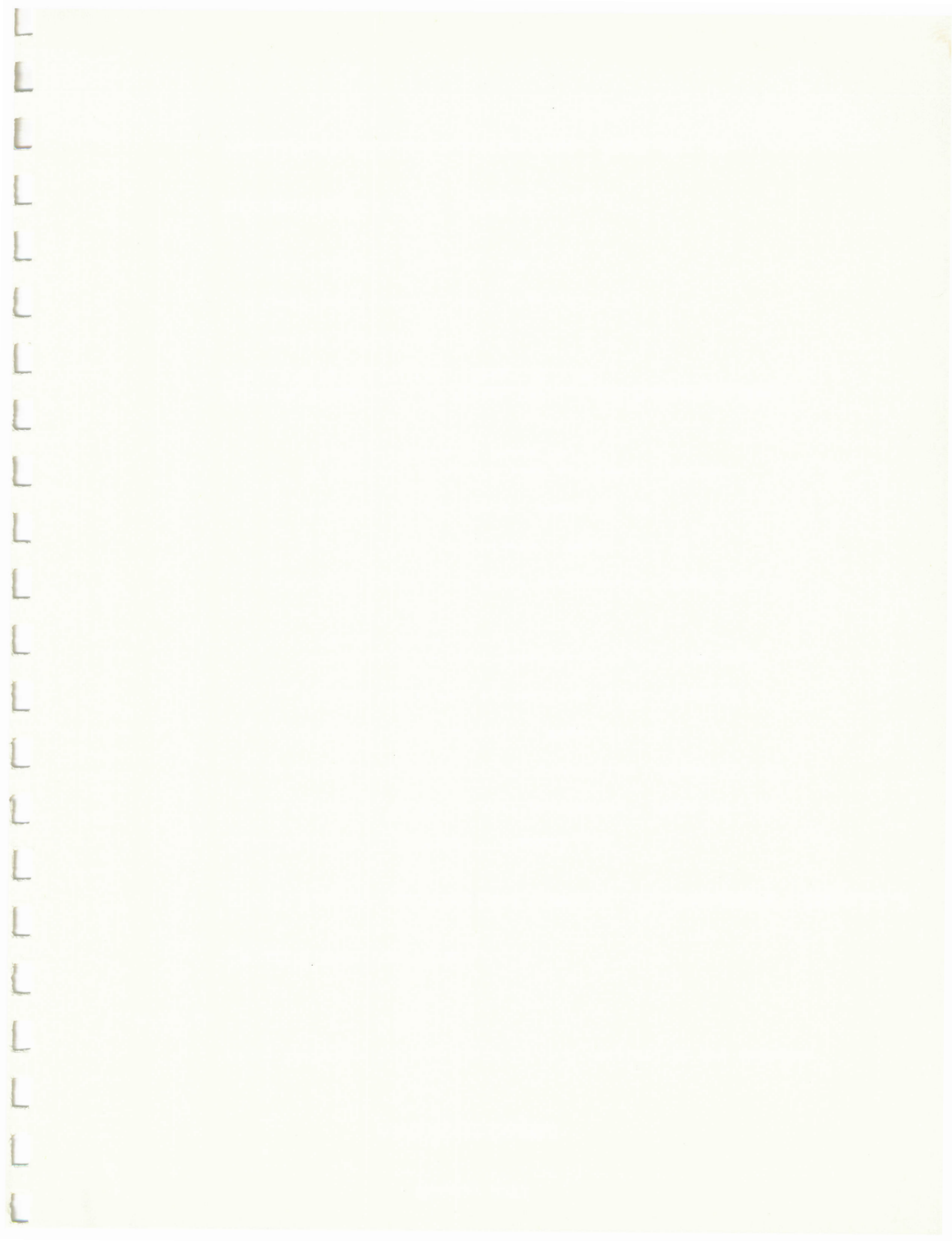
General - Pages 28 - 30

Small towns under 2,500 - Pages 31 - 33

Open country - Pages 34 - 36

Combined Quotas for Age - Page 37

Miscellaneous Problems and Directions - Pages 38 - 40



GENERAL APPROACH AND SOME PROCEDURES

COMMON TO ALL INTERVIEWING LOCATIONS

The very length of this chapter on sampling procedures is formidable in itself. There are, however, two good reasons for this: First, we are trying to make the directions detailed enough to anticipate most of the questions that may arise from time to time after an interviewer has received her training course and is later carrying out an assignment on her own. Second, because the Census provides different kinds of data for different sizes of community, we have to use different procedures requiring different interviewers' instructions and materials, depending on the size of community in which assignments are made:

In cities of 50,000 population and over, the Census provides population statistics for all blocks. This means that specific blocks can be selected at random proportionate to population on the blocks, and a specific number of interviews can be assigned to each.

In cities and towns of under 50,000 population, the Census does not provide statistics for specific blocks that will let us select blocks at random proportionate to population and so assign a specific number of interviews to a block. However, street maps are available for places of 2,500 population and over, and from these we select specific blocks on a randomized basis. But the number of interviews obtained from these randomly selected blocks have to be proportioned according to the count of the dwelling units on each block, since we have no prior knowledge of how many people may live on the various blocks. (Very small towns for which no maps are obtainable do not even permit this and require different procedures as later described.)

In rural or open country areas, where there are no "blocks," areas are chosen at random and interviewers are assigned specific routes to follow along streets and roads within the area as marked on a map.

While some interviewers will always receive assignments in only one size of community, many interviewers will be receiving assignments in different sizes of community. So while this chapter is long, we feel that it is necessarily so, and that it would be less useful as a working manual if we attempted to shorten it.

In the following sections we will describe in detail the procedures you use for obtaining your interviews once you reach your location and starting point, depending on whether you are assigned 1) Block locations, which means you are working in a place of 2,500 population or more; or 2) Area locations, which means you are working in open country locations, or in very small towns under 2,500 population.

But it will perhaps help to understand these directions better if we first briefly describe certain procedures that apply to all locations-- whether city, town or rural.

1. You always have a starting household whatever locations (blocks or areas) you are using, although the method of determining starting households varies according to size of place where interviews are being made, as described later. This is where you try to get your first interview.
2. From the starting household, you proceed to try to obtain an interview in every consecutive household as prescribed (around the block if your assignment is for blocks in a city or town; along a route if your assignment is in open country or in villages or small towns under 2,500 population).

3. All of your interviews are made in "households" (or "dwelling units" as they are sometimes called) as distinct from places of business, parks, etc. Here we are forced to make some definitions, however:

For our purposes, a household or dwelling unit is any place where a family or individual is living with these exceptions:

Institutions like prisons, insane asylums,  
hospitals, etc.

Commercial (as opposed to residential) hotels.

Military establishments.

On the positive side, structures that contain households or dwelling units may be:

A single family house in which a family or a  
single individual may live.

A multiple family house--which is two (or several)  
households or dwelling units under the same roof,  
and interviews should be attempted in each house-  
hold.

An apartment house--in which each apartment should  
be considered a separate "household" or "dwelling  
unit"--and thus each is a candidate for an interview.

A boarding or rooming house--in which each room is  
considered a separate "household"--and the occupants  
of each are candidates for interviews.

A residential hotel--which is the high class description  
of a boarding or rooming house and should be treated  
the same way. Obviously a commercial hotel is not to  
be included because the guests are not residents of



the place in which you are interviewing--and thus not included in the Census for that place.

A college dormitory--which is another kind of "boarding" house and should be treated as such.

4. In this kind of "modified" probability sample which we are describing in this chapter, you only interview one person per household.
5. On each assignment, you will be given a "quota" for a given number of men and/or women. You will also be given a quota for a given number of people in different age groups; and often a quota for employed women. In practice, you start off by interviewing the person who comes to the door (provided the person is of the right sex for that place or hour of the day). As you get towards the end of your assignment, you may be looking for respondents of a certain age, or for employed women, because you have not found as many of them as your assignment calls for. You therefore have to ask the person who comes to the door if someone living there meets these requirements; and if not you proceed to the next household.

This brief description of general procedures lets us now turn to what you do to obtain your samples in the different circumstances for different sizes of place.

### HANDLING BLOCK ASSIGNMENTS

Whenever we can make assignments using specifically designated blocks for interviewing, we do so. This can only be done in cities and towns of over 2,500 population.

Once the location of the blocks, and the number of interviews to be made on each block are determined, your procedures are the same--whether your assignment is in a place of over or under 50,000 population. However, as we have said, we don't have the same Census data for places under 50,000 population as for places over 50,000, and thus have to use different methods to determine block locations and the number of interviews to be made on each block.

Therefore, we will first take up separately the procedures specific to each of these sizes of place (over 50,000 population, and between 2,500 and 50,000 population); and then later discuss the general procedures which are the same for both sizes of place.

But before doing this one further bit of explanation is needed. On many surveys we interview both men and women. As a matter of practical procedure, we assign certain blocks for women and other blocks for men. This is because we require different hours of interviewing for the two sexes, and using different blocks avoids confusion in the field. As a further practical procedure, we determine and assign female blocks from here, and then in many surveys use contiguous blocks for the male blocks. Therefore, in the following pages, in which we describe your block assignment materials and how to handle them, we will be talking about your female blocks. We will describe how you determine and handle male blocks in a later section (Pages 23 to 25).

Some surveys require separate assignments for male and female blocks. In such cases you will receive special instructions and somewhat revised materials.

Block Assignments in Cities of 50,000 or More Population

Your assignment or "quota" sheet for cities of 50,000 or more population will always be on white paper.

In these large sized cities, the Census supplies the data that enables us to "draw" specific blocks in proportion to population. This means that we can assign to you the specific number of respondents to be interviewed on each of the specific blocks. Thus, we call these "block-statistics" cities.

On each white assignment sheet for a job, you will find this information:

The city name for the assignment, written under "Place of Interview."

The total number of interviews to be made in the city.

The number of the starting household--which you count proceeding clockwise from the Northeast corner on your female blocks, and from the appropriate corner, as described later, on your male blocks.

The distribution of the total number of interviews as between men and women.

The distribution of your interviews (male and female) among the different age groups (unless we are giving you "combined" age quotas, which is explained on Page 37).

The number of women that must be employed if there is an employed women quota.

The block number assigned for the survey and the number of interviews to be made on each block.

Block listing sheets and maps

You are equipped with a block listing sheet for every city in which you work, as well as maps. These block listing sheets are your permanent copies

which will be used on successive surveys until you have used up the blocks. Therefore, keep them in a safe place. When the point is reached that most of the blocks have been assigned, a new selection will be made here in the office and a new listing will be sent to you.

The block numbers written in on the assignment sheet will correspond to the numbers on your block listing sheet in the "Int. Block No." column. By locating these numbers on your block listing sheet and applying them to the maps, you determine the location of the interviewing blocks for the specific survey.

We use two different kinds of block listing sheets depending on the size of the city.

Very large cities (Los Angeles, Chicago, Detroit, New York, Philadelphia)

The maps you need here are regular street maps that you get yourselves.

For these large cities the "block listing" sheets show the North, East, South and West boundaries of the blocks. Most of the boundaries, of course, are the names of the four streets surrounding the blocks. However, sometimes the maps we have here are not clear enough and we have to write in a description for one or more sides of the block.

These block sheets look like this:

<u>Int. Bl. #</u>	<u>North</u>	<u>East</u>	<u>South</u>	<u>West</u>
1.	Dickinson	5th	Greenwich	6th
2.	Tasker	11th	Morris	Passyunk
3.	Christian	1 bl. east of 10th	1 bl. south of Christian	10th
4.	Cypress	9th	1 bl. south of Cypress	10th
5.	1 bl. north of Spruce	17th	Spruce	18th

ETC.

Suppose that one of the blocks on your assignment sheet is #4. You look on your map and locate Cypress, 9th and 10th streets. In this instance, our map doesn't show the name of the street bounding the south side of the block--but shows that a street is there one block south of Cypress between 9th and 10th.

All other cities of 50,000 population or more, except those listed above

For these cities we supply you with Census maps which show the Census Bureau's tract and block numbers. The tract is a fairly large area, each one given a number by the Census, and each containing a good many blocks. Within each tract, the blocks are numbered 1 up to as many blocks as there are included within the tract.

Your block listing sheet looks like this:

<u>Int.</u> <u>Bl. #</u>	<u>Job</u> <u>used</u> <u>for</u>	<u>Tract #</u>	<u>Block #</u>
1.		4	41
2.		6	14
3.		6	42
4.		6	59
5.		7	5
6.		7	22

ETC.

Suppose one of your assigned blocks is #2. When you refer to your block listing sheet, you find that "Int. Block No." 2 is in Tract No. 6, and the block is No. 14 inside your Tract No. 6. So you locate Tract No. 6 on your map and then find Block #14 in that tract; and that is it.

You can ignore the column heading "Job used for"--we use this column back here at the office on our duplicate copies of your block listing sheet.

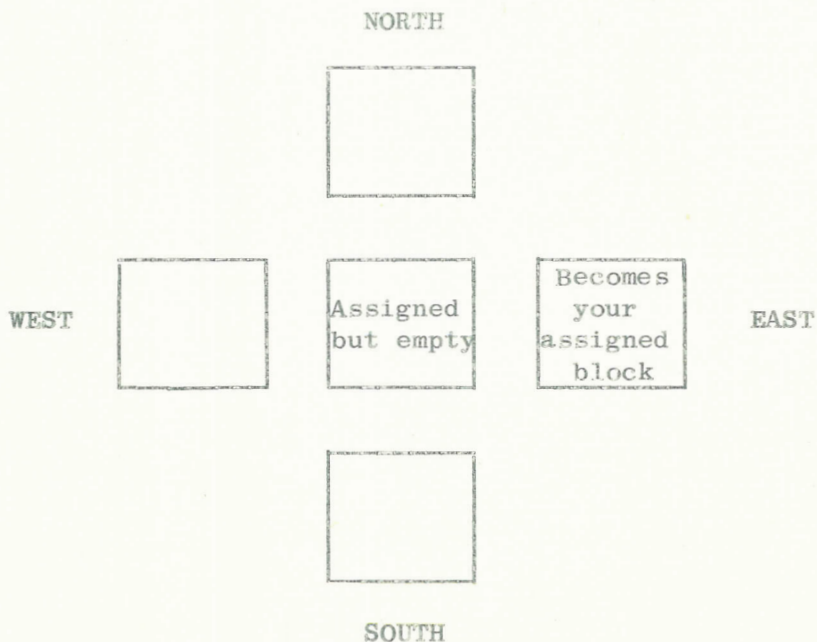
Besides keeping your block listing sheet in a safe place, please be doubly careful of the Census maps. They are very difficult to replace now and will get more so as time goes on.

\* \* \* \* \*

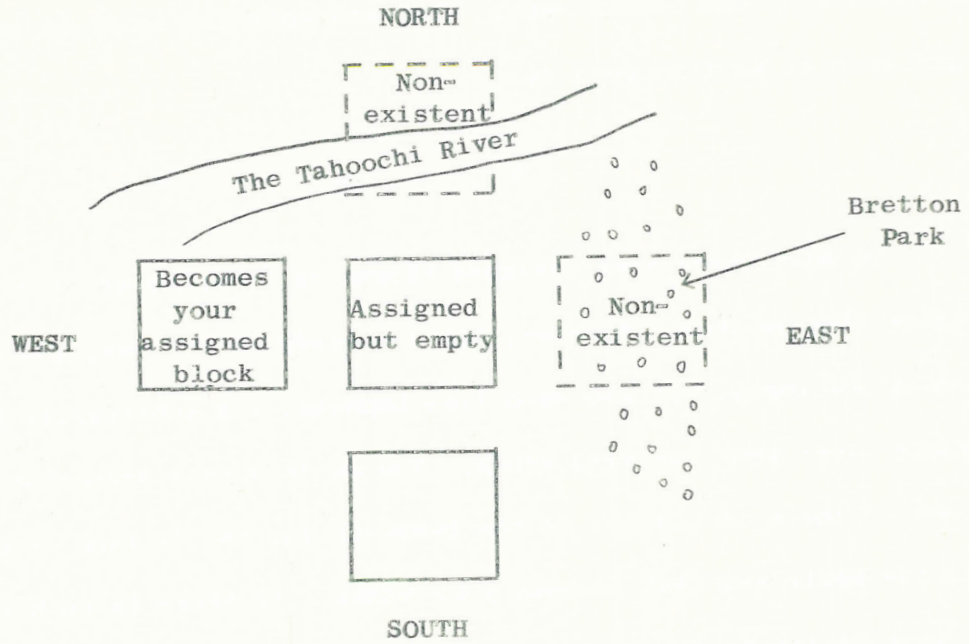
In most cases your assigned blocks in "block-statistic" cities will have households on them. However, for a variety of reasons, you may find an assigned block empty. If and when this happens, you arbitrarily make a contiguous block your assigned block. You do this in a prescribed order: first see if there is a block to the East--if so, that's your block. If not, look to the North and that becomes your block. If there is no block to the North, look to the West and that one becomes your assigned block. Failing any block there (which is pretty unlikely) take the block to the South and make it your assigned block.

The two diagrams below illustrate this in graphic form.

Case I When your assigned block is devoid of households but is surrounded by four populated blocks:-



Case II When your assigned block is not surrounded by populated blocks:-



Block Assignments in Cities and Towns 2,500 to 50,000 Population

Your assignment or "quota" sheet for cities between 2,500 and 50,000 population will always be green.

In these medium sized cities or towns, the Census does not supply block statistics. Therefore we cannot "draw" specific blocks in proportion to population as we can with cities of 50,000 or more population. All we can do is to select blocks on a randomized basis from the maps of the city you send to us (thus the term "map block cities" which we use to describe these cities). Since we have no way of knowing what the population is on the blocks selected, you have to count the dwelling units on them and calculate the number of interviews to be made on each block, which process we will describe after discussing your assignment sheets and block listings.

On each green assignment sheet for a job you will find this information:

The city name for the assignment written under "Place of Interview."

The total number of interviews to be made in the city or town.

The number of the starting household--which you count proceeding clockwise from the Northeast corner on your female blocks, and from the appropriate corner, as described later, on your male blocks.

The distribution of the total number of interviews as between men and women.

The distribution of your interviews (male and female) among the different age groups (unless we are giving you "combined" age quotas, which is explained on Page 37).

The number of women that must be employed if there is an employed women quota.



The block numbers assigned for the survey.

A section entitled "For interviewer's use." This is where you post your counts of dwelling units on the assigned blocks and calculate how many interviews are to be made on each.

Thus, the only difference between a white and a green quota sheet is that the green one does not specify the number of interviews you are to complete in each block. This is what you have to calculate, as described later.

### Block Listing Sheet and Maps

You will be equipped with a listing of blocks which we selected from the map of the city you sent us. You will of course keep a duplicate map. Be sure to keep your block listing sheet in a safe place. It is your permanent copy and will be used for a number of different surveys. When most of the blocks on it have been assigned, a new selection will be made at the office and a new listing will be sent to you.

These block sheets look like this:

<u>Int. block #</u>	<u>North</u>	<u>East</u>	<u>South</u>	<u>West</u>
1	University Blvd.	Fern St.	Prince Ave.	Elkin Ave.
2	1 bl. North of Prichard Rd.	Bucknell Dr.	Prichard Rd.	Burnley Terr.
3	Route 193 (City Limits)	Sligo Creek	Wheaton Lane	Inwood Ave.
4	Windham Lane	Malone St.	Gridley Lane	Lester St.
5	Wheaton Lane	Jewell St.	Jasper St.	Inwood Ave.
		ETC.		

Suppose that one of the blocks on your assignment sheet is No. 2. You look on your map and locate Bucknell Drive, Prichard Road and Burnley Terrace. For some reason there is no name to the street bounding the north

side of the block, but according to the map a street is there and thus the direction: one block north of Prichard Road.

\* \* \* \* \*

There are two steps in calculating the number of interviews to be obtained from your assigned blocks: you first have to count the number of dwelling units on each assigned block. Second, you then calculate from this count how many of the total interviews should be allocated to each of the assigned blocks.

#### Counting Your Dwelling Units

Before you can make any interviews at all in these "map block" cities, you have to count the households on all the blocks assigned for a particular survey. The way you count your households--or dwelling units--is to actually go out to the blocks and make a count of them.

We have already defined what should be considered a household or dwelling unit, but to review it: a household or dwelling unit is the place where a family or an individual living alone makes their or his home.

A single family house is one dwelling unit and gets a count of one.

A two family house is two dwelling units and gets a count of 2; a three family house a count of 3, etc.

An apartment house containing fifty apartments gets a count of 50.

A boarding house that contains ten separate living quarters gets a count of 10.

A college dormitory gets counted for the number of students in it.

You exclude from your count all of the different kinds of places in which you do not make interviews. These are: institutions such as prisons, hospitals, insane asylums, etc., military establishments, hotels, business establishments, prep school dorms. If any of your assigned blocks are made up entirely of such places, the block gets a count of 0. However, be careful about business sections. Often a business establishment will have apartments in the upper stories, and these should be counted. Whenever a block looks as though it contains boarding houses or college dormitories, you will have to inquire as to the number of rooms or different living quarters in the structures.

This counting would be quite a chore in large cities where there are many apartment houses and a good many of the large old family houses have been made over into smaller apartments or rooming houses. In the smaller sized places, however, it is usually fairly easy to estimate the number of households in a structure from the outside of the building.

While we want the count to be fairly accurate, a perfect count is not necessary. Suppose your block contains houses that all look like one family dwelling units. In such cases you can just circle the block in an automobile and count the structures. If you don't have an automobile you could even stand at the corners and get a close enough count looking down the streets. If there is an apartment house in a block, you should check to see how many different households or dwelling units are in it.

As we have said, we don't need an exact count--a good approximation will serve our purposes. This means that you don't have to inquire to spot occasional boarders that may be living with families.

It is entirely possible that one or more of the blocks we have selected will have no dwelling units or households on it at all, since we are dealing with blocks as they appear on maps and we have no further information about them. If this is the case, you simply record a "0" for the number of

dwelling units on that block.

Posting the Number of Dwelling Units

Every green assignment sheet (or "quota" sheet) will be set up with space for you to post the counts of the dwelling units on your assigned blocks, along with a place for you to record the results of your calculations of how many interviews will be assigned to each. This is on the lower half of the assignment sheet and is the section entitled "For interviewer's use."

Most surveys require a sampling of both men and women. Therefore, the green assignment sheet is set up to take care of both sexes. However, we only make counts of dwelling units as described above on the female blocks, and these counts determine the number of interviews to be made on your male blocks as well as on your female blocks. (How you determine the location of your male blocks is described in the next section, Pages 23 to 25.)

The first column in this "counting" section lists the number of each block that we have assigned to you from your block listing sheet (which will be your female block).

The second column is headed "Number of dwelling units in female block," and this is where you write in the number of dwelling units on each of the assigned female blocks as you have counted them.

\* \* \* \* \*

Whenever your assignment is for one sex only, or whenever we are doing a survey that requires our drawing male blocks separately, you will receive a revised green assignment sheet with special directions for handling it.

\* \* \* \* \*

Calculating How Many Interviews to Get From Each Block

After you have inserted the figures showing the dwelling-unit-per-block counts in the column headed "No. of Dwelling Units in Female Block," you have all the information you need to start calculating. The rest is plain arithmetic. The easiest way to describe the process is to show you an example of a fully calculated quota; then describe how we got there.

Here is the example--and just so that we may illustrate all possibilities, this example contains more blocks than you will probably ever be assigned on a single survey.

Block No.	No. of dwelling units in female block	Approximate percentage	Total No. of interviews	No. of female interviews	No. of male interviews
# 3	9	5%	2	1	1
# 5	2	1%	0	0	0
# 7	15	8%	3	2	1
#10	55	30%	12	6	6
#20	6	3%	1	0	1
#28	76	41%	(16)17	9	8
#30	23	12%	5	2	3
#31	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	186	100%	(39)40	20	20

In the above example we arrived at the "Approximate percentages" by dividing the total number of dwelling units (186) into the number of dwelling units on each block, thus:

Block #3	Block #5	Block #7	Block #10	Block #20
$\frac{.048}{186/9.000} = 5\%$	$\frac{.010}{186/2.000} = 1\%$	$\frac{.080}{186/15.000} = 8\%$	$\frac{.295}{186/55.000} = 30\%$	$\frac{.032}{186/6.000} = 3\%$
$\begin{array}{r} 000 \\ 900 \\ \hline 744 \\ 1560 \\ \hline 1488 \\ 72 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 000 \\ 200 \\ \hline 186 \\ 140 \\ \hline 000 \\ 140 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 000 \\ 1500 \\ \hline 1488 \\ 120 \\ \hline 000 \\ 120 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 372 \\ 1780 \\ \hline 1674 \\ 1060 \\ \hline 930 \\ 130 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 000 \\ 600 \\ \hline 558 \\ 420 \\ \hline 372 \\ 48 \end{array}$
	Block #28	Block #30		Block #31
	$\frac{.408}{186/76.000} = 41\%$	$\frac{.123}{186/23.000} = 12\%$		<u>Empty</u>
	$\begin{array}{r} 744 \\ 160 \\ \hline 000 \\ 1600 \\ \hline 1488 \\ 112 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 186 \\ 440 \\ \hline 372 \\ 680 \\ \hline 558 \\ 122 \end{array}$		

The above division is carried out to three places and then rounded off to a two-digit figure by either leaving the second digit as is if the third digit is under 5 or increasing the digit by one if the third digit is 5 or over. In the above examples .048 (Block #3) becomes 5% because the third digit (8) is over 5. In Block #20, .032 becomes 3% because the third digit (2) is under 5 and is therefore dropped.

We arrived at "Total No. of Interviews" by multiplying the total number of interviews assigned (40) by the percentages expressed in decimal form for each block, thus.

Block #3	Block #5	Block #7	Block #10	Block #20	Block #28	Block #30
40	40	40	40	40	40	40
<u>.05</u>	<u>.01</u>	<u>.08</u>	<u>.30</u>	<u>.03</u>	<u>.41</u>	<u>.12</u>
200	40	320	00	120	40	80
<u>00</u>	<u>00</u>	<u>00</u>	<u>120</u>	<u>00</u>	<u>160</u>	<u>40</u>
2.00 = 2	0.40 = 0	3.20 = 3	12.00 = 12	1.20 = 1	16.40 = 16	4.80 = 5

In the above multiplication as in the division, each answer was rounded off to the nearest whole number depending upon whether or not the digit immediately to the right of the decimal point was 5 or over, or under 5. In the case of Block #30 the answer (4.80) was rounded off to 5 because of the digit (8) to the right of the decimal point. In Block #5 there were no interviews allotted because the digit (4) to the right of the decimal point was less than 5. Had the answer been 0.50 or more, it would have been rounded off to 1.

The next step is to add up the various numbers of interviews you have allotted to each block to make sure they add to the assigned total--in this case 40. As you can see they add to 39--we are one short because in rounding off the numbers during the preceding division and multiplication, we apparently "lost" one whole digit. Because you will quite often end up either one or two numbers over or under your assigned "Total No. of interviews," the rule for adjusting the numbers so they add to the correct total is this:

Always add or subtract the one or two numbers necessary to arrive at a correct total to or from the block with the largest number of interviews assigned.

In the above example this would mean that you change the figure for Block #28 from 16 to 17 so as to arrive at a total of 40.

In surveys where your sample is confined to women only, you are now finished with your calculations. But when we are sampling both men and women, there is the final step.

In this final step you divide the allotted number of interviews for each assigned block in half, assigning half to the female block and half to the male block. In our example, however, Block #7 got an odd number of interviews as did Blocks #20, 28 and 30. Since an odd number can't be divided equally, we assign the extra interview to the female block in Block #7 making up for it by assigning the extra interview in Block #20 to the male block. We did the same for the odd interviews in Blocks #28 and 30. We alternated the extra interviews between the male and female blocks. By doing this, we ended up with the exact number of men and women assigned in the city, which are the numbers written at the bottom of the "No. of male interviews" column and the "No. of female interviews" column.

General Directions for Block Assignments

(Applicable for both "block statistic" and "map block" cities)

Once your block locations and the number of interviews to be obtained from them are determined (by you for places under 50,000 population; by us for places over 50,000 population), your procedures are the same regardless of which size of place you are working in.

In all places of 2,500 and over population--which means these locations where you have block assignments--certain hours have to be used for interviewing men. Unless a specific survey directs otherwise, all men must be interviewed only during these hours:

After 5:00 p.m. on weekdays.

All day on Saturdays and holidays.

Women may be interviewed at any time, including daytime hours on weekdays. However, it is sometimes necessary to use evening hours in order to fill your assignments for employed women.

Since the hours for interviewing men are restricted, we have adopted the policy of assigning separate blocks for men and women in order to avoid confusion. As we mentioned previously, we make entirely separate drawings for male and female blocks in some surveys. When we do this, your assignment sheet will specify which blocks are for males and which for females. But in most surveys, this is not statistically necessary and we therefore assign the female blocks, and the interviewer determines the male block in the field according to a set procedure as described on the following pages.

How to Select Male Blocks

Whenever you are not assigned specific male blocks, the way you determine them is this: you select from the blocks surrounding and adjacent to the assigned female block the male block in this order of preference:



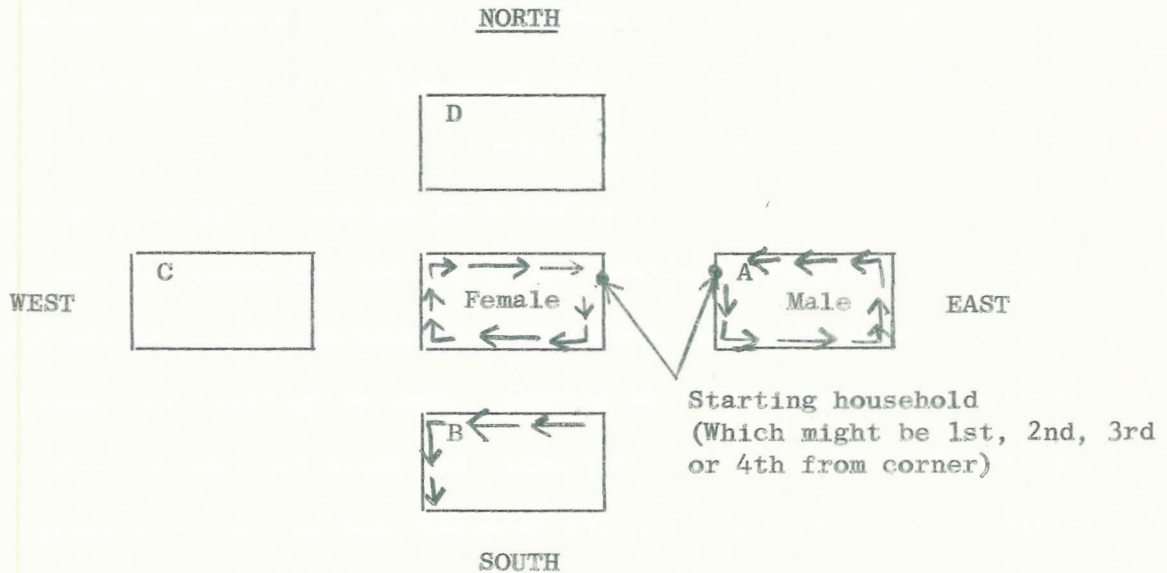
1st preference: The block opposite your starting point on the female block if there is a block opposite this point.

2nd preference: The block opposite the first corner you turn as you proceed around your female block.

3rd preference: The block opposite the second corner you turn as you proceed around your female block.

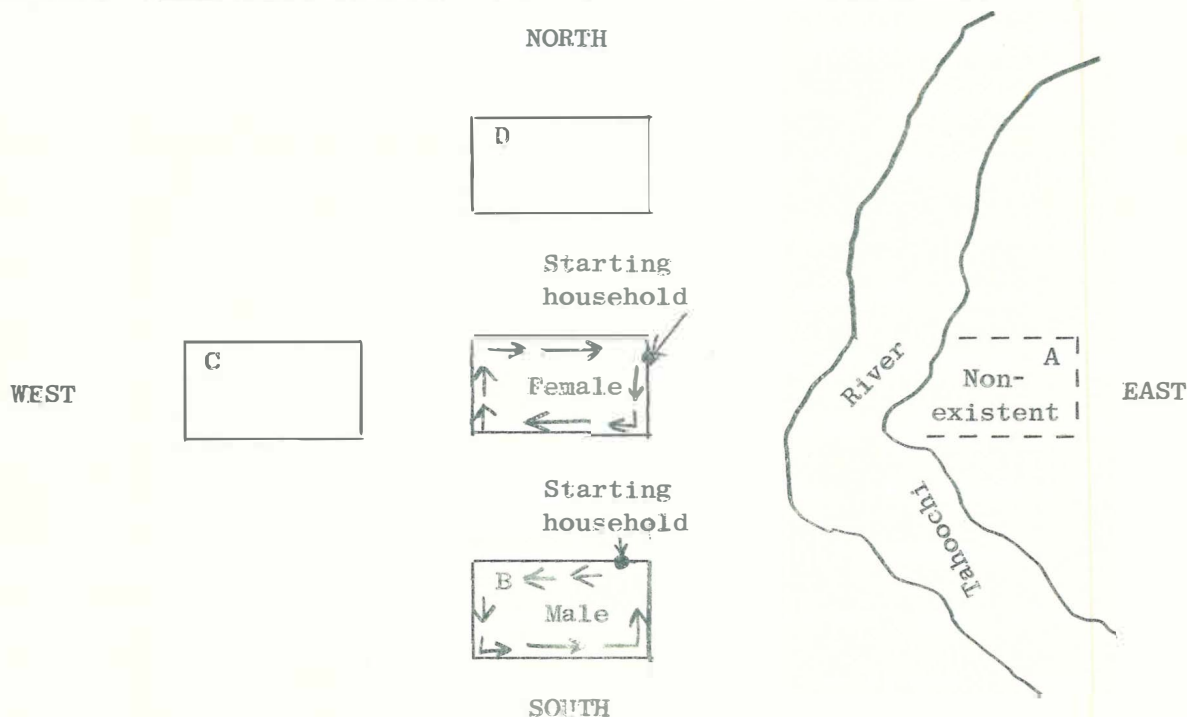
The easiest way to describe this is with diagrams.

Case I When 4 blocks surround your female block.



Here your male block is A. You go to B to complete your male assignment only if you cannot complete it on the A block.

Case II When your preferred male block fails to materialize.



Here your male block is B. Similarly, if there should be no "B" block to the south, your male block becomes "C"--the one to the west.

Procedure at the Block

On every job you will find a number for your starting household in the upper left-hand corner of your assignment sheet.

On your female blocks you always start at the NORTHEAST corner of the block, then proceed clockwise counting the households until you reach the household designated as your starting one. For example, if the assignment sheet has the figure 3 for your starting household, you simply count three households from the NORTHEAST corner as indicated on the diagram and then you begin interviewing.

The same number applies for your starting household on the male block. However, with your male blocks you start your count on the first corner facing your female block, proceeding counter-clockwise. As described in the Case I diagram (where A is your male block), this would be the NORTHWEST corner. It would be the NORTHEAST corner for Block B on the Case II diagram, etc.

Once you have reached your starting household, you proceed clockwise around the female block, counter-clockwise around the male block, trying to get an interview at every consecutive household until your assignment for that block is completed. To repeat: "every consecutive household" includes all dwelling units in a multiple family dwelling (2-3 family houses, apartments, boarding houses, rooming houses and college dormitories). If your starting household is an apartment, or a boarding house, you might complete your assignment for the block within a single structure. (You won't with a college dormitory because of your age restrictions.)

Theoretically, all of your female interviews should be obtained on your female block, and all of your male interviews on your male block. There are, however, two exceptions to this ruling:

1) If you are unable to fill your assignment of employed women on your female block you may finish them on your male block during the evening.

2) On some surveys we will permit interviewing of a certain number of employed men during the day on weekdays, and when we do permit this you may interview them if you encounter them on your female blocks. (When we say "employed men" we mean just that. Students, unemployed and retired men always have to be interviewed during the regular male hours, and on the male blocks.) When this is permissible on a study you will always receive an instruction telling you that you may interview a certain number of employed men during the day on weekdays. If you receive no such instruction, the rule is: women on their own blocks (except for employed women); and men on their own blocks, after 5:00 p.m. on weekdays or at any time of day on Saturdays and holidays.

#### If You Can't Complete Your Assignments on the Selected Blocks

As you can see, with all this careful determination of the blocks, it is important that the interviews be made on these specific blocks to the fullest extent possible.

At the same time, it is sometimes impossible to do this--either because you get an unusual number of refusals, or because there are not as many dwelling units as there are supposed to be, or because you are at the tag end of your assignment and looking for people falling into certain age groups.

Therefore, these are the rules:

1. First you should retrace your steps back around the designated block, calling on homes where nobody answered the doorbell on the first go-around.

2. If you still can't complete your female assignment on your female block on the second go-around, then proceed to the block to the North of your designated female block and try to complete your assignment there. Failing to complete your assignment on the block to the North (or the D block on the diagram on page 23), proceed to the C block, etc. By thus working from D to C, etc., you should avoid getting mixed up with your male territory.

3. In the same way, but in opposite fashion, you use your B block to complete your male assignments if you cannot get your interviews on the A block; and you finish your male interviews on the C block if you can't get them on the B block, etc.

In other words, as you can see, the idea is to stick to the exact blocks that have been assigned except when it is impossible to complete your assignments on them.

HANDLING ASSIGNMENTS IN PLACES UNDER 2,500 POPULATION

(Small Towns and Open Country)

Your assignment or "quota" sheets for both towns under 2,500 population and for Open Country (rural) are always pink.

On each pink assignment sheet you will find this information:

The county name.

Where the interviews are to be made in the county. This will be either "open country" or the names of the towns under 2,500 population in which to interview.

The information as to whether this county is or is not part of a metropolitan area (which has to be handled somewhat differently).

The total number of interviews to be made.

The distribution of the total number of interviews as between men and women.

The distribution of your interviews (male and female) among the different age groups (unless we are giving you "combined" age quotas, which is explained on Page 37).

The method of selecting locations for interviewing in open country and small towns under 2,500 population is the same as that for selecting interviewing locations in larger towns and cities insofar as the locations are selected at random proportionate to population and specific starting locations are determined on a random basis. However, for a number of reasons (the populations are thinly spread over larger territories, people live differently in small towns and open country, there isn't the same kind of data available as for larger towns and cities) we use some quite different interviewing procedures in implementing the sampling.

One main difference is that we prescribe routes for you to follow in obtaining your interviews--as opposed to using blocks.

A second main difference is that we require no specific hours for interviewing men in places of under 2,500 population. You may interview them during the daytime on weekdays, as well as during the evening, and on Saturdays and holidays.

Since we do not reserve special hours for interviewing men in small towns and open country, we make no attempt to separate male and female locations for interviewing in them (as we do with blocks in the cities). Men and women are both interviewed as they are encountered while following the prescribed routes.

#### Standard Metropolitan Areas

There is just one exception to the ruling that men may be interviewed at any hour in rural areas and very small towns, and this is: places of under 2,500 population that are part of a "standard metropolitan area." These standard metropolitan areas (so defined by the Census) are made up of a central city of 50,000 or more population and a (certain) area surrounding the city. The city and the surrounding territory "belong together" even though town lines separate them; the surrounding territory being the "suburbs." Because these metropolitan areas are an integrated unit, we apply the same rules for hours of interviewing men throughout them. In other words, men must be interviewed after 5:00 p.m. on weekdays or all day on Saturday and holidays in small-sized places within metropolitan areas, just as in the cities. However, on those jobs where the instructions tell you that some interviewing of employed men before 5:00 p.m. in cities is permitted, the same rules apply for these small places within the metropolitan areas as in the cities proper.

But even though we apply the same rules for the hours in which men can be interviewed as we do in the larger sized places, we still don't separate the interviewing locations for men and women as we do in the larger sized places. In other words, you follow routes in the small towns and open country

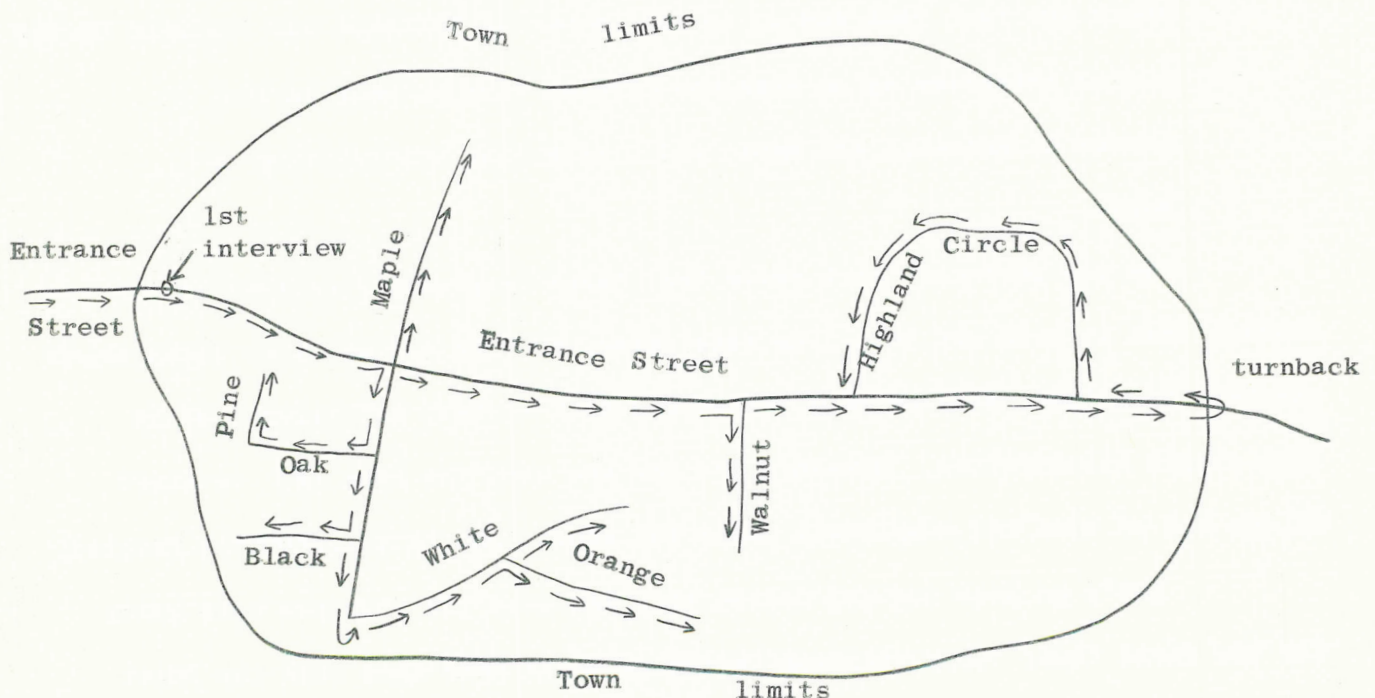
within metropolitan areas just as you do for places not in metropolitan areas as described in the following section. The only difference is that you skip men when you encounter them at the wrong hours when working within metropolitan areas.

Small Towns of Under 2,500 Population

There is no data for towns under 2,500 population comparable to what is available for more heavily populated places not even maps. These small towns are usually just a dot or a small square on a county map. Hence we can't describe specific routes for you to follow inside of them, let alone blocks on which to interview, short of an elaborate undertaking involving making our own maps and taking a full census ourselves. At the same time, it is important to follow the general principle of random selection of starting points and the routes along which interviews are made.

Therefore, what we have done is to evolve a practical procedure which can apply to any town, regardless of how the streets within the town may lay out, twist and turn. This is simply to pursue a course that will, as you progress from survey to survey, end up by having covered every street in the town.

Again, we can better illustrate this with a diagram than with written directions:





With a town laid out this way, this would be your progression:

1. Interview along both sides of Entrance Street to Maple, then turn right.
2. Interview on both sides of Maple to Oak; then turn right.
3. Interview on Oak to Pine; then turn right.
4. Interview on Pine, then come back to the corner of Oak and Maple.
5. Interview along Maple to Black.
6. Interview along Black to the end, then come back to the corner of Black and Maple.
7. Interview to the end of Maple, then come back to the corner of Maple and White.
8. Interview along White to Orange; then turn right.
9. Interview along Orange; come back to the corner of White and Orange.
10. Continue interviewing along White; then come back to the corner of Maple and Entrance Streets.
11. Interview along Entrance St. to Walnut; then turn right and interview along Walnut. Then back to the corner of Entrance and Walnut Streets and interview along Entrance until you get clear to the end of Entrance Street where you turn back and go to the corner of Entrance and Highland Circle.
12. Finish interviewing on Highland Circle, then go back to the corner of Entrance and Maple and finish your interviewing on Maple.

We are perfectly well aware that there is probably no town in the country that is laid out just like this; also, that in the specific towns where you interview there will be many variations that we have not thought of in this simple illustration. However, you can see what the idea is: to start at one end of town and completely cover the whole town in a systematic fashion.

Let's go back now and assume this had been the town you were using for the first time. Your starting interview would have been with the first house on Entrance Street after crossing the town line. Obviously, you would

probably have finished your assignment on the first survey long before you had covered the town. Since this same town will be assigned to you again, you keep track of where you left off. On your next survey, when you are assigned to that town, you start at the next house to the one where you left off before and continue your progression through the town. This is your "starting household." While not selected by means of random numbers, its selection has the virtue that it depends on chance.

Most of you who have small town assignments will have a number of different small towns in which you will work as time goes along. In fact, in many instances when your small towns are very small ones, we will give you a choice of several towns on a given survey. It doesn't make any difference which of these towns you use on a given survey, but you should constantly treat your small towns in the manner described above and keep records so that you will know where you should start on your second, third, etc., visits to them.

As soon as you have completely covered a small town, you should let us know.

### Open Country

All of you who have open country assignments are equipped with a state highway map of the county. On this map we have outlined in red the section in which you are to interview. Within the section outlined in red, several "loops" are outlined in purple and yellow. These "loops" always follow road boundaries or some other boundary that is locatable, such as the county line. In addition, each loop is marked with an "X" somewhere on the loop. This "X" is your starting point for interviewing on that loop.

The idea is to progress through the loops in systematic fashion for one survey after another until all loops within the section outlined in red are exhausted. At that point, you return the map to us and we will select new areas.

This is the procedure. When you are starting on a new section outlined in red, you proceed to the purple loop; and if there is more than one purple loop within the section outlined in red, you arbitrarily select one of them. You go to the starting point "X." Once there you proceed in a clockwise direction, interviewing at every household on both sides of the road you are traveling on until you reach the first road on your right (which has to turn in from the outside boundary of the loop). Take this road to the right and continue interviewing on both sides of the road. Once you have taken this road, follow it until it either ends, extends beyond the loop boundary, or branches off. If it branches, cover all the branches. If you follow this "inside road" through to the other side of the loop, or if it peters out, then go back to where you turned off at the outside boundary and continue making your interviews along the main boundary until you reach the next right-hand turning. Again, you take this road to the right and interview on it and all of its branches, etc. In this way, you systematically work your way around and through the purple loop, covering the outside boundary of the loop as well as all the roads

existing inside the loop.

After you have exhausted the purple loop, go to the starting point "X" on the closest yellow loop and follow the same procedure as you have on the purple loop--working your way around the yellow loop in a clockwise direction and covering all the roads leading inside of it. Then on to the second purple loop (if there is one) and the second yellow loop.

Obviously, you will have completed an open country assignment on the first survey long before you have covered all the loops. Mark off on the map the territory you have covered, showing exactly where you stopped. Also make a note of the last address you contacted. Then when the next survey comes along for which you are assigned an open country quota, go back to the loop you last worked on and start interviewing at the house immediately after the one you ended up with on the previous survey.

Since you will be using this same county map for your open country quotas for a number of successive surveys, be sure you keep it in a safe place.

When you have exhausted all of your purple and yellow loops within the section outlined in red, you should let us know immediately and send the map back to us.

#### Problem of small towns not listed by the Census

In every case of an open country assignment we have listed the small towns within your section that you are to skip in filling the open country assignment. However, you may very likely come upon a collection of dwellings that look very much to you like a small town or village in working along and through your loops that we have not directed you to skip. This collection of dwellings may even be called a town and be named by its inhabitants--and may even be on your map. However, these will all be places that have not been included in the Census as "small towns under 2,500 population." Therefore, we have to consider them as part of the open country population. The rule is:

cover any such collection of dwellings in the same way as described in the previous section for covering small towns, but include them as part of your open country assignment.

COMBINED QUOTAS FOR AGE

In some cases we combine the age quotas for two different towns or places where you are to make your interviews. For example, you might receive a white quota sheet for some city that is over 50,000 population, and also a pink quota sheet for towns under 2,500. On both of these sheets, you may find the word "combined" written opposite the spaces for the age quotas. Whenever this happens, you will have a third quota sheet which will be blue and labeled "Combined Age Quota Sheet." It shows how many females and how many males of various ages you are to interview in both places combined. In other words, you do not have specific age quotas for each of the two places separately.

MISCELLANEOUS PROBLEMS AND DIRECTIONS

Places Where You Can't or Should Not Get Into

These are of two different kinds.

First, there are apartments where the doormen have been instructed not to let anybody go around to the individual apartments for any reasons whatsoever. This is most likely to be a big city problem. Sometimes nothing can be done about this kind of situation, except to go on to the next apartment house. However, it is often possible to interview people living in a doorman-guarded apartment as they enter or leave. Therefore, if a doorman refuses to let you go inside of an apartment, wait outside for a reasonable amount of time and see if you can interview residents of the apartment house coming in and out before you give up on it entirely. Sometimes, when you do this, the people you interview will intercede with the doorman and get him to let you do further interviewing in the apartment. For some reason or another, doormen are sure that everybody who tries to get into their apartment house is trying to sell something. Once he knows you are not, he will sometimes change his mind about letting you in.

Second, there are some localities where it is dangerous for an interviewer to go inside the houses. This too is more likely to be a big city problem than a small town one--although small towns can have danger spots too. Almost every interviewer familiar with her own city knows about these places. We have found that the best procedure is to consult with a policeman, explaining to him what you are doing, and take his advice as to what apartments, tenements or houses are safe enough to go into. You should, however, never go inside of a structure that you have good reason to feel may be dangerous. You can interview inhabitants as they come in or out of places that look to you as though they may be dangerous. But of course when you do this you have to establish the fact that they live there and are not just visitors.

In this connection, however, we would like to say that oftentimes

poor districts have obtained the reputation for being dangerous simply because they are poor. We have found that the advice of friends on the subject isn't worth much, and if we avoided all places where our friends think there might be some danger, we would end up with a sampling of "nice" people, living in "nice" homes. This obviously is to be avoided. Therefore, you have to use your own judgment, and when in doubt ask a policeman. Actually, after interviewing on a few jobs, an interviewer gets a sixth sense as to when to go in and when to stay out.

#### Obtaining Respondents of the Right Sex, Age, Etc.

When we direct you to go to "every consecutive household" from your designated starting household, we mean just this. The only time you should make any departure from the process of ringing the doorbell of every consecutive household is when you get to the point of looking for people of certain characteristics to meet your age and employed women quotas. For example, suppose you are looking for a young man under 35. If you ring a doorbell and the person who comes to the door tells you she knows that no young man under 35 lives next door, but one does live in the third house down the street, there is no sense in wasting time ringing doorbells of the intervening houses. However, you should never settle for someone's saying there are no people on a given block of a given age, or some other characteristic. You could skip a house or two figuring a person will know his neighbors, but then start ringing doorbells again.

#### The Question of Representativeness of Locations Selected

From time to time, interviewers have expressed concern because they felt the locations assigned are not representative of the communities as a whole in which they are working. In a nationwide sample, we can't expect to get a representative sample of any one city or community, simply because a single city is not assigned enough interviews to permit this. But the representation we get



from a given city or community, when combined with what we get from other communities, produces a representative sampling of the national population as a whole. Therefore, don't worry about it when your assigned locations on a given survey don't produce what you think is a representative sampling. If your locations seem to concentrate among one type of person (for example, all high income ones, or all low income ones), the assignments of other interviewers will offset this.

CONDUCTING THE INTERVIEW

Conducting a good interview means two things: First, that you have to abide by certain basic rules; second, that you have to conduct the interview in such a way that--when you are good at it--it almost becomes an art. While these two "ingredients" are closely interrelated, we will try to discuss them separately.

1. Rules of Interviewing

In one way or another, we touch on or discuss many of the rules of interviewing in other sections of this Handbook. But so as to have them all in one place, we will list them again here.

1. The Sampling Specifications must be followed explicitly.

Unless they are, the wrong people will be interviewed and the whole theory of sampling on which the study is based will be lost.

2. Every interview has to be personally conducted by the interviewer.

You should never let a respondent fill out the questionnaire himself. If someone insists on this, you just have to count him as a refusal. And you should never let one person answer for another. Sometimes when you are looking for a man, his wife will offer to answer for him or vice versa. This is "verboden."

3. Interview only one person per household on any one job, unless it is a special job requiring more than one person--in which case the specifications will so instruct you.

4. Interview only a resident of a household--a person who lives there. Never interview people who are just visiting or working there temporarily. If you find you have unwittingly interviewed a non-resident, you cannot count him toward your quota. College students living away from home are considered residents of their dormitories, or boarding houses etc., and are eligible for being interviewed.

5. Unless it is a special job with instructions to the contrary, you can only interview people in their homes, on the doorstep or in their yards. Our sample is geared to "blocks" or "routes" and the households on them. It would throw the sample completely out of kilter to interview people at their places of employment, in public places or as they come along the street. Besides sampling considerations, homes usually provide the best environment for an interview, and are the best indicators of economic level.

6. Never record answers from another person who breaks into an interview and answers for the respondent. In fact, you should try to avoid making an interview when other people are around whenever possible. Since we do interviewing in homes, the problem of other family members often requires judgment and handling on your part. If you get into a situation where someone other than the person you are interviewing breaks in and tries to take over, you can do one of two things. You can explain that you are allowed to interview only one person at a time. If that works, fine. If it doesn't, all you can do is terminate the interview and not count it.

7. Never reveal the client or sponsor of a survey, unless it is a special situation for which you will have special instructions. While you may sometimes guess who the sponsor may be, we purposely don't tell you so that you can honestly say you were not told. Our standard reply to questions concerning sponsorship is, "Elmo Roper and Associates--a marketing and public opinion research firm of New York." It usually helps to go on and explain that the reason we don't reveal the sponsor's identity to you is to ensure complete impartiality on your part in conducting the survey. Also it helps to hand your "Thank you" card to people who are insistent about knowing the sponsorship.

8. Each interview should be kept in strict confidence. It is imperative that you never read, show or mention the answers of one respondent to any other person. You may also find it useful to inform respondents who may be hesitant to answer that this is one of our rules.

9. Always hold the questionnaire so that the respondent cannot read it during the interview. There are almost always pre-recorded answers on the questionnaire which might influence or deflect a respondent's answers. If someone starts peeking over your shoulder, you should edge away as soon as gracefully possible.

10. Ask each question in the order in which it appears on the questionnaire and ask each question exactly as it is worded (except in those few instances when we direct you to depart some from the exact wording under certain circumstances). This assures us that standard, uniform questioning has been used with all respondents. Do not explain questions to the respondent. If a respondent does not understand the question, read it once more--slowly and clearly--and if he still does not understand, record the answer as "don't know."

11. Don't ever express your opinion about a survey subject, and try your best not to indicate it by your inflections, your facial expressions or especially by comments. Be impartial before, during and after the interview. You may wonder why we say after the interview. This is because of the "grapevine." Respondents you interview later may be friends of former respondents, and your opinions may well "get around town." There are a number of ways that you can avoid expressing your opinion when respondents ask for it. We think the most successful way is to tell the respondent that you haven't completely made up your mind as yet. With people who are intelligent

and understand surveys, you can admit right out that interviewers are not allowed to express their opinions in the interests of impartiality.

12. Don't go back to a question you've already recorded and change the recording if a respondent later on in the interview wants to change a previous answer. Naturally if a person changes his mind in the midst of answering the question, you can change the recording.

13. Check over each interview immediately upon leaving a respondent. If you have made an omission in the Factual section, you can check back with the respondent if necessary. If you have omitted one of the questions proper, however, you can't go back to the respondent because it would then be asked out of sequence, and you have to leave it as an omission.

14. Never leave a questionnaire form or any other interviewing material (except for thank-you and Better Business cards) anywhere. This is again a matter of the confidential nature of our work.

## II. The Art of Interviewing

The objective of all surveys is to elicit accurate answers and truly held opinions from all eligible respondents, and sometimes this is not easy. There are various reasons why people may be hesitant about answering some questions and sometimes even be unable to give their opinions, but we have found that there is one underlying principle of interviewing which helps to overcome the reluctance and/or inability to articulate opinions. This is to create a friendly atmosphere and to put the respondent at ease. If the interviewer is pleasant, conveys the feeling that the respondent's opinions and answers are important, and handles the questionnaire efficiently, then the major barriers are conquered and a good interview is usually the result. The ability to do this is something that develops with practice. There are no specific directions we can detail that accomplish this. There are, however,

certain things that help create the right atmosphere, and they are these:

1. Have your materials ready to start the interview as soon as you have made your introduction. Being prepared and ready to go helps greatly in establishing your competence and efficiency in a respondent's eyes.

2. Make a good introduction. Above all, be positive--don't be hesitant or timid. If you are relaxed and feel at ease, your attitude will react immediately on the respondent and put him at ease. The simplest and most direct approach is the best. We have found that an introduction similar to the following is effective: "How do you do! I'm (your name) of Elmo Roper and Associates--and we are making a survey and I would very much like to get your opinion on a few questions"--and then read the first question immediately. Then, if the respondent wants to know "What is it about," tell them as per the instructions. It is always better to let the respondent ask about the purpose or sponsor than to volunteer it yourself. A long and unsolicited introductory speech usually sounds defensive and makes the respondent pull back.

3. Be prepared to handle the question "How long will it take?" More and more people are asking this--because news of the "long interview" practiced by some researchers has gotten around. A positive approach to this problem is best, and what you do depends on the survey. If it is a short one, the easiest answer is "just about X minutes." If it medium to long, you have to sell a bit. Your answer should run something like this: "I find this survey is averaging about X minutes--but I think you will find it interesting and I will go as fast as I can." On the few occasions when we have to have a very long questionnaire, we will give you special directions for handling it. Anyway, we believe that it doesn't pay in the long run to "trap" people who are concerned about the length into thinking a

long interview will only take a few minutes. Even if they don't stop in the middle, they will be left feeling unhappy.

4. Have credentials and Better Business Bureau cards with you. If the respondent isn't satisfied with your verbal explanation of the purpose or sponsor of the survey, it helps to show these.

5. Know your questionnaire thoroughly. This lets you maintain an informal, interesting, conversational manner. If you feel confident and at ease in asking the questions, this will transfer to the respondent.

6. Don't let the respondent waste his time or yours. At times you will find very talkative people and it will be quite a task to hold such people to the subject. One good technique to bring them back to the subject is to say "I want to ask you about that in a minute-- but the next question is...." There are, however, compulsive talkers who will consume your whole day--if you let them. If in these rare cases, you find it impossible to keep them to the questions, then just pretend the interview is finished and politely take your leave. In such cases, don't count the interview in your quota.

7. On the other hand, there is such a thing as being too businesslike. You have to remember that often the subject of a survey is not of uniform interest to all kinds of people--and yet we want them represented in the sample. It often helps to invest a minute or two in making a few pleasant observations about something you think will be of interest to the respondent--and make him or her feel more friendly to you.

8. Handle "folds" graciously. If a respondent, due to non-interest in a questionnaire refuses to continue the interview, and you have tried in a friendly way to encourage him to continue--then there is nothing to do but thank him and leave. "Folds" count towards your quota.

9. Handle "don't know" graciously. You may find some respondents who are completely disinterested in and uninformed about the subject of the whole questionnaire and who may therefore give "don't know" answers to a great many of the questions. After saying "don't know" to three or four questions in a row, such respondents often begin to feel embarrassed about their lack of information. You should do everything you possibly can to offset any feeling of embarrassment a respondent might have as a consequence of not knowing about a subject or not having an opinion about it. We want the respondent to feel at ease throughout the questionnaire and, of even greater importance, we want to be sure that we have genuine opinions and not opinions that are inspired only by a feeling of embarrassment or a fear of creating an impression of stupidity. Using a few well placed remarks, similar in nature to the following examples, will do much to create a feeling of ease on the part of the respondent about giving "don't know" answers: "I'll put down that you haven't formed an opinion on this yet," or "We are finding quite a lot of people haven't had a chance to make up their minds on this yet, so don't feel that you are the only one," etc., etc.

Do all you can to complete interviews with people who do not seem to have opinions on a given subject. It is just as important for us to know how many people lack interest or information as it is to know how many people have which positive opinions. Above all, never give a respondent the impression by anything you say or do that you do not consider him quite bright.

10. Accept refusals graciously. Considerable tact is required of you at times particularly when people refuse (sometimes impolitely) to be interviewed. After all, no one is under obligation to answer, and it is much better from a public relations standpoint to say, "Thank you



just the same," than to act mad or unhappy. If you leave the respondent thinking graciously of you, you put him on the defensive and the chances are he will be more friendly the next time he is approached.

11. Terminate the interview graciously. Leaving the respondent in a friendly frame of mind at the end of an interview is no less important than engendering a feeling of friendliness at the outset. Remember that this person's whole outlook on opinion surveys and their usefulness, and his willingness to cooperate in the future, may depend entirely on how well you have handled the interview, and particularly on his last impression of you. We supply you with "Thank You" cards that we want you to leave with each respondent.