

Scottish Crime and Justice Survey:

**Analysing the impact of using a mixed-
mode approach during the COVID-19
pandemic**

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1. Introduction

The Scottish Crime and Justice Survey (SCJS) is one of the largest and most important surveys in Scotland. It asks people about their experiences and perceptions of crime in Scotland. Findings are used by policy makers to evaluate measures in place to reduce crime, assess the performance of policing and criminal justice organisations, and to provide evidence for use in targeting resources.

The first Scottish Crime Survey was undertaken in 1994. Since then, although the survey has undergone a number of design and name changes, the core methodology of a face-to-face in-home survey has been consistent. The re-designed SCJS survey launched in 2008 with the 2008/09 survey. However, in March 2020, towards the end of the 2019/20 survey, all face-to-face fieldwork was suspended due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

A revised approach was developed, the Scottish Victimisation Telephone Survey (SVTS)¹. The SVTS results are based on a follow-up sample of around 2,700 telephone interviews conducted in September and October 2020.

The SCJS series resumed with the 2021/22 survey, with fieldwork starting in November 2021. Fieldwork used a knock-to-nudge approach with a telephone or video interview until April 2022, with the remainder of the fieldwork undertaken using a combination of face-to-face in-home interviewing and by telephone or video.

This study explores the impact of the change in approach on the survey results and compares the three different approaches, attempting to separate out the impact of the change of approach on the survey estimates. In particular, it compares the results of the pre- and post-pandemic SCJS waves and whether we can be confident that changes in estimates over time reflect genuine changes in people's views and experiences and opposed to being due to changes in how the survey was carried out. The findings should help inform both the future design of the SCJS survey and in evidencing decisions made on the survey data waves already collected.

The report is structured as follows:

- Chapter 2 gives an overview of the change in approach.
- Chapter 3 provides a summary of previous literature on mode effects in relevant surveys.

¹ <https://www.gov.scot/collections/Covid-19-crime-survey/>

- Chapter 4 provides an analysis of the sample coverage of the different approaches and in response rate patterns.
- Chapter 5 provides the profile of the achieved samples and examines the size of differences between estimates from the pre- and post-pandemic. This covers a range of key survey measures.
- Chapter 6 explores whether the mode of interview has had an impact on how people respond to the survey.

2. Overview of the changes in approach

This chapter provides a brief overview of the changes in approach to the design and execution of the survey since the 2019/20 survey.

Summary of change in survey approach

The design of the SCJS remained broadly consistent since its inception with the 2008/09 survey until the 2019/20 survey– its core approach was a face-to-face, interviewer administered, in-home survey.

In March 2020, SCJS fieldwork was suspended in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. Due to the suspension of the SCJS, an evidence gap on the extent and prevalence of crime in Scotland during the pandemic emerged with particular challenges for assessing crime not reported to the police. The Scottish Victimization Telephone Survey (SVTS) was introduced to complement evidence from police recorded crime statistics, using a Computer Assisted Telephone Interviewing (CATI) survey mode with interviews with a follow-up sample from the 2018/19 and 2019/20 SCJS surveys.

The relaxation of COVID-19 restrictions meant that SCJS fieldwork was able to resume in late 2021. The 2021/22 fieldwork took place between November 2021 and December 2022. During the period November 2021 to April 2022, interviews were conducted using a knock to nudge approach, where interviewers would undertake the actual interviews remotely (by phone or video chat) but would still call in-person at sampled addresses to make a random selection of who to interview and encourage people to take part.

In-home, face-to-face fieldwork resumed in April 2022, when COVID-19 restrictions allowed, with telephone and video interviewing still an option for respondents unwilling to let an interviewer into their home due to concerns about COVID-19 infection.

Table 2.1 summarises the key elements of the changes in approach since the 2019/20 survey.

Table 2.1: Summary of approaches used in recent surveys and adaptations made due to COVID-19 restrictions.

	Pre-lockdown SCJS (2019/2020)	Scottish Victimisation Telephone Survey (SVTS) 2020	Post-lockdown SCJS (2021/22)
Survey overview	<p>Target of around 6,000 surveys a year². The target population was the Scottish population living in private households. All parts of Scotland were included including the small islands. A 40-minute face-to-face interview, with a random adult in the household.</p>	<p>The 2020 SVTS was a survey of public experiences and perceptions of crime in Scotland during the COVID-19 pandemic. No specific target was set for the SVTS. The goal was to achieve as many interviews as possible from the available SCJS 2018/19 and 2019/20 re-contact sample.</p> <p>Due to the pandemic, interviews were conducted by telephone. The average interview length was 17 minutes.</p>	<p>The SCJS 2021/22 retained the same basic design and targets as the 2019/20 approach. However, due to COVID-19 restrictions, the first five months of fieldwork was conducted using a knock to nudge approach. Therefore, in 2021/22 a mixed mode methodology was adopted, with interviews conducted either face-to-face, by telephone or MS Teams video chat. Interviews took on average 40-minutes, with a random adult in the household.</p>
Sample design	<p>The small user Postcode Address File (PAF) was used as the sample frame for the address selection³. The sample was drawn as a single stage un-clustered sample since 2012. It is stratified by Police Division with disproportionate sampling to meet minimum target numbers in each area. 9,650 addresses were drawn for the 2019/20 wave of the SCJS.</p>	<p>The sample for the SVTS comes from those adults who agreed to be re-contacted for further research after having taken part in a face-to-face SCJS interview conducted in 2018/19 or 2019/20. In total the final issued SVTS sample included 6,777 respondents. All available sample was issued to maximise the achieved sample size. No selection was made</p>	<p>The sample design was the same as 2019/20. However, to account for lower survey response rates experienced post-pandemic, a larger sample of 10,408 addresses was drawn for the 2021/22 wave of the SCJS.</p> <p>The response rate assumptions were amended from a 65% response rate to a 48% response rate.</p>

² From 2008-2010, the target was around 16,000. Between 2010 and 2015, the target was around 12,000 interviews.

³ This excludes institutional locations such as prisons, hospitals, military bases, and student halls of residence.

	Pre-lockdown SCJS (2019/2020)	Scottish Victimisation Telephone Survey (SVTS) 2020	Post-lockdown SCJS (2021/22)
	Prior to the break in fieldwork necessitated by the pandemic, interviewing had been continuous, with fieldwork organised into annual waves.	based on, for example, area or any demographic characteristics.	
Questionnaire	The SCJS questionnaire comprises three elements: 1. the main questionnaire which consists of a set of core modules asked of the whole sample, containing questions on a variety of topics 2. a victim form which collects details about the incidents a respondent may have experienced during the reference period (the 12 months prior to the month of interview). 3. a self-completion questionnaire covering more sensitive issues in detail (such as sexual victimization and partner abuse).	Due to the interview mode, the questionnaire for the SVTS was shorter than the SCJS. Whilst many victim form questions, which collect information on respondents' experience of crime were retained, the other sections of the questionnaire differed. The SVTS did not have a self-completion element.	The 2021/22 SCJS questionnaire was almost the same as the 2019/20 survey, except for the following amendments: 1. A reduced self-completion section, covering the same issues as SCJS, but in less detail. 2. The amendment of the format of some questions for telephone interviewing. 3. The introduction and removal of a small number of questions.
Mode of approach	Householders were sent an advance letter and leaflet in advance of interviewers calling. Interviewers were required to make at least six attempts to each sampled addresses to try to secure an interview with a randomly selected member of the household.	All cases (named individuals who had taken part in previous SCJS waves) were sent a letter from the Scottish Government in advance of the start of fieldwork. During the following weeks, each person on the sample was called by a telephone interviewer from Ipsos. Where contact had not been made by telephone an email copy of the letter from	From Nov 2021 until April 2022, interviewers were not allowed into respondents' homes due to COVID-19 restrictions. During this period, a 'knock to nudge' approach was taken. Householders were sent an advance letter and leaflet. Interviews would then call at the sample addresses, make a random selection of who to interview and then

	Pre-lockdown SCJS (2019/2020)	Scottish Victimization Telephone Survey (SVTS) 2020	Post-lockdown SCJS (2021/22)
		<p>Scottish Government was also sent. Each number was called a minimum of eight times before an outcome was recorded.</p>	<p>make an appointment (on the doorstep) for a phone or video interview at a later date. In-home, face-to-face fieldwork resumed in April 2022, with telephone and video interviewing still an option. Respondents were given a conditional incentive of £10 for completion, to encourage participation.</p>
Fieldwork and mode of interview	<p>Interviews were conducted in-home, face-to-face using Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI). Pre-pandemic, interviewing would normally take around thirteen months per wave, starting in April and finishing in the April of the following year. Interviewing on the 2019/20 wave was suspended on 17 March 2020 with 93% of the target number of interviews completed.</p>	<p>All SVTS interviews were conducted by telephone and were administered by Ipsos' telephone interviewers using Computer Assisted Telephone Interviewing (CATI). Fieldwork took place between 12th September and 26th October 2020. All interviewers working on the survey attended an online briefing before the start of fieldwork.</p>	<p>During the knock-to-nudge stage, all interviews were undertaken remotely by telephone or video link. Video link interviews used one-way Microsoft Teams, where the respondent could see the interviewer. After the resumption of in-home interviewing, these options were retained. Fieldwork took place between Nov 2021 and Dec 2022. All fieldwork, including door-step contact and telephone and video interviews, was undertaken by interviewers from the SCJS face-to-face interviewer panel. All interviewers were briefed via video call on the revised approach, prior to the start of fieldwork. The self-completion element of the survey for telephone/video interviews moved to a</p>

	Pre-lockdown SCJS (2019/2020)	Scottish Victimization Telephone Survey (SVTS) 2020	Post-lockdown SCJS (2021/22)
			Computer Assisted Web Interview (CAWI) mode or Pen-and-Paper Personal Interview (PAPI) mode.
Survey crime statistics	The data from the victim form section of the survey undergoes an offence coding process. The SCJS offence coding system is designed to match as closely as possible the way incidents would be classified by the police in Scotland, to aid comparison between statistics from the SCJS and police recorded crime statistics.	The production of the survey statistics was consistent with the SCJS approach, specifically with the victim form questions used for offence coding retained and the offence coding process unchanged. (See below for changes to weighting approach due to the use of re-contact sample)	The approach was the same as SCJS series.
Survey response	The SCJS surveys between 2008/09 and 2019/20 had overall response rates of between 63% - 71%.	The overall response rate for the 2020 SVTS was 39.2%. (The response rate was calculated as the number of interviews completed (2,654) divided by the number of issued telephone numbers (6,777).	An overall response rate of 48% was achieved in 2021/22.
Survey weighting	The SCJS incorporates selection weighting to address the unequal selection probabilities and calibration weighting to correct for non-response bias. Calibration weighting derives weights such that the weighted survey totals match known population totals. Separate weights are required for the self-completion section	The SVTS used similar weighting the SCJS – a combination of non-response modelling and calibration weighting to correct for non-response bias. Logistic regression models were used to model non-response behaviour to different stages of the SVTS. Two models were run; the first to model the likelihood that an individual who	The 2021/22 survey used the same weighting approach as the 2019/20 survey.

	Pre-lockdown SCJS (2019/2020)	Scottish Victimisation Telephone Survey (SVTS) 2020	Post-lockdown SCJS (2021/22)
	since not all respondents to the main section completed the self-completion section.	completed the original SCJS interview (in 2018/19 or 2019/20) gave permission to be re-contacted for further research and was issued for SVTS, the second was to model the likelihood that an issued individual completed the SVTS interview.	
Limitations of the data	Like all sample surveys, the SCJS can only produce estimates and these estimates are limited by factors such as sample coverage, sampling variability, the number of cases that analysis is based on, and the bias in the achieved sample.	Due to the change in the sampling frame (recontact rather than fresh sample) and the change in approach (specifically the fieldwork period), the SVTS data cannot be compared with the SCJS time-series.	Similar to the pre-COVID-19 SCJS surveys. However, the change in approach and in the response rate achieved means that the estimates from the survey have the potential to be impacted differently by mode effects and non-response bias than previous waves. This might have some impact on comparability, and further detail is provided in the following report).

Amending the questionnaire

Scottish Victimisation Telephone Survey – victim form

The SVTS used the same victim form module as the SCJS, with some modifications made in response to the change in mode from CAPI to CATI. For example, for questions that used showcards, the answer categories were read out to the respondent. Two new questions were also introduced to establish, for incidents of crime occurring in March 2020, whether this was before or after COVID-19 lockdown restrictions.

SCJS 2021/22

The 2021/22 SCJS questionnaire was largely the same as the 2019/20 survey, with the exception of the following amendments to account for telephone or video interviewing:

- online and paper showcards developed for those taking part in a phone interview.
- the amendment of the format of some of the questions for telephone interviewing
- a reduced self-completion section – due to the sensitive nature of the questions asked in the self-completion section and ethical concerns around safeguarding, these questions were not administered by interviewers during phone or video interviews and respondents were instead asked to complete this section by Computer Assisted Web Interview (CAWI) or Pen-and-Paper Personal Interview (PAPI). A requirement to have the same questions asked in each of the modes of the self-completion questionnaire (Computer Assisted Self Interview (CASI) using the interviewer’s laptop, online and paper), meant that the self-completion section was shortened compared to previous surveys, with many of the detailed follow-up questions with complex routing removed, since it was not practical to ask these on the paper format.

3. Summary of literature on mode effects and previous work on Scottish Government population surveys

Mode effects tend to impact survey estimates because of the difference they make to **who responds** and on **what they report**. When we refer to mode it is important to note that there is a distinction between the **mode that people are approached** to take part in a survey and the **mode of interview**. The mode of approach tends to impact who responds while the mode of interview tends to influence what they report.

The post-pandemic wave of the SCJS in 2021/22 initially adopted a knock-to-nudge approach. Interviewers still visited addresses, made a random selection of who in the household should be interviewed and tried to persuade people to take part. Therefore, the mode of approach was unchanged from the pre-pandemic approach. However, all interviews in this initial phase were undertaken remotely, either by telephone or by video (one-way Microsoft Teams – so that the respondent could see the interviewer, but the interviewer could not see the respondent). Prior to the 2021/22 SCJS survey, all SCJS interviews were conducted face-to-face in-home (no option for a telephone or video interview was provided). When the return to face-to-face in-home interviewing was allowed in April 2022, respondents were still given the option to undertake the interview remotely (where they had concerns about allowing an interviewer into their home). This means that while the mode of approach was unchanged, there was a change to the mode of interview where telephone or video interviews were conducted. This may have shaped how people responded to questions and may have had a larger impact on questions that rely on showcards (where the respondent is asked to read through a list of responses and select their responses, as opposed to providing them unprompted).

Response rates, mode of approach and non-response error

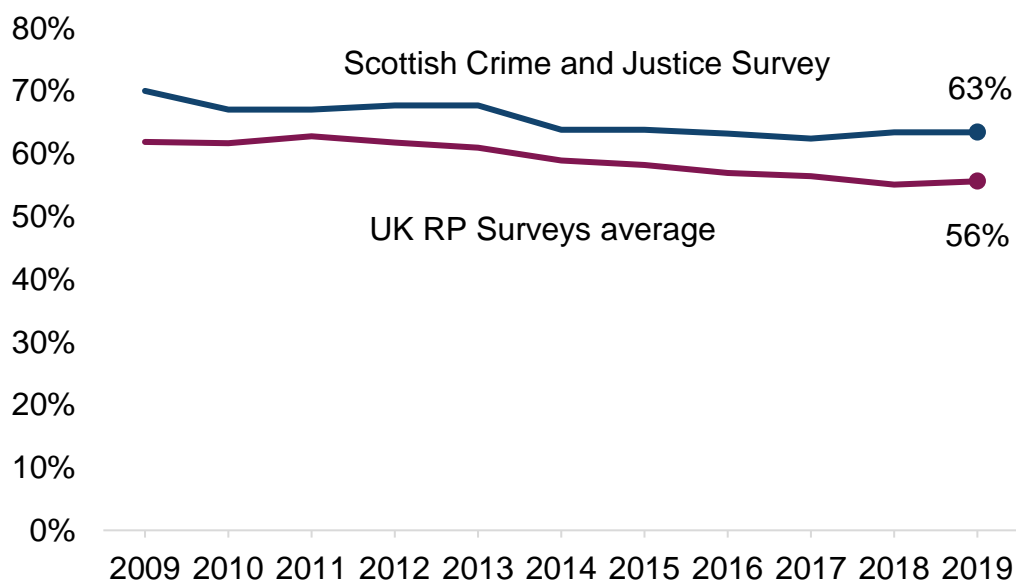
Social survey samples are normally designed so that if everyone responded, the sample would be an accurate representation of the whole population of interest (in the case of SCJS, the population of Scotland aged 16 or over living in private residential addresses). Non-response bias is where those who take part in a survey are different from those who do not. This can mean that the survey participants are not representative of the whole population of interest. An example of this would be if interviewers only approached households during working hours. In this case, the likelihood of obtaining interviews with retired people would be considerably higher than the likelihood of interviewing the employed population, leading to skewed data.

Research that is dependent upon voluntary participation is always vulnerable to this type of bias and surveys such as the SCJS are designed to reduce the potential for non-response bias. This is done by maximizing the response rate and trying to ensure that it is not more difficult for some groups than others to take part. The traditional face-to-face methodology required interviewers to make at least six visits to each address to establish contact, on different days and at different times. Moreover, most cases that were unproductive at first issue were then reissued to a second and potentially a third interviewer to try to convert to a successful interview.

The literature on non-response bias and mode effects suggests that the relationship between response rates and bias is complex and that high response rates do not necessarily lead to unbiased survey samples. Instead, it depends on the pattern of who participates. Generally, if those who do not respond are similar to those who do, the data is likely to be less biased. However, if those who do not respond also tend to be different in relation to key measures from the survey (for example, are more likely to be victim of certain types of crimes), there is a danger of non-response bias.

Sometimes this can be corrected by weighting but often it cannot. For example, being young is associated with nonresponse and victimisation rates are higher among younger people. However, weighting by age should correct for any difference in response probabilities and this is unlikely to lead to non-response bias. However, if victims of crime generally are more likely to take part in the SCJS than non-victims, perhaps because they better appreciate the utility of the survey, then there is a considerable danger of non-response bias.

Figure 3.1: SCJS response rate over time⁴.



⁴ Year is shown according to the start of the survey wave. For example, the 2019/2020 wave is shown under 2019.

The SCJS response rate was consistently high for face-to-face surveys prior to the pandemic (Figure 3.1), and it has been consistently higher than the average of the major random probability surveys in Scotland/UK.

Overall, research concerning non-response bias generally agrees on the demographics of those who respond less frequently to surveys. They tend to be young, single, and in employment (Luiten, 2013; Foster, 1998; Lynn and Clark, 2002; Hall et al, 2011). This is mainly because these types of people are harder to contact.

These different types of missing data exemplify why higher response rates do not necessarily mean there will be less bias. A survey can have a low response rate without impacting on the accuracy of its estimates, as long as the non-response is random or can be corrected by weighting. However, the higher the response rate, the less potential there is for non-response bias. While the traditional SCJS approach is subject to non-response bias, weighting has helped ensure the robustness of the estimates. Moreover, because of the consistency of the approach over time, and the relative consistency of the achieved response rate, the effect of non-response bias is likely to be reasonably consistent between waves. This means that any changes in estimates is unlikely to be the result of any change to non-response bias between waves.

Previous research on both the SCJS and the Scottish Household Survey (SHS) emphasises these points. Two recent methodological papers have examined the impact that lower response rates would have on SHS and SCJS estimates (Hutcheson, Martin and Millar (2020) & Martin (2020)). Both papers found that a response rate change of 5-10 percentage points would have made very little impact on the estimates themselves – both in terms of the absolute level and also as a share of normal survey error. These findings echo previous findings, such as analysis undertaken by the Office for National Statistics (ONS) in 2015 on the impact of a lower response rate on the Crime Survey of England and Wales (Williams & Holcekova, 2015) that shows that the link between response rate and non-response bias is weak.

However, these papers explored the impact of varying only the response rate by a relatively small amount and keeping all other aspects of the survey design the same⁵.

Contrasting findings emerged from an earlier study on the Scottish Crime Survey (SCS). In 2003, following a "Fundamental Review" of the survey, McCaig and Leven (2003) suggested "that the revised SCS should contain a significant telephone survey element if the necessary scale of survey is to be acquired in a practicable way at an acceptable cost". The survey moved from

⁵ It did this by re-weighting the results of the sample achieved at first issue and ignored data collected at reissue.

face-to-face to a Random Digit Dial (RDD) sample telephone approach, and this model was tested by running parallel face-to-face and RDD telephone fieldwork. The calibration exercise found considerable evidence of substantial differences between the approaches that could not be accounted for and concluded that "we have not found sufficient evidence to conclude that the telephone survey is likely to be accurately measuring victimisation. We have been unable to devise a weighting approach that satisfactorily corrects the many demographic biases that are observable in the data" (Hope 2005). The RDD telephone element of the Scottish Crime Survey was subsequently dropped, and it returned to a traditional face-to-face approach.

Mode of interview and measurement error.

Measurement error is the difference between a respondent's answer and a true value. In survey research, responses are shaped by a number of factors: the skills of interviewers, the profile of respondents, the wording of survey questions, and the mode of data collection (Biemer and others, 1991). In the context of the change in approach to data collection on the SCJS, the question of interest is whether the change in mode led to any changes in the way that respondents answered the interview questions.

Prior the COVID-19 pandemic, all SCJS interviews were conducted face-to-face in-home. Interviews in the revised design for the 2021/22 survey were conducted either by telephone or by video interviewing, where the respondent could see the interviewer, but the interviewer could not see the respondent.

A number of potential mode effects are detailed in the literature. First, there is a social-desirability effect, where answers are adjusted to what respondents expect the interviewer wants to hear. These are strongest in face-to-face interviews, and weakest in online interviews. They also differ by type of question and are stronger where a question covers topics perceived to be sensitive (Kreuter, Presser, & Tourangeau 2008).

Second, another difference is between interviewer-administered and self-completion surveys in relation to "don't know" and "refused" response categories. These tend not to be read out to respondents or included on showcards in face-to-face or telephone surveys but have to be either explicitly included or excluded in self-completion questionnaires (Dillman & Christian 2005). Given that both approaches were interviewer-administered this is of less relevance to the SCJS's change of approach.

Thirdly, are differences relating to whether information is transmitted visually or not. For example, interviewing by telephone makes using showcards more difficult and can involve the question and all possible answer categories being read out before respondents give their answer. This means that later answer categories are more likely to be remembered and chosen. This is known as a recency effect. In online surveys and pen and paper self-completion, the

opposite is the case, where respondents are more likely to choose the first answer category that appears on screen (Dillman & Christian 2005). This is known as a primacy effect. Questions that previously used showcards are potentially liable to be affected by the change in approach, particularly when interviews were undertaken by telephone and no visual cues were available. In relation to the post-pandemic wave of the SCJS, this might have a small impact than other surveys, partly because the SCJS has not traditionally used a sizeable number of showcards, and because a number of mitigating strategies such as use of web-based showcards and single-use showcards left by interviewers at the doorstep contact stage for use by respondents to use during the interviews.

As well as primacy and recency effects, other factors related to the interviewer-respondent interaction could shape responses. Although both the traditional SCJS approach and the revised approach were interviewer-administered, the interaction between interviewer and respondent will have been quite different – for example, in relation to: the level of trust built; how much respondents retain full attention throughout the 40 minute interview; how easy it is for interviewers to pick up visual cues that questions have been misinterpreted or have not been fully understood; and whether other people in the household are influencing what answers are given.

Separating the impact of measurement error from differences in sample composition is not straightforward. This has been done in a variety of ways in the past, all of which have advantages and disadvantages:

- Using an experimental design, where some respondents change mode during an interview (Heerwegh 2009). This approach is not suitable for studies of the general population like the SCJS.
- Comparison of estimates with external 'gold-standard' estimates (de Leeuw 2005; Kreuter, Presser & Tourangeau 2008). This approach relies on the availability of such estimates, from sources such as the census or unbiased administration records.
- Statistical modelling, with the aim of taking out any differences in sample composition and then comparing the results. This can be done by using regression modelling (Dillman et al 2009) or Propensity Score Matching (Lugtig et al, 2011).

In Chapter 6, we explore the impact of the change from face-to-face interviewing to using telephone and video on a number of different estimates in the SCJS.

4. Sample coverage and response rates

This chapter provides basic checks on the coverage of the SCJS sample and summarises the changes to the response rate overall and by the main geographical variables.

Sample coverage

The normal SCJS sample is drawn using a single-stage unclustered sample design using the small user Postcode Address File (PAF) as the sampling frame. The sample is disproportionately stratified by Police Division with smaller Police Divisions having a higher sample proportion relative to their populations than the larger one. Overall, the likelihood of any bias from the sampling is low. Within strata, addresses are ordered by Scottish Government urban-rural classification, Scottish Index of Multiple Deprivation (SIMD) rank, and postcode. The sample is then batched into workable allocations for interviewers.

The SVTS used a different sampling approach. The sample source was respondents to the 2018/2019 and 2019/2020 who had agreed to be re-contacted for further research and who had provided a usable telephone number.

The analysis below compares the sample profile of the pre- and post-pandemic waves and the SVTS. Tables 4.1 to 4.3 show the sample coverage by SIMD⁶, rurality, and Police Division.

Table 4.1: Sample coverage by SIMD quintile.

	2019/20 SCJS			SVTS	2021/2022 SCJS
	Worked	Not worked	All	All	All
Most deprived	20.4%	17.7%	20.2%	17.6%	20.4%
2nd most	19.9%	18.9%	19.8%	19.3%	19.9%
Middle quintile	21.5%	21.5%	21.5%	22.2%	20.9%
4 th	19.4%	22.0%	19.6%	20.5%	19.5%
Least deprived	18.7%	19.9%	18.8%	20.4%	19.4%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	9636	773	10,409	6,727	12,681

⁶ (Note we would not expect equal proportions from each SIMD as the sample profile will be influenced by disproportionality (the sample design means deprived areas are under-represented) and differential assumptions around response (we tend to expect lower response rates in more deprived areas). These effects work in opposite directions.

Table 4.2: Sample coverage by rurality.

	2019/20 SCJS			SVTS	2021/2022 SCJS
	Worked	Not worked	All	All	All
Large urban areas	34.6%	35.1%	34.6%	32.4%	35.0%
Other urban areas	35.8%	24.2%	35.0%	35.3%	34.5%
Accessible small towns	8.6%	12.3%	8.9%	9.7%	8.7%
Remote small towns	3.7%	4.5%	3.7%	3.6%	3.7%
Accessible Rural	11.0%	12.3%	11.1%	12.7%	11.4%
Remote rural	6.3%	11.6%	6.7%	6.2%	6.7%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table 4.3: Sample coverage by Police Division.

	2019/20 SCJS			SVTS	2021/2022 SCJS
	Worked	Not worked	All	All	All
Forth Valley	6.5%	0.0%	6.0%	6.3%	5.7%
Fife	5.4%	9.5%	5.7%	6.1%	6.3%
Greater Glasgow	14.2%	10.6%	13.9%	12.6%	14.7%
Renfrew and Inverclyde	6.6%	3.4%	6.4%	5.7%	6.4%
Argyll and West Dunbarton	5.8%	4.3%	5.7%	5.4%	5.4%
Lanarkshire	11.0%	2.1%	10.3%	11.3%	10.2%
Ayrshire	7.1%	9.6%	7.2%	7.1%	6.9%
Edinburgh City	8.1%	14.5%	8.6%	7.0%	8.5%
Lothians and Borders	7.3%	6.9%	7.3%	6.9%	6.7%

Dumfries and Galloway	5.4%	5.1%	5.4%	7.4%	5.6%
Tayside	6.4%	7.1%	6.4%	6.3%	7.2%
Highlands and Islands	5.9%	6.0%	6.0%	5.3%	6.1%
North East	10.3%	21.0%	11.0%	12.6%	10.5%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Is the profile of the addresses drawn in the post-pandemic way the same as the pre-pandemic wave?

As expected, the profile of addresses drawn in the post-pandemic wave is very similar to that of the pre-pandemic wave on SIMD, rurality and Police Division. The differences in the profile are likely to be driven by changes in the response rate assumptions that underpin the sampling.

Was the profile of addresses worked in the pre-pandemic wave representative of all addresses drawn?

The pre-pandemic 2019/20 SCJS survey was not completed when fieldwork had to be suspended because of the COVID-19 pandemic. This meant that around 7% of addresses were not worked. Generally, however, the profile of the worked addresses was similar to the overall profile of addresses by SIMD, rurality, and Police Division (Table 4.2 and 4.3). This is mainly because the proportion of addresses that were not worked was relatively small. However, it is also because fieldwork is normally organised to try to ensure a good geographic spread of addresses throughout the year, with addresses evenly spread by Police Division by month to ensure that estimates by the geographical variables are not impacted differently by any seasonal effects or change over time. There was some variation in speed of working addresses in different areas – all addresses in Forth Valley were worked prior to lock-down (Table 4.3) – but this has a limited impact on the profile of the worked sample compared to the drawn sample.

Given that SVTS is a sample of those who took part previously (and agreed to take part again) what impact did this have on the composition of the SVTS sample?

As noted previously, the SVTS employed an alternative sampling approach, using sample based on those who took part in the 2018/19 or 2019/20 SCJS previously and had given agreement to be approached to take part in further research. Overall, there was some differences in the profile of the sample in relation to the geographic variables, although the differences were relatively small given the difference in the sampling approach. Compared to the regular sampling approach, this meant that the SVTS sample had a lower proportion in the most deprived SIMD quintile, 17.6% compared to 20.2% in the pre-pandemic 2019/20 SCJS survey. Similarly, the sample contained a smaller

proportion of addresses in large urban areas compared to the previous pre-pandemic wave (32.4% compared to 34.6%). These differences are consistent with previous literature on attrition rates in longitudinal research⁷.

Response rate patterns

Table 4.4 below shows response rates of the different SCJS waves.

Table 4.4: Summary of response by wave.

	2019/20 SCJS		SVTS		2021/22 SCJS	
	% of all	% of eligible	% of all	% of eligible	% of all	% of eligible
Successful	53%	63.4%	39%	42%	43%	47.3%
Unsuccessful	30%	36.6%	55%	58%	47%	53.7%
Deadwood⁸	9%		6%		9%	
Withdrawn/ missing outcome	7%		0%		0%	
Total	100%		100%		100%	
N	10,401	8,797	6,734	6,356	12,681	11,660

As detailed in the previous chapter, the SCJS has achieved a consistently high response rate prior to the pandemic. The response rate for the 2019/20 SCJS was 63.4%, similar to previous SCJS surveys. In contrast, the response rate to the post-pandemic wave was 47.3%, a drop of 16 percentage points. This is similar to the decrease in response rate seen in comparable surveys such as the Scottish Household Survey (SHS)⁹.

The response rate to the SVTS was lower than both the pre- and post- SCJS surveys at 42%. Note, however that the adjusted response rate calculation is not directly comparable. Firstly, the SVTS attempting to recontact those who had taken part at a previous wave (and so therefore probably more pre-disposed to taking part than the overall population).

⁷ For example, Lynn (2009)

⁸ Other non-response for SVTS.

⁹ <https://www.gov.scot/publications/scottish-household-survey-2020-methodology-impact-change-mode/>

Response rate difference in 2021/22 SCJS between knock-to-nudge and return to face-to-face stage

It is not straightforward to calculate change in the response rate between the knock-to-nudge stage of the 2021/22 SCJS and the later stage when interviewers could return to face-to-face interviewing. This is partly because a sizeable proportion of addresses will have been worked across both stages. Normally a batch of addresses will be worked over 6-8 weeks to ensure enough time to visit each address the required number of times. Additionally, some batches of addresses were worked sooner or later than initially scheduled. As shown in table 4.5, around two thirds of the addresses that were initially allocated for starting in 2021 were completed by the end of March 2022. This is when the survey moved from knock-to-nudge back to in-home face-to-face. For sample allocated to start in Q1 2022, only 14.6% had been completed by the end of the quarter. Additionally, a small proportion of addresses that were due to be started from April onwards were completed in Q1 2022.

Table 4.5: Sample allocation by date of last visit¹⁰.

	Recorded Date of final visit			Total
	Pre-April 2022	April 22 onwards	Missing	
Sample allocation month				
Nov-Dec 2021	66.4%	33.0%	0.6%	100%
Jan-Mar 2022	14.6%	84.2%	1.2%	100%
Apr-June 2022	2.3%	95.9%	1.8%	100%
July 2022 onwards	1.4%	96.8%	1.8%	100%
Total	23.1%	75.6%	1.3%	100%

A further point to note is that, while the sample is allocated to months to ensure a relatively even spread each month, the sample allocated to any month is not necessarily representative of Scotland as a whole. As such, any month's sample may be more concentrated in areas with lower response rates than another month.

While we cannot estimate with precision the difference in response rate from the knock-to-nudge stage to the return to in-home interviewing stage, we can broadly estimate the difference by looking at the response by both the sample

¹⁰ Date of last visit was missing for 1.3% of addresses overall.

allocation month and the date of the last visit. Table 4.6 shows the response rate for the 2021/2022 wave by both sample allocation month and date of final visit to an address. Overall, it suggests that there was an increase in the response rate in the region of around 3-6 percentage points between the knock-to-nudge stage and the return to face-to-face stage.

Table 4.6: Response rate by sample allocation month and date of last visit.

	Response rate
Sample allocation month	
Nov-Dec	43.6%
Jan-Mar	49.6%
Apr-June	49.0%
July onwards	46.9%
Date of last visit	
Q4 2021 or Q1 2022	48.3%
Q2 2022	52.4%
Q3 2022	51.3%
Q4 2022	37.2%

Response rates by geographic variables

While a reduction in the response rate, for example between the pre-pandemic 2019/20 survey and post-pandemic 21/22 survey, does not mean that the data is less representative, it does mean that there is more potential for it to be impacted by non-response bias. Additionally, a significant change in the response rate also means that it is more likely that response patterns will also differ between waves.

Variation in response rates can be an indicator of the potential for non-response bias. Greater variation between different types of areas would suggest more potential for bias. Table 4.7 shows differences for the three waves by SIMD quintile, and Table 4.8 shows differences by rurality.

Table 4.7: Difference in response rates by SIMD quintile. (Based on eligible addresses)

	Most deprived	2nd most	Middle quintile	4th	Least deprived	Total
2019/20 SCJS						
Successful	57%	63%	66%	65%	65%	63%
Unsuccessful	43%	37%	34%	35%	35%	37%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	1,808	1,751	1,857	1,702	1,679	8,797
SVTS						
Successful	33%	36%	42%	47%	48%	42%
Unsuccessful	67%	64%	58%	53%	52%	48%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	763	850	1,045	1,005	1,013	4,676
2021/22 SCJS						
Successful	43%	45%	49%	51%	48%	47%
Unsuccessful	57%	55%	51%	49%	52%	53%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	2,377	2,295	2,398	2,277	2,313	11,660

Across all waves, the response rate is lowest in the more deprived areas. While the overall response rate is lower in the post-pandemic wave than the pre-pandemic wave, the variation in the response rate is similar: it ranges from 43% to 51% in the post-pandemic wave compared to 57% to 66% in the pre-pandemic wave.

In contrast, the difference between the quintiles for the SVTS is more marked, ranging from 33% to 48%.

Table 4.8: Difference in response rates by rurality.

	Large urban areas	Other urban areas	Accessible small towns	Remote small towns	Accessible Rural	Remote rural	Total
2019/20 SCJS							
Successful	60%	63%	64%	60%	70%	73%	63%
Unsuccessful	40%	37%	36%	40%	30%	27%	37%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	3,043	3,198	774	313	978	491	8,797
SVTS							
Successful	43%	37%	44%	47%	43%	51%	42%
Unsuccessful	57%	63%	56%	53%	57%	49%	58%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	1,538	1,568	453	178	620	319	4,676
2021/22 SCJS							
Successful	43%	47%	47%	55%	52%	58%	47%
Unsuccessful	57%	53%	53%	45%	48%	42%	53%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	4,131	4,033	1,050	418	1,325	703	11,660

Response rates have historically been higher in rural areas than urban areas. In the pre-pandemic wave, the response rate was lowest in large urban areas and remote small towns (60%) and highest in remote rural areas (73%) with an overall difference in the response rate between these two types of area of 13%. Post-pandemic, the range increased slightly to 15% (43% in large urban areas to 58% in remote rural areas). There is a similar range in the response rates by rurality in the SVTS wave, the lowest response rate being in other urban areas (37%) and the highest in remote rural areas (51%).

A similar pattern is seen by Police Division (See Table A1.1 in the appendix). In the pre-pandemic wave, the response rate ranged from 55% in Greater Glasgow to 71% in the North East, a ratio of 1.29 between highest and lowest responding areas. In the post-pandemic wave, the response rate ranged from

39% in Greater Glasgow to 56% in Dumfries and Galloway and the Highlands and Islands, a ratio of 1.43 between highest and lowest. In comparison, in the SVTS, the response rate ranged from 34% in Lanarkshire to 50% in Edinburgh City, a ratio of 1.47.

Summary of findings

The profile of the drawn samples for the pre-pandemic and the post-pandemic survey waves were very similar. The suspension of the fieldwork in the pre-pandemic wave did not have a large impact on the profile of the sample worked. Despite using a different sampling approach, the SVTS sample was broadly similar to the pre- and post-pandemic waves with regard to its geographic profile. It under-represented those in urban areas and the most deprived areas compared to the face-to-face waves, but these differences were not large. However, there are likely to be other differences to the profile of the SVTS sample from the face-to-face wave resulting from the different sampling approaches.

Previous SCJS waves, using the traditional face-to-face approach have achieved relatively high response rates. Compared to the pre-pandemic wave, the response rate dropped 16 percentage points to 48% in the post-pandemic wave. The scale of the drop was in line with other comparable surveys such as the SHS. However, patterns of differential response by deprivation and rurality were very similar in the pre- and post-pandemic waves, with differences in response rates remaining modest.

In the post-pandemic wave, the response rate in the knock-to-nudge stage was around 3-6 percentage points lower than the later return to face-to-face stage.

The response rate to the SVTS was lower than that of the face-to-face waves and there was more variability in the response rate by deprivation and rurality.

5. Profile of achieved samples between pre- and post-pandemic waves

This chapter looks at the composition of the achieved sample. It compares various estimates from the pre-pandemic and post-pandemic waves. The analysis shows both the weighted and unweighted samples.

The standard weighting approach used for the SCJS includes design weighting to help correct for unequal probabilities of selection and variations in response rates, and calibration weighting used to correct for non-response bias so that the weighted survey totals match known population totals. Both household weights and individual weights are created¹¹. The weighted household totals match population estimates on the following estimates: household type by Police Division; age of head of household within Police Division; and Urban/rural areas within Local Authorities. The individual weights ensure that the weighted survey data matches the NRS Population Estimates for age bands and gender within each of the PD areas.

It is worth emphasising that all surveys provide estimates of what they seek to measure, and the pre-pandemic wave will be subject to error and bias. Even so, it is a useful benchmark to examine changes in the nature of bias affecting SCJS estimates.

Overall, 20 survey measures were included in the analysis:

- 2 geographic measures: rurality and SIMD quintile.
- 6 household level characteristics: tenure, number of cars, household income, household composition, accommodation type, whether the household could meet an unexpected expense.
- 5 individual level characteristics: age, sex, education, ILO classification and subjective views on health.
- 7 substantive estimates: 4 victimisation rates (victimisation, repeat victimisation, victim of a violent crime, victim of a property crime); and three key attitudinal statements (how good a job police in this area are doing, perceived change in crime rate in local area in last two years, and how safe respondent feels walking alone in local area after dark).

¹¹ Along with incident weights and self-completion weights. For full details on the weighting strategy, see the SCJS technical reports.

Household and geographic measures

Table 5.1 compares the pre- and post-pandemic results for rurality and SIMD Quintile.

Table 5.1: Estimates for selected household characteristics for pre- and post-pandemic waves compared.

	Unweighted			Weighted		
	19/20	21/22	Difference	19/20	21/22	Difference
SIMD						
Most deprived	18.6%	18.4%	-0.2%	19.9%	19.4%	-0.5%
2nd most	19.7%	18.9%	-0.8%	19.6%	19.0%	-0.6%
Middle quintile	22.1%	21.5%	-0.6%	21.3%	20.7%	-0.6%
4th	19.9%	21.1%	1.2%	20.0%	20.4%	0.4%
Least deprived	19.7%	20.2%	0.5%	19.3%	20.4%	1.1%
Total	100%	100%	0.0%	100%	100%	0.0%
Rurality						
Large urban areas	32.6%	32.3%	-0.3%	34.30%	34.5%	0.2%
Other urban areas	36.4%	34.6%	-1.8%	36.40%	35.6%	-0.8%
Accessible small towns	8.9%	8.9%	0.0%	8.50%	8.5%	0.0%
Remote small towns	3.4%	4.2%	0.8%	3.30%	3.6%	0.3%
Accessible Rural	12.2%	12.6%	0.4%	12.1%	12.0%	-0.1%
Remote rural	6.5%	7.4%	0.9%	5.50%	5.80%	0.3%

There is very little difference between the weighted figures on both these measures. The post-pandemic wave gives a slightly higher estimate for the least deprived quintile than the pre-pandemic wave (20.4% compared to 19.3%) but the difference is not significant. In relation to rurality, the estimates are very similar between waves. While SIMD is not included in the weighting approach, the weighted data is calibrated to match household type estimates within Police Division and urban/rural areas with local authority.

Given the similarity of the sample profile and in differential non-response patterns between the waves (detailed in the previous chapter) this is unsurprising.

Table 5.2: Estimates for selected household characteristics for pre- and post-pandemic waves compared.

	Unweighted			Weighted		
	19/20	21/22	Difference	19/20	21/22	Difference
Tenure						
Owner occupied	65.7%	66.4%	0.7%	62.0%	64.4%	2.4%
Social rented	21.7%	21.6%	-0.1%	23.2%	22.5%	-0.7%
Private rented	11.4%	10.6%	-0.8%	13.5%	11.8%	-1.7%
Other	1.2%	1.4%	0.2%	1.2%	1.3%	0.1%
Total	100%	100%	0.0%	100%	100%	0.0%
Number of cars						
None	25.0%	23.5%	-1.5%	27.2%	24.6%	-2.6%
One	42.1%	46.5%	4.4%	42.6%	46.1%	3.5%
Two	33.0%	30.0%	-3.0%	30.2%	29.3%	-0.9%
Household composition						
Single adult	15.9%	15.7%	-0.2%	20.2%	18.1%	-2.1%
Single parent	4.4%	4.6%	0.2%	6.4%	6.1%	-0.3%
Single pensioner	17.4%	20.2%	2.8%	16.5%	18.0%	1.5%
Small family	13.4%	11.8%	-1.6%	12.3%	12.6%	0.3%
Large family	5.6%	5.2%	-0.4%	5.1%	5.5%	0.4%
Small adult	16.1%	13.7%	-2.4%	16.6%	14.5%	-2.1%
Large adult	9.0%	8.0%	-1.0%	8.5%	8.1%	-0.4%
Older smaller	18.1%	20.8%	2.7%	14.4%	17.2%	2.8%
Accommodation type						

Detached/semi-detached	45.2%	46.6%	1.4%	45.2%	46.6%	1.4%
Terraced house	21.2%	20.4%	-0.8%	21.2%	20.4%	-0.8%
Flat/Maisonette	33.5%	33.0%	-0.5%	33.5%	33.0%	-0.5%
Other	0.0%	0.1%	0.1%	0.0%	0.1%	0.1%
Total annual household income						
Less than £5,200	3.2%	2.2%	-1.0%	3.7%	2.3%	-1.4%
£5,200 - £10,399	10.1%	8.7%	-1.4%	11.0%	9.0%	-2.0%
£10,400 - £15,599	12.1%	12.8%	0.7%	12.8%	12.3%	-0.5%
£15,600 - £20,799	13.0%	11.5%	-1.5%	12.8%	11.0%	-1.8%
£20,800 - £25,999	11.5%	12.2%	0.7%	11.5%	11.7%	0.2%
£26,000 - £36,399	15.0%	13.6%	-1.4%	14.9%	13.4%	-1.5%
£36,400 - £51,999	15.5%	16.2%	0.7%	14.8%	16.5%	1.7%
£52,000 - £77,999	11.1%	12.8%	1.7%	10.6%	13.4%	2.8%
£78,000 or more	8.6%	10.0%	1.4%	7.9%	10.5%	2.6%
Whether household could find £100 to meet unexpected expense						
Impossible to find	2.1%	2.0%	-0.1%	2.6%	2.3%	-0.3%
A big problem	4.7%	4.2%	-0.5%	5.5%	4.7%	-0.8%
A bit of a problem	14.5%	16.0%	1.5%	15.8%	16.8%	1.0%
No problem	78.7%	77.8%	-0.9%	76.0%	76.2%	0.2%

Table 5.2 shows the same comparisons for 6 household measures. For most of these measures, we would not expect anything more than minimal changes between the waves, although the impact of the pandemic on household income and whether struggling financially is likely to have been complex, with changes to both income and expenditure patterns likely, and significant differences across different types of households. In summary:

- **Tenure:** The weighted estimates for owner-occupation among the post-pandemic wave is 2.4 percentage points higher than the pre-pandemic wave (62.0% to 64.4%). In contrast, the estimates for social rented and

private rented are lower (23.2% to 22.5% and 13.5% to 11.8% respectively).

- **Number of cars:** The post-pandemic wave gives a lower estimate for the proportion of households with no car than the pre-pandemic wave, 24.6% compared to 27.2%, a difference of 2.6 percentage points.
- **Household composition:** The weighted estimates for Older Smaller households and Single Pensioners is higher in the post-pandemic wave. (17.2% compared to 14.4% and 18% compared to 16.5%).
- **Accommodation type:** The post-pandemic wave gives a higher estimate for households in detached or semi-detached houses compared to the pre-pandemic wave, 46.6% compared to 45.2%, a difference of 1.4 percentage points.
- **Household income:** The post-pandemic wave gives a higher estimate of the proportion of households with a household income of £36,400 or more than the pre-pandemic wave. (40.4% compared to 33.3%, a difference of 7.1 percentage points. Conversely, the proportion of households with an annual household income of less than £20,800 dropped by 5.7 percentage points from 40.3% to 34.6%.
- **Whether household could find £100 to meet an unexpected expense.** A slightly lower proportion of households in the post-pandemic wave than in the pre-pandemic wave said that finding £100 to meet any unexpected expenses would be impossible to find or a big problem (7% compared to 8.1%) and slightly more said that this would be a bit of a problem (16.8% compared to 15.8%). There was very little difference in the proportion saying that this would be no problem. (76.2% compared to 76.0%).

Generally, the changes to these estimates were relatively small and most are not statistically significant. However, the profile of respondents in post-pandemic wave is slightly more affluent on a range of measure than the pre-pandemic wave generally. Moreover, groups that have traditionally been under-represented in the SCJS (where the impact of the weighting is to increase the estimate) such as those with relatively low household incomes, are the groups that have slightly lower estimates in the post-pandemic wave. This means that the impact of non-response on the post-pandemic wave might be slightly greater than on the pre-pandemic wave and the weighting approach might not be fully correcting for this.

Individual level characteristics

Table 5.3 provides comparison for 5 individual characteristics.

Table 5.3: Estimates for selected individual characteristics for pre- and post-pandemic waves compared.

	Unweighted			Weighted		
	19/20	21/22	Difference	19/20	21/22	Difference
Banded age						
16-24	7.0%	6.1%	-0.9%	12.0%	11.8%	-0.2%
25-44	28.3%	27.9%	-0.4%	32.0%	32.1%	0.1%
45-64	34.5%	34.3%	-0.2%	33.0%	32.6%	-0.4%
65+	30.2%	31.7%	1.5%	23.0%	23.5%	0.5%
Sex						
Male	46.2%	45.2%	-1.0%	48.3%	48.3%	0.0%
Female	53.8%	54.8%	1.0%	51.7%	51.7%	0.0%
Educational Qualifications						
No qualifications	18.0%	11.8%	-6.2%	14.6%	9.1%	-5.5%
School qualifications	30.9%	33.7%	2.8%	32.2%	35.2%	3.0%
SVQ L3 or L4	18.8%	19.0%	0.2%	19.7%	19.0%	-0.7%
Degree level	32.4%	35.5%	3.1%	33.5%	36.7%	3.2%
ILO classification						
In employment	58.4%	59.3%	0.9%	58.4%	59.3%	0.9%
Unemployed	3.1%	2.4%	-0.7%	3.1%	2.4%	-0.7%
Inactive	38.6%	38.3%	-0.3%	38.6%	38.3%	-0.3%
Subjective view on health in general						
Very good	32.9%	28.1%	-4.8%	36.4%	31.7%	-4.7%
Good	36.6%	40.8%	4.2%	37.2%	41.8%	4.6%
Fair	21.4%	22.2%	0.8%	19.3%	19.4%	0.1%
Bad	6.9%	7.0%	0.1%	5.6%	5.7%	0.1%
Very bad	2.1%	1.9%	-0.2%	1.6%	1.4%	-0.2%

In summary:

- **Banded age:** Age is used in the weighting, and the differences in the weighted estimates were relatively small with no clear pattern. In the unweighted data, the post-pandemic wave included a smaller proportion of young people compared to the pre-pandemic wave.
- **Sex:** Sex is also used in the weighting and there was no difference in the weighted estimates.
- **Attainment:** Compared to the pre-pandemic wave, the post-pandemic data under-represented those who have no qualifications (9.1% compared to 14.6%) and over-represented those with degrees or professional qualifications (36.7% compared to 33.5%).
- **Employment status:** The post-pandemic wave produced a slightly higher estimate of those in employment than the pre-pandemic wave (59.3% compared to 58.4%) and a slightly lower estimate of those unemployed (2.4% compared to 3.1%).
- **General health:** There is no clear pattern in the differences between the pre- and post-pandemic waves in relation to views on general health. While the estimates for those who say their health is fair, bad or very bad are consistent between the waves, there are more marked differences in those describing their health as very good and good. Pre-pandemic, 36.4% described their general health as very good. The corresponding figure for the post-pandemic wave was 31.7%. In contrast, there was an increase in those describing their health as good, from 37.2% to 41.8%. This change might reflect changes in the population due to the pandemic.

Selected substantive findings

Table 5.4 shows results for four victimisation estimates and Table 5.5 provides estimates for three key attitudinal statements.

Table 5.4: Victimisation estimates for pre- and post-pandemic waves compared.

	Unweighted			Weighted		
	19/20	21/22	Difference	19/20	21/22	Difference
Victim of crime	10.8%	9.6%	-1.2%	12.0%	10.0%	-2.0%
Victim of property crime	9.2%	8.3%	-0.9%	10.0%	8.7%	No significant change

Victim of violent crime	2.1%	1.7%	-0.4%	2.5%	1.7%	-0.8%
Victim of multiple crime	3.3%	3.0%	-0.3%	3.6%	3.0%	No significant change
N	5,561	5,516		5,561	5,516	

Overall, the estimates suggest that victimisation estimates have fallen between 2019/20 and 2021/22 but the changes are relatively small. The estimate of the proportion of people who were a victim of crime in the last 12 months fell from 12% pre-pandemic to 10% post-pandemic. The estimate for violent crime has fallen from 2.5% to 1.7%. These are statistically significant results. Other victimisation estimates have shown no statistically significant change since the pre-pandemic SCJS.

Table 5.5 shows results in relation to three attitudinal measures:

- **How good police in local area are doing:** Fewer people think that the police in their area are doing excellent or good post-pandemic compared to pre-pandemic. Conversely, more people think that they are doing a fair, poor or very poor job.
- **Perceived change in crime:** The estimates suggest that fewer people think that the local crime rate is increasing post-pandemic compared to before, with a drop of 3.7 percentage points for those say it was getting a lot or a little more. Conversely, more people thought that the local crime rate was stable or getting lower.
- **How safe walking along in local area after dark:** There is no clear pattern of change to this measure, with a drop of 5.3 percentage points in those who felt *very safe* walking alone in their local area after dark, but an increase of 4.6 percentage point in what who felt *quite safe*. In contrast, the estimates for those who said they felt a bit unsafe, or very unsafe were very similar.

Table 5.5: Responses to key attitudinal questions for pre- and post-pandemic waves compared.

	Unweighted			Weighted		
	19/20	21/22	Difference	19/20	21/22	Difference
How good a job do you think the police in this area are doing						
Excellent	9.2%	8.4%	-0.8%	9.3%	8.5%	-0.8%

Good	46.9%	42.4%	-4.5%	47.7%	42.8%	-4.9%
Fair	33.9%	36.9%	3.0%	32.9%	36.5%	3.6%
Poor	7.7%	9.3%	1.6%	7.8%	9.5%	1.7%
Very poor	2.3%	3.0%	0.7%	2.3%	2.7%	0.4%
N	5,359	5,285		5,359	5,285	
Perceived change in crime rate in local area in last two years						
A lot more	7.5%	5.6%	-1.9%	7.3%	5.3%	-2.0%
A little more	16.8%	15.5%	-1.3%	16.9%	15.2%	-1.7%
About the same	68.1%	70.7%	2.6%	67.9%	70.8%	2.9%
A little less	6.4%	7.0%	0.6%	6.6%	7.6%	1.0%
A lot less	1.1%	1.2%	0.1%	1.3%	1.1%	-0.2%
N	4,704	4,612		4,704	4,612	
How safe respondent feels walking alone in local area after dark						
Very safe	40.5%	36.0%	-4.5%	41.6%	36.3%	-5.3%
Fairly safe	35.6%	39.1%	3.5%	36.1%	40.7%	4.6%
A bit unsafe	15.9%	16.5%	0.6%	15.2%	15.8%	0.6%
Very unsafe	8.0%	8.4%	0.4%	7.1%	7.1%	0.0%
N	5,484	5,425		5,484	5,425	

Victimisation by educational attainment, household income and tenure

Differences on subjective measures such as victimisation rates may be influenced by differences between modes and in the profile of the weighted sample. However, they may also have changed during the pandemic. It is difficult to disentangle how much any of the observed changes are attributable to the change in approach, or to a drop in the response rate, rather than to a real change in the population.

In order to examine this further in relation to victimisation rates, changes to victimisation were examined by three of the characteristics where the sample profile changed most between the pre- and post-pandemic profiles:

educational attainment, household income and tenure. This is shown in Tables 5.6 to 5.8.

Table 5.6: Victimisation rate by wave by highest qualification (Don't know/refused not shown).

		19/20	21/22
No qualifications	%	8.6%	8.5%
	N	993	631
School quals	%	12.5%	9.5%
	N	1,701	1,809
SVQ Level 3 or 4	%	12.1%	10.7%
	N	1,034	1,018
Degree level and above quals	%	12.7%	10.4%
	N	5,561	5,516

Table 5.7: Victimisation rate by wave by banded annual net household income.

		19/20	21/22
Less than £20,800	%	11.8%	11.8%
	N	1,622	1,507
£20,800 to 36,399	%	11.8%	9.6%
	N	1,120	1,107
£37,000 or more	%	12.5%	10.3%
	N	1,484	1,670

Table 5.8: Victimisation rate by wave within selected tenures (Other tenure not shown).

		19/20	21/22
Owner occupied	%	10.2%	7.8%
	N	3,621	3,633
Social rented	%	14.9%	13.6%
	N	1,197	1,182
Private rented	%	15.8%	16.1%
	N	629	578

Overall, likelihood of being a victim of crime is not closely associated with educational attainment or household income. In the pre-pandemic wave, estimates for victimisation ranged from:

- 8.6% of those with no qualifications to 12.7% of those with a degree level qualification; and
- 11.8% among those with a household income of less than £20,800 to 12.5% among those with a household income of £37,000 or more.

This means that any changes to the achieved sample because of differential non-response in relation to these factors is unlikely to have had more than a very marginal impact on the estimates for victimisation.

There was slightly more variation by tenure. In the pre-pandemic wave, 10.2% of those in owner-occupation had been a victim of crime in the last 12 months in the pre-pandemic wave compared to 14.9% among social renters and 15.8% among private renters. The post-pandemic wave suggested that the two largest tenure groups had experienced a drop in the victimisation rate: from 10.2% to 7.8% among owner-occupiers between the two survey waves, and from 14.9% to 13.6% among social renters. Victimization among private renters stayed relatively stable; 15.8% in the pre-pandemic wave compared to 16.1% post-pandemic.

This means that it is possible that there might have been an impact on the estimates for victimisation from changes in the tenure profile that resulted from shifts in non-response patterns (rather than reflecting a real change to tenure patterns) and that is not being fully corrected by the weighting. However, the impact is likely to be small.

Summary of findings

Overall, for most variables that we would expect to be relatively stable, the differences between the pre- and post-pandemic waves (after weighting) were relatively small. However, for a limited number of key variables, the changes in estimates may be more than expected. These included tenure, educational attainment and household income.

The profile of respondents in post-pandemic wave is slightly more affluent on a range of measure than the pre-pandemic wave generally. Groups where response rates tend to be lowest are the groups that have slightly lower estimates in the post-pandemic wave after weighting. This means that the impact of non-response on the post-pandemic wave might be slightly greater than on the pre-pandemic wave and the weighting approach might not be fully correcting for this. The scale of this is likely to be small, especially on key substantive measures such as victimisation.

6. Comparing the profile of the knock-to-nudge and return to in-home achieved sample and the impact of the mode of interview

The previous chapter examined the change to the sample profile between the pre- and the post-pandemic waves. This chapter compares the profile of the two stages of the post-pandemic wave: the initial knock-to-nudge stage and the subsequent return to in-home interviewing stage.

Post-pandemic modes

Pre-pandemic, almost all interviews were conducted face-to-face. Indeed, mode of interview was not collected as part of the survey questionnaire. When the survey restarted under the knock-to-nudge approach, interviewers were asked to undertake the interview remotely, either by telephone or by video interview. At the beginning of April 2022, face-to-face in-home interviewing was allowed alongside telephone and video interviewing.

Overall, 57% of all interviews were carried out face-to-face, 41.3% by phone and only 1.7% by video¹².

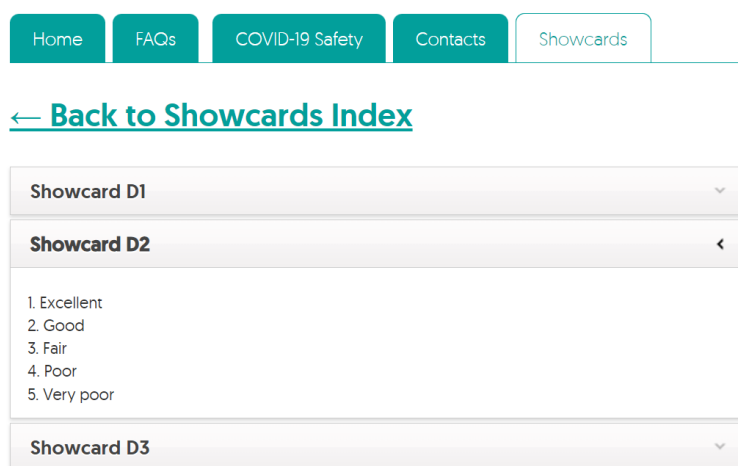
Table 6.1: Mode of interview and whether used showcards. 2021/22 SCJS.

	All interviewers	Telephone interviews
Face-to-face	57.0%	
Video	1.7%	
Telephone	41.3%	
Using showcards on website	16.5%	40.0%
Using paper showcards	21.8%	52.9%
Not using showcards	2.9%	7.1%
Total	100%	100%
N	5,516	2,276

¹² There was a general reluctance from both interviewers and respondents to take part by video.

As noted in Chapter 3, one of the challenges of changing to a remote interviewing approach was to ensure that respondents could still use showcards. If interviewing using video, the interviewer could use showcards via screenshare. However, alternative strategies were needed for telephone interviews. Unlike the approach taken for the Scottish Household Survey (SHS) in 2021 where no interviewer travel was allowed, the knock-to-nudge approach adopted by the SCJS13 meant that interviewers could give respondents sets of single-use showcards on the doorstep for use in the telephone interview. Additionally, a web-based version of the showcards was developed. Where neither of these were possible (or rejected by respondents) interviewers were instructed to read out response options along with the question.

Figure 6.1: Example of the web-based showcards.



As shown in Table 6.1, most interviews by telephone used some form of showcard (92.9%) meaning that only a small proportion of interviews overall did not use any form of showcards (2.9%).

Table 6.2 shows the mode of interview by the date of interview. Almost all interviews (94.7%) prior to April 2022 were undertaken by telephone. The proportion of interviews undertaken by telephone decreased to 39.3% in quarter 2 and further decreased in quarters 3 and 4 (14.8% and 15.2%).

13 The difference in approach was driven by health and safety concerns. The SCJS fieldwork started considerably later in the year when a door-step approach was allowed. The SHS fieldwork started when no interviewer travel was allowed, and all contact had to be undertaken remotely.

Table 6.2: Mode of interview fieldwork period.

	K2N stage	Return to in-home			Both
	Q4 '21 & Q1 '22	Q2 '22	Q3 '22	Q4 '22	All
Face to face	0.9%	59.3%	84.7%	84.3%	57.0%
Video link	4.4%	1.4%	0.6%	0.5%	1.7%
Phone	94.7%	39.3%	14.8%	15.2%	41.3%
All	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	1,385	1,424	1,789	916	5,515

The rest of this chapter examines a range of characteristics in terms of the stage of fieldwork and mode of interview. As noted previously, mode choice and stage of fieldwork were closely aligned, and we would expect patterns by mode to reflect patterns by stage of fieldwork. Where there is a difference in patterns by stage of fieldwork and mode, this could point to mode effects on particular questions. We also try to disentangle whether any differences are because of differences in the profile of respondents or because of any impact of measurement error. Fuller tabular results are provided in Appendix 2.

Geographic measures

Table 6.3 show SIMD and rurality by stage of fieldwork and mode after weighting. Overall, the knock-to-nudge stage included a smaller proportion of those in the most deprived areas compared to the the return-to-in-home stage (17.1% compared to 20.2%). Additionally, they were less prevalent among those who took part by telephone than by face-to-face (18.2% compared to 20.7%). This mirrors the findings in the previous chapter that lower response rates and reliance on modes other than in-home face-to-face is likely to mean that it is harder to capture those living in the most deprived areas.

There are no clear patterns by rurality. Compared to the return to-in-home stage, the knock-to-nudge stage contained a slightly higher proportion of respondents from Accessible Small Towns (10.0% compared to 8.1%) and Other Urban areas (36.4% compared to 35.3%) and a slightly lower proportion from remote rural areas (4.6% compared to 6.1%).

It is worth noting that the differences seen in Table 6.3 are not driven by differences in sample coverage. As detailed in Chapter 4, fieldwork is broadly organised into monthly tranches of addresses to try to ensure a good geographic spread of addresses throughout the year, with addresses spread

by police division by month to ensure that estimates by the geographical variables are not impacted differently by any seasonal effects or change over time. The profile of addresses covered in the knock-to-nudge stage were similar to the return-to-in-home stage in relation to both deprivation and rurality.

Table 6.3: Geographical characteristics by stage of fieldwork and mode. (weighted)

	Stage of fieldwork			Mode of interview			
	Knock to nudge stage	Return to in-home stage	Diff	Phone	F2f	Diff	Diff (return to in-home stage only)
SIMD							
Most deprived	17.1%	20.2%	-3.1%	18.2%	20.7%	-2.5%	-1.8%
2nd most	17.5%	19.5%	-2.0%	18.5%	19.4%	-0.9%	0.0%
Middle quintile	21.0%	20.7%	0.3%	21.5%	20.5%	1.0%	1.4%
4th	22.7%	19.7%	3.0%	21.9%	19.4%	2.5%	1.2%
Least deprived	21.6%	20.0%	1.6%	19.9%	20.0%	-0.1%	-0.8%
Total	100%	100%		100%	100%		
N	1,295	4,219		2,174	3,250		
Rurality							
Large urban areas	34.0%	34.7%	-0.7%	33.2%	35.0%	-1.8%	-2.2%
Other urban areas	36.4%	35.3%	1.1%	35.2%	36.1%	-0.9%	-2.3%
Accessible small towns	10.0%	8.1%	1.9%	9.8%	7.7%	2.1%	1.5%
Remote small towns	3.2%	3.7%	-0.5%	3.8%	3.6%	0.2%	0.7%
Accessible Rural	11.7%	12.1%	-0.4%	11.8%	12.0%	-0.2%	0.1%
Remote rural	4.6%	6.1%	-1.5%	6.1%	5.7%	0.4%	2.3%
Total	100%	100%		100%	100%		
N	1,295	4,219		2,174	3,250		

Household characteristics

Table 6.4 shows differences between the knock-to-nudge stage and the return-to-in-home stage in relation to estimates for 6 household characteristics. Generally, these differences tend to be relatively small. The most notable differences were as follows:

- **Tenure:** The estimates between the different fieldwork stages differed considerably. The estimate for social renting was 6.2 percentage points lower in the knock-to-nudge stage compared to the return-to-in-home stage (17.9% compared to 24.1%). In contrast, the estimate for private renting was 4.9 percentage points higher (15.5% compared to 10.6%) and the estimate for owner-occupation was 1.7 percentage points higher. The differences by mode were slightly less pronounced but follow a similar pattern, with the estimates for social renting lower among telephone respondents than face-to-face respondents and the estimates for private renting and owner-occupation higher.
- **Number of cars:** There was not a significant difference in the estimates for number of cars between the different stages of fieldwork. However, there was a difference by mode. A higher proportion of people who were interviewed face-to-face had no car compared to those interviewed by telephone. (26.2% compared to 22.2%). Among the return-to-in-home stage respondents only (who had a choice between face-to-face and telephone interviewing) the difference is more marked (26.3% compared to 19.6%).
- **Household composition:** Although some differences are evident, there is no clear pattern. In terms of stage, the knock-to-nudge stage has lower estimates for single adult (16.4% compared to 18.7%) and large family households (4.4% compared to 5.8%) and higher estimates for small adult (16.5% compared to 13.8%) and large adult households (9.3% compared to 7.6%). With regard to mode, among the return-to-in-home stage respondents only, the estimates for single pensioners and older smaller households were lower among those interviewed by telephone than face-to-face, while the estimate for Small Family and Small Adult households were higher. (See Table A6.3).
- **Whether household could find £100 to meet an unexpected expense:** Overall, the estimate for household who would have no problem finding £100 to meet an unexpected expense was 3.7 percentage points higher for the knock-to-nudge sample than the return-to-in-home sample. (79% compared to 75.3%). The differences by mode were similar.

While there were some differences in relation to the other two characteristics (household income, ability and property type) these were generally small.

Table 6.4: Household characteristics by stage of fieldwork and mode. (weighted)

	Stage			Mode			
	Knock to nudge stage	Return to in-home stage	Diff	Phone	F2f	Diff	Diff (return to in-home stage only)
Tenure							
Owner occupied	65.6%	63.9%	1.7%	65.0%	63.5%	1.5%	0.9%
Social rented	17.9%	24.1%	-6.2%	20.7%	24.3%	-3.6%	-0.4%
Private rented	15.5%	10.6%	4.9%	13.0%	10.8%	2.2%	-0.7%
Other	1.0%	1.5%	-0.5%	1.3%	1.4%	-0.1%	0.2%
Total	100%	100%		100%	100%		
N	1284	4183		2152	3226		
Number of cars							
No car	24.2%	24.7%	-0.5%	22.2%	26.4%	-4.2%	-6.7%
One car	45.8%	46.2%	-0.4%	46.6%	45.9%	0.7%	1.2%
Two or more cars	30.0%	29.1%	0.9%	31.2%	27.7%	3.5%	5.5%
Total	100%	100%		100%	100%		
N	1,290	4,214		2,167	3,247		
Household composition							
Single adult	16.4%	18.7%	-2.3%	16.9%	18.9%	-2.0%	-1.3%
Single parent	5.3%	6.4%	-1.1%	6.4%	6.0%	0.4%	1.9%
Single pensioner	18.3%	17.8%	0.5%	16.7%	19.1%	-2.4%	-5.1%
Small family	11.9%	12.8%	-0.9%	13.5%	11.8%	1.7%	4.0%
Large family	4.4%	5.8%	-1.4%	4.9%	5.7%	-0.8%	0.3%
Small adult	16.5%	13.8%	2.7%	16.3%	13.0%	3.3%	2.9%
Large adult	9.3%	7.6%	1.7%	9.0%	7.3%	1.7%	1.5%
Older smaller	17.9%	17.0%	0.9%	16.3%	18.1%	-1.8%	-4.2%
Total	100%	100%		100%	100%		
N	1,295	4,219		2,174	3,250		
Accommodation type							

Detached/ semi house	48.1%	46.1%	2.0%	47.8%	45.5%	2.3%	2.1%
Terraced house	17.3%	21.4%	-4.1%	18.6%	21.6%	-3.0%	-1.5%
Flat/maisonette	34.6%	32.5%	2.1%	33.5%	32.7%	0.8%	-0.7%
Other	0.0%	0.1%	-0.1%	0.0%	0.1%	-0.1%	0.0%
Total	100%	100%		100%	100%		
N	1,295	4,219		2,174	3,250		
Annual household income							
Less than £5,200	2.0%	2.4%	-0.4%	2.0%	2.6%	-0.6%	-0.7%
£5,200 - £10,399	8.8%	9.1%	-0.3%	9.1%	9.2%	-0.1%	-0.3%
£10,400 - £15,599	12.9%	12.2%	0.7%	13.3%	12.0%	1.3%	1.1%
£15,600 - £20,799	9.2%	11.6%	-2.4%	9.3%	12.4%	-3.1%	-2.7%
£20,800 - £25,999	11.1%	11.9%	-0.8%	10.6%	12.6%	-2.0%	-3.0%
£26,000 - £36,399	14.1%	13.2%	0.9%	14.2%	12.7%	1.5%	1.5%
£36,400 - £51,999	16.8%	16.3%	0.5%	17.3%	15.8%	1.5%	2.5%
£52,000 - £77,999	14.9%	12.8%	2.1%	13.9%	12.6%	1.3%	0.9%
£78,000 or more	10.1%	10.6%	-0.5%	10.3%	10.2%	0.1%	0.8%
Total	100%	100%		100%	100%		
N	1,058	3,224		1,750	2,451		
Whether h/hold could find £100 to meet an unexpected expense							
Impossible to find	1.9%	2.5%	-0.6%	2.5%	2.2%	0.3%	1.1%
A big problem	3.4%	5.1%	-1.7%	3.5%	5.5%	-2.0%	-1.9%
A bit of a problem	15.7%	17.2%	-1.5%	15.7%	17.8%	-2.1%	-1.9%
No problem	79.0%	75.3%	3.7%	78.2%	74.5%	3.7%	2.7%
Total	100%	100%		100%	100%		
N	1,277	4,150		2,140	3,198		

Individual characteristics

Table 6.5 shows differences for 5 individual characteristics. Generally, these differences tend to be relatively small. The most notable differences were as follows:

- **Age:** While there was no clear difference on the age profile between those who took place at the knock-to-nudge stage and the return-to-in-home stage, there was difference by mode, with the estimate of those aged 65 and over higher among the face-to-face sample than the telephone sample and vice versa for the younger age group.
- **ILO status:** While there was very little difference by stage of fieldwork, there were significant difference by mode of interview. Among the return-to-in-home stage respondents only, who had a choice of mode, 40.9% of those who took part face-to-face were inactive compared to 31.1% of those who took part by telephone, a difference of 9.8 percentage points. The difference in the estimates for those in employment was the reverse (-10.6 percentage points). This suggests that those in employment generally prefer to take part by telephone more than those who are inactive. While this will reflect the age profile of the two groups (with those economically inactive being older than those in employment), the differences by employment status are considerably larger than those by age.
- **Attainment:** The estimate for respondents with degrees was 4.9 percentage points higher for the knock-to-nudge sample than the return-to-in-home sample (40.3% compared to 35.4%). The results by mode mirrored this, with those taking part by telephone more likely to hold degree-level qualifications than those interviewed face-to-face (39.1% compared to 34%).
- **Gender and General Health:** There were no clear differences by these factors between the knock-to-nudge and the return-to-in-home stages.

Table 6.5: individual characteristics by stage of fieldwork and mode. (weighted)

	Stage			Mode			
	Knock to nudge stage	Return to in-home stage	Diff	Phone	F2f	Diff	Diff (return to in-home stage only)
Banded age							
16-24	14.2%	11.0%	3.2%	12.8%	11.1%	1.7%	-0.4%
25-44	29.4%	33.0%	-3.6%	32.7%	31.3%	1.4%	6.7%
45-64	33.1%	32.4%	0.7%	33.1%	32.3%	0.8%	0.5%

65+	23.4%	23.6%	-0.2%	21.5%	25.3%	-3.8%	-6.9%
Total	100%	100%		100%	100%		
N	1,294	4,212		2,167	3,249		
Gender							
Male	47.8%	48.5%	-0.7%	47.7%	48.6%	-0.9%	-0.8%
Female	52.2%	51.5%	0.7%	52.3%	51.4%	0.9%	0.8%
Total	100%	100%		100%	100%		
N	1,294	4,216		2,172	3,248		
Educational Attainment							
No qualifications	8.3%	9.4%	-1.1%	8.5%	9.8%	-1.3%	-1.6%
School quals	32.5%	36.2%	-3.7%	32.8%	37.5%	-4.7%	-5.3%
SVQ Level 3 or 4	18.9%	19.0%	-0.1%	19.7%	18.7%	1.0%	2.2%
HE/FE/Prof quals	40.3%	35.4%	4.9%	39.1%	34.0%	5.1%	4.7%
Total	100%	100%		100%	100%		
N	1,284	4,078		2,153	3,120		
ILO status							
In employment	59.9%	59.1%	0.8%	62.4%	56.4%	6.0%	10.6%
ILO unemployed	2.1%	2.5%	-0.4%	2.0%	2.7%	-0.7%	-0.8%
Inactive	38.0%	38.4%	-0.4%	35.6%	40.9%	-5.3%	-9.8%
Total	100%	100%		100%	100%		
N	1,295	4,219		2,174	3,250		
General health							
Very good	31.1%	31.9%	-0.8%	32.0%	31.4%	0.6%	1.3%
Good	42.4%	41.6%	0.8%	42.5%	41.0%	1.5%	2.8%
Fair	20.1%	19.2%	0.9%	18.8%	20.1%	-1.3%	-3.4%

Bad	5.7%	5.6%	0.1%	5.8%	5.7%	0.1%	-0.2%
Very bad	0.8%	1.6%	-0.8%	0.9%	1.8%	-0.9%	-0.6%
Total	100%	100%		100%	100%		
N	1,285	4,193		2,157	3,231		

Substantive measures

Table 6.6 shows differences in the estimates for victimisation by stage and mode. There are no significant differences by stage of fieldwork on the victimisation rates. While the differences by mode are slightly larger, they are still not significant. Among the sample interviewed at the return-to-in-home stage, where they could choose between being interviewed face-to-face or by telephone, the victimisation rate among those who undertook the survey by telephone was higher than those who undertook the survey face-to-face (10.7% compared to 9.3%). As this difference is not significant, we cannot say whether this reflects a real difference (for example, because victims of crime on balance prefer to be interviewed remotely) or is a product of sampling error.

Table 6.6: Victimisation by stage of fieldwork and mode. (weighted)

	Stage			Mode			
	Knock to nudge stage	Return to in-home stage	Diff	Phone	F2f	Diff	Diff (return to in-home stage only)
Victim of crime	9.5%	10.2%	-0.7%	10.7%	9.3%	1.4%	3.2%
Victim of violent crime	1.4%	1.8%	-0.4%	1.2%	2.1%	-0.9%	-1.2%
Victim of property crime	8.3%	8.9%	-0.6%	9.5%	7.8%	1.7%	3.8%
Victim of repeat crime	2.8%	3.0%	-0.2%	3.6%	2.6%	1.0%	1.8%
N	1,295	4,218		2,174	3,249		

Table 6.7 shows the results of three attitudinal statements by stage of fieldwork and mode. In relation to views on how good a job local police are doing and perceived change in crime rate, there are no clear patterns by stage of fieldwork. In relation to views on how safe people feel walking alone after dark, fewer people said they felt very safe during the knock-to-nudge stage

than at the return-to-in-home stage. (31.4% compared to 38%). However, this is likely to be driven by seasonal effects, the knock-to-nudge stage taking place during the darker winter months and the return to in-home stage taking place in the lighter months.

Table 6.7: Attitudinal statements by stage of fieldwork and mode. (weighted)

	Stage			Mode			
	Knock to nudge stage	Return to in-home stage	Diff	Phone	F2f	Diff	Diff (return to in-home stage only)
How good a job do you think the police in this area are doing							
Excellent	9.5%	8.2%	1.3%	9.1%	8.1%	1.0%	0.2%
Good	43.7%	42.5%	1.2%	43.9%	41.8%	2.1%	3.0%
Fair	36.2%	36.6%	-0.4%	35.9%	37.1%	-1.2%	-1.6%
Poor	8.6%	9.8%	-1.2%	8.6%	10.3%	-1.7%	-1.9%
Very poor	2.1%	2.9%	-0.8%	2.5%	2.8%	-0.3%	0.3%
Total	100%	100%		100%	100%		
N	1,245	4,038		2,093	3,105		
Perceived change in crime rate in local area in last two years							
A lot more	5.8%	5.1%	0.7%	5.5%	5.3%	0.2%	-0.5%
A little more	12.6%	16.0%	-3.4%	15.3%	15.2%	0.1%	3.5%
About the same	72.1%	70.4%	1.7%	69.9%	71.2%	-1.3%	-4.0%
A little less	8.7%	7.2%	1.5%	8.7%	6.8%	1.9%	2.3%
A lot less	0.8%	1.2%	-0.4%	0.6%	1.5%	-0.9%	-1.4%
Total	100%	100%		100%	100%		
N	1,076	3,534		1,821	2,718		
How safe feels walking alone in local area after dark							
Very safe	31.4%	38.0%	-6.6%	31.8%	39.8%	-8.0%	-7.5%

	Stage			Mode			
	Knock to nudge stage	Return to in-home stage	Diff	Phone	F2f	Diff	Diff (return to in-home stage only)
Fairly safe	42.2%	40.2%	2.0%	43.0%	38.9%	4.1%	5.4%
A bit unsafe	18.3%	15.0%	3.3%	17.5%	14.4%	3.1%	2.2%
Very unsafe	8.1%	6.8%	1.3%	7.7%	6.9%	0.8%	-0.1%
N	1,275	4,148		2,142	3,191		

Impact of measurement error on selected survey findings

The impact of the mode of interview on how people respond to survey questions is more complicated and harder to estimate than the impact of mode of approach on response patterns. While the impact of non-response biases on response patterns are binary – people either take part or do not – the impact of mode on how people respond to questions, and whether their measured responses accurately capture this information, is more complex.

The report examining the impact of the change of approach on the Scottish Household Survey¹⁴ during the pandemic found evidence of mode effects influencing measurement error, particularly around how showcards are used to give visual cues to respondents. In the final section of this chapter, we examine two areas of survey findings¹⁵ and the possible impact of change in the mode of interview on how people respond:

- If people give fewer answers to multi-code questions when the survey is completed on telephone and/or without showcards, by examining the educational qualifications question.
- Whether people tend to use the middle, neutral, category in a five-point strongly agree to strongly disagree, by examining the questions on attitudes to the police.

Educational qualifications

¹⁴ <https://www.gov.scot/publications/scottish-household-survey-2020-methodology-impact-change-mode/>

¹⁵ One of the other areas that the SHS highlighted the potential for differences in measurement error was in the number of responses chosen in multi-code questions that relied on long showcards. However, the SCJS relied much less heavily on long showcards, and there was no suitable question, asked of the whole sample, to examine.

Respondents were asked to indicate all educational qualifications they hold. This question used a showcard.

Figure 6.2: Educational Qualifications question.

ASK ALL. SHOWCARD E5

Please look at this card and tell me which, if any, of the following qualifications you have. Just read out the letters that apply.

MULTICODE OK.

PROBE: Which others?

- A: School leaving certificate, National Qualification Access Unit
- B: O Grade, Standard Grade, GCSE, GCE O Level, CSE, National Qualification Access 3 Cluster, Intermediate 1 or 2, National 4 or 5, Senior Certificate or equivalent
- C: GNVQ/GSVQ Foundation or Intermediate, SVQ Level 1 or 2, SCOTVEC/National Certificate Module, City and Guilds Craft, RSA Diploma or equivalent
- D: Higher Grade, Advanced Higher, CSYS, A Level, AS Level, Advanced Senior Certificate or equivalent
- E: GNVQ/GSVQ Advanced, SVQ Level 3, ONC, OND, SCOTVEC National Diploma, City and Guilds Advanced Craft, RSA Advanced Diploma or equivalent
- F: HNC, HND, SVQ Level 4, RSA Higher Diploma or equivalent
- G: First Degree, Higher Degree, SVQ Level 5 or equivalent
- H: Professional qualifications e.g., teaching, accountancy
- I: Other school examinations not already mentioned
- J: Other post-school but pre-Higher education examinations not already mentioned
- K: Other Higher education qualifications not already mentioned
- L: No qualifications (single code)
Don't Know (single code)
Refused (single code)

Table 6.8: Number of types of qualification held among those who have a degree or professional qualification by mode of interview.

	F2F		Telephone		
	All	Showcards on website used	Paper showcards used	No showcards used	All Telephone interviews
Different types of qualification held					
1	17%	9%	10%	16%	10%
2	12%	11%	13%	19%	13%
3	25%	31%	33%	45%	32%
4+	46%	50%	44%	21%	45%
Total	1,009	362	431	50	843

Table 6.8 shows the number of different types of qualification held among those who have a degree or professional qualification by mode and use of showcards. As this group are very likely to hold more than one type of qualification, it is a useful measure of the likelihood of accurately capturing all qualifications held.

Given the small sample sizes the estimates should be treated with care, especially for those undertaking the interview by Telephone but not using showcards. Overall, it might have been expected that telephone interviews would be poorer at recording all qualifications held than face-to-face interviews as interviewers would be less able to ensure that respondents were using showcards. However, the reverse was the case. Among those who had a degree-level qualification who were interviewed by telephone, only 10% overall only list one type of qualification. The corresponding figure for those with degrees who were interviewed face-to-face was 17%. However, the groups where showcard use was confirmed in the interview (telephone interviews with either paper showcards or electronic showcards) tended to record more types of qualification for graduates than where no showcards cards were used (telephone interview but no showcards). It is assumed that showcards were used with all face-to-face interviews. However, in practice it may be that use of showcards is not universal and some respondents (or interviewers) do not use them to save effort or to get through the interview quicker. Overall, it suggests that telephone interviews appear to be no less accurate than face-to-face interviews in capturing all qualifications held.

Attitudes to policing in the local area

A number of questions in the SCJS use a five-point scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree. This is a standard formulation in questionnaire design. Previous research has suggested that these types of questions can be impacted by mode effects in two ways. Firstly, that face-to-face approaches help build respondent engagement, leading to fewer don't know or refused responses. Secondly, that approaches that use showcards tend to capture more neutral responses, 'neither agree nor disagree' than when showcards are not used. Figure 6.3 shows one such question that is asked about attitudes to policing in the local area of the respondent. It is an eight-part question asking for views on different aspects of policing.

Figure 6.3: Attitudes to policing in the local area.

ASK ALL EXCEPT THOSE OR WHO KNOW OR ARE SERVING POLICE OFFICERS

SHOWCARD C9.

READ OUT: I am now going to ask you some general questions about the police in your local area. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements about the police in your local area?

READ OUT:

RANDOMISE LIST

They can be relied on to be there when you need them.

They would treat you with respect if you had contact with them for any reason.

The police in this area treat everyone fairly regardless of who they are.

They are not dealing with the things that matter to people in this community.

The police in this area listen to the concerns of local people.

The police in this area are friendly and approachable

The police in this area are involved in activities in the local community.

For example, activities for children, presentations at schools, cultural or sporting events, or local committees.

The police in this area are held to account for the service they provide.

- 1 Strongly agree
 - 2 Tend to agree
 - 3 Neither agree nor disagree
 - 4 Tend to disagree
 - 5 Strongly disagree
- Don't Know
Refused

Table 6.9 shows the total number of positive responses (strongly agree or tend to agree), the number of neutral responses (neither agree nor disagree) and the number of don't knows or refusals across these 8 statements by mode. (Again, the figures for those undertaking the survey by video or by telephone but not using showcards are based on very small sample sizes and should be interpreted by with caution.)

Overall, there is very little difference by mode overall. Levels of positive responses, neutral responses, and use of don't know and refusal codes were all very similar between those who took part face-to-face and those who took part by telephone. The largest difference was in the proportion of people who did not say don't know or refused to any of these statements, 4 percentage points with 67% of face-to-face respondents doing so compared to 71% of respondents by telephone.

With regard to the use of showcards, two patterns emerge. Firstly, the use of the neutral ‘neither agree nor disagree’ response is more prevalent when showcard use is confirmed. This can be seen in the results for the proportion of people who do not use the neutral middle category for any of the 8 statements: the lowest proportions being among the telephone respondents who used the website showcards (30%) and telephone respondents who used paper showcards (30%) and the highest proportion being among telephone respondents who did not use showcards (53%). The correspondent figure among face-to-face respondents was 34%, again suggesting that showcard use among this group may not be universal.

Secondly, when showcards are used, respondents are less likely to say don’t know or refuse to answer these questions. Overall, 75% of telephone respondents who used the showcards online, and 70% of telephone respondents who used paper showcards did not give a don’t know or refused response to any of these statements, while only 54% of telephone respondents who did not use showcards did likewise. In comparison, 67% of face-to-face respondents did not give a don’t know or refused response to any of these statements.

Table 6.9: Summary of responses to eight statements about policing in their local area by mode of interview and use of showcards.

	F2F	Telephone			
		Showcards on website used	Paper showcards used	No showcards used	All Telephone interviews
Number of strongly agree or tend to agree					
0-2 Agrees	30%	26%	28%	26%	27%
3-5 agrees	41%	44%	44%	36%	43%
6-8 agrees	29%	30%	28%	38%	30%
Number of neutral responses					
No neutrals	34%	30%	30%	53%	32%
1 to 3 Neutrals	48%	51%	50%	36%	50%
4 or more neutrals	18%	19%	20%	11%	19%
Number of don't know or refusals					
No ref/dk	67%	75%	70%	54%	71%
1 to 3 DK/Refs	24%	19%	21%	33%	21%
4 or more DK/Refs	9%	6%	9%	12%	8%
N	3,250	788	1,219	169	2,176

Summary

Pre-pandemic, all interviews were conducted face-to-face, while the post-pandemic wave used a mixture of modes. The survey restarted using a knock-to-nudge approach, with interviews undertaken remotely by telephone or video, and then returned to face-to-face in-home interviewing (with telephone and video interview options retained). This meant that 57% of all interviews were carried out face-to-face, 41% by telephone and 2% by video.

Across a wide range of estimates the differences across modes and between the different stages were small. There were no significant differences by stage of fieldwork or mode on victimisation rates. There were a small number of estimates where there were differences by mode and stage, such as tenure and those living in the most deprived SIMD, suggesting that lower response rates and modes other than face-to-face area tend to find it harder to fully represent those living in the more deprived areas. There were also some differences by mode in relation to age and economic status, suggesting that younger people and those in employment had more of a preference for telephone interviews over face-to-face interviewing compared to those who are older and economically inactive.

With regard to the analysis looking for evidence of changes to how people answer questions, the results are encouraging. They suggest that the move from interviewing face-to-face in-home to remote interviewing did not have a major impact on the results in relation to measurement error and are unlikely to have introduced discontinuity into the data series for the SCJS. Indeed, compared to the earlier work cited above on mode effects in the Scottish Household Survey, the impact of the change of mode on how people respond to questions is smaller. This is partly because the SCJS is less reliant on long showcards to give visual cues to survey questions, but also because of the ability of the SCJS to give paper showcards on the doorstep, an option that was not open to the SHS.

7. Summary and conclusions

Summary

The core methodology of the Scottish Crime and Justice Survey has been based on face-to-face in-home interviewing and random sampling from its inception in 1994 until the COVID-19 pandemic. Pre-pandemic, all interviews were conducted face-to-face in-home. A revised approach was developed during the pandemic for the Scottish Victimisation Telephone Survey, with telephone interviewing of a panel of people who had responded to a previous sweep of the SCJS.

Fieldwork resumed in November 2021 with a knock-to-nudge approach used until April 2022 and the remainder of fieldwork used a combination of modes. During the knock-to-nudge stage, while interviewers would still call in-person at sampled addresses to encourage people to take part, the interview would be carried out remotely. When face-to-face fieldwork resumed, the alternative modes of telephone and video interviewing were retained for respondents unwilling to let an interviewer into their home due to concerns about COVID-19. This meant that in the post-pandemic wave, 57% of all interviews were carried out face-to-face, 41% by telephone and 2% by video.

Compared to a response rate of 63% achieved in the 2019/2020 wave, in the post-pandemic wave, the response rate dropped to 47%. When response rates are lower, there is greater potential for non-response bias. Another indicator of the potential for non-response bias is the amount of variation between different types of area. While there was a drop in the overall response rate, patterns of differential response by deprivation and rurality were very consistent between the pre- and post-pandemic waves.

The change in approach has the potential for disrupting the time series of results and have an impact on the accuracy of estimates. However, the analysis comparing the results of the pre- and post-pandemic wave on key measures suggests that the impact of the change in approach has had minimal impact.

Overall, for almost all variables that we would expect to be stable, the differences between the pre- and post-pandemic waves (after corrective weighting) were relatively small. However, for a small number of key variables, including tenure and educational attainment, the changes in estimates were more than expected. Generally, the profile of respondents in post-pandemic wave is slightly more affluent on a range of measure than the pre-pandemic wave. However, the scale of this is small, especially on key substantive measures such as victimisation.

In the post-pandemic wave, the response rate in the knock-to-nudge stage was around 3-6 percentage points lower than the later return to face-to-face

stage. The differences between the different stages and between modes in this wave were small across most estimates. Significant differences by mode and stage were found by tenure and those living in the most deprived areas. This also suggests that when response rates are lower it is more likely that people living in more deprived areas will be under-represented. However, the scale of these differences was small and there were no significant differences by stage of fieldwork or mode on victimisation rates.

With regard to the analysis looking for evidence of changes to how people answer questions, the results are encouraging. They suggest that the move from interviewing face-to-face in-home to remote interviewing did not have a major impact on the results in relation to measurement error and are unlikely to have introduced discontinuity into the data series for the SCJS. Indeed, compared to the earlier work cited above on mode effects in the Scottish Household Survey, the impact of the change of mode on how people respond to questions is smaller. This is partly because the SCJS is less reliant on long showcards to give visual cues to respondents, but also because of the ability of the SCJS to give paper showcards on the doorstep, an option that was not open to the SHS.

Conclusions

Overall, the analysis suggests that the any impact of the change in approach is small and unlikely to impact the key substantive measures. Differences between the pre- and post-pandemic waves are, for the most part, likely to present genuine changes in people's experiences and views, as opposed to being due to changes in how the survey was carried out.

Groups that have traditionally been under-represented in the SCJS historically and where weighting has had the great, such as those with relatively low household incomes, are the groups that have slightly lower estimates in the post-pandemic wave. That the profile of respondents in post-pandemic wave is slightly more affluent on a range of measure than the pre-pandemic wave is in line with previous literature around the impact of non-response.

Face-to-face approaches are better than other modes at including 'harder to reach' respondents, such as those who are less affluent and less educated. At the heart of this is the role interviewers play in persuading people to take part in surveys, particularly reluctant respondents. However, 'knock-to-nudge' approaches, where interviewers visit addresses to attempt to persuade people to take part face-to-face but conduct the survey interview remotely, tend to achieve more representative samples than opt-in models. 'Knock-to-nudge' approaches are better than opt-in approaches at ensuring that more people from harder to reach groups respond. who are unlikely to take part in opt-in only surveys.

Should the SCJS move away from a unimodal design to a mixed-mode design in the future, it will be important to minimise differences in relation to non-response bias and in relation to measurement error. That the SCJS does not rely heavily on showcards with large numbers of response categories means that it might be more suited to mixed-mode designs than other surveys without major revisions to the questionnaire to ensure questions are mode agnostic.

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Appendix 2: Additional Tables

Table A2.1: Response rate by police division by wave.

Response rate (RR) and number of respondents (N).

	2019/20 SCJS		SVTS		2021/22 SCJS	
	RR	N	RR	N	RR	N
Forth Valley	64%	573	40%	385	50%	651
Fife	56%	472	39%	384	44%	724
Greater Glasgow	55%	1,264	42%	803	39%	1,718
Renfrewshire and Inverclyde	60%	584	43%	345	42%	744
Argyll and West Dunbartonshire	70%	493	43%	341	46%	588
Lanarkshire	66%	988	34%	715	50%	1,211
Ayrshire	64%	608	37%	446	53%	769
Edinburgh City	66%	691	50%	444	47%	997
Lothians and Scottish Border	71%	649	47%	431	47%	766
Dumfries and Galloway	68%	454	42%	464	56%	613
Tayside	58%	554	40%	401	52%	834
Highlands and Islands	63%	498	49%	337	56%	664
North East	68%	867	42%	790	46%	1,177
Total	63%	8,695	42%	6,286	47%	11,456

Table A6.1: Individual characteristics by mode and stage of fieldwork. Post-pandemic wave. (Weighted figs)

	Knock to nudge stage				Return to in-home stage				All 2021-2022			
	F2f	Video	Phone	Total	F2f	Video	Phone	Total	F2f	Video	Phone	Total
Band age												
16-24	-	-	14.2%	14.2%	11.1%	-	10.7%	11.0%	11.1%	12.9%	12.8%	11.8%
25-44	-	-	28.8%	29.4%	31.3%	-	38.0%	33.0%	31.3%	44.4%	32.7%	32.1%
45-64	-	-	33.3%	33.1%	32.3%	-	32.8%	32.4%	32.3%	30.7%	33.1%	32.6%
65+	-	-	23.7%	23.4%	25.3%	-	18.4%	23.6%	25.3%	12.0%	21.5%	23.5%
Total	-	-	100%	100%	100%	-	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	14	51	1,229	1,294	3,235	39	938	4,212	3,249	90	2,167	5,506
Gender												
Male	-	-	47.5%	47.8%	48.7%	-	47.9%	48.5%	48.6%	53.2%	47.7%	48.3%
Female	-	-	52.5%	52.2%	51.3%	-	52.1%	51.5%	51.4%	46.8%	52.3%	51.7%
Total	-	-	100%	100%	100%	-	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	14	51	1,229	1,294	3,234	39	943	4,216	3,248	90	2,172	5,510
Educational Attainment												

No qualifications	-	-	8.6%	8.3%	9.9%	-	8.3%	9.4%	9.8%	3.3%	8.5%	9.1%
School quals	-	-	33.2%	32.5%	37.5%	-	32.2%	36.2%	37.5%	21.0%	32.8%	35.2%
SVQ Level 3 or 4	-	-	18.8%	18.9%	18.6%	-	20.8%	19.0%	18.7%	13.1%	19.7%	19.0%
HE/FE/ Prof quals	-	-	39.4%	40.3%	34.0%	-	38.7%	35.4%	34.0%	62.6%	39.1%	36.6%
Total	-	-	100%	100%	100%	-	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	14	50	1,220	1,284	3,106	39	933	4,078	3,120	89	2153	5,362
ILO status												
In employment	-	-	59.0%	59.9%	56.4%	-	67.0%	59.1%	56.4%	77.3%	62.4%	59.3%
ILO unemployed	-	-	2.1%	2.1%	2.7%	-	1.9%	2.5%	2.7%	3.6%	2.0%	2.4%
Inactive	-	-	38.9%	38.0%	40.9%	-	31.1%	38.4%	40.9%	19.1%	35.6%	38.3%
Total	-	-	100%	100%	100%	-	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	14	51	1,230	1,295	3,236	39	944	4,219	3,250	90	2,174	5,514

General health												
Very good	-	-	31.5%	31.1%	31.4%	-	32.7%	31.9%	31.4%	34.2%	32.0%	31.7%
Good	-	-	41.5%	42.4%	41.0%	-	43.8%	41.6%	41.0%	51.1%	42.5%	41.8%
Fair	-	-	20.3%	20.1%	20.1%	-	16.7%	19.2%	20.1%	13.9%	18.8%	19.4%
Bad	-	-	6.0%	5.7%	5.7%	-	5.5%	5.6%	5.7%	0.8%	5.8%	5.7%
Very bad	-	-	0.7%	0.8%	1.8%	-	1.2%	1.6%	1.8%	0.0%	0.9%	1.4%
Total	-	-	100%	100%	100%	-	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	14	51	1,220	1,285	3,217	39	937	4,193	3,231	90	2,157	5,478

Table A6.2: Geographical characteristics by mode and stage of fieldwork. Post-pandemic wave. (Weighted figs)

	Knock to nudge stage				Return to in-home stage				All 2021-2022			
	F2f	Video	Phone	Total	F2f	Video	Phone	Total	F2f	Video	Phone	Total
SIMD												
Most deprived	-	-	17.6%	17.1%	20.7%	-	18.9%	20.2%	20.7%	5.2%	18.2%	19.4%
2nd most	-	-	17.8%	17.5%	19.4%	-	19.4%	19.5%	19.4%	18.4%	18.5%	19.0%
Middle quintile	-	-	21.3%	21.0%	20.4%	-	21.8%	20.7%	20.5%	12.6%	21.5%	20.8%
4th	-	-	22.9%	22.7%	19.4%	-	20.6%	19.7%	19.4%	19.3%	21.9%	20.4%
Least deprived	-	-	20.3%	21.6%	20.1%	-	19.3%	20.0%	20.0%	44.5%	19.9%	20.4%
Total	-	-	100%	100%	100%	-	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	14	51	1230	1,295	3,236	39	944	4,219	3,250	90	2,174	5,514
Rurality												
Large urban areas	-	-	33.6%	34.0%	35.0%	-	32.8%	34.7%	35.0%	50.8%	33.2%	34.5%
Other urban areas	-	-	36.4%	36.4%	36.0%	-	33.7%	35.3%	36.1%	25.1%	35.2%	35.6%

Accessi ble small towns	-	-	10.3%	10.0%	7.7%	-	9.2%	8.1%	7.7%	7.6%	9.8%	8.5%
Remote small towns	-	-	3.4%	3.2%	3.6%	-	4.3%	3.7%	3.6%	0.0%	3.8%	3.6%
Accessi ble Rural	-	-	11.6%	11.7%	12.0%	-	12.1%	12.1%	12.0%	16.5%	11.8%	12.0%
Remote rural	-	-	4.8%	4.6%	5.7%	-	8.0%	6.1%	5.7%	0.0%	6.1%	5.8%
Total	-	-	100%	100%	100%	-	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	14	51	1,230	1,295	3,236	39	944	4,219	3,250	90	2,174	5,514

Table A6.3: Household characteristics by mode and stage of fieldwork. Post-pandemic wave. (Weighted figs)

	Knock to nudge stage				Return to in-home stage				All 2021-2022			
	F2f	Video	Phone	Total	F2f	Video	Phone	Total	F2f	Video	Phone	Total
Tenure												
Owner occupied	-	-	65.3%	65.6%	63.6%	-	64.5%	63.9%	63.5%	78.3%	65.0%	64.3%
Social rented	-	-	18.4%	17.9%	24.3%	-	23.9%	24.1%	24.3%	4.6%	20.7%	22.5%
Private rented	-	-	15.2%	15.5%	10.7%	-	10.0%	10.6%	10.8%	16.4%	13.0%	11.8%
Other	-	-	1.0%	1.0%	1.4%	-	1.6%	1.5%	1.4%	0.8%	1.3%	1.3%
Total	-	-	100%	100%	100%	-	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	13	51	1,220	1,284	3,213	38	932	4,183	3,226	89	2,152	5,467
Number of cars												
No car	-	-	24.1%	24.2%	26.3%	-	19.6%	24.7%	26.4%	17.1%	22.2%	24.6%
One car	-	-	46.2%	45.8%	46.0%	-	47.2%	46.2%	45.9%	39.7%	46.6%	46.1%
Two or more cars	-	-	29.7%	30.0%	27.7%	-	33.2%	29.1%	27.7%	43.2%	31.2%	29.3%
Total	-	-	100%	100%	100%	-	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	14	51	1,225	1,290	3,233	39	942	4,214	3,247	90	2,167	5,504

Household composition												
Single adult	-	-	16.4%	16.4%	18.9%	-	17.6%	18.7%	18.9%	16.9%	16.9%	18.1%
Single parent	-	-	5.4%	5.3%	6.0%	-	7.9%	6.4%	6.0%	2.8%	6.4%	6.1%
Single pensioner	-	-	18.6%	18.3%	19.1%	-	14.0%	17.8%	19.1%	7.4%	16.7%	17.9%
Small family	-	-	11.8%	11.9%	11.8%	-	15.8%	12.8%	11.8%	17.2%	13.5%	12.6%
Large family	-	-	4.0%	4.4%	5.7%	-	6.0%	5.8%	5.7%	11.4%	4.9%	5.5%
Small adult	-	-	16.6%	16.5%	13.0%	-	15.9%	13.8%	13.0%	22.0%	16.3%	14.5%
Large adult	-	-	9.2%	9.3%	7.3%	-	8.8%	7.6%	7.3%	10.0%	9.0%	8.1%
Older smaller	-	-	18.0%	17.9%	18.1%	-	13.9%	17.0%	18.1%	12.3%	16.3%	17.3%
Total	-	-	100%	100%	100%	-	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	14	51	1,230	1,295	3,236	39	944	4,219	3,250	90	2,174	5,514
Accommodation Type												
Detached/semi	-	-	47.9%	48.1%	45.6%	-	47.7%	46.1%	45.5%	53.0%	47.8%	46.6%
Terraced house	-	-	17.5%	17.3%	21.7%	-	20.2%	21.4%	21.6%	18.7%	18.6%	20.4%
Flat/maisonette	-	-	34.7%	34.6%	32.7%	-	32.0%	32.5%	32.7%	28.3%	33.5%	33.0%
Other	-	-	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	-	0.1%	0.1%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%

Total	-	-	100%	100%	100%	-	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	14	51	1,230	1,295	3,236	39	944	4,219	3,250	90	2,174	5,514
Annual household income												
Less than £5,200	-	-	2.1%	2.0%	2.6%	-	1.9%	2.4%	2.6%	0.0%	2.0%	2.3%
£5,200 - £10,399	-	-	9.2%	8.8%	9.2%	-	8.9%	9.1%	9.2%	3.0%	9.1%	9.0%
£10,400 - £15,599	-	-	13.5%	12.9%	12.0%	-	13.1%	12.2%	12.0%	2.9%	13.3%	12.4%
£15,600 - £20,799	-	-	9.2%	9.2%	12.3%	-	9.6%	11.6%	12.4%	5.2%	9.3%	11.0%
£20,800 - £25,999	-	-	11.3%	11.1%	12.7%	-	9.7%	11.9%	12.6%	7.4%	10.6%	11.7%
£26,000 - £36,399	-	-	14.1%	14.1%	12.8%	-	14.3%	13.2%	12.7%	17.0%	14.2%	13.4%
£36,400 - £51,999	-	-	16.6%	16.8%	15.8%	-	18.3%	16.3%	15.8%	14.5%	17.3%	16.4%
£52,000 - £77,999	-	-	14.2%	14.9%	12.5%	-	13.4%	12.8%	12.6%	26.2%	13.9%	13.4%
£78,000 or more	-	-	9.8%	10.1%	10.2%	-	11.0%	10.6%	10.2%	23.7%	10.3%	10.5%
Total	-	-	100%	100%	100%	-	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	13	49	996	1,058	2,438	32	754	3,224	2,451	81	1,750	4,282
Whether could find £100 to meet unexpected expense												
Impossible to find	-	-	2.0%	1.9%	2.2%	-	3.3%	2.5%	2.2%	0.0%	2.5%	2.3%

A big problem	-	-	3.4%	3.4%	5.5%	-	3.6%	5.1%	5.5%	3.9%	3.5%	4.7%
A bit of a problem	-	-	15.6%	15.7%	17.7%	-	15.8%	17.2%	17.8%	11.0%	15.7%	16.8%
No problem	-	-	78.9%	79.0%	74.6%	-	77.3%	75.3%	74.5%	85.1%	78.2%	76.2%
Total	-	-	100%	100%	100%	-	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	14	51	1,212	1277	3,184	38	928	4,150	3,198	89	2,140	5,427

Table A6.4: Victimization measures by mode and stage of fieldwork. Post-pandemic wave. (Weighted figs)

	Knock to nudge stage				Return to in-home stage				All 2021/2022			
	F2f	Video	Phone	Total	F2f	Video	Phone	Total	F2f	Video	Phone	Total
Victim of crime	-	-	9.3%	9.5%	9.3%	-	12.5%	10.2%	9.3%	18.4%	10.7%	10.0%
Victim of violent crime	-	-	1.4%	1.4%	2.1%	-	0.9%	1.8%	2.1%	1.1%	1.2%	1.7%
Victim of property crime	-	-	8.0%	8.3%	7.8%	-	11.6%	8.9%	7.8%	17.6%	9.5%	8.7%
Victim of repeat crime	-	-	2.9%	2.8%	2.6%	-	4.4%	3.0%	2.6%	2.7%	3.6%	3.0%
N	14	51	1,230	1,295	3,235	39	944	4,218	3,249	90	2,174	5,513

Table A6.5: Selected attitudinal measures by mode and stage of fieldwork. Post-pandemic wave. (Weighted figs)

	Knock to nudge stage				Return to in-home stage				All 2021/2022			
	F2f	Video	Phone	Total	F2f	Video	Phone	Total	F2f	Video	Phone	Total
How good a job do you think the police in this area are doing												
Excellent	-	-	9.6%	9.5%	8.1%	-	8.3%	8.2%	8.1%	9.3%	9.1%	8.5%
Good	-	-	43.3%	43.7%	41.8%	-	44.8%	42.5%	41.8%	49.8%	43.9%	42.8%
Fair	-	-	36.2%	36.2%	37.1%	-	35.5%	36.6%	37.1%	34.6%	35.9%	36.5%
Poor	-	-	8.8%	8.6%	10.3%	-	8.4%	9.8%	10.3%	6.0%	8.6%	9.5%
Very poor	-	-	2.1%	2.1%	2.8%	-	3.1%	2.9%	2.8%	0.3%	2.5%	2.7%
Total	-	-	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	14	47	1,184	1,245	3,091	38	909	4,038	3,105	85	2,093	5,283
Perceived change in crime rate in local area in last two years												
A lot more	-	-	6.0%	5.8%	5.3%	-	4.8%	5.1%	5.3%	0.9%	5.5%	5.3%
A little more	-	-	12.7%	12.6%	15.2%	-	18.7%	16.0%	15.2%	11.5%	15.3%	15.2%
About the same	-	-	71.9%	72.1%	71.3%	-	67.3%	70.4%	71.2%	79.5%	69.9%	70.8%

A little less	-	-	8.4%	8.7%	6.7%	-	9.0%	7.2%	6.8%	7.5%	8.7%	7.6%
A lot less	-	-	0.9%	0.8%	1.6%	-	0.2%	1.2%	1.5%	0.5%	0.6%	1.1%
Total	-	-	100%	100%	100%	-	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	10	44	1,022	1,076	2,708	27	799	3,534	2,718	71	1,821	4,610
How safe feels walking alone in local area after dark												
Very safe	-	-	31.4%	31.4%	39.8%	-	32.3%	38.0%	39.8%	30.6%	31.8%	36.3%
Fairly safe	-	-	42.0%	42.2%	38.9%	-	44.3%	40.2%	38.9%	46.1%	43.0%	40.7%
A bit unsafe	-	-	18.2%	18.3%	14.4%	-	16.6%	15.0%	14.4%	21.7%	17.5%	15.8%
Very unsafe	-	-	8.4%	8.1%	6.9%	-	6.8%	6.8%	6.9%	1.6%	7.7%	7.1%
N	14	51	1210	1,275	3,177	39	932	4,148	3,191	90	2,142	5,423