Misanthropolis: Do Cities Promote Misanthropy?

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Highlights:

- Using US General Social Survey (GSS, 1972-2016) we study effect of urbanicity on misanthropy (distrust and dislike of humankind).
- Places larger than several hundred thousand versus places smaller than few thousand people (but not the countryside) are more misanthropic.
- The effect size of urbanicity is about half of that of income.
- Misanthropy remained highest in large cities until around 2005.
- Around 2000, misanthropy for large cities (>250k) started to decline, and misanthropy for the small places (<10k) started to increase steeply.

Abstract

We use pooled U.S. US General Social Survey (GSS, 1972-2016) to examine study the effect of urbanism on misanthropy (distrust and dislike of humankind). Human evolutionary history Evolution (small group living), psychological (homophily or in-group preference), and classical urban sociological theories theory, and homophily or ingroup preference suggest that misanthropy should be observed develop in the most dense and heterogeneous places, such as large cities. Our results mostly agree: overall, over the past four decades, misanthropy is lowest in the smallest settlements (except for the countryside), and the effect size of urbanicity is about half of that of income. Yet, the rural advantage is disappearing—from 1990 to 2010, misanthropy has increased fastest in the smallest places (< 10k). One possible reason for this trend—is that smaller places have been left behind, and rural resentment has increased. The analysis is for the U.S., and the results Results may not generalize to other countriesoutside of the US. This is only the second quantitative study on this topic urbanicity-misanthropy and more research is needed to decisively find out whether cities are in fact more misanthropic.

KEYWORDS: CITY, URBANISM, TRUST, MISANTHROPY, DISTRUST, FAIRNESS, HELPFULNESS, US GENERAL SOCIAL SURVEY (GSS)

"The more I learn about people, the more I like my dog Here is the great city: here have you nothing to seek and everything to lose." 1 Nietzsche

¹Indeed, misanthropy can be a justified attitude towards humankind in light of how humans compare with certain animals (Cooper, 2018).

Mark Twain "Real misanthropes are not found in solitude, but in the world; since it is experience of life, and not philosophy, which produces real hatred of mankind." Giacomo Leopardi

"Whenever I tell people I'm a misanthrope they react as though that's a bad thing [...] I live in London, for God's sake. Have you walked down Oxford Street recently? Misanthropy's the only thing that gets you through it. It's not a personality flaw, it's a skill." Charlie Brooker

Urbanization has deeply affected many aspects of social, political, and economic life (Kleniewski and Thomas, 2010). Before industrialization took off, in the early 1800s, only a small percent of the worldpopulation lived in cities; by 1900, however, the proportion more than doubled, to 13 percent, as people moved to be near factories and industrial sites (Davis, 1955). In 1950, a third of the world population inhabited cities, and by 2050 it is estimated that city dwellers will represent approximately two thirds of the global population ().

As urbanization rampantly adds tens of millions of people to cities every year, it is important to understand how eity living urban way of life affects the human condition, particularly as it relates to social interactions. Amin (2006) argues that urban discontent emerges from the fact that: The present study is largely inspired by Amin (2006) and Thrift (2005), whose sharp observation of urban way of life suggest urban misanthropy:

"cities are polluted, unhealthy, tiring, overwhelming, confusing, alienating. They are places of low-wage work, insecurity, poor living conditions and dejected isolation for the many at the bottom of the social ladder daily sucked into them. They hum with the fear and anxiety linked to crime, helplessness and the close juxtaposition of strangers. They symbolize the isolation of people trapped in ghettos, segregated areas and distant dormitories, and they express the frustration and ill-temper of those locked into long hours of work or travel "(p. 1011). (Amin, 2006, p. 1011).

Many key urban experiences are the result of juxtapositions which are, in some sense, dysfunctional, which jar and scrape and rend. [...] There is, in other words, a misanthropic thread that runs through the modern city, a distrust and avoidance of precisely the others that many writers feel we ought to be welcoming in a world increasingly premised on the mixing which the city first brought into existence (Thrift, 2005, p. 140).

Notably Thrift (2005) proposes that "misanthropy is a natural condition of cities, one which cannot be avoided and will not go away" (p. 140). This leads to our research question: do cities promote misanthropy? present research—to conduct an empirical quantitative test of Thrift's hypothesis.

Such a hypothesis Urban misanthropy thesis may seem incongruous, especially amid current prourbanism discourse (Thrift, 2005, Amin, 2006, Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2015b, Peck, 2016). The current COVID19 pandemic, however, has brought this subject to the forefront as the need for social distancing might exacerbate arguably exacerbates misanthropy among urbanites. The avoidance and distrust of 'others' may intensify due to fear of infection, particularly in the largest and densest cities, due to fear of infection.

In this paper, we provide an up to date empirical analysis of the effect of urbanization on misanthropy by exploring this novel area quantitatively. We begin by defining these terms and discussing the literature on urbanism. We conduct empirical quantitative test over 1972-2016 of the urban misanthropy thesis. Paper is structured as follows: we first define misanthropy, and start with theory. We set the stage by bringing together human evolutionary history (small group living), classic urban sociological theory, and homophily or ingroup preference suggesting that misanthropy should be observed in the most dense and heterogeneous places, such as large cities. Next we discuss ways that urbanism may lead to dislike and distrust of humankind (misanthropy). We conclude literature review by pointing to gaps and bias: remarkably, there is only one quantitative study on urbanicity-misanthropy done 37 years ago without any following in the literature that is dominated by pro-urban bias. Our empirical analysis follows, and misanthropy, then present our model, documenting how we use the received literature to control for an extensive set of variables, discuss results, and conclude by highlighting the concludes with a proposition of the misanthropolis, a misanthropic metropolis. The takeaway for policy and practice . is that misanthropy should be of concern as it leads to tangible consequences—dissolution of social fabric and dysfunction. While some degree of misanthropy may be inherent to urbanism (Thrift, 2005) , some of it may be mitigated by poicies to bring people together. At the same time planners and practicioners must start paying attention to rural areas, which have been largely left behind with little resources—misanthropy has been growing most steeply there.

Urban Misanthropy

Misanthropy Definition

"Here is the great city: here have you nothing to seek and everything to lose." Nietzsche

Misanthropy stems from the Greek words *misos*, "dislike or hate," and *anthropos*, "humans." Misanthropy refers to the lack of faith in others and the dislike of people in general. Misanthropy is a critical judgment on human life caused by failings that are "ubiquitous, pronounced, and entrenched" (Cooper, 2018, p. 7).

Socrates (cited in Melgar et al., 2013) argued that misanthropy develops when one puts complete trust in somebody, thinking the person to be absolutely true, sound, and reliable, only to later discover that the person is deceitful, untrustworthy, and fake. When this happens to someone often, they end up hating everyone frequently, misanthropy develops.

Theory: Urbanism-Misanthropy Pathways

How can cities produce misanthropy? There are several pathways or mechanisms. In theroizing about urban misanthropy we draw on evolution, classic urban sociology, and homophily.

Early sociologists¹ proposed that urbanization created malaise due to three core characteristics of cities: size, density, and heterogeneity—increased population size creates anonymity and impersonality, density creates sensory overload and withdrawal from social life, and heterogeneity leads to anomie and deviance, and to lower trust and wellbeing (Park et al. ([1925] 1984), Simmel (1903), Tönnies ([1887] 2002), Wirth (1905).

Living in large, dense, and heterogeneous settlements (city living) is, at least in some ways, incompatible with human nature. Throughout our evolutionary history, for thousands of years, humans have lived in small, low-density homogeneous groups. As hunter gatherers, humans lived in small bands of 50 to 80 people; later, they formed simple horticultural groups of 100 to 150 people, finally clustering in groups as large as 5,000-6,000 thousand people as they evolved into more advanced societies (Maryanski and Turner, 1992).

Humans have in-group

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Humans have ingroup preference or homophily, and accordingly, lack preference for or dislike heterogeneity (Smith et al., 2014, McPherson et al., 2001, Bleidorn et al., 2016, Putnam, 2007), which is a key defining feature of cities (Wirth, 1938, Amin, 2006, Thrift, 2005). High diversity is related to lower trust and less social participation (Paper et al., 1999, Alesina and Ferrara, 2000, Luttmer, 2001, Alesina and La Ferrara, 2002, Rodríguez-Pose and von Berlepsch, 2019). Yet, at the same time, diversity can benefit the economy: create technological innovations, increase productivity levels, and enhance the supply and the quality of goods and services (Rodríguez-Pose and von Berlepsch, 2019)

All of the above is likely to lead to urban misanthropy.

¹White and White (1977) provides a wonderful summary of U.S. intellectual urban history. Interestingly, many urban critics lived and wrote in cities, e.g., Socrates in Athens, Benjamin Franklin in Boston and Philadelphia, Frank Wright in Chicago. Although Benjamin Franklin was not anti-urban, like Henry David Thoreau or Thomas Jefferson, he did note problems associated with urbanization (White and White, 1977, e.g., p. 32). We thank an anonymous reviewer for this point. Also note that much of the critical literature cited is dated—current literature tends to be pro-urban and dismiss the dark side of urbanism—this is the contribution of the present study: to build on the classic, often forgotten, theory, and to update dated analyses with the most current data available.

Literature: Urbanism and Distrust/Dislike of Humankind (Misanthropy)

We elaborate classic urban sociological literature suggesting urban misanthropy from pervious section, and complement it with other relevant literatures.

It is well-known that city life causes cognitive overload, stress, and coping (Simmel, 1903, Milgram, 1970, Lederbogen et al., 2011). An overloaded system can suppress stimuli resulting in blase attitude (Simmel, 1903)—city life can cause withdrawal, impersonality, alienation, superficiality, transitiveness, and shallowness (Wirth, 1938). Similarly, city life intensifies cunning and calculated behavior (Tönnies, [1887] 2002), estrangement, antagonism, disorder, vice, and crime (Milgram, 1970, Park, 1915, Park et al., [1925] 1984, Bettencourt and West, 2010), which can lead to aggressive responses when interacting with others. Urbanism negatively influences the quality of nearly all social relationships (Wilson, 1985). Moreover, urbanites tend to be ill-mannered and unreliable, which can lead to misanthropy (e.g., Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2015b, Okulicz-Kozaryn and Valente, 2017). It is not just city living, but growing also up in a city that is also-associated with negative consequences later in life (Lederbogen et al., 2011, Okulicz-Kozaryn and Valente, 2020).

Of many urban problems, next to crime, crowding may be especially conducive for misanthropy. Crowding can be a significant problem in large cities, which forces a large number of people to live in close proximity (household crowding) and in a small amount of space (residential crowding). Crowding is associated not only with higher levels of stress and depression, but also with aggression (Regoeczi, 2008, Calhoun, 1962).

There are striking examples of crowding in the largest and densest cities around the world. New York City, for example, offers 250 or even 100 sq feet apartments (Charlesworth, 2014, Yoneda, 2012, Weichselbaum, 2013). Some "cubbyholes," are yet smaller at 40 sq feet (Velsey, 2016). In other dense cities, like Hong Kong, crowding can be even worse (Stevenson and Wu, 2019). To be sure, the majority of the urban population does not live in such extreme crowding conditions, and crowding is also an issue in smaller areas—some people crowd in houses in small towns or villages. While high density is not the same as crowding, the two concepts are often correlated (Meyer, 2013), and urban crowding is probably becoming more common as cities are becoming less affordable $\frac{1}{2}$ (e.g., Misra, 2015, Florida and Schneider, 2018, Weinberg, 201

¹See for instance: Misra (2015), Florida and Schneider (2018), Weinberg (2011), Solari (2019), Schuetz (2019), Kotkin (2013). Density may impact pathology more than crowding (Levy and Herzog, 1974). Yet, it is not only density and crowding, other factors such as social support and expectations matter as well (Cassel, 2017, Chan, 1978). However, results are mixed; some studies didn't find negative effects of density or crowding (Collette and Webb, 1976). While it seems reasonable to assume that density and crowding are usually positively related, some studies do not find this to be the case (Webb, 1975, Rodgers, 1982). The literature about density and crowding is mostly dated as well. Current research should address this gap in the literature, especially as crowding is probably becoming more widespread. For a discussion and overview of density, crowding and human behavior see Boots (1979), Choldin (1978) and Ramsden (2009).

Concurrently, crime, traffic congestion, and incidence of infectious diseases (case in point, the current COVID19 crisis) do increase with population size (Bettencourt et al., 2010, Bettencourt and West, 2010, Bettencourt et al., 2007).

There is only a handful of writings focusing on misanthropy: Thrift (2005), Melgar et al. (2013), Keeling (2013), S. Gibson (2017) argues that his treatment of the subject is the most complete, and he makes two references indicative of urban misanthropy (p. 220): "Houellebecq matches this vision of hell with an insistent evocation of the anomic urban and metropolitan cityscapes," and on p. 153:

Situell's city is the citta infernale [hell city], and the city is where one confronts essential truth; nature, by contrast, is incidental, exists as nooks and byways. In the urban 'circles of hell', Situell writes, all the forms of misery congregate together. Here one learns all one needs about the 'old tyrannies and cruelties', 'the rankness of all human nature', 'this muddle and waste that we have made of the world'. Cities are places where 'men have created and known fear' as a consequence of 'the man-made chasms' between them.

The above reminds Engeles famous description of industrial city, which for sake of brevity is postponed to the SOM. It needs to be remmebered that the modern city and urbanization have started with industrial revolution. The main rationale for urbanism has been capitalistic and economic (O'Sullivan, 2009, Glaeser, 2011).

Steve Pile in his colorful writings about cities often invokes urban folklore characters that prey on humans in cities, e.g., vampires, werewolves, ghosts (Pile, 2005a,b, Pile et al., 1999). Specifically, old cities carry melancholia (Pile, 2005b), which can arguably translate into misanthropy.

Nietzsche, one of the greatest observers of the human condition , expressed misanthropic views himself (e.g., Avramenko, 2004) and made a powerful analogy using one the most iconic and crowded places in a city, the marketplace, while referring suggested urban misanthropy by referring to urbanites as "the flies in the market-place" (Nietzsche and Parkes, 2005). Also recall the initial quote by Nietzsche from the beginning of the paper: "Here is the great city: here have you nothing to seek and everything to lose."

The aforementioned arguments suggest that city life can make one become more distant from or hostile toward other human beings. ¹ Urban life is being "lonely in the midst of a million" (Twain), "lonesome together" (Thoreau), alienated (Wirth, 1938, Nettler, 1957), "awash in a sea of strangers" (Merry cited in Wilson, 1985, p. 99) in a "mosaic of little worlds which touch, but do not interpenetrate"

¹There are, however, multiple advantages of city life as discussed in the next section.

(Park et al., [1925] 1984, p. 40). Thus, we hypothesize:

Urbanicity contributes to increased levels of misanthropy.

Gaps (and Bias) in the Literature

The gap in the literature is two-fold. First, current urban literature tends to have a pro-urban bias (Peck, 2016), specifically avoiding urban misanthropy as if it were "a dirty secret" (Thrift, 2005, p. 134). Thus, we bring here largely forgoten, overlooked, and discontinued literatures from across the fields together. Second, there is only one quantitative study on the urbanicity-misanthropy. Thus, we improve, extend, and update the empirical analysis.

One contribution of the present study is to build on the classic, often forgotten, theory, and to update and extend dated analysis with the current data.

Academic thinking about cities has for the most part swung in a pro-urban direction decades ago.

There appears to be a pro-urban bias not only in the US (Hanson, 2015), but in general in world development (Lipton et al., 1977). The classical sociological urban theory (Wirth, 1938, Milgram, 1970, Park, 1915, Park et al., [1925] 1984, Simmel, 1903, Tönnies, [1887] 2002) gave way to sub-cultural theory (Fischer, 1975, 1995, Wilson, 1985, Palisi and Canning, 1983), while debates about the optimal size of a city (Richardson, 1972, Singell, 1974, Alonso, 1960, 1971, Elgin, 1975, Capello and Camagni, 2000) emanated in the-bigger-the-better ideology (Glaeser, 2011). Much of the critical literature brought to light here is overlooked—current literature tends to be pro-urban and dismisses the negative side of urbanism.

As a result, there is no recent interest in the urbanicity-misanthropy relationship—only two studies examine this relationship employing quantitative methods (Wilson, 1985, Smith, 1997). Smith (1997) lists only a simple bivariate correlation between urbanicity and misanthropy among dozens of other bivariate correlations in a General Social Survey technical report. The only quantitative study focusing on the urbanicity-misanthropy relationship is Wilson (1985)—such.

Remarkably, Wilson (1985) is only cited by 4 studies according to Google Scholar —Smith (1997) and 3 others. And none focuses on misanthopy. Thus, aside from Wilson (1985), there is simply no literature on this topic. Such gap in the literature is rare. extraordinarily rare. Indeed, given a 37 year

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gap in the literature, the present study is pioneering ground breaking study in the current generation of urban scholarship.

Wilson (1985) uses dated 1972-1980 GSS dataset, controls for only a handful of variables, and does not show trends over time. Arguably, like other contemporary social scientists such as Veenhoven (e.g., 1994), Meyer (and Fischer (e.g., 1982) Veenhoven (1994), Meyer (2013) and Fischer (1982), Wilson has a slight urban pro-urban bias—under-emphasizing and discounting urban problems.

The dearth lack of research on the link between urbanicity-misanthropy in urban studies seems to emerge from an avoidance to focus on the darker and misanthropic side of cities. As Nigel Thrift statedaptly observed, there is "a more deep-seated sense of misanthropy which urban commentators have been loath to acknowledge, a sense of misanthropy which is too often treated as though it were a dirty secret" (Thrift, 2005, p. 134): Many key urban experiences are the result of juxtapositions which are, in some sense, dysfunctional, which jar and scrape and rend. What do surveys show contemporary urban dwellers are most concerned by in cities? Why crime, noisy neighbors, a whole raft of intrusions by unwelcome others. There is, in other words, a misanthropic thread that runs through the modern city, a distrust and avoidance of precisely the others that many writers feel we ought to be welcoming in a world increasingly premised on the mixing which the city first brought into existence (Thrift, 2005, p. 140 ("misanthropic" bolded by us).

Advantages of City Life (Bias in Literature)

The vast majority of recent urban research has focused on the positive aspects of cities, a case in point being the bestselling book, the "Triumph of the City: How Our Greatest Invention Makes Us Richer, Smarter, Greener, Healthier, and Happier" (Glaeser, 2011). While Glaeser (2011) is remarkably misguided (Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2015b, Peck, 2016), it is important to underscore that this pro-urban trend has emerged due to the many benefits cities can real benefits that cities provide.

Many people, notably Millennials, are drawn to metropolitan areas (Okulicz-Kozaryn and Valente, 2018) given the many bright sides and positive aspects of city life: amenities, freedom, productivity, research and innovation, economic growth, wages, and multiple efficiencies related to density in transportation, public goods provision, and lower per capita pollution (Tönnies, [1887] 2002, O'Sullivan, 2009, Meyer, 2013, Rosenthal and Strange, 2002, Bettencourt et al., 2010). In general, there is no doubt that cities are the economic engines of today's economy. Even in terms of social relationships, cities have some advantages and score better than suburbs—although city life is related to impersonal social relations, cities have higher levels of social interaction, participation in religious groups and volunteering than the suburbs (Nguyen, 2010, Mazumdar et al., 2018).

Much of the impersonal social relations observed in cities is only for neighbor relation due to neighbor relations (Nguyen, 2010, Mazumdar et al., 2018). Concurrently, urbanites tend to have larger social networks and to socialize more frequently while having more opportunities to meet new friends or a partner (Mouratidis, 2018, 2017). Urbanites are able to more easily create their own communities in cities (e.g., shop in a particular bodega, use a specific laundromat, worship in a well-liked church/temple, frequent a preferred gym) and will socialize and trust those in their social bubble. If that trust is broken, it's easier to find another bodega, another laundromat, and so forth in a city. ¹ In rural and small communities, on the other hand, if trust is broken, it is more difficult to find a replacement and life can become cumbersome as gossip spreads. Urban heterogeneity and diversity can benefit the economy: create technological innovations, increase productivity levels, and enhance the supply and the quality of goods and services (Rodríguez-Pose and von Berlepsch, 2019).

Concurrently, "city air makes men free (Stadt Luft macht frei)" (Park et al., [1925] 1984, p.12)—diversity and the heterogeneity found in urban centers translate into increased tolerance and acceptance of others (Tuch, 1987, Wirth, 1938, Stephan and McMullin, 1982, Okulicz-Kozaryn and Valente, 2020). These are all important benefits of living in a city, as opposed to living in a village, the suburbs, or in a farmcountryside.

Urban living has drastically improved many aspects of life, notably cities are less polluted than they used to be and there is more redevelopment (e.g., Glaeser, 2011), which is perhaps why Millennials are happier in cities cities are becoming more happy recently (Okulicz-Kozaryn and Valente, 2018). Cities and large urban centers have more amenities compared to other places (O'Sullivan, 2009). In addition, there are greater returns from education in cities than smaller places, while also providing more economic opportunities (Florida et al., 2013).

Despite all of the benefits of city life, the question nonetheless, nonetheless, the question remains: could urban areas increase misanthropy? We explore and attempt to answer this question next.

Method

Data

We use unique data from the U.S. We use unique misanthropy measure from the 1972-2016 US General Social Survey (GSS; http://gss.norc.org). The GSS is a cross-sectional, nationally representative survey, administered annually since 1972 until 1994 when it became biennial. The unit of analysis is a

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person and data are collected in face-to-face in-person interviews (Davis et al., 2007). The full dataset contains about 60 thousand observations pooled over 1972-2016. All variables were recoded in such a way that a higher value means more.

Marsden et al. (2020) provides an useful overview of the GSS, one of the most widely used datasets in contemporary social science. The GSS has a wide range of attitude and behavior data, together with wide and deep body of background information including socioeconomic status, social mobility, social control, the family, civil liberties, and morality.

Misanthropy scale items and urbanicity meaures have been part of GSS since its first wave in 1972. The GSS takes care to ensure the over-time comparability of measures for trend analyses (Marsden et al., 2020), which is utilized in a current study of urbanicity and misanthropy over 4 decades. According to Marsden et al. (2020), the GSS prioritizes survey quality, maintaining response rates above the survey industry standard.

Research Design and Model

Research design is ex post facto (Mohr, 1995). Data are secondary, without any experimental manipulation, and our study is observational or correlational. Observational or correlational studies are not without merit—many scientific breakthroughs were first discovered in observational studies—for instance that smoking is related to cancer (e.g., Blanchflower and Oswald, 2011, Oswald, 2014). Furthermore, experimental data suffer from many critical problems that are not inherent in observational data such as lack of external validity, small sample size, and artificial laboratory setting. For a discussion see Pawson and Tilley (1997)

As explained in the next subsection, the dependent variable, misanthropy, is continuous. Hence, we simply use ordinary least squares (OLS) to analyze the relationship between misanthropy and urbanicity urbanicity and misanthropy. Multilevel techniques are not useful applicable as the GSS is only representative of large census regions, and we do not have the restricted GSS data with finer geographical information. GSS is a repeated cross-sections with different persons in each wave, hence panel data techniques are not applicable either.

Misanthropy

We measure misanthropy, the <u>distrust and</u> dislike of humankind, with a three item Rosenberg's misanthropy index (Rosenberg, 1956, Smith, 1997):

TRUST. "Generally speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted or that you can't be too careful in dealing with people?" 1 = "cannot trust," 2 = "depends," 3 = "can trust."

FAIR. "Do you think most people would try to take advantage of you if they got a chance, or would they try to be fair?" 1 = "take advantage," 2 = "depends," 3 = "fair."

HELPFUL. "Would you say that most of the time people try to be helpful, or that they are mostly just looking out for themselves?" 1 = "lookout for self," 2 = "depends," 3 = "helpful."

Rosenberg defines misanthropy as a general uneasiness, dislike, and apprehensiveness towards strangers (Rosenberg, 1956). Using these three questions the three items, we utilized factor analysis with varimax rotation to produce an index, and we reversed it so that it measures misanthropy. Cronbach's alpha is .67. The distributions of these items, as well as the descriptive statistics for all other variables, are in the Supplementary Online Material (SOM).

This measurement encompasses "faith in people," "attitudes towards human nature," and an "individual's view of humanity." Although, much controversy about the assessment of misanthropy exists in the literature, the Rosenberg scale has become the standard measure for self-reported misanthropy and was designed to assess one's degree of confidence in the trustworthiness, goodness, honesty, generosity and brotherliness of people in general (Rosenberg, 1956). The Rosenberg Misanthropy Scale measurement encompasses "faith in people," "attitudes towards human nature," and an "individual's view of humanity." The Rosenberg misanthropy scale has been a cornerstone on the GSS since 1972, and the measurement is not contaminated by social desirability bias (Ray, 1981). The Rosenberg Misanthropy scale is not only mainstream, but also misanthropy scale is the most popular and widely cited measurement of misanthropy. Some authors (e.g., Wuensch et al., 2002) have used other scales, but their approaches are disjoint from the mainstream literature, and there is not much discussion of the concept or measurement that they used in their research.

As per the survey questions, strictly speaking, it is not Strictly speaking, The Rosenberg scale does not measure the dislike of "all people," but of "most people" that we are measuring." Wilson (1985) suggests it is dislike of strangers, specifically. Likewise, recently Delhey et al. (2011) have argued that "most people" predominantly connotes out-groupsoutgroups. Note that this relates to homophily/in-group ingroup theory—a dislike for an out-group outgroup typically means relative preference for the in-groupingroup.

Urbanicity

Urbanicity is measured in three ways to show that the results are robust to the definition. First, it is measured using deciles of population size (SIZE). Deciles are used to investigate if there are any nonlinear effects on misanthropy. Then, two Two other variables are used to measure urbanism under their original GSS names: XNORCSIZ and SRCBELT. Both variables

Wilson (1985) uses these two variables in his study. One technical problem, however, is that he assumes that these variables are continuous. Wilson (1985) explicitly states that XNORCSIZ is an ordinal variable, and we disagree: one cannot really say whether a suburb is larger than an unincorporated large area and smaller than an area of 50 thousand people.

Both XNORCSIZ and SRCBELT categorize places into metropolitan areas, big cities, suburbs, and unincorporated areas. The advantage of SIZE is that it allows us to calculate a misanthropy gradient by the exact size of settlement. XNORCSIZ and SRCBELT take into account the fact that populations cluster at different densities (e.g., suburbs are less dense than cities). The GSS does not provide a density variable.

The SRC BELTCODESRCBELT measurement is arguably the best fitting to illustrate the urban vs. rural divide: the divide is between metropolitan areas vs. smaller areas (Hanson, 2015), and SRC BELTCODESRCBELT identifies the MSAs (metropolitan statistical areas)metropolitan areas (as Metropolitan Statistical Areas) and it classifies metros by their rank and size: small rur, small urb, 13-100 sub, 1-12 sub, 13-100 msa, 1-12 msa. The GSS detailed codebook descriptions are in SOM.

Controls

In the choice of the control variables we follow Welch et al. (2007) and Smith (1997). The higher the social standing, the more favorable view of others—thus we others—we control for income, education, and race. Social class literature suggests that individuals' social class should be assessed by using both objective (e.g., income and education) and subjective indicators (e.g., Kraus et al., 2009). ¹ Thus, a control for peopleThus, we control for person's perceived social classis included as well.

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¹We thank an anonymous reviewer for this important point. Subjective class correlates with education and income moderately at about .4 (either continuous or polychoric). On one hand, subjective class and urbanicity are likely to be confounded. On the other hand, it turns out that correlations of urbanicity measures and subjective class are very small, below .1 (either continuous or polychoric). The social class item in the GSS reads: "If you were asked to use one of four names for your social class, which would you say you belong in: the lower class, the working class, the middle class, or the upper class?" and is coded from 1 (lower) to 4 (upper). We will just treat it as a control variable and enter it as a continuous variable without using a set of dummies for simplicity.

Negative experiences are likely to increase misanthropy, therefore we control for fear of crime (there is no good measurement for adequate measurement of actual victimization in the GSS). Crime is important relevant because the larger the place, the more crime (Bettencourt and West, 2010, Wirth, 1938, White and White, 1977), and the more crime, the more misanthropy (Wilson, 1985). As explained by (Glaeser and Sacerdote, 1999) Glaeser and Sacerdote (1999), cities may create greater returns to crime because cities provide criminals more access to the wealthy and a greater range of victims in urban areas. Likewise, lower probability of arrest, and lower probability of recognition are features of urban life that make crime more likely (for a thorough discussion refer to Glaeser and Sacerdote (1999). The higher crime rates in big cities are particularly salient to our research given that fear Glaeser and Sacerdote (see 1999). Fear of crime can result in social problems such as lower interpersonal and institutional trust, change in behavioral patterns and lifestyle, and integration into the society (see Krulichová et al. (2018)).

We also control for unemployment, self-reported health, and age. Since divorceis We control for divorce, a predictor of misanthropy, we control for it and other marital statuses as well. Misanthropy should be higher among cultural groups and minorities that have been discriminated against, so we also against—we control for race, being born in the United States US, and religious denomination. Religious belief may reduce misanthropy—religions—misanthropy—religions commonly promote philanthropy and altruism. This is especially true of social religiosity (services attendance, church membership), but individual religiosity or believing (prayer, closeness, and belief in God) may actually increase misanthropy (Valente and Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2020). Misanthropy may be lower among older people, and there may be a curvilinear relationship, therefore we control for age and age². Men tend to be more misanthropic, so we misanthropic—we control for gender. Recent movers may be more misanthropic. There is not a good control for an adequate measure of recent moving in the GSS, but we use a proxy for international moving by controlling for being born in the US.

In addition, we control for subjective wellbeing¹ and health—the wellbeing—the goal is to alleviate possible a potential problem of spuriousness. It may be not the size of a place that causes higher misanthropybut it may be lack of success, but poor quality of life /unhappiness, or poor health that makes a person both move to a city and dislike other people. or unhappiness (Okulicz-Kozaryn and Valente, 2021) that correlates with both urbanicity and misanthropy. In addition, we control for health which may vary across urbanicity (e.g., Chen et al., 2019), and possibly unhealthy persons are more likely to be misanthropic. Concurrently, liberals and immigrants are more likely to live in cities and both groups are less satisfied with their lives (Berry and Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2011, Okulicz-Kozaryn et al., 2014) and

¹Unhappiness with city life is common in developed countries (Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2015b, Sørensen, 2014, Morrison and Weckroth, 2017, and quality of life/wellbeing may arguably impact misanthropy.

potentially more misanthropic. Thus, we control for political ideology and immigration status.

Data were pooled over many years 1972-2016, and hence we include year dummies. Also, there may be are substantial regional differences across the US, and we include a region US—we include a "South" dummy variable. All variables are defined along with survey questions in SOM.

Results

Table 1shows This section reports the empirical results for test of the hypothesis: urbanicity contributes to increased levels of misanthropy.

Tables 1, 2, and 3 show the regression results of misanthropy. We use three measures of urbanicity, one in each table, and each urbanicity measure is entered as a set of dummy variables to explore nonlinearities, and the base case is the smallest place in the case of SIZE and SRCBELT and the second smallest category on XNORCSIZ: "<2.5k, but not countryside." Coefficients of interest are those on the largest places such as the second largest category "192-618k", " and especially the largest ones one "618k-" in Table table 1, and corresponding the very largest and second second largest and the very largest places in Tables tables 2 and 3.

In the

The first column of each table (a1, b1, c1) the largest increase in misanthropy occurs in the largest placeshows coefficients from a basic regression of misanthropy on a set of dummy vairables for a given urbanicity measure without any control variables except South and year (not shown) dummies. The largest negative effect of urbanicity on misanthropy is observed for the largest places, as expected. In the case of SIZE and SRCBELT, the second largest effects tend to be on the second largest place, also as expected. In the case of XNORCSIZ, in addition to largest cities, the countryside (variable "country") is quite misanthropic, perhaps. This is an unexpected result—we have not hypothesized misanthropic countryside. Perhaps countrymen are not used to swarms of people or perhaps they are countrymen because they are misanthropic and distrust and dislike people. Keeling (2013) argues that the links between wilderness and misanthropy are false.

The second columns (a2, b2, c2) in the tables add controls following Welch et al. (2007) and Smith (1997). An The change in estimates is substantial across all three urbanicity measures—midsize places become much more misanthropic—now they are about half or third as misanthropic as the largest place (all urbanicity estimates are relative to the base case.) In table 2, an interesting result on the XNORCSIZ variable dummmies is misanthropic suburbs, so called "places of nowhere," thus confirming Kunstler (2012)'s critique of suburbs. We find that the " (Kunstler, 2012), thus confirming thesis of

Table 1: OLS regressions of misanthropy. Beta (fully standardized) coefficients reported. All models include year dummies. SIZE deciles (base: <2k).

	a1	a2	a3	a4	a4a	a4b	a4c
2-4k	0.01	0.02**	0.01**	0.01*	0.02	0.01*	0.01
4-8k	0.02***	0.03***	0.03***	0.03***	0.02**	0.02***	0.02
8-14k	0.01**	0.04***	0.03***	0.03***	0.03***	0.02***	0.02**
14-24k	0.00	0.03***	0.03***	0.02***	0.02*	0.02**	0.01
24-41k	0.01	0.04***	0.03***	0.02***	0.02**	0.02**	0.02*
41-79k	0.01*	0.04***	0.04***	0.03***	0.02*	0.02**	0.01
79-192k	0.03***	0.04***	0.04***	0.03***	0.01	0.02**	-0.00
192-618k	0.04***	0.05***	0.05***	0.04***	0.02**	0.02***	0.01
618k-	0.09***	0.09***	0.09***	0.07***	0.05***	0.05***	0.02**
South	0.12***	0.10***	0.09***	0.10***	0.09***	0.09***	0.07***
subjective class identification		-0.10***	-0.10***	-0.09***	-0.09***	-0.08***	-0.08***
family income in \$1986, millions		-0.08***	-0.07***	-0.05***	-0.04***	-0.05***	-0.04***
protestant		-0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.00	-0.01	-0.01
catholic		-0.02***	-0.02***	-0.01	-0.02*	-0.01	-0.02
unemployed		0.01**	0.01**	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
age		-0.32***	-0.34***	-0.39***	-0.47***	-0.41***	-0.50***
age squared		0.13***	0.14***	0.18***	0.25***	0.20***	0.28***
highest year of school completed		-0.24***	-0.24***	-0.22***	-0.21***	-0.22***	-0.20***
male		0.03***	0.03***	0.02***	0.04***	0.03***	0.05***
married			0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
widowed			0.02***	0.01	-0.01	0.00	-0.01
divorced			0.04***	0.02***	0.02*	0.02***	0.02*
separated			0.04***	0.03***	0.02***	0.02***	0.02**
never married			0.01	-0.01	-0.02**	-0.02**	-0.03***
conservative				0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01
liberal				-0.03***	-0.02**	-0.03***	-0.02***
born in the U.S.				-0.02***	-0.02**	-0.00	-0.00
SWB				-0.13***	-0.14***	-0.12***	-0.13***
afraid to walk at night in neighbor-					0.09***		0.09***
hood							
white household						-0.12***	-0.12***
N	38236	33549	33545	27522	14034	27082	13799

*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1; robust std err

poor social fabric in American suburbia (Duany et al., 2001, Kunstler, 2012, Kay, 1997). Overall, we find that having controlled for a standard set of misanthropy predictors, the midsize places are more misanthropic, and still the largest places are most misanthropic than smallest places (the base case for all estimates). The larger the place, the more misanthropy.

The addition of marital status in model 3 attenuates the effect slightly. The doesn't change the estimates, and the addition of extra controls in model 4 ¹ attenuates the slopes considerably by about a third or half. The "192-618k" size decile is similar in magnitude to midsize places—they are all more misanthropic than the base case, which in this case is places smaller than 2k. And "618k-" is markedly larger, about twice as large as "192-618k. "only slightly across all three measures of urbanicity. While the fullest specifications are the least biased in terms of omitted variables, the sample size is much

¹While the fullest specifications are the least biased in terms of omitted variables, the sample size is less than half of the more basic models due to missing observations on additional variables. These most elaborate specifications are rather over-saturated models with too many non-essential controls and collinearity. This is only a robustness check, not the most final or appropriate model. Note that Smith (1997) and Wilson (1985) did not control for political affiliation, or subjective wellbeing.

Table 2: OLS regressions of misanthropy. Beta (fully standardized) coefficients reported. All models include year dummies. XNORCSIZ (base: <2.5k, but not countryside).

	b1	b2	b3	b4	b4a	b4b	b4c
countryside	0.03***	0.03***	0.03***	0.04***	0.05***	0.04***	0.04***
2.5-10k	0.02***	0.02***	0.02***	0.02***	0.02**	0.02**	0.02
10-50k	0.03***	0.03***	0.03***	0.03***	0.03***	0.03***	0.02**
uninc med	0.00	0.02***	0.02***	0.03***	0.03**	0.03***	0.03**
uninc lrg	0.00	0.03***	0.03***	0.03***	0.03**	0.02***	0.02*
med sub	0.02**	0.04***	0.04***	0.05***	0.05***	0.04***	0.04***
lrg sub	0.03***	0.08***	0.08***	0.08***	0.07***	0.06***	0.05***
50-250k	0.04***	0.05***	0.05***	0.05***	0.03**	0.03***	0.01
gt 250k	0.10***	0.10***	0.10***	0.09***	0.07***	0.07***	0.04***
South	0.12***	0.10***	0.09***	0.10***	0.09***	0.09***	0.07***
subjective class identification		-0.10***	-0.10***	-0.09***	-0.09***	-0.08***	-0.08***
family income in \$1986, millions		-0.08***	-0.07***	-0.06***	-0.05***	-0.05***	-0.04***
protestant		-0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.00	-0.01	-0.01
catholic		-0.02***	-0.02***	-0.01	-0.02*	-0.01	-0.02
unemployed		0.01**	0.01**	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
age		-0.32***	-0.34***	-0.39***	-0.47***	-0.41***	-0.50***
age squared		0.12***	0.13***	0.17***	0.25***	0.20***	0.28***
highest year of school completed		-0.24***	-0.24***	-0.22***	-0.21***	-0.22***	-0.20***
male		0.03***	0.03***	0.02***	0.04***	0.03***	0.05***
married			0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
widowed			0.02***	0.01	-0.01	0.00	-0.01
divorced			0.04***	0.02***	0.02*	0.02***	0.02*
separated			0.04***	0.03***	0.02***	0.02***	0.02**
never married			0.01	-0.01	-0.02**	-0.02**	-0.03***
conservative				0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01
liberal				-0.03***	-0.02**	-0.03***	-0.03***
born in the U.S.				-0.02***	-0.02**	-0.00	-0.00
SWB				-0.13***	-0.14***	-0.12***	-0.13***
afraid to walk at night in neighbor-					0.09***		0.09***
hood							
white household						-0.12***	-0.12***
N	38236	33549	33545	27522	14034	27082	13799

*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1; robust std err

smaller than the more basic models due to missing observations on additional variables. These most elaborate specifications are rather over-saturated models with collinearity and too many non-essential controls. These models rather serve as a robustness check, not the most final or appropriate model. Note that Smith (1997) and Wilson (1985) did not control for political affiliation or subjective wellbeing.

Model 4a adds "AFRAID TO WALK AT NIGHT IN NEIGHBORHOOD" to model 4, and model 4b adds a "WHITE HOUSEHOLD" dummy to model 4, and finally model 4c adds both variables. The rationale for three models 4a, 4b, and 4c is that the sample size drops by about half due to missing data when adding "AFRAID TO WALK AT NIGHT IN NEIGHBORHOOD" to the model. Furthermore, race is likely to play role not only with respect to urbanicity and misanthropy, but it may also correlate with being "AFRAID TO WALK AT NIGHT IN NEIGHBORHOOD," e.g., whites may be more afraid than others. We use three models 4a, 4b, and 4c with different combinations of the two variables to test robustness of the results. In Table

In table 1 in a4c and Table table 2 in b4c, the largest places remain significantly more misanthropic than the smallest places (<2-2.5k, but not countryside, yet the magnitude of

Table 3: OLS regressions of misanthropy. Beta (fully standardized) coefficients reported. All models include year dummies. SRCBELT (base: small rur).

	c1	c2	c3	c4	c4a	c4b	c4c
small urb	-0.01	0.02**	0.02*	0.01*	0.02*	0.01	0.02
13-100 sub	-0.01	0.04***	0.04***	0.03***	0.02*	0.02***	0.02
1-12 sub	-0.00	0.06***	0.05***	0.04***	0.04***	0.03***	0.03***
13-100 msa	0.03***	0.04***	0.04***	0.04***	0.02	0.02***	-0.00
1-12 msa	0.08***	0.09***	0.08***	0.07***	0.05***	0.05***	0.03***
South	0.12***	0.10***	0.10***	0.10***	0.09***	0.09***	0.08***
subjective class identification		-0.10***	-0.10***	-0.09***	-0.09***	-0.08***	-0.08***
family income in \$1986, millions		-0.08***	-0.07***	-0.06***	-0.05***	-0.05***	-0.04***
protestant		-0.01	-0.00	0.00	0.01	-0.01	-0.01
catholic		-0.02***	-0.02***	-0.01*	-0.02*	-0.01	-0.02
unemployed		0.01**	0.01**	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
age		-0.33***	-0.35***	-0.39***	-0.47***	-0.41***	-0.50***
age squared		0.13***	0.14***	0.18***	0.25***	0.21***	0.29***
highest year of school completed		-0.24***	-0.24***	-0.22***	-0.21***	-0.22***	-0.20***
male		0.03***	0.03***	0.02***	0.04***	0.03***	0.05***
married			0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
widowed			0.02***	0.01	-0.01	0.00	-0.01
divorced			0.04***	0.02***	0.02*	0.02***	0.02*
separated			0.04***	0.03***	0.02***	0.02***	0.02*
never married			0.01	-0.01	-0.02**	-0.02***	-0.03***
conservative				0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01
liberal				-0.03***	-0.02**	-0.03***	-0.03***
born in the U.S.				-0.02***	-0.01*	-0.00	0.00
SWB				-0.13***	-0.14***	-0.12***	-0.13***
afraid to walk at night in neighbor-					0.09***		0.09***
hood							
white household						-0.12***	-0.12***
N	38236	33549	33545	27522	14034	27082	13799

*** p < 0.01, ** p < 0.05, * p < 0.1; robust std err

the effect on the largest places is not greater than that for mid-sized places, suburbs, and even the countryside). As. Such result could be puzzling. But as argued earlier, SRCBELT is the variable that measures probably captures best the urban-rural divide, and in Table using SRCBELT in table 3 in model c4c, it is the very largest places (both 1-12 msa, and 1-12 sub) that are markedly different from other places. more misanthropic than all other places vs. the base case, the smallest places.

The overall conclusion is that the places housing upto few thousand people (except countryside) are the most liking and trusting humankind or least misanthropic (least misanthropic). In other words, there is misanthropy in the larger places larger places, especially the largest places—places bigger than several hundred thousand people versus the smallest places (upto few thousand people, and not the countryside).

The effect sizes are considerable—all tables report beta coefficients and the effect size of the largest place is at least about as large as half of the effect of income. In addition, city living has an enormous practical effect size due to the urbanization scale—each year cities grow by tens of millions of people. To summarize, we find weak to moderate support for our initial hypothesis that urbanicity is related to increased misanthropy. Yet, The results are only weak to mederate, and not strong, because the effect sizes are small to moderate, not large. In addition, there are caveats to this conclusion—the results as

elaborated in the discussion section.

OLS regressions of misanthropy. Beta (fully standardized) coefficients reported. All models include year dummies. Size deciles (base: <2k). *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1; robust std err

Analysis Over Time

OLS regressions of misanthropy. Beta (fully standardized) coefficients reported. All models include year dummies. Xnoresiz (base: <2.5k, but not country). *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1; robust std err-

OLS regressions of misanthropy. Beta (fully standardized) coefficients reported. All models include year dummies. Srebelt (base: small rur). *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1; robust std err

A Look over Time

Next, we complement our analysis by exploring We complement our pooled data analysis with an investigation of over-time change in the relationship between urbanicity and misanthropy over time. The misanthropy—again, the advantage of the GSS is that it allows us to compare a span of over four decades a long time span of 1972-2016. Figure 1 shows plots misanthropy by size of place over time.

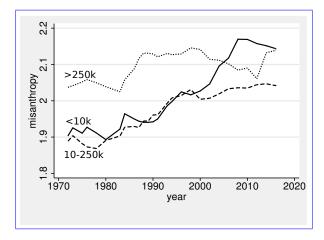


Figure 1: Misanthropy by size of population over time. Smoothed with moving average filter using 3 lagged, current, and 3 forward terms.

Overall, misanthropy remained highest in the large cities until recently. Yet, around about 2005. Around 2000, the trends have changed—misanthropy for the largest cities (>250k) started to decline, and it started to increase steeply misanthropy for the smallest places (<10k). Over the four decades, misanthropy has been increasing steadily started to increase steeply. Misanthropy for medium sized places (10-250k) has been mostly increasing over 1972-2016. Hence, the overall urban misanthropy is arguably due to earlier time periodsfinding of urban misanthropy for the largest places is due to pre-2005 period. These patterns are similar when controlling for predictors of misanthropy. Predicted values are plotted in Figure 2, based on the regression from column from regression a3a from Table in table 6 in the SOM—are plotted in figure 2.

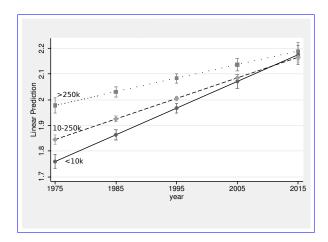


Figure 2: Misanthropy by size of population over time. Predicted values from the regression on column a3a from table 6 in the SOM. 95% CI shown.

There is convergence in misanthropy across urbanicity over time, with the smallest places increasing their level of misanthropy the most. Misanthropy has increased across all urbanicity levels in the US over 1972-2016, but it has increased the most in the smallest places. Note that the interactive regression specification used to produce the predicted values plotted in figure 2 is for simplicity linear and does not allow for nonlinearities observed for raw values in figure 1.

Misanthropy by size of population over time. Smoothed with moving average filter using 3 lagged, current, and 3 forward terms. In few years as data become available, it will be instructive to find out whether COVID19 pandemic has caused the trends to reverse. Largest cities have likely become more misanthropic again.

Misanthropy by size of population over time. Predicted values from the regression on column a3a from Table 6 in the Appendix. 95% CI shown.

Conclusion and Discussion

This study seeks to spark debate on an overlooked area of urban studies. Our results suggest the existence of *Misanthropolis*—a misanthropic metropolis, where distrust and dislike for humankind abound. "Real misanthropes are not found in solitude, but in the world; since it is experience of life, and not philosophy, which produces real hatred of mankind. Term *misanthropolis* is coined by one of the authors." Giacomo Leopardi

In this article, we have focused on a remarkably novel area, the urbanicity-misanthropy nexus.

¹ Evolutionary history Evolution (small group living), psychological theory (homophily or in-group

¹For a long time social scientists have tried to understand how urbanization affects human beings. Yet, the most sharp

preference), and classical urban sociological theory, and homophily or ingroup preference all suggest that human dislike for other humans should be observed in the most dense and heterogeneous places such as cities. Our results mostly agree: misanthropy is lowest in the smallest settlements (but not in the countryside), and the effect size of urbanicity is about half of that of income. There are important caveats, however.

First, the effect sizes are small to moderate, not strong, about half of the effect of income. Second, it is only the second study (after Wilson, 1985) on the topic and more data and research are needed to form more reliable conclusions. Second Third, the urban misanthropy thesis holds up relatively robustly only for the large cities only (with more (larger than several hundred thousand people). Some places in between, such as larger towns or suburbs, are not misanthropic depending on the model analyzed. Third specification. Fourth, the level of misanthropy in smaller areas is now reaching about the same level as in large cities. Fifth, our study uses the US data only, and conclusions may not generalize outside of the US. Sixth, this is correlational study, and causality may not be present.

As compared to the most complete study to date on the relationship between misanthropy and urbanicity, Wilson (1985), our analysis uses more data, an extensive For these reasons, the evidence in support of the urban misanthropy thesis is weak to moderate, but not strong. We would like to stress, however, that we do find strong evidence that, overall, cities are not less misanthropic than smaller places, and this in itself is a counter-intuitive finding worth reporting amidst current pro-urbanism discourse (e.g., Glaeser, 2011). In addition, even small to moderate effect sizes of urbanicity on misanthropy found in this study have an enormous practical combined effect size due to the sheer scale of urbanism—half of world population is urban and growing by tens of millions every year. Hence, the small to moderate effect sizes found in the present study translate into large or very large effects in the aggregate.

We fill an extraordinary gap in the literature, where there exists only one study conducted 37 years ago without any following in the literature. Our study improves, extends, and updates the research by Wilson (1985). Our analysis uses much more data spanning 4 decades, larger set of control variables, and levels of size variables without forcing untenable assumption of interval/ratio scale and linear effects. Our results do not necessarily contradict, but rather extend Wilson (1985): there. There is misanthropy in the largest places for everyone (and we find more robust evidence than Wilson (1985); and concurrently did. Concurrently we confirm the finding by Fischer (1981) of a relatively strong relationship between community size and distrust). In addition, we also find that there is especially misanthropy for whites, and that rural misanthropy is on the rise.

and critical observations were published decades ago—it is our contribution to connect with the illuminating classical studies amid current pro-urbanism trends. We offer the first up to date quantitative test based on a classic theoretical background.

The magnitude of the effect of urbanicity is important to considerdiscuss. There is evidence of a large magnitude effect of urbanicity on trusting behavior. In one experiment, trust differed several-folds between city and town, a larger difference than across gender—the trust benefit of being female over male is smaller than the benefit of town over city (Milgram, 1970). While our results do not indicate a very strong effect of urbanicity on misanthropy, we do find a substantial effect—about half of the effect of income in our analysis —contraposing Wilson (1985), who argued that there is only a small effect.

As in any correlational study, we cannot claim causality. There are, however, reasons to believe that urbanism can cause misanthropy. Size, density, and heterogeneity are theoretically linked to many negative emotions (Wirth, 1938), and make general dislike for humankind likely. Homophily and evolutionary arguments discussed earlier also support this reasoning.

1 Furthermore, there is neurological evidence that city living is unhealthy to the human brain (Lederbogen et al., 2011) and experimental evidence that city living causes lower trust (Milgram, 1970).

Reverse causality would not make sense: misanthropy or hatred_distrust/dislike of people, should not lead someone to live in places like cities, unless one perhaps close proximity to many people, in a city, unless perhaps one self-destructive or wants to harm people in some way, clearly these others—clearly such cases are rare. ¹ This rationale should also exclude self-selection—if anything, people who love to be among many people, people, not misanthropes, would choose to move to cities and not misanthropes. This can also perhaps explain the result that while misanthropy is high in the largest cities, it is also high in the smallest places of all: , the countryside. Arguably, many people tired of urban crowds move to smaller rural areas (e.g., Dewey, 2017).—the countryside (e.g., Dewey, 2017). On the other hand, another potential reason for a misanthrope, or any non-conformist type, to live in a city (or wilderness; but not village or small town), is anonymity.

Can the relationship between urbanicity and misanthropy be spurious? Cities have many problems: notably urban poverty and urban crime—these problems could intensify misanthropy. In other words, if it were not for urban problems, then urbanicity would urban areas without urban problems may not cause misanthropy. There are many urban problems, and we We cannot control for all of themurban problems, but we have controlled for the key urban problem leading to misanthropy: fear of crime, and we also controlled for personal income. But what about an ideal cityaccounted for poverty by controlling for family income.

Still, would there be urban misanthropy if there were no urban problems? Should we expect misanthropy in a city with low crime rates, low levels of inequality, with lots of plentiful affordable amenities,

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parks, and public spaces, etc.? Possibly yes, but not at the same magnitude and so forth? There is still likely to be urban misanthropy even in the absence of urban problems. All large cities have high population definition large population, moderate-high or high density (as compared to smaller places), and are also relatively heterogeneous, and usually moderate or high heterogeneity as compared to smaller places, and these core characteristics places—these are the likely drivers of misanthropy. Indeed, some degree of misanthropy arguably is a natural state of urban life—we agree with Thrift: "misanthropy is a natural condition of cities, one which cannot be avoided and will not go away" (Thrift, 2005).

Two apparently important missing variables are measures of discontent and inequality. However, both inequality (e.g., Daley, 2020) ¹ and arguably discontent ¹, especially recently (e.g., Case and Deaton, 2015, Hans are higher in rural areas. Therefore, potential left out variable bias in our results is actually conservative—our results would have been stronger, had we controlled for these variables. In addition, Americans are quite resilient to inequality, at least as compared to Europeans (Alesina et al., 2004), and hence inequality may not matter much for misanthropy in the US. Still, only future research could decisively answer this question. future research should test whether inequality and discontent affect the results.

Our analysis is limited by the dataset used. Future research should also control for numerous urban amenities (e.g., parks, public spaces) affecting quality of life in cities, and examine the urbanity-misanthropy nexus of specific metropolitan areas in the United States. The US GSS public version of the dataset used here does not allow for identification of municipalities.

Another venue for future research is to examine the effect of urbanicity during one's childhood: does urban upbringing affect one's misanthropy later in life? We know that urban upbringing has negative consequences on neural processing and subjective wellbeing (SWB) later in life (Lederbogen et al., 2011, Okulicz-Kozaryn and Valente, 2020).

Why are smaller places becoming more misanthropic like cities? One possible explanation is that rural folks and smaller places are being left behind (Fuller, 2017, Hanson, 2015, Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2018, Okulicz-Kozaryn and Valente, 2018, Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2015b)—rural areas are economically disadvantaged (Glaeser, 2011, O'Sullivan, 2009, Florida, 2021)—economic and educational opportunities, as well as other social benefits seem to abound in cities as previously discussed, and in general there is a prourban bias in world development (Lipton et al., 1977). There is clearly rural resentment which could

¹While inequality is rising fastest in urban areas, it was still higher in rural areas over the period of the study.

¹One may debate where the level of discontent is higher (Florida, 2021), but much research points to rural areas: (e.g., Case and Deaton, 2015, Hanson, 2015, Fuller, 2017). Likewise, one may argue that both inequality and discontent are making Americans blame others and therefore become more misanthropic. Again, if anything this should be observed even more in rural areas. And Americans are actually quite resilient to inequality, at least as compared to Europeans (Alesina et al., 2004).

lead to increasing rural misanthropy, which we observed in this study, ¹ particularly as rural folks feel that they are being governed by an urbanized elite (Wuthnow, 2018). As stated by a Californian farmer (Fuller, 2017, p. 2), "They've devastated the jobs, timber jobs, mining jobs with their environmental regulations, so yes, we have a harder time sustaining the economy, and therefore there's more people that are in a poorer situation." (Wuthnow, 2018, Fuller, 2017).

This is only the second quantitative study on this topic and more research isneeded to decisively find out whether cities are more misanthropic. Yet, we do find strong evidence that cities are not less misanthropic than smaller places, and this in itself is a counter-intuitive finding worth reporting amidst current pro-urbanism discourse.—Smith (1997) argued that the more subordinate a group is, and the more isolated the members of the group are, the greater the misanthropy. This could help to explain rural misanthropy. Although, the rural resentment may be more against cities or urbanites, rather than people in general. We thank an anonymous reviewer for this point.

Major Takeaway for Policy and Practice

Takeaway for Policy and Practice

"Whenever I tell people I'm a misanthrope they react as though that's a bad thing ...I live in London, for God's sake. Have you walked down Oxford Street recently? Misanthropy's the only thing that gets you through it. It's not a personality flaw, it's a skill." Charlie Brooker¹

This study seeks to spark debate on an overlooked area of urban studies. Our results find support for the existence of *Misanthropolis*¹—metropolitan areas where distrust and dislike for humankind abound.

It is undeniable that there are many multiple economic, environmental, and social advantages to cities as briefly discussed earlier. Cities are largely necessary, and so is perhaps urban misanthropy—to survive and function in a city. This echoes Simmel's blase attitude of an urbanite—in order to survive and function in a city, one must withdraw (Simmel, 1903). Or as put common-sensically by Charlie Brooker: "I live in London [...] Misanthropy's the only thing that gets you through it. It's not a personality flaw, it's a skill." Recent neurological evidence confirms Simmel's observations—urban way

¹Smith (1997) argued that the more subordinate a group is, and the more isolated the members of the group are, the greater the misanthropy. Although, the rural resentment may be more against cities or urbanites, rather than people in general. We thank an anonymous reviewer for this point.

¹This echoes Simmel's blase attitude—in order to survive in a city, one must withdraw; see also Milgram (1970) and Lederbogen et al. (2011). As discussed in this section, cities are largely necessary, and so is perhaps misanthropy—to survive in a city.

¹Term coined by one of the authors.

of life is unhealthy to human brain (Lederbogen et al., 2011). Also see Milgram (1970) for experminetal evidence documenting negative effects of urban way of life. There are serious disandvantages of urban way of life, and they should be taken into account by planners and practicioners.

Advocating for living in smaller areas for most people is problematic and unrealistic. The U.S. and The US and world populations are projected to grow for some time and perhaps level off, but a dramatic decline is unlikely. Low-density Achieving low-density non-urban living for most people is simply impossible problematic and unrealistic, but more consideration should be given to smaller areas that have been left behind, as lamented by some (e.g., Fuller, 2017, Hanson, 2015), but not heard by most. Redirecting resources away from An alarming emergency is so called "deaths of despair"—Americans killing themselves out of despair—and the problem is more rural than urban or suburban (Case and Deaton, 2015, 2020). Denying resources to smaller places should be given more thought and consideration.

Although heterogeneity can contribute to misanthropy in cities, if mechanisms are in place to facilitate dialogue across different groups and if people are encouraged to interact with each other, that is, if the "melting pot" really happens, and the "other" becomes a fellow human being, then diversity can yield important social and economic benefits (Rodríguez-Pose and von Berlepsch, 2019). There is a case to be made in favor of more recreational opportunities and events, community services, and social spaces in the largest cities to promote social connections and create a sense of community. It is up for future research to Future research should determine whether these recommendations can in fact curtail misanthropy in cities. Auxiliary evidence already exists. Again, distrust and dislike are largerly about strangers and outgroups (Wilson, 1985, Delhey et al., 2011), and we know interventions to turn outgroups into ingroups, e.g., a new group such as a sports team can be formed to turn strangers into an ingroup (e.g., Smith et al., 2010).

Misanthropy may not seem tangible or meaningful for <u>urban planners and</u> practitioners at a first glance. However, when When consideration is given to how misanthropy can cause negative outcomes, there is a reason however, there are reasons to be concerned. Misanthropy reduces people's desire to invest and to be involved in their communities and may remove social bonds that deter people from harming others (Weaver, 2006, Hirschi and Gottfredson, 1993, Fafchamps and Minten, 2006, Walters and DeLisi, 2013). Furthermore, misanthropy is correlated with dysfunctional and animus behaviors such as homophobia, sexism, racism, and ageism (Cattacin et al., 2006).

It is impossible to overlook the current COVID19 pandemic—infectious disease spread the worst in large cities (Bettencourt et al., 2010). This health crisis will arguably further exacerbate misanthropy in the largest metropolitan areas, as fear and suspicion of the 'other' increases—many people fled New

York City, for example, to stay away from other people.

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SOM-R (Supplementary Online Material-for Review)

0.1 Engels Description of Industrial City

In a rather deep hole, in a curve of the Medlock and surrounded on all four sides by tall factories and high embankments, covered with buildings, stand two groups of about two hundred cottages, built chiefly back to back, in which live about four thousand human beings, most of them Irish. The cottages are old, dirty, and of the smallest sort, the streets uneven, fallen into ruts and in part without drains or pavement: masses of refuse, offal and sickening filth lie among standing pools in all directions; the atmosphere is poisoned by the effluvia from these, and laden and darkened by the smoke of a dozen tall factory chimneys. A horde of ragged women and children swarm about here, as filthy as the swine that thrive upon the garbage heaps and in the puddles. In short, the whole rookery furnishes such a hateful and repulsive spectacle as can hardly be equalled in the worst court on the Irk. The race that lives in these ruinous cottages, behind broken windows, mended with oilskin, sprung doors, and rotten doorposts, or in dark, wet cellars, in measureless filth and stench, in this atmosphere penned in as if with a purpose, this race must really have reached the lowest stage of humanity.

The above quote is from https://www.marxists.org/archive/marx/works/1845/condition-working-class/ch04.htm, where there is more elaboration and description.

0.2 GSS Codebook Descriptions of Urbanicity Measures.

SIZE. This code is the population to the nearest 1,000 of the smallest civil division listed by the U.S. US Census (city, town, other incorporated area over 1,000 in population, township, division, etc.) which encompasses the segment. If a segment falls into more than one locality, the following rules apply in determining the locality for which the rounded population figure is coded. If the predominance of the listings for any segment are in one of the localities, the rounded population of that locality is coded. If the listings are distributed equally over localities in the segment, and the localities are all cities, towns, or villages, the rounded population of the larger city or town is coded. The same is true if the localities are all rural townships or divisions. If the listings are distributed equally over localities in the segment and the localities include a town or village and a rural township or division, the rounded population of the town or village is coded.

XNORCSIZ. Expanded N.O.R.C. size code. a. A suburb is defined as any incorporated area or unincorporated area of 1,000+ (or listed as such in the U.S. US Census PC (1)-A books) within the boundaries of an SMSA but not within the limits of a central city of the SMSA. Some SMSAs have more than one central city, e.g., Minneapolis-St. Paul. In these cases, both cities are coded as central

cities. b. If such an instance were to arise, a city of 50,000 or over which is not part of an SMSA would be coded '7'. c. Unincorporated areas of over 2,499 are treated as incorporated areas of the same size. Unincorporated areas under 1,000 are not listed by the Census and are treated here as part of the next larger civil division, usually the township.

SRCBELT. SRC beltcode. The SRC belt code (a coding system originally devised to describe rings around a metropolitan area and to categorize places by size and type simultaneously) first appeared in an article written by Bernard Laserwitz (American Sociological Review, v. 25, no. 2, 1960), and has been used subsequently in several SRC surveys. Its use was discontinued in 1971 because of difficulties particularly evident in the operationalization of "adjacent and outlying areas." For this study, however, we have revised the SRC belt code for users who might find such a variable useful. The new SRC belt code utilizes "name of place" information contained in the sampling units of the NORC Field Department.

0.3 Variable Definitions. Descriptive Statistics, and Additional Results.

Below we show variable definitions, basic descriptive statistics, and additional regression results.

 Table 4:
 Variable definitions.

name	description
misanthropy	(misanthropy scale)
trust	"Generally speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted or that you can't be too
	careful in dealing with people?"
people fair or try	"Do you think most people would try to take advantage of you if they got a chance, or would
to take advantage	they try to be fair?"
people are helpful	"Would you say that most of the time people try to be helpful, or that they are mostly just
	looking out for themselves? (HELPFUL)"
srcbelt	SRC BELTCODE (see appendix for details)
xnorcsiz	EXPANDED N.O.R.C. SIZE CODE (see appendix for details)
size of place in	SIZE "Size of Place in thousands-A 4-digit number which provides actual size of place of inter-
1000s	view."

 Table 5:
 Variable definitions (continued).

name	description				
family income in	$Income\ variables\ (\ INCOME72\ ,\ INCOME70\ ,\ INCOME80\ ,\ INCOME8$				
\$1986, millions	, INCOME98 , INCOME06) are recoded in six-digit numbers and converted to 1986 dollars. The				
	collapsed numbers above are for convenience of display only. Since this variable is based on				
	categorical data, income is not continuous, but based on categorical mid-points and imputations.				
	For details see GSS Methodological Report No. 64.				
protestant	"What is your religious preference? Is it Protestant, Catholic, Jewish, some other religion, or no				
•	religion?"				
catholic	"What is your religious preference? Is it Protestant, Catholic, Jewish, some other religion, or no				
	religion?"				
conservative	"We hear a lot of talk these days about liberals and conservatives. I'm going to show you a				
	seven-point scale on which the political views that people might hold are arranged from extremely				
	liberal-point 1-to extremely conservative-point 7. Where would you place yourself on this scale?"				
	"SLGHTLY CONSERVATIVE" or "CONSERVATIVE" or "EXTRMLY CONSERVATIVE"				
liberal	"We hear a lot of talk these days about liberals and conservatives. I'm going to show you a seven-				
	point scale on which the political views that people might hold are arranged from extremely				
	liberal-point 1-to extremely conservative—point 7. Where would you place yourself on this				
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·				
marital status	scale?" "SLGHTLY LIBERAL" or "LIBERAL" or "EXTRMLY LIBERAL" "What is your religious preference? Is it Protestant, Catholic, Jewish, some other religion, or no				
maritai status					
um amamlarıa d	religion?" "Lost mode were now working full time, part time, going to acheal begins house on what?"				
unemployed	"Last week were you working full time, part time, going to school, keeping house, or what?"				
ngo	"Unemployed, laid off, looking for work" age of respondent				
age highest year of	HIGHEST YEAR OF SCHOOL COMPLETED A. "What is the highest grade in elementary				
school completed	school or high school that (you/your father/ your mother/your [husband/wife]) finished and got				
school completed					
	credit for? " CODE EXACT GRADE.; B. IF FINISHED 9th-12th GRADE OR DK*: "Did				
	(you/he/she) ever get a high school diploma or a GED certificate?" [SEE D BELOW.]; C. "Did				
	(you/he/she) complete one or more years of college for credit—not including schooling such as				
	business college, technical or vocational school?" IF YES: "How many years did (you/he/she)				
	complete?"				
male	male				
born in the U.S.	"Were you born in this country?"				
white household	"Race of household"				
afraid to walk at	"Is there any area right around here—that is, within a mile—where you would be afraid to walk				
night in neighbor-	alone at night?"				
hood					
SWB	GENERAL HAPPINESS "Taken all together, how would you say things are these days—would				
	you say that you are very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy?"				
health	CONDITION OF HEALTH "Would you say your own health, in general, is excellent, good, fair,				
	or poor?"				
subjective class	"If you were asked to use one of four names for your social class, which would you say you belong				
identification	in: the lower class, the working class, the middle class, or the upper class? "				

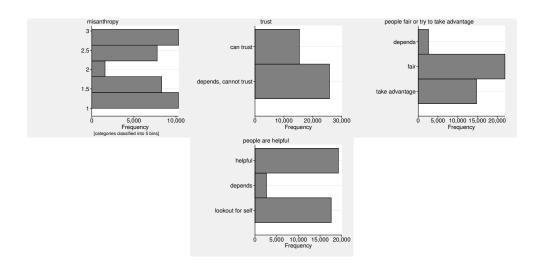


Figure 3: Variables' distribution.

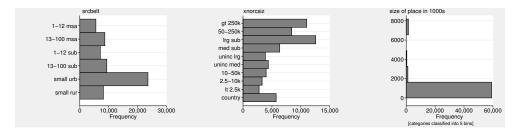


Figure 4: Variables' distribution.

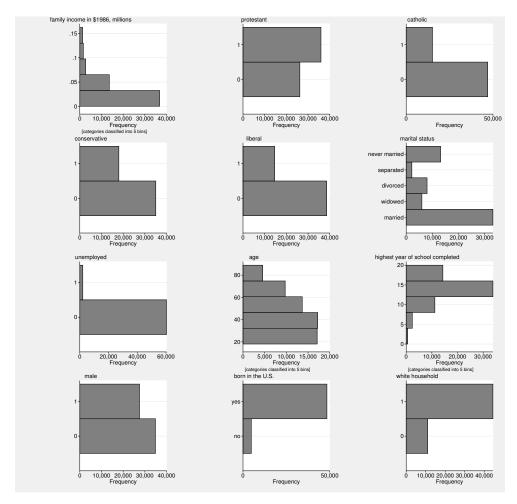


Figure 5: Variables' distribution.

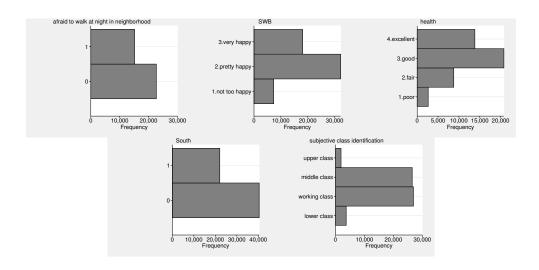


Figure 6: Variables' distribution.

In the manuscript, we have plotted results from the simple specification a3a from Table table 6, but note that more elaborate specifications with more variables and dummy for time are similar.

Table 6: OLS regressions of misanthropy. Beta (fully standardized) coefficients reported. All models include year dummies.

2-24k		a4c2	a3a	b4c2	c4c2
4-8k	-2k	0.00			
4-8k	2-4k	10.92**			
14-24k	4-8k	1.52			
24-418		8.44*			
41-79k	24-41k	5.52			
79-192k	41-79k	14.73***			
192-618k	79-192k	4.02			
18.8 18.3	192-618k	15 40***			
year	618k-				
-24 x year	year	0.01***	0.01***	0.01***	0.01***
11-79 x year	-2k × year				
11-79 x year	2-4K × year 4 8k × year	-0.01***			
11-79 x year	8-14k × year	0.00*			
11-79 x year	14-24k × year	-0.01***			
41-79k × year	24-41k × year				
0.18	41-79k × year	-0.01***			
0.18	$79-192k \times year$	-0.00			
subjective class identification family income in \$1986, millions protestant	192-618k × year	-0.01***			
tion family income in \$1986, millions protestant	618k- × year	-0.01***	0.11***	0.10***	0.10***
family income in \$1986, -1.12**** -1.12*** -1.12*** -1.12*** -1.12*** -1.12*** -1.12*		-0.10	-0.11	-0.10	-0.10
millions protestant	family income in \$1096	1 10***	1 79***	1 19***	1 10***
protestant		-1.12	-1.13	-1.12	-1.10
catholic -0.03 -0.03*** -0.03* -0.03** -0.03** -0.02** -0.01** 0.01 0.01 0.01** -0.02*** -0.02*** -0.02*** -0.00*** -0.00*** -0.00*** -0.00*** -0.00*** -0.00*** -0.00*** -0.00*** -0.00*** -0.05*** -0.05*** -0.05*** -0.05*** -0.05*** -0.05*** -0.05*** -0.05*** -0.05*** -0.05*** -0.07**** -0.05*** -0.07**** 0.07**** -0.07**** 0.07**** -0.07*** 0.07**** -0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07**** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.03**	protestant	0.01	-0.01	0.01	0.01
unemployed 0.01 0.04** -0.01*** -0.02*** -0.02*** -0.02*** -0.02*** -0.02*** 0.00*** 0.00*** 0.00*** 0.00*** 0.00*** 0.00*** 0.00*** 0.00*** 0.00*** 0.00*** 0.00*** 0.00*** 0.00*** 0.00*** 0.00*** 0.00*** 0.00*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.00*** 0.01 0.01 0.01 0.01** 0.03** 0.03* 0.03* 0.03* 0.03** -0.03** -0.03** -0.04** 0.09** 0.01*** 0.01*** 0.01*** 0.01*** 0.01*** 0.01*** 0.01*** 0.01*** 0.01*** 0.03** -0.03** -0.03** -0.03** -0.03** -0.04** 0.09** 0.03** -0.04** 0.04** 0.03** -0.04** 0.04** 0.04** 0.00** 0.00** 0.00** 0.00** 0.00** 0.00** 0.00** 0	catholic		-0.03***	-0.03*	-0.03*
age guared		0.01	0.04*	0.01	0.01
age squared highest year of school completed married		0.00***		0.00***	0.00***
highest year of school completed male			0.00***		
pleted maried 0.07*** 0.05*** 0.07*** 0.07*** married 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.	highest year of school com-	-0.05***	-0.06***	-0.05***	-0.05***
male 0.07*** 0.07*** 0.07*** married 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 widowed -0.01 0.06*** -0.01 -0.02 divorced 0.04* 0.09*** -0.03* 0.03* separated 0.10*** 0.17*** 0.10*** 0.10*** afraid to walk at night in neighborhood conservative 0.01 0.01*** 0.15*** 0.04** conservative 0.01 0.01 0.01** 0.04** born in the U.S. -0.05** -0.05** -0.04** born in the U.S. -0.05** -0.01*** -0.17*** SWB -0.17*** -0.17*** -0.17*** big 9.42*** -0.01*** big 9.42*** -0.00*** big X year -0.00*** -0.00*** <	pleted				
widowed -0.01 0.06*** -0.03* 0.03* divorced 0.04** 0.09*** 0.03* 0.03** separated 0.10**** 0.17**** 0.10*** 0.10*** never married -0.03* 0.02** -0.03** -0.04** onservative 0.01 0.01 0.01 0.01 source 0.03** -0.05** -0.05** -0.04** born in the U.S. -0.05** -0.07*** -0.17*** -0.17*** SWB -0.17*** -0.17*** -0.17*** -0.17*** -0.17*** small yell 0.00 0.00 -0.14*** 0.14*** 0.14*** 0.14*** 0.14*** 0.14*** 0.14*** 0.14*** 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00	male	0.07***	0.05***	0.07***	0.07***
divorced		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
divorced		-0.01	0.06***	-0.01	-0.02
never married -0.03*		0.04*	() ()Q***	0.03*	0.03*
never married a fraid to walk at night in neighborhood conservative 0.01	separated	0.10***	0.17***	0.10***	0.10***
neighborhood conservative 0.01	never married	-0.03*	0.02**		-0.04**
Conservative O.01	afraid to walk at night in	0.15***		0.15***	0.14***
liberal		0.01		0.01	0.01
born in the U.S.		0.01		0.01	0.01
SWB	horn in the HS	0.05**		0.05**	
smal 0.00 big 9.42*** small x year 0.00 med x year -0.00*** big x year -0.00*** big x year -0.00*** country 0.00 lt 2.5k -5.13 2.5-10k -3.52 10-50k 3.05 uninc med 0.76 uninc lrg 11.72** med sub 10.94** lrg sub 10.94** 50-250k 7.95* gt 250k 0.00 country x year 0.00 lt 2.5k x year 0.00 25-10k year 0.00 10-50k x year -0.00 uninc med xyear -0.00 uninc lrg x year -0.01** med sub x year -0.01** lrg sub x year -0.01** sumall rur 0.00 small rur 0.00* small rur x year -0.01*** 1-12 msa 20.60*** 1-12 msa x year -0.01***	SWB	0.03		0.05	0.04
smal 0.00 big 9.42*** small x year 0.00 med x year -0.00*** big x year -0.00*** big x year -0.00*** country 0.00 lt 2.5k -5.13 2.5-10k -3.52 10-50k 3.05 uninc med 0.76 uninc lrg 11.72** med sub 10.94** lrg sub 10.94** 50-250k 7.95* gt 250k 0.00 country x year 0.00 lt 2.5k x year 0.00 25-10k year 0.00 10-50k x year -0.00 uninc med xyear -0.00 uninc lrg x year -0.01** med sub x year -0.01** lrg sub x year -0.01** sumall rur 0.00 small rur 0.00* small rur x year -0.01*** 1-12 msa 20.60*** 1-12 msa x year -0.01***	South	0.14***	0.15***	0.14***	0.14***
med	small	0.11	0.00	0.11	0.11
big			4 FC***		
small X year 0.00 med X year -0.00*** big X year -0.00*** country 0.00 lt 2.5k -5.13 2.5-10k 3.05 uninc med 0.76 uninc lrg 11.72** med sub 10.94** lrg sub 10.78*** 50-250k 7.95* gt 250k 7.95* gt 250k year 0.00 10-50k x year 0.00 10-50k x year -0.00* uninc med x year -0.01** lrg sub x year -0.01** lrg sub x year -0.01** lrg sub x year -0.01** small rur 0.00 small rur 0.00 small rur x year -0.01*** 1-12 msa 20.60*** small rur x year -0.01*** 1-12 msa 20.60*** small rur x year -0.01*** 1-12 msa 20.60*** small rur x year -0.01*** 1-12 ms	big		9.42***		
big x year	$small \times vear$		0.00		
Country 1t 2.5k	med × year		-0.00***		
10-50k	big × year		-0.00***	0.00	
10-50k	lt 2.5k			-5.13	
10-50k	2.5k			-3.13	
uninc med uninc lrg uninc med uninc lrg uninc med uninc lrg x year uninc u	10-50k			3.05	
med sub 10.94** lrg sub 10.78*** 50-250k 7.95* gt 250k 0.00 country X year 0.00 lt 2.5k X year 0.00 2.5-10k X year -0.00 uninc med X year -0.00 uninc med X year -0.01** med sub X year -0.01** lrg sub X year -0.01** 50-250k X year -0.00* gt 250k X year -0.01*** small rur 0.00 small rub 14.15*** 13-100 sub 15.26*** 1-12 sub 16.36*** 1-12 msa 20.60*** small rur X year -0.01*** 1-12 sub X year	uninc med			0.76	
med sub 10.94** lrg sub 10.78*** 50-250k 7.95* gt 250k 0.00 country X year 0.00 lt 2.5k X year 0.00 2.5-10k X year -0.00 uninc med X year -0.00 uninc med X year -0.01** med sub X year -0.01** lrg sub X year -0.01** 50-250k X year -0.00* gt 250k X year -0.01*** small rur 0.00 small rub 14.15*** 13-100 sub 15.26*** 1-12 sub 16.36*** 1-12 msa 20.60*** small rur X year -0.01*** 1-12 sub X year	uninc lrg			11 72**	
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Irg sub × year -0.01*** 50-250k × year -0.00* gt 250k × year -0.01*** small rur 0.00 small urb 14.15*** 13-100 sub 15.26*** 13-100 msa 19.40*** 1-12 msa 20.60** small rur × year 0.00 small urb × year -0.01*** 13-100 sub × year -0.01*** 13-100 msa × year -0.01*** 13-100 msa × year -0.01*** 1-12 msa × year -0.01*** 1-12 msa × year -0.01*** 1-10 msa × year -0.01*** 1-10 msa × year -0.01*** 1-12 msa × year 14034 14034 14034 14034 14034	med sub × year				
50-250K × year	lrg sub × year			-() () * * * *	
small rur 0.00 small urb 14.15*** 13-100 sub 15.26*** 1-12 sub 16.36*** 13-100 msa 19.40*** 1-12 msa 20.60*** small rur × year 0.00 small urb × year -0.01*** 13-100 sub × year -0.01*** 13-100 sub × year -0.01*** 1-12 sub × year -0.01*** 1-12 msa × year -0.01*** 1-12 msa × year 14034 14034 14034 14034 14034	50-250k × year				
small rur 0.00 small urb 14.15*** 13-100 sub 15.26*** 1-12 sub 16.36*** 13-100 msa 19.40*** 1-12 msa 20.60*** small rur × year 0.00 small urb × year -0.01*** 13-100 sub × year -0.01*** 13-100 sub × year -0.01*** 1-12 sub × year -0.01*** 1-12 msa × year -0.01*** 1-12 msa × year 14034 14034 14034 14034 14034	gt 250k × year			-0.01***	0.00
13-100 sub	small rur				1 / 1 2 * * *
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	5111411 UFD 13 100 cub				15.26***
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	1-19 enh				16.26***
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	13-100 msa				19 40***
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	1-12 msa				20.60***
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	small rur X vear				
13-100 sub × year -0.01*** 11-12 sub × year -0.01*** 13-100 msa × year -0.01*** 1-12 msa × year -0.01*** N 14034 33545 14034 14034 *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, *	small urb × year				0.01***
1-12 sub × year -0.01*** 13-100 msa × year -0.01*** 1-12 msa × year -0.01*** 1-12 msa × year -0.01*** *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, ** *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, **	13-100 sub × year				
13-100 msa × year -0.01*** N 14034 33545 14034 14034 *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, *	1-12 sub × year				
1-12 msa × year -0.01*** N 14034 33545 14034 14034 *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, *	13-100 msa × year				
N 14034 33545 14034 14034 14034 14034	1-12 msa × year			4 400 :	-0.01***
P (0:02) P (0:00)	N	14034	33545	14034	14034
p<0.1; robust std err	P (0.01, P (0.00,				
	p<0.1; robust std err				

In Table table 7 the results show that while whites are in general less misanthropic than minorities, they are more misanthropic in larger places, thus confirming Wilson (1985). Note, the column names

correspond with earlier tables. In a4c1 we interact urbanicity with the white household dummy—indeed we find confirmation for Wilson (1985)—clearly whites experience more misanthropy in urban areas. Wilson (1985) explains this pattern using Fischer's sub-cultural theory.

Table 7: OLS regressions of misanthropy. All models include year dummies. Size deciles (base: <2k). Srcbelt (base: small rur). Xnorcsiz (base: <2.5k, but not eountrycountryside).

	a4c1	b4c1	c4c1
-2k	0.00	0401	C4C1
2-4k	-0.12		
4-8k 8-14k	-0.14** -0.13**		
6-14k 14-24k	-0.13***		
24-41k	-0.10		
41-79k	-0.11*		
79-192k 192-618k	-0.11 -0.18*** -0.14***		
192-618k 618k-			
white household	-0.40***	-0.23***	-0.34***
-2k × white household			
2-4k × white household	0.17**		
4-8k × white household 8-14k × white household	0.19***		
14-24k × white household			
24-41k × white household	0.16**		
$41-79k \times white household$	0.12*		
79-192k × white household	0.19***		
192-618k × white house- hold	0.17***		
618k- × white household	0.18***		
subjective class identifica-	-0.10***	-0.10***	-0.10***
tion			
family income in \$1986,	-0.97***	-1.01***	-1.04***
millions	0.00	0.00	0.01
protestant catholic	-0.02 -0.03	-0.02 -0.03	-0.01 -0.03
unemployed	0.01	0.01	0.01
age	0.02***	0.00***	0.02***
age squared	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***
highest year of school com-	-0.05***	-0.05***	-0.05***
pleted male	0.07***	0.07***	0.07***
married	0.00	0.00	0.00
widowed	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02
divorced	0.04*	0.04*	0.04*
separated	0.07** -0.06***	0.07** -0.05*** 0.15***	0.07*
never married afraid to walk at night in	0.14***	0.15***	-0.06*** 0.14***
neighborhood	0.11	0.10	0.11
conservative	0.02	0.02	0.02
liberal	-0.04***	-0.04***	-0.04***
born in the U.S. SWB	-0.01 -0.16***	-0.00 -0.16***	0.00 -0.16***
South	0.12***	0.10	0.12***
country	0.12	0.12*** 0.00	0.12
lt 2.5k 2.5-10k		0.08	
2.5-10k 10-50k		-0.01 -0.03	
uninc med uninc lrg		-0.10	
uninc lrg		-0.09	
med sub		-0.10 -0.01	
lrg sub 50-250k		-0.01	
gt 250k		-0.04	
country × white household		0.00	
t 2.5k × white household 2.5-10k × white household 10-50k × white household		-0.21** -0.06	
10-50k × white household		-0.02	
unine med x write nouse-		0.06	
hold		0.04	
uninc lrg × white house- hold		0.04	
med sub × white household		0.09	
med sub × white household lrg sub × white household 50-250k × white household gt 250k × white household		-0.01	
50-250k × white household		-0.03	
gt 25UK × Wnite household		0.00	0.00
small rur small urb			-0.08*
13-100 sub			-0.09
1-12 sub			-0.04
13-100 msa 1-12 msa			-0.12** -0.03
1-12 msa small rur × white house-			0.00
hold			
small urb × white house-			0.12**
hold 13-100 sub × white house-			0.14**
hold			0.14
1-12 sub × white household			0.13**
13-100 msa \times white house-			0.14**
hold			
1-12 msa × white house-			0.12*
hold N	13799	13799	13799
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, *			
p<0.1; robust std err			