2021

Exploring Police Legitimacy Through Procedurally Just Policing Practices in Agencies Using Screen-In and Screen-Out Procedures

David William Justice
Walden University

Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

David Justice

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Dianne Williams, Committee Chairperson,
Criminal Justice Faculty

Dr. Carolyn Dennis, Committee Member,
Criminal Justice Faculty

Dr. Joseph Pascarella, University Reviewer,
Criminal Justice Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
2021

Abstract

by

David Justice

Boston University, 2005

BS, Ohio State University, 1990

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Walden University

February 2021

Abstract

Recently there have been widely publicized reports of distrust and a lack of perceived legitimacy in communities across the United States for the police agencies that serve them. Scholars have explored perceptions of police legitimacy and the role of procedural justice in police-community interactions; however, there is a dearth of information concerning the policies of law enforcement agencies using psychological assessments to screen-in or screen-out applicants and the manner in which those agencies serve the community. The purpose of this mixed methods study was to explore the manner in which one police agency using psychological assessments to screen applicants in and one using them to screen-out delivers police patrol services to the community, and to discern any difference in procedurally just policing between them. The theoretical framework for this study was Lind and Tyler's theory of procedural justice. Research questions were focused on exploring the behaviors exhibited by patrol officers as being supportive of or obstructive to the antecedents of procedural justice. A mixed methods research design was employed, using randomly sampled patrol officers from two randomly sampled police agencies. Body-worn camera video and ride-alongs were used to observe police-citizen interactions. Data from the observations were coded, categorized, and analyzed for emergent themes. These data were then quantitatively analyzed using SPSS (Version 25). Findings demonstrated a statistically significant and meaningful difference between agency types for procedurally just behaviors and citizen satisfaction. Implications for social change include changing law enforcement agencies' screening policies to one that screens in applicants supportive of procedurally just policing.

Exploring Police Legitimacy Through Procedurally Just Policing Practices in Agencies

Using Screen-In and Screen-Out Procedures

by

David Justice

MCJ, Boston University, 2005

BS, Ohio State University, 1990

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Walden University

February, 2021

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this work to my amazing wife, Jamie, and children, Olivia, Madison, and Max. Without their love, support, and patience through long nights and global pandemics, none of this would have been possible. I hope this work demonstrates to our children that there is nothing they cannot accomplish and inspires them to chase their dreams and make the world better than the one in which they were born.

"Big dreams create the magic that stir men's souls to greatness."

-Bill McCartney

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank my outstanding committee members, my Chair, Dr. Dianne Williams, Dr. Carolyn Dennis, and Dr. Joe Pascarella. Their ability to encourage and challenge me throughout this process proved to be invaluable in guiding me to the finish line. I could not have asked for better mentors.

I would also like to thank the police agencies who graciously agreed to allow me full access to their personnel and records. Both agencies should be proud of the exceptional supervisors and officers who serve their respective communities with empathy, honor, and the utmost professionalism. This study would not have been possible without your willing cooperation.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

The origin of police legitimacy can be traced back to the authorship of 19th century British prime minister Sir Robert Peel when he crafted his nine principles of policing, in which he emphasized the enhancement of legitimacy and the public's acceptance of his newly created coercive arm of the government (Noppe, Verhage, & Van Damme, 2017). Nearly two centuries after Peel's introduction of the concept of a professional policing arm of the government, which was designed to effectively function through the consent and cooperation of the public, the concept of police legitimacy has been subjected to decades of empirical study. The recent attention to policing, spurred on by civil disturbances chiefly experienced in the United States, has served to highlight the critical importance of the consent and cooperation of the citizens policed to both the scientific community and governmental officials (Tyler, Goff, & MacCoun, 2015).

American policing has evolved considerably from its 17th- and 18th-century roots of tax collecting sheriffs and the reactionary night watch and constables in larger cities (Dunham & Alpert, 2015). The 19th century ushered in industrialization, massive immigration, and exploding urbanization. By the 1830s, America's major cities were faced with civil disorder and rising crime rates (Dunham & Alpert, 2015; Lawrence, 2014). American cities, in light of this growing crisis, eventually adopted the English model of policing, creating an organized, uniformed presence patrolling problematic city streets. However, the American version of an organized police force was mired in the political machinations of the city in which it formed, leading to police corruption and a lack of public trust (Dunham & Alpert, 2015; Miller, 1999). This problem was

exacerbated by the police being appointed and promoted by the political entity governing at that moment (Lawrence, 2014).

The early 20th century witnessed American policing reform in the move towards professionalization. Championed by August Vollmer and O. W. Wilson, American policing began shifting away from political cronyism and ineffective policing and toward a model based on education, discipline, candidate selection based on qualifications, and professional personnel management (Dunham & Alpert, 2015; Lawrence, 2014). Despite the improvements brought about by the professionalization of the American police force, major social changes that sparked the riots of the 1960s exposed another shortcoming of policing. Communities of color, which had experienced decades of unequal treatment under the law, exploded in protests and rioting, which to a large extent, was mismanaged by law enforcement, exposing to the nation its inequality of treatment.

The 1967 Kerner Commission cited poor supervision, abuse of power by the police, strained police-community relations, and a lack of minority representation in law enforcement as factors that led to the riots experienced earlier in the decade (Dunham & Alpert, 2015; Lawrence 2014). Academics from public and private organizations began to study policing, fueled by newly created public funding (Dunham & Alpert, 2015). As a result of this scrutiny, the concept of community-oriented policing emerged as a way to combat rising crime rates and the strained relationship between the police and the communities they serve. Although this concept appeared to be logically sound, after widespread adoption by law enforcement did not improve the quality of police-

community relationships, it was apparent that something more was confounding this issue.

The community-policing push to encourage law enforcement's interaction with the public exposed the reality that all police-citizen interactions are not equal. As demonstrated in the literature, the mere act of interaction is not sufficient to repair police-community relations; rather, it is the quality of the interaction that matters (Blader & Tyler, 2003; Lawrence, 2014; Jonathan-Zamir, Mastrofski, & Moyal, 2015; Mastrofski, Jonathan-Zamir, Moyal, & Willis, 2016; Tyler et al., 2015). Repairing the police-community relationship requires the police to be seen as a legitimate authority, and for law enforcement to achieve this goal, it is necessary that police-citizen interactions be regarded by the citizens as procedurally fair. In other words, by policing in a procedurally just manner, law enforcement will be more likely to be viewed as a legitimate authority and thus repair their relationship with the communities they serve.

While research findings have shown great support for procedural justice theory as a framework from which to view the public's perceptions of the police and their subsequent behaviors, much less research has been conducted on how to successfully incorporate this model of policing into American law enforcement (Nix, Pickett, Wolfe, & Campbell, 2017). Researchers have explored training police officers in the academy as well as part of in-service training. Skogan, Van Craen, and Hennessy (2015) examined the effectiveness of in-service procedural justice training for altering officer behavior in both the short- and long-term. Schulhofer, Tyler, and Huq (2011) stressed the importance of a police agency's executive leadership setting the tone by stressing the importance of

community support for the attainment of law enforcement goals as well as the incompatibility of zero tolerance enforcement policies and officer misconduct with procedurally just policing. One aspect that is strongly supported is the importance of officer buy-in to the procedurally just model of policing for it to be successful in creating police legitimacy. During my review of the literature, I noted a gap in research on the differences between the methods of using psychological assessments to screen police applicants for a predisposition to procedurally just policing.

In this chapter, I discuss the background of the study, detail the purpose and problem statements as well as the research problem and methodology. The research questions is stated, as is the theoretical framework guiding the study. The definitions of key terms are listed to ensure clarity of meaning for the reader. I additionally discuss the relevancy of the study and its impact on social change.

Background of the Study

Recently, several high-profile confrontations between police and minority citizens have called to attention the eroding perceived legitimacy of the police in the United States (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015; Noppe et al., 2017; Tyler et al., 2015). These encounters have ranged from the use of offensive language by the police up to the use of deadly force against unarmed citizens. When the actions of the police are seen as being unfair or biased, they undermine the perceived legitimacy and authority of law enforcement (Trinkner, Jackson, & Tyler, 2018). In the era of news/information being streamed live as it happens, which allows for instantaneous judgment by the viewer, it is

more critical now than ever that the actions of the police are such that upon viewing, the actions are judged as being fair, unbiased, and respectful.

These incidents underscore the importance of police agencies policing in a procedurally just manner and ensuring that their policies and practices are designed, implemented, and evaluated against the criterion of procedural justice and particularly focused on the quality of police-citizen contacts at the individual level (Tyler & Jackson, 2014). Although there has been much support in the literature of the concept of procedurally just policing restoring the legitimacy of the police, how best to implement the policies and procedures in police agencies and how to instill procedurally just antecedents in each officer has proven to be much more elusive. A considerable amount of research has addressed training and leadership modeling as methods of altering officer behavior to that consistent with procedural justice (Antrobus, Thompson, & Ariel, 2018; Murphy & Tyler, 2017; Owens, Weisburd, Amendola, & Alpert, 2018; Posick and Hatfield, 2017; Skogan et al., 2015; Van Craen and Skogan, 2017). While these methods of transforming behavior have shown some success, a less researched method is to control who enters the police service by using administered psychological examinations to identify applicants who have a psychological predisposition to behave in a manner consistent with the tenants of procedurally just policing (Lawrence, Christoff, & Escamilla, 2017; Masood, Rafique, Qaisar, & Musarat, 2017). The time has come for the psychological assessment of police applicants not only for their potential to engage in problematic behaviors but for their ability to police in a way that fosters trust and legitimacy in the community. It has, therefore, become necessary to not only use

psychological assessments to exclude undesirable applicants but examine their ability to reliably and validly predict the likelihood that applicants will police in a procedurally just manner.

Problem Statement

There is a problem in communities across the United States as evidenced by expressions of their distrust of police. That problem, specifically, is low levels of perceived police legitimacy (Mastrofski et al., 2016). Currently, law enforcement agencies rely on post-offer personality assessments to profile for the future performance of police applicants (Annell, Lindfors, & Sverke, 2015). However, there has been no empirical evidence correlating psychological assessment results with the levels of perceived police legitimacy in the community (Davis, Ortiz, Euler, & Kuykendall, 2015).

Citing the results from their 2015 Police-Citizen Interaction Survey, Rosenbaum et al. (2017) concluded that the problem of low levels of perceived legitimacy impacts every level of law enforcement because, without the ability to prescreen applicants for a predisposition to policing in a respectful, fair manner that promotes trust, police legitimacy will continue to erode, which in turn will reduce citizen cooperation and compliance. A law enforcement agency's policy of screening-out police applicants, as opposed to accepting-in, may contribute to low levels of perceived legitimacy. No literature could be discovered on levels of perceived police legitimacy and the manner in which patrol officers interacted with citizens in agencies that screen-out applicants and agencies that screen-in applicants. This study addressed the identified gap in the literature and contributed to the body of knowledge used to confront the problem of community

distrust of police by providing data that public policy decision-makers may use to formulate policies governing the use of psychological assessments to screen applicants for their likelihood of policing in a procedurally just manner.

Purpose

The purpose of this mixed methods research study was to explore the manner in which officers who have been selected by agencies using two different psychological screening methodologies (screen-in or screen-out), interact with citizens as they deliver police patrol services and to discern any difference between the patrol officers' procedurally just behaviors of the different agencies. This study involved reviewing publicly available body-worn camera video recordings of the patrol activities of police officers and conducting ride-alongs from two similar Midwest police departments. Citizens attribute the antecedents of procedural justice to the style of policing with which they are served through direct interaction with or observed interaction of police-citizen encounters (Hamm, Trinkner, & Carr, 2017; Tyler, 2017). The viewed police-citizen interactions were qualitatively evaluated using predetermined and observable officer behaviors to understand how policing services are delivered by the screen-in and screen-out agencies and to assess citizen satisfaction. These data were then quantitatively analyzed to determine whether a statistically significant and meaningful difference exists between agencies employing different methods of psychologically screening applicants and the procedurally just policing services these agencies deliver to the communities they serve.

Research Questions

The research questions and hypotheses examined in this mixed methods research study were as follows:

RQ1: In a Midwest screen-in police agency, what behaviors by police officers ($N = 8$) on dispatched calls for service contribute to the level of community trust/police legitimacy during interactions with citizens?

RQ2: In a Midwest screen-out police agency, what behaviors by police officers ($N = 8$) on dispatched calls for service contribute to the level of community trust/police legitimacy during interactions with citizens?

RQ3: In a Midwest screen-in police agency, what behaviors by police officers ($N = 8$) on self-initiated runs contribute to the level of community trust/police legitimacy during interactions with citizens?

RQ4: In a Midwest screen-out police agency, what behaviors by police officers ($N = 8$) on self-initiated runs contribute to the level of community trust/police legitimacy during interactions with citizens?

H_1: There is a statistically significant and meaningful difference in patrol officer behaviors which contribute to citizens' perceptions of police legitimacy in one Midwest screen-in police agency and one Midwest screen-out police agency.

H_0: There is no difference in the procedurally just behaviors of patrol officers during interactions with citizens of screen-in and screen-out police agencies.

Theoretical Framework

Suchman (1995) defined legitimacy as "a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions" (pp. 574). Suchman further contended that legitimacy is socially constructed as it reflects a balance between the legitimated entity's behaviors and the shared beliefs of the affected social group. Additionally, legitimacy theory argues that it is through citizens' perceptions of the state's legitimacy that allows the state to employ force to compel compliance and in fact acts as a stabilizing force in the maintaining of social order (Nivette, 2014). Therefore, legitimacy is purported to be the social acceptance of an organization's perceived normal behaviors despite the observance of singular behaviors not perceived to be the norm. Extending this thinking, Tyler (2017) adds that police legitimacy is created through citizens' perceptions of procedural fairness during police-citizen interactions which in turn is supportive of social perceptions of the law enforcement agency's legitimacy within that community.

Procedural justice theory is based on Rawls's (1971) theory of justice. Rawls's theory was expanded by Thibaut and Walker's (1978) theory of procedure and later refined by Lind and Tyler (1988) as the formal theory of procedural justice from which this study proceeds. Procedural justice theory sets out to explain the importance of a social procedure's quality of process over the resultant outcome. The theory provides a framework from which police-citizen interactions and the subsequent procedures can be evaluated for their justness and fairness. It is the perceptions of those who participate in

and experience the police-citizen procedure and process that drive their attitudes and behaviors (Lind & Tyler, 1988) and concomitantly influence perceptions of police legitimacy (Tyler, 2017). It is, therefore, imperative that police agencies craft their policies and practices in ways that serve to reinforce procedurally just policing (Tyler, 2017). Hence, as part of police policy and procedure, in this study I explored the nationally accepted policy of using psychological assessments as part of an evaluative process of determining who is an acceptable candidate for the position of police officer in relation to their likelihood of policing in a procedurally just manner. This is evidenced by an officer's behaviors when interacting with citizens that are supportive of perceptions of procedurally just policing, which in turn allows for socially construed perceptions of the police organization's legitimacy (Suchman, 1995; Tyler, 2017).

Nature of the Study

The nature of this mixed methods research study was an initial exploration of the observed behaviors (procedurally just or unjust) of officers assigned to patrol duties as they interact with citizens with whom they come into contact as well as an assessment of the citizens' satisfaction. The data gathered were then used to quantitatively determine if a statistically significant and meaningful difference exists in how the two agencies delivered procedurally just police services to their respective communities. It involved the study of two similar law enforcement agencies in the Midwest, one of which follows a policy of using psychological assessments to screen-out undesirable applicants and one of which uses a policy of screening-in police applicants possessive of personality traits in-line with a philosophy of procedurally just policing.

O'Sullivan, Rassel, Berner, and Taliaferro (2017) stated that in exploratory research, nonprobability samples may be used particularly when the samples represent the populations of interest well. As such, I systematically sampled two small/medium Midwest law enforcement agencies: one that screens-in police applicants and one that screens-out police applicants. A random sample of 12 ($n = 24$) police officers assigned to patrol will be taken from each agency. I collected data collection using a researcher-developed observation checklist to record specific predetermined and observable behaviors of the law enforcement officer from each agency of interest. A Freedom of Information Act (FOIA) request was used to gather 7 days of body-worn camera/cruiser video, all performance evaluations, citizen complaints, citizen compliments, and awards for each selected patrol officer. Generally, records retention laws require a minimum of 90 days storage for all video data captured by the body-worn camera and cruiser video. In light of this, 7 days of video were randomly sampled from the most recent 90-day period.

The theory of procedural justice provides a framework which allows recordings of police-citizen interactions taken by police body worn camera/cruiser camera to be explored for the presence of behaviors which reinforce citizen perceptions of police legitimacy. Jonathan-Zamir et al. (2015) argued that a formative observational instrument is needed to measure procedural justice as the police wield it in the natural setting of their encounter with the public. The researchers contended that the specific behaviors that construe procedural justice do not reflect an underlying singular construct but rather form one (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). The researchers have developed and validated an observational instrument, the Systematic Social Observation of Police-Citizen Encounters

(SSOPCE), capable of applying explicit, intersubjectively transmissible standards about the exercise of fair treatment and its outcomes (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). The SSOPCE is used to estimate the fairness of a police-citizen interaction by combining all of the procedurally just behaviors of the officer (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). A composite index was created from four indices of specific procedural justice elements, those being; dignity, trustworthy motives, participation, and neutrality (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). The researchers demonstrated that the composite index captured every aspect of the four elements and that each element contributes uniquely to the index and that a strong, statistically significant relationship exists between the overall procedural justice index and the displayed satisfaction with the police handling of the observed encounters (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). This instrument was therefore well suited for use in this observational study of procedurally just behaviors in police-citizen interactions.

This mixed-methodology research study added to the understanding of how procedurally just policing services are provided by police agencies with differing methods of psychologically screening their applicants. I envisioned the qualitative portion of this research study most closely resembling an exploratory case study. Yin (2017) stated that case studies are particularly relevant when the research questions require in-depth description and exploration of a social phenomenon. Case study research questions should ask "how" and "why" a contemporary phenomenon of which the researcher has little or no control and the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly defined operates (Yin, 2017). As such, an exploratory case study design complemented this study because of its in-depth approach to understanding the

delivery of police services from law enforcement agencies with differing policies of determining who is acceptable for the position of police officer. Lastly, this study was the initial exploration of the specific context in which the phenomenon operates and consequently ventured to define the questions and hypotheses that will form the basis of future inquiry (Yin, 2017).

The quantitative component of this study was used to analyze the relationship between a police agency's psychological assessment policy of screening-in or screening out (independent variables) applicants and the manner in which police services are delivered to the community served as measured by the dependent variables quality of treatment and quality of process. Frankfort-Nachmias and Leon-Guerrero (2015) stated that hypotheses are tentative explanations to questions posed in a research study that must be tested and empirically verified. The themed data gathered from the qualitative process were used to test the alternative hypothesis that the observed procedurally just policing in screen-in, and screen-out police agencies are not equal therefore leading to a difference in citizen satisfaction. The null hypothesis states that no difference exists between screen-in and screen-out police agencies and the procedurally just police services delivered to the communities they serve.

Definition of Terms

Police legitimacy: A reflection of the societal belief that the police ought to be allowed to exercise their authority to maintain social order, manage conflicts and solve problems in their communities (President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing, 2015).

Procedural justice: A means of attaining legitimacy whereby citizens are given the opportunity to explain their story, decisions made by authorities are based upon evidence and legal standards without bias, respectful and dignified treatment by authorities, authorities act in a benevolent, sincere and caring manner demonstrative of trustworthiness (President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing, 2015).

Systematic Social Observation of Police-Citizen Encounters (SSOPCE): A validated instrument for measuring procedural justice using systematic observations of patrol officers' interactions with the public (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015).

Preemployment psychological evaluation: An examination used to determine if a public safety candidate meets the minimum requirements for psychological suitability mandated by jurisdictional statutes and regulations, and any other criteria established by the employing agency (International Chiefs of Police, 2014).

Screen-out psychological assessment: A process of screen-out unsuitable police applicants with inabilities to tolerate stressful situations, systemic biases against special interest groups, poor judgment or impulse control, or other psychological problems (Metchik, 1999).

Screen-in psychological assessment: A selection process used to identify desired personality characteristics as compared to demonstratively successful groups of individuals within a specific occupation for which the applicant is applying (Diecidue, 1993).

Assumptions

The major assumption made for this research study was that factors other than the type of psychological assessment screening used by police agencies do not influence the behavior of officers when interacting with citizens. Variables unaccounted for are training, organizational culture, and homogeneity of the community served. It is likely that these factors also influence the dependent variables. This study also assumes that my observations of police-citizen interactions and consequent analysis of the interaction reflect the perceptions of citizens regarding procedurally just policing. These assumptions were necessary due to the lack of resources available to me to account for all confounding variables as well as identify citizens from police-citizen interactions recorded on police video to administer the SSOPCE.

Scope and Delimitations

This study was conducted to explore the differences in the amount of procedurally just policing delivered to the communities in police agencies using screen-in and screen-out police applicant psychological assessments and to assess citizens' satisfaction. The study was limited to full-time sworn law enforcement officers assigned to patrol duties employed by two municipal agencies in the Midwest. Eight patrol officers ($N = 16$) were randomly sampled from both the screen-in and screen-out police agency. From the randomly sampled patrol officers in the screen-out agency, 10 police-citizen interactions recorded on body-worn camera video was randomly sampled from the previous 60 working days. I conducted 12-hour ride-alongs with eight randomly sampled officers from the screen-in agency.

The unit of analysis was the observed interaction of the selected patrol officer with citizens as the officer responds to both dispatched and self-initiated runs. Each recorded interaction was evaluated and scored for procedurally just behaviors and citizen satisfaction using the SSOPCE. The observed difference in procedurally just police behaviors between the screen-in and screen-out agencies was quantitatively analyzed for statistical significance.

Limitations

Any study, no matter how well designed, has limitations. One limitation of this research study lies in the inability to draw a causal relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The likelihood of confounding and intervening variables influencing the dependent variables limits the conclusions drawn to observations of a correlation between variables. Likewise, without measuring citizens' perception of procedurally just policing and police legitimacy, it is unknown if my analysis accurately reflects the societal belief insofar as one community experiencing more procedurally just policing than another. To control for researcher bias, reflexivity was used. This process documented the reasoning used to develop codes and themes from the observation of officers' behavior and citizens' satisfaction and allow for reassessment of biased-influenced decisions.

In my study, many of the threats to internal/external validity were controlled for through the use of police-citizen interactions that had been previously recorded in their natural settings without influence from anything other than those influences that would occur in nature. The instrument I chose to use, the SSOPCE, had already been validated

as a tool capable of measuring the antecedents of procedural justice and was easily adapted for my intended use.

Generalizability was an issue with my study given the small sample size, $N = 16$, but given the nature of this study being primarily an exploratory study, generalizability was not an intended goal. Additionally, the constructs used in my study were grounded in the literature, as was the tool to measure the constructs. Conclusion validity was addressed by the performance of a statistical analysis of the data to establish a relationship between the variables and the phenomenon to ensure any conclusions reached were supported by the data.

As noted by Ravitch and Carl (2016), while qualitative research can maintain fidelity to participants and their experiences which allows for an emergent approach to design and implementation, it must nonetheless have a solid research design. Research design must show rigor, that is to say, it must apply the appropriate research methods to meet the stated research objectives. This may be accomplished by demonstrating trustworthiness in qualitative research. Shenton (2004) stated that trustworthiness is the equivalent to quantitative research's validity. The difference being that qualitative research maintains fidelity to the experiences of participants while quantitative research maintains fidelity to the specific methodology (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). This means that the lens used in qualitative research is based on the views of people who conduct, participate in, and read and review the study as opposed to a lens based on scores, instruments, and research designs (Ravitch & Carl, 2016).

In qualitative research, trustworthiness of a study can be demonstrated using four concepts. The approaches used must align with the goals, research questions, and context of the study (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Ravitch and Carl (2016) stated that the four concepts are confirmability, credibility, transferability, and dependability. Additionally, Ravitch and Carl discuss Maxwell's (1992) five categories of qualitative validity, those being; descriptive validity, interpretive validity, theoretical validity, generalizability, and evaluative validity.

Credibility is the ability of the researcher to account for all of the complexities that present themselves in a study and deal with not easily explained patterns (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). By structuring the research design to be recursive, it is possible to achieve credibility. Specifically, this may be accomplished by using random sampling, the correct operational measures of the concepts being studied, triangulation, ensuring participant honesty, negative case analysis, iterative questioning, debriefing sessions, researcher's reflective commentary, member checks, peer scrutiny, and thick description of the phenomenon of study (Shenton, 2004). In my study, I used triangulation to help establish credibility. I also used other data to confirm observational data coded from observations of police-citizen interactions.

The term transferability means that qualitative research is inexorably linked to the context in which the data are gathered (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Findings are only transferable to another context when the research contains detailed descriptions of the context and data so that research audiences can make comparisons to other contexts and determine their applicability (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Dependability demonstrates that the

data are gathered and analyzed reasonably and are consistent with the researcher's

argument (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Dependability shows the consistency and stability of

data over time, which may be accomplished by methods of triangulation and sequencing

and articulating the rationale for the use of methods as being appropriate for the

collection of data to answer the research question (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Lastly,

confirmability is a reference to the researcher's effort to remain unbiased and maintain

neutrality in their results (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Confirmability may be achieved

through researcher reflexivity, triangulation, and using external audits (Ravitch & Carl,

2016).

To satisfy dependability in my research study, it was essential that the manner in

which data were themed and coded were consistent and that rich examples were given to

support the codes and themes. Using other data sources, triangulation also supported the

dependability of the analysis. In order to achieve confirmability, I documented my efforts

to remain unbiased and neutral throughout the study. Reflexivity and triangulation was

used to help satisfy this threat. Transferability, much like generalizability, was more

difficult to overcome. It is difficult to compare one police agency to another due to many

factors beyond the scope of control for in this particular study. This was compensated for

by providing abundant, rich detail of the data and context so that consumers of this

research can decide if the findings are applicable to other contexts.

Significance

This research fills a gap in understanding whether psychological assessments

administered to police applicants can be used to screen for an applicant's predisposition

for procedurally just policing. This study is unique because it addresses the need for police agencies to screen for qualities that build positive community relationships between the police and the citizens they serve, thereby restoring police legitimacy. Lawrence et al. (2017) argued that police agencies would be better served by ensuring recruits are predisposed to the constructs of procedural justice and a community-oriented approach to policing rather than screening out undesirable applicants. Tyler (2017) argued that policing in a manner consistent with the concepts of procedural justice creates trust in the community and strengthens perceptions of police legitimacy. By addressing the law enforcement policies of screening-out and screening-in police applicants using psychological assessments and the quality of procedurally just policing services rendered to the community, this study contributes additional data to the body of knowledge.

This study creates several opportunities for social change. When police agencies can select personnel based on a predisposition to procedurally just policing, they can create a police service designed to police the community in a manner that restores and maintains police legitimacy. When a law enforcement agency is viewed by the public as being legitimate, the agency benefits in that the community will not only obey officers but also assist law enforcement in the attainment of the goal of crime reduction (Tyler, 2017). It can also be expected that when citizens obey the police, there is less opportunity for conflict escalation, thereby reducing police use of force and diminishing injuries to the police and the public.

Summary

In this chapter, I introduced the topic providing a brief history of policing as it relates to the identified problem. The research problem and purpose statements were articulated, as was the research methodology. The research questions and hypotheses to be tested were listed, and the theoretical framework used to guide the study was discussed. The nature of the study detailed the reasoning for selecting a mixed-methodology design as well as using the SSOPCE instrument. Definitions of key terms were listed to remove any ambiguity of meaning. In concluding this chapter, I described the scope, delimitations, limitations, and the significance of the study.

In Chapter 2, I provide an exhaustive review of the extant literature to show mastery of the knowledge of procedural justice and its function in the restoration of police legitimacy. Other aspects of these topics are also reviewed for their relevance when discussing the model of procedurally just policing and its role in improving police legitimacy. Relevant literature is also reviewed for psychological screening of police applicants and police personality.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The literature outlined in this chapter was used to guide the exploration of patrol officers' behaviors from different police agencies and the theoretical framework on which this study is based. The purpose of this mixed methodology study was to explore the manner in which police officers who have been selected by agencies using two different psychological screening methodologies (screen-in and screen-out) interact with citizens as they deliver patrol services and to discern any differences between the procedurally just behaviors of the different agency's officers. The problem I explored in this research is the low levels of perceived police legitimacy in American communities. The research specifically addressed whether how police agencies prescreen applicants through the use of psychological assessments (screen-in and screen-out) affects the amount of procedurally just behaviors of their patrol officers, which ultimately may serve to increase or decrease the level of perceived police legitimacy in the observed communities.

This chapter will begin with a synopsis of the literature research strategy employed, followed by the reasoning behind the selection of the theoretical framework used to guide this study. The historical development of the selected theory (procedural justice theory) will also be outlined as it relates to the research problem and purpose of this study. Furthermore, this chapter provides an analysis of the research literature regarding the development and current state of psychological assessment tools for use in screening police applicants. Given the limited research pertaining to police applicants'

psychological assessments as a valid predictor of procedurally just behaviors, a wide variety of concepts and variables will be explored related to personality constructs, methods of training police in procedurally just policing, the four tenants of procedurally just policing, distributive justice, and police performance measurement.

Literature Search Strategy

The literature review for this study was guided by qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methodology peer-reviewed literature on the usefulness of police applicants' post-offer psychological assessments in predicting procedurally just policing behaviors. Included in this literature review are articles related to personality traits, distributive justice, and police performance measurement. For the purpose of this literature review, the Walden University online library and subscription to Springer's *Journal of Experimental Criminology* were used. The following databases were accessed to search for scholarly, peer-reviewed articles for my research: Academic Search Complete, Criminal Justice Database, Thoreau multi-database, SAGE Journals, SocINDEX, Google Scholar, ProQuest Central, PsycArticles, Psychology Databases Simultaneous Search, PsycINFO, LexisNexis Academic, Bureau of Justice Statistics, Directory of Open Access Journals and Books, EBSCO ebooks, and Emerald Insight. I have searched using the phrases *police performance, measuring police performance, police screening, police assessment, psychological assessment, police personality assessment, procedural justice, constitutional policing, police performance evaluation, performance evaluation, citizen-police interaction, personality traits, teaching procedural justice to police, measuring procedural justice, measuring procedurally just behaviors in police,* and *predicting*

police behavior. Additionally, the phrase *law enforcement* was substituted for *police* in each applicable search.

Theoretical Foundation

Procedural justice theory served as the theoretical lens for this study. The theoretical framework is the foundation on which all knowledge is constructed for a research study (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). The theoretical framework provides the structure and support for the rationale for the study, the problem statement, purpose, and its significance (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). Without a clearly defined theoretical framework, it is possible that the reader may not be able to identify clearly the researcher's intended structure and purpose (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). Additionally, the framework reflects important personal beliefs and understandings about the nature of knowledge and reality (Grant & Osanloo, 2014).

The procedural justice theory is an appropriate framework for this study as it demonstrates how when the behaviors of police are perceived as being fair and honest, they can enhance their legitimacy (Huq, Jackson, & Trinkner, 2016; MacQueen & Bradford, 2015; Rosenbaum, Lawrence, Hartnett, McDevitt, & Posick, 2015; Tyler, 1988, 2004). The theory further states that when police are perceived as being fair and trustworthy, citizens will alter their behavior to obey and cooperate with the police when dealing with crime and disorder (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015; Tyler, 2012). The criminal justice literature is replete with the theory of procedural justice being used as the pathway to enhancing police legitimacy (Madon, Murphy, & Sargeant, 2017; Murphy, Sargeant, & Cherney, 2015; Nix, 2017; Tyler & Jackson, 2014). Predominately, the literature

examines the four elemental constructs of procedural justice relating to the quality of treatment and quality of the decision-making process (Jonathan-Zamir & Harpaz, 2018; Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015; Tyler, 1988; Van Damme, 2017), which when demonstrated by police behavior during interactions with citizens, serves to enhance perceptions of police legitimacy.

A police-citizen interaction is broken down into two parts: the relationship that emerges from the exhibited behaviors of the police officer and the citizen involved during the interaction and the citizen's perception of the police resultant from the interaction. A citizen's perception of police legitimacy is based upon the police behaviors of participation or voice, neutrality, dignity and respect, and trustworthy motives (Rosenbaum et al., 2017). Participation or voice refers to allowing citizens the opportunity to present their version of events and be part of the solution/resolution (Tyler et al., 2015). The concept of neutrality incorporates the notion of transparency insofar as the decision-making process is based on facts gathered from all parties and the outcome is reached in a neutral, unbiased manner (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). Dignity and respect simply phrased means a police officer's behaviors demonstrate an acknowledgment of an individual's rights and that they are worthy of respect (Van Damme, 2017). Finally, an officer's trustworthy motives are perceived by citizens through an officer's behavior when it demonstrates care and concern for the well-being of the citizen (Van Damme, 2017).

Procedural Justice Theory Roots

John Rawls's (1971) theory of justice is the foundation of the procedural justice theory. Rawls is a well-known political and ethical philosopher and is widely considered the most important political philosopher of the 20th century (Duignan, 2018). The major contribution of Rawls's theory to procedural justice theory is in its conceptualization of *justice as fairness* (p. 25). It is in this conceptualization in which people in their *original position* (p. 15) under a *veil of ignorance* (p. 17) choose that "each person has an equal right to the most extensive basic liberty compatible with a similar liberty for others" (p. 266) and that "social and economic inequalities are to be arranged so that they are both (a) to the greatest benefit to the least advantaged and (b) attached to offices and positions open to all under conditions of fair equality of opportunity" (p. 266). Rawls's theory directly implies a justice of distribution of good and opportunity for each member of society.

Extending Rawls's theory of justice to an equality of distribution in conflict resolution, Thibaut and Walker (1978) theorized that distributive justice is realized when outcomes are distributed to conflicting parties directly in proportion to their level of investment to the circumstances giving rise to the dispute. Therefore, the procedure with the greatest certitude of producing justice is the one which optimizes "the fullest possible report of inputs prior to the determination of the distribution" (Thibaut & Walker, 1978, p. 542). Thibaut and Walker further theorized that the objective of justice attainment is best served by a procedure that allows the disputants the maximum amount of control over the process of dispute resolution while control of the decision process is controlled

by a neutral third party. As intended by the authors, this model of procedure fits well within the entire legal system of the United States in its goal of attaining distributing justice in instances of disputes entailing a high conflict of interest.

Prior to their 1978 work, Thibaut and Walker (1975) conducted a series of laboratory experiments designed to compare two systems of justice and their actual and perceived abilities to achieve procedural justice. These experiments hinged on Rawls's (1971) assumption that principles of justice are standards preferred by disinterested participants who do not know their own advantages and disadvantages and are unaware of their own opportunity for gain thereby shielding their sense of fairness from bias. The experiments of Thibaut and Walker demonstrated the preference of a diverse sampling of individuals to perceive the procedure of having an unbiased third party deliver a fair resolution after having weighed all available facts from the involved parties in high conflict disputes. This experimentation was the groundwork for the presumption of procedural justice theory in that perceptions of justice depend less on outcomes than on the procedures used by those charged with dispensing justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988).

Procedural Justice Theory

Building on the works of both Rawls's (1971) book *A Theory of Justice*, and Thibaut and Walker's *Procedural justice: A Psychological Analysis* (1975), Lind and Tyler's *The Social Psychology of Procedural Justice* (1988) is the seminal work in the theory of procedural justice. Lind and Tyler carried the sterile results of the laboratory work of Thibaut and Walker into the real-world in order to test their findings. Lind and Tyler's work focused on people's "evaluations of social experiences and relationships as

being largely influenced by the *form* of social interaction" (p. 1). This counterintuitive idea served to redirect the thinking and research of social psychologists from outcome-based evaluations to process based evaluations in regards to people's satisfaction with their social experiences.

The foundational works by Thibaut and Walker (1975) and Lind and Tyler (1988) were focused on the American adversarial system of justice and people's satisfaction with the legal process when they were able to have their interests expressed to a detached, third-party decision maker. Realizing the application of procedural justice theory beyond the court system, Tyler (1988) began examining citizens' contacts with the police as the vast majority of citizens' contact with the legal system begins and ends with that contact. Tyler examined what specifically about the treatment by legal authorities, chiefly the police, creates the perception in the involved citizen that the treatment they received was fair. Tyler deduced that there are two categories of the underlying dimensions of procedural justice. The first category addresses the quality of the process, whereas the second category is concerned with the quality of the treatment by legal authorities (Tyler, 1988). It is this deduction from which a wealth of procedural justice research has sprung.

Tyler (1988), extending the work of Leventhal (1980), examined six hypothesized dimensions of procedural justice pertaining to the categories of the quality of treatment and the quality of the process, those being, control/representation, consistency, impartiality, decision accuracy, correctability, and ethicality. The results of Tyler's study confirmed the importance of procedural justice as being more influential in an individual's assessment of the fairness of a legal process than that of distributive justice

and that there is little independent effect of the favorability of outcomes or the procedures used. Further, Tyler demonstrated the importance to citizens that the actions of legal authorities be perceived as being fair and unbiased and that interpretations of the meaning of procedural justice and the values used in its evaluation were consistent across ethnicities and locations. Lastly, Tyler opined that the "common values facilitate the efforts of officials by suggesting the public concerns they ought to focus on to gain citizen acceptance of their efforts" (p. 132), thus making an initial connection between procedural justice and citizen's perceptions of police legitimacy.

In the years that have followed the foundational works of Thibaut and Walker and Lind and Tyler, procedural justice theory has been studied by researchers in the fields of psychology, political science, organizational behavior, sociology, and public health (Hagan & Hans, 2017). Procedural justice theory has been explored for its use in offering solutions to problems ranging from sociolegal conflict resolution to policy reform (MacCoun, 2005). Researchers have empirically tested the theory of procedural justice in a wide range of applications such as the behavior of organizations, obedience to the law, and dispute resolution (Brockner, Tyler, & Cooper-Schneider, 1992; Tyler, 1990, 1997; Tyler & Huo, 2002). As applied to the field of policing, the causal links posited by the theory have been used to examine the perceptions of just police behaviors and practices, citizens' perceptions of police legitimacy, and obedience to the law (Hagan & Hans, 2017). Despite the volumes of literature demonstrating correlations, researchers continue to work towards establishing a strong causal link between procedural justice perceptions and compliance with and legitimacy of the police (Nagin & Telep, 2017).

When examining the psychology of legitimacy, three theoretical perspectives are commonly used to explain how it is that people evaluate their social experiences those being, social exchange theories, distributive justice theories, and procedural justice theories (Tyler & Lind, 1992). Social exchange theories are constructed around the idea that human behavior is motivated by self-interest in their interactions with others (Cook & Rice, 2003; Homans, 1961; Kelley & Thibaut, 1978). Perceptions of police legitimacy would, therefore, rely greatly upon favorable outcomes. The literature has repeatedly shown that perceptions of police legitimacy are more strongly correlated to the quality of treatment and the quality of the process as opposed to the favorability of the outcome (Gau, 2015; Huq et al., 2016; Mastrofski et al., 2016; Murphy, 2009; Tyler, 1994, 2006, 2017). The theory of distributive justice is focused upon the concern individuals have with the fairness of outcomes. Within the theory, there are two differing principles of justice addressed by equity theories (equality of outcomes) and the other by relative deprivation theory (inequality of outcomes; Tyler & Lind, 1992). The work of Sunshine and Tyler (2003) demonstrated that while distributive justice does influence judgments of legitimacy ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < 0.001$), procedural justice ($\beta = 0.35$, $p < 0.001$) has a significantly greater influence. The findings of Sunshine and Tyler have been duplicated throughout the body of literature (Donner, Maskaly, & Fridell, 2015; Hough, Jackson, & Bradford, 2013: Reisig, Tankebe, and Mesko, 2014; Tankebe, Reisig, and Wang, 2016).

Procedural Justice Theory and Policing

Tyler and Lind (1992) was one of the first studies to focus on the role of procedural justice and its ability to shape public support for and evaluation of the police

(Elliot, Thomas, and Ogloff, 2011). Evaluations of procedural justice in a policing

context have been made through the measurement of an individual's perceived obligation

to obey and/or their trust in the police, commonly used separately or in combination as

the conceptualization of police legitimacy (Nix, Wolfe, Rojek, and Kaminski, 2015;

Sargeant, Murphy, and Cherney, 2014; Tyler, 2004; Tyler and Jackson, 2014; Wolfe,

Nix, Kaminski, and Rojek, 2016). Tyler and Jackson (2014), identified four dimensions

of procedural justice, which will be used to guide this study in the measurement of

procedurally just policing behaviors. The four identified dimensions of procedurally just

policing are, giving citizens a voice, treating people with dignity and respect, being

neutral and unbiased, and trustworthy motives (Aiello and Lawton, 2018; Jonathan-

Zamir, Mastrofski, and Moyal, 2015; Lawrence, Christoff, and Escamilla, 2017; Noppe,

Verhage, and Van Damme, 2017; Tyler and Jackson, 2014).

The 2015 study by Jonathan-Zamir et al. was used to guide this study for its

examination of police behaviors that contribute to citizens' perceptions of police

legitimacy. Jonathan-Zamir et al. (2015), define procedural justice as "the fairness of the

process by which the police exercise their authority: the way that police treat citizens and

how they decide what to do" (p. 846). The researchers argued that the more citizens

observe police demonstrating behaviors indicative of procedurally just policing, the

greater the likelihood that the citizens would perceive the police to be a legitimate

authority. Therefore, procedural justice is seen to be a formative index as opposed to a

reflective index as it has been more widely construed in previous research. A reflective

index is so named as it believed to be reflective of an underlying construct and in the case

of procedural justice viewed as a single latent variable. Jonathan-Zamir et al. (2015)

argue that fairness in police interactions must be estimated through the process of

combining officer behaviors that are not intercorrelated, nor are they interchangeable.

By labeling procedural justice as a formative construct, it becomes possible for a

detached observer to "apply explicit, intersubjectively transmissible standards" (p. 846),

to the behaviors of the police during police-citizen interactions. The observer is able to

note the varied officer behaviors which are thought to resonate with different facets of the

construct and when combined provide an estimate the fairness of the police treatment

(Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). By looking at all behaviors displayed by the police during

interactions with citizens, it is hoped that the full concept of procedural justice can be

captured.

Worden and McLean (2017) point out that procedurally just policing "creates"

legitimacy resultant from individual police-citizen encounters. The process leading from

the police-citizen encounter to legitimacy is dependent upon each citizen making

judgments based on their interpretations of the actions of the police officer with whom

they interact (Worden and McLean, 2017). Following this thinking, Jonathan-Zamir et

al., (2015) and Van Damme (2017) demonstrate that through the observation of police

behaviors as they interact with citizens a quantifiable amount of procedurally just police

behavior can be empirically demonstrated. It is, therefore thought that the more behaviors

that are perceived by the citizen to be fair, the more procedural justice the citizen receives

(Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). The procedurally just policing behaviors are those which

demonstrate giving citizens the ability to voice their interpretation of the events and offer

explanations, make decisions in a neutral, transparent, unbiased fashion, are polite and

demonstrate respect for the rights of citizens, and demonstrate concern for the wellbeing

of citizens (Jonathan-Zamir et al. 2015, Van Damme, 2017).

Cultivating Procedurally Just Policing

There has been a rush for politicians and police policymakers to single out

procedural justice as the "silver bullet" to the restoration of citizens' perceptions of the

police as a legitimate authority. While the policy of policing in a procedurally just

manner to restore perceived legitimacy appears to be a straightforward cause-and-effect

scenario, the problem of how to transform police organizations and their sworn

employees into its practitioners is not as clear. Framed by the work of Suchman (1995)

and his definition of legitimacy as "a generalized perception or assumption that the

actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially construed

system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions" (p. 574), the sparse body of research in

this topic is examined.

Suchman (1995) states that legitimacy is a reaction that individuals who are

external to an organization have in reaction to the behavior of that organization. Thus

legitimacy is something that is possessed objectively but created subjectively (Suchman,

1995). The legitimacy of an organization is socially constructed in that members of

society observing the behaviors of the legitimated organization and perceiving the

behaviors to fall within the parameters of some held societal belief, judge the

organization to be legitimate (Suchman, 1995). This may hold true despite the

observations and judgments of any single observer. Suchman opines that organizations

seek out legitimacy as it enhances the stability and comprehensibility of organizational behaviors and actions. An organization that is perceived to be legitimate can expect to receive cooperation from individuals and groups external to the organization (Suchman). This is echoed in the work of Tyler (2003, 2004, 2017) in his assumption that when police are perceived as being legitimate, they can expect public cooperation and deference to their commands.

Suchman (1995) acknowledges the difficulties in managing legitimacy, stating that organizational management must rely on communication to both internal and external constituents. Organizations must be skilled at gaining, maintaining and repairing their perceived legitimacy through the use of strategic responses to organizational actions and behaviors which appeal to the pragmatic, moral, and cognitive levels of their audience (Suchman, 1995). It is also imperative that an organization be cognizant of cultural support, both internal and external to the organization. Without the support of the members within the organization, it is not possible to maintain the support of those external to the organization to an extended period of time (Suchman, 1995). Likewise, if an organization is unaware that their actions and behaviors are no longer supported by groups external to the organization, it cannot sustain its externally perceived legitimacy (Suchman, 1995). Framed in a policing context, the issue is, how do police organizations create internal and external legitimacy in ways that create, sustain, and repair their perceived legitimacy in society?

When addressing issues of police legitimacy and the use of procedural justice to create, sustain, and repair it, the traditional police culture (TPC) must be taken into

account. The TPC has been defined as a set of attitudes and values that serve to insulate officers from the stresses and strains inherent to police work as well as supplying an interpretive lens from which to evaluate the behaviors and intentions of others (Crank, 2014; Silver, Roche, Bilach, & Ryon, 2017). Research has demonstrated that support for the use of force and support for procedural justice have strong linkages to TPC endorsement among both officers and supervisors/management (Silver et al., 2017). TPC instills distrust of and isolation from citizens, a crime-fighting orientation, motivation to avoid managerial oversight of behavior, loyalty to fellow officers, intense focus on officer safety, and lack of desire to report office misconduct (Crank; Silver et al., 2014). This is an important factor as it can act to impede procedurally just policing behaviors depending on the degree to which TPC is internalized by officers and their managers.

Research into the degree to which officers endorse TPC has taken one of three directions, those being, individual characteristics, organizational characteristics, and social contextual characteristics. Researchers have acknowledged that differences at the individual level amongst police officers may contribute to the degree to which they endorse TPC (Silver et al., 2017). Studies have examined the variables of officer race/ethnicity, sex, educational level, and years of service (Ingram and Terrill, 2014; Pew Research Center, 2017; Paoline, Terrill, and Rossler, 2015) but found only modest associations between these variables and endorsement of TPC (Silver et al., 2017). The examination of organizational characteristics that influence an officer's endorsement of TPC has traditionally looked at, organizational justice and the manner in which police managers use procedural justice when interacting with frontline officers (Bradford &

Quinton, 2014; Myhill & Bradford, 2013), increasing diversity in law enforcement and the shifting of norms and values due to decreasing homogeneity (Paoline, 2004), and agency size and type (Nowacki, 2015). Research has yet to show any definitive pattern in TPC endorsement across agencies (Silver et al., 2017).

The final organizational characteristic examined in the literature is the social contextual characteristics in which the officers and agencies function. Social contextual factors are the political environment, geographical location, and socioeconomic level to name but a few (Silver et al., 2017). The 2017 study by Silver et al., demonstrates that TPC is most strongly associated with organizational factors among line-officers than their managers and that the various individual, organizational, and social contextual factors impacted officers' occupational attitudes, were weak predictors of occupational attitudes across samples. Silver et al. (2017), reaffirm previous findings that TPC may function as an impediment to procedurally just policing reform requiring organizational commitment to overcome. Most importantly, for my study, this research demonstrated that individual factors were an important indicator for the endorsement of procedurally just policing among line-officers. Secondly, it highlights the research gap in that the individual factors included in the research literature are not individual personality traits.

The literature contains few studies examining the effects of training at the recruit and/or incumbent officer level on police officers' use of procedural justice when interacting with citizens. Hence, there is little in the way of evidence-based guidance for police agencies to train their officers in a way that will influence patrol behaviors so that they are consistent with the goals of procedurally just policing (Owens et al., 2018;

Skogan et al., 2015; Worden & McLean; 2017). This problem is highlighted by

Rosembaum and Lawrence (2017) in their evaluation of Chicago's Quality Interaction

Program (QIP) designed to focus on procedural justice, interpersonal communication,

decision-making, cultural awareness, and stress management during citizen interactions.

This training was given to Chicago recruit officers and used applied case studies, role-

playing scenarios, repetitive opportunities for practice, and individualized feedback

(Rosenbaum and Lawrence, 2017). The researchers' findings demonstrated the (QIP)

training did not change recruits' attitudes toward procedural justice, nor did it improve

recruits' self-reported interpersonal communication skills. Bayley (2018) goes as far to

say that in the effort to reshape the behavior of officers during citizen encounters, a series

of "short, one-off programs of top-down advice" (p. 126) was developed which

ultimately proved to be flawed in that they failed to address that changing behavior

requires on-going training in real-life scenarios. The current body of research

demonstrates a lack of effectiveness of training methods in the attempt to instill

procedurally just policing behaviors as well as a gap in accounting for individual

personality trait differences between police officers and how those differences influence

these behaviors.

Psychological Screening of Police Applicants

Police psychology has been defined as the application of psychological principles

and methods to law enforcement in the areas of screening and hiring, specialty

assignment screening, fitness-for-duty evaluations, investigations, hostage negotiator

training, and stress counseling (Kitaeff, 2011). The first record of psychological testing of

police applicants has been acknowledged as the 1916 testing of San Jose Police

Department police applicants by Lewis Terman, the developer of the Stanford-Binet

Intelligence Test (American Board of Police and Public Safety Psychology, 2014). In

1917, Terman published his report stating that intelligence tests had the potential to be of

great value as a selection tool (American Board of Police and Public Safety Psychology).

For the next 40 years, the efforts to create and use personality instruments for police

applicant selection reflected the work of academic and experimental psychologists

applying developing methodologies and assessment tools to the policing world

(American Board of Police and Public Safety Psychology). It was not until the 1973

National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals concluded that

every police agency establish a formal process of personnel selection to include, written

aptitude tests, oral interview, psychological examination, and a thorough background

investigation that the federal government lent support for the development of police

psychology moving the field ahead (Cochrane, Tett, and Vandecreek, 2003).

    The most commonly used tests are the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality

Inventory-2 Restructured Form (MMPI-2-RF) and the California Psychological Inventory

Police and Public Safety Report (CPI-PPSR) for the purpose of testing for abnormal

psychological functioning (Craig, 2005; Roberts, Tarescavage, Ben-Porath, and Roberts,

2018; Tarescavage, Brewster, Corey, & Ben-Porath, 2015). To assess personality traits,

the main tests administered are the NEO Personality Inventory-Revised (NEO-PI-R), the

Personal Characteristics Inventory (PCI), the Inwald Personality Inventory (IPI), and the

16 Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF) (Barrett, Miguel, Hurd, Lueke, and Tan,

2003). The use of the MMPI-2-RF and CPI has been well-supported in its use for screening police applicants for varying degrees of psychopathy which may present themselves as obstacles in an applicant's pursuit of a successful law enforcement career (Corey, Sellbom, & Ben-Porath, 2018; Craig, 2005; Roberts et al.,2018; Tarescavage et al., 2015). The primary purpose of conducting psychological assessments has traditionally been to screen for absenteeism and lateness, behavior which could lead to harm to citizens or other officers, career longevity, and behavior that could lead to poor publicity and costly litigation (Cochrane et al., 2003; Roberts et al., 2018; Tarescavage et al., 2015).

The research literature has demonstrated these tests to be valid and reliable predictors of an applicant's likelihood of engaging in problematic behaviors. The results of these assessments have also been linked to positive supervisor ratings when the performance of police is measured by the number of cases closed, abuse of sick/injury leave, number of tickets written, and number of complaints generated (Corey et al.; Falkenbach, Glackin, & McKinley, 2018; Tarescavage et al., 2015). The tests of psychopathy are effective in determining who should not be considered as a candidate for the position of police officer. The practice of screening-out police applicants has been beneficial and is appropriate when the primary mission of the majority of law enforcement agencies across the United States is to combat crime aggressively and present an image of professionalism. However, as demonstrated by the work of Meier, Farmer, and Maxwell (1987), the screen-out police applicant selection process fails to

identify the applicants who possess the personality characteristics most conducive to policing in a manner aligned with the philosophies of the hiring agency.

In the early 1990s, police reformers propelled forward by the research into police legitimacy and procedural justice, began the push for change in the manner in which policing services were delivered from that of warriors enforcing "zero tolerance" policies to aggressively combat crime to that of guardians seeking community acceptance and engagement. The effort to reform policing became known as Community Oriented Policing and was met with varying degrees of acceptance and implementation (Zhao, Thurman, & Lovrich, 1995). Over the course of several decades, community-oriented policing evolved into a program focusing on educational programs and officers working in schools. But that changed on August 9, 2014, when Michael Brown Jr. was fatally shot in Ferguson, Missouri by a white police officer, sparking protests and riots across the country. Once again, reformers became intensely focused on police legitimacy by changing the very manner in which police delivered their services through the use of procedurally just policing.

The work of Lawrence et al. (2017) was used to guide this study in an examination of how police agencies can use psychological screening instruments to identify police applicants who have a predisposition to the behaviors and qualities that are needed to police in a procedurally just manner. Lawrence et al. (2017), highlight the problem with psychological examinations as being attuned to predicting performance measures that are much less relevant post-Ferguson than in the decades prior. Psychological assessment measures do not account for the quality of police work during

police-citizen interactions, which are when, according to procedural justice theory, police legitimacy can be gained. Police agencies must use psychological assessment instruments to screen-in police applicants who demonstrate alignment with the constructs of community policing and procedural justice (Lawrence et al., 2017; Morison, 2017). In an effort to make the initial exploration into which psychological measures have the greatest potential of predicting positive community engagement and procedurally just policing, the researchers measured communication styles as well as five constructs of personality.

Lawrence et al., (2017) posit that when police engage in effective communication, both the citizen and the police are likely to experience a positive interaction. Lawrence et al., base their hypothesis on the communication accommodation theory which states that when speakers adjust their behavior while interacting with others, they can reduce the social distance between them and those with whom they are interacting. The researchers cite previous studies which support this theory in its application to police-citizen interactions due to the observed improvements in citizens' perceptions of trust and attitudes when the police communicated more robustly. Furthermore, the researchers citing Tyler (1990), noted that components of the communication accommodation theory aligned with procedural justice theory, specifically when a police officer communicates robustly with a citizen, they improve the citizen's perception of the quality of process and quality of treatment which leads to perceptions of procedurally just policing. The researchers examined six dimensions of communication styles, which included active listening, empathy, comfort when communicating with strangers, controlling emotions when upset, being argumentative,

and controlling the conversation. The six communication dimensions were associated with either the quality of treatment or the quality of procedure dimension of procedural justice.

Much of the research literature on police performance and personality traits has focused on the theory of the Big Five personality traits (Annell et al., 2015; Detrick & Chibnall, 2006, 2013; Lokhande & Dongre, 2013; Masood et al., 2017; Niñerola et al., 2014), and accordingly Lawrence et al., (2017) chose the Big Five theory for their research study. The researchers examined the personality traits of agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and openness. A total of 44 items were used to measure the five personality dimensions, which were again either associated with the procedural justice dimensions of the quality of treatment or the quality of the procedure.

In the study by Lawrence et al., (2017) it was demonstrated that the variables of officer gender, age, educational level, minority race status, previous law enforcement experience and military experience were non-significant predictors of procedurally just policing. The researchers found that the communication styles of empathy and emotional control were significantly related to the procedural justice dimension of the quality of treatment and that empathy was also predictive of the quality of procedure dimension as well. The researchers also found that the personality dimension of neuroticism was predictive of both procedural justice dimensions. The results from this study lend initial support for the use of communication style and personality dimension in police applicant prescreening to identify applicants most likely to police in a procedurally just manner.

Defining and Measuring Police Performance

Traditionally, police performance has been measured quantitatively through the determination of arrest rates, crime rates, response times, abuse of sick leave, and citizen complaints. As the role of the police has become more complex, incorporating the creation of police-community partnerships, serving as frontline mental health professionals, and establishing relationships with immigrant populations, we can no longer limit the measurement of police performance with crude quantitative markers (Davis et al., 2015). De Maillard and Savage (2018) define two categories of performance management in police organizations, traditional, which is target-based, top-down and short-term, and advanced, which is process-based, more deliberative, and creative and long-term. These researchers describe police management and performance as a contradictory world where elements of both categories exist in constant flux with cascading pressures and an overreliance on the quantitative measurements of performance.

Kelling, in his 1992 seminal work, states that the traditional formal measures of police work have little to do with the needs of the communities they serve. This sentiment is carried on by Davis et al. (2015) and Rosenbaum et al. (2017) in their calls for measuring police performance in new ways. With the advent of community policing and the theory of procedural justice, there is an absolute need to measure police performance with metrics that can discern police behaviors which are indicative of the quality of service rendered to the community (Davis et al.; Kelling; Rosenbaum et al., 2017). Rosenbaum et al. state that what an organization measures as a performance measure

matters to the extent that employees will direct their activities to that metric to improve the appraisal of their performance. Hence, if police organizations were to measure the quality of police-citizen interactions, frontline officers would improve the quality of their interactions with citizens to improve their performance appraisals which would likewise act to improve citizens' perceptions of procedural justice and improve their legitimacy.

Rosenbaum et al. (2017) advocated measuring the officer behaviors of conversational etiquette, emotional control, use of force, neutrality, respectfulness, empathy, helpfulness, and officer competence as determinates of the quality of police service rendered to the community. By redefining the metrics of how police performance is measured and therefore defined, it is, therefore, necessary to alter the applicant screening process to ensure the candidates accepted possess the skills required to police in a manner consistent with procedurally just policing (Lawrence et al., 2017). In order to test this, a comparison of the quality of policing services rendered to citizens must be undertaken to explore and quantify procedurally just policing in screen-in and screen-out police agencies. It is this gap in the literature that my study shall address.

My review of the literature demonstrates a paucity of research on police applicant personality assessments and their use to improve police-community relations through the application of procedurally just policing practices. Using NVivo 12 Pro, I conducted a word query for the 10 most frequently used words in the current literature on procedural justice, police legitimacy, and police psychological assessments which have been illustrated in Figure 1.
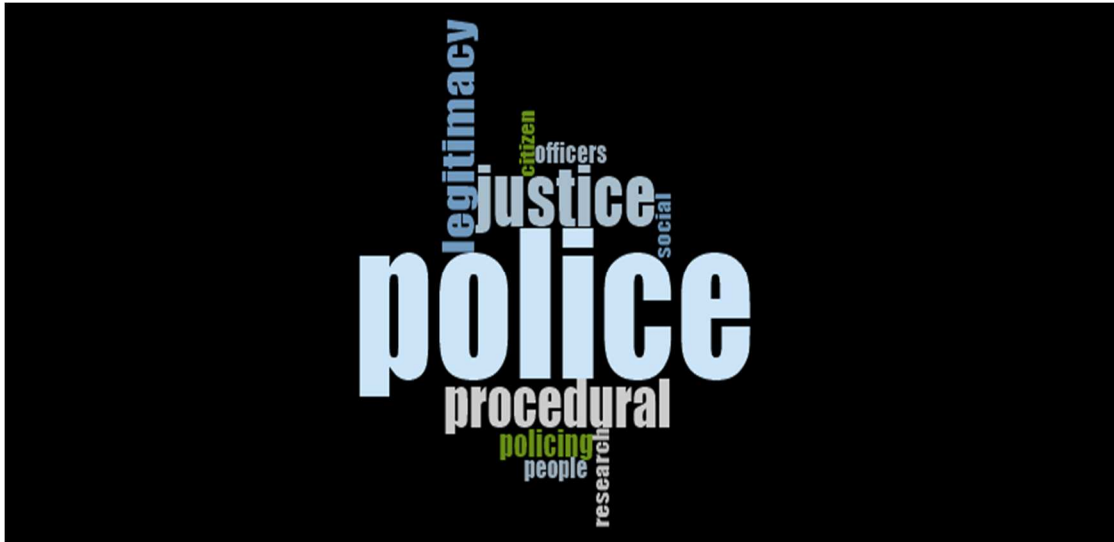
Figure 1. Results of an NVivo word query (Procedural Justice, Police Legitimacy & Police Applicant Psychological Assessment). The word cloud was created using the 10 most frequent words in the reviewed literature. The words "police" and "justice" were the highest frequency words.

Summary

In this chapter, I reviewed the literature research strategy used and outlined the historical development of the theoretical framework (procedural justice theory) on which my study is based. I then detailed and analyzed the key concepts and variables on police legitimacy, procedural justice, how to get the police to police in a procedurally just manner, psychological assessments of police applicants, and police performance. There is scarce literature on the use of psychological assessments to screen-in police applicants for the likelihood of policing in a procedurally just manner; therefore, I reviewed and synthesized important elements of this topic in this literature review. To demonstrate mastery of knowledge of police legitimacy and psychological assessments of police applicants, an exhaustive review of the extant literature was explained. In the ensuing chapter, research method (Chapter 3), I will discuss in detail the historical roots and

traditions of mixed methodology research, my role as researcher, the methodology of my study, and address issues of trustworthiness, validity, and reliability.

Conclusions

Policing in America has undergone several evolutionary periods throughout its history; from the days of political cronyism and nepotism to professional crime-fighting organizations. By the 1960s, it had become widely accepted that police would be perceived as legitimate (people will obey the law and cooperate with the police) if they exuded professionalism and were aggressive with their crime-fighting tactics, but when crime rates fell, and the police were still struggling with their perceived legitimacy, it was evident that perceptions of legitimacy relied on more than a professional image and low crime rates. In 1988, Lind and Tyler made the first effort to extend the theory of procedural justice to policing and citizens' perceptions of police legitimacy. Procedural justice has been examined in the literature by researchers across the globe, testing its constructs and generalizability to other cultures. While some researchers have questioned the theory's causal link to legitimacy (John F. Finn Institute of Public Safety, 2015; Worden & McLean, 2017), the literature shows a strong relationship between procedural justice and police legitimacy.

With a general acceptance in the literature of procedural justice theory as a means to restoring police legitimacy, police policymakers and politicians have publicly endorsed procedurally just policing in America. Where the literature is lacking is in the exploration and examination of methods to transform American police into procedurally just police force. A limited number of studies have examined the effects of procedural justice

training on recruits, and even fewer have looked at in-service training as a venue of instruction. However, there is no clear method that has been demonstrated in the literature as being effective in instilling the principles of procedurally just policing in the long-term. Even more critical is a need to explore and examine the methods used to select police applicants for the position of police officer. Lawrence et al. (2017) make the initial look at using psychological examinations given to police applicants as a means to screen for those applicants who possess the personality characteristics essential to policing in a procedurally just fashion. Following this initial step, an exploration and examination of the quality and quantity of procedurally just policing behaviors by current officers in agencies who employ different screening methods are warranted.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this mixed methods study was to explore the manner in which officers who have been employed by law enforcement agencies using two different psychological screening philosophies (screen-in or screen-out), interact with citizens as they deliver police patrol services and identify any differences between the procedurally just policing behaviors delivered to the communities served and citizens' satisfaction with the encounter. In this chapter, I provide the history and a description of mixed methodology research focusing on a QUAL→quan design. The research design and rationale, the role of the researcher, methodology, threats to reliability and validity, issues of trustworthiness, and the ethical procedures will be explained in this chapter.

Research Design and Rationale

As a mixed methods study, both qualitative and quantitative methods were employed. Plano-Clark and Ivankova (2016) defined a mixed methods design as one in which qualitative and quantitative methods are mixed in specific ways so that the purpose of the research study is thoroughly addressed. The qualitative method portion was comprised of multiple case studies consisting of pick-up and dispatched runs and the resultant police patrol officers' interactions with citizens. Ravitch and Carl (2016) stated that a case study may be the researcher's unit of analysis, which it is in this study. Yin (2017) described case studies as being comprised of timely, real-life events, while Creswell (2007) added that case studies are bounded by time and place. Gutterman and Fetters (2018) have proposed a mixed-method – case study design in which a parent

mixed methods study includes a nested case study for the qualitative component. An exploratory case study design complemented this study because of its in-depth approach to understanding the delivery of police services from law enforcement agencies with differing policies of determining who is an acceptable police officer candidate. Additionally, this inquiry was the initial exploration of this specific context in which the phenomenon operates and consequently aimed to define the questions and hypotheses that will form the basis of future inquiry (Yin, 2017).

Research Questions

RQ1: In a Midwest screen-in police agency, what behaviors by police officers (N = 8) on dispatched calls for service contribute to the level of community trust/police legitimacy during interactions with citizens?

RQ2: In a Midwest screen-out police agency, what behaviors by police officers (N = 8) on dispatched calls for service contribute to the level of community trust/police legitimacy during interactions with citizens?

RQ3: In a Midwest screen-in police agency, what behaviors by police officers (N = 8) on self-initiated runs contribute to the level of community trust/police legitimacy during interactions with citizens?

RQ4: In a Midwest screen-out police agency, what behaviors by police officers (N = 8) on self-initiated runs contribute to the level of community trust/police legitimacy during interactions with citizens?

H_1: There is a statistically significant and meaningful difference in patrol officer behaviors which contribute to citizens' perceptions of police legitimacy in one Midwest screen-in police agency and one Midwest screen-out police agency.

H_0: There is no difference in the procedurally just behaviors of patrol officers during interactions with citizens of screen-in and screen-out police agencies.

Role of the Researcher

In qualitative research, the researcher is the primary instrument of data collection, and as such, the role the researcher plays must be carefully considered (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). The researcher identity components of positionality and social location must be acknowledged at each stage of the research process in order to understand the role of the researcher (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Ravitch and Carl (2016) stated that positionality refers to the many roles and relationships that exist between the researcher and the research participants in relation to the research setting, whereas social location is a researcher's "gender, social class, race, sexual identity, culture, and ethnicity as well as the intersections of these and other identity markers such as national origin, language communities and so on" (p. 12). To account for these factors, the process of reflexivity was practiced in a critical, systematic manner to account for researcher subjectivities and biases.

Data were gathered in my study using the systematic social observation (SSO) tool tested and validated by Jonathan-Zamir et al. (2015). Observations were made of police patrol officers interacting with citizens on calls for service and self-initiated runs. The interactions were coded for police behaviors that are supportive of a procedurally

just manner of policing, and when possible, the behaviors and words of the citizens were coded for their level of satisfaction with the interaction. As the researcher and a current law enforcement officer, I understand that the research design contains potential for bias, so I used the process of researcher reflexivity to ensure the coding of behaviors of both the officers and citizens reflects the actual intentions and experiences of the interactions (see Thurairajah, 2019).

Methodology

The following subsections outline the methods used for the selection of participants, data collection, researcher bias reduction strategies, credibility, analysis of data, and ethical considerations.

Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

The participants for this study consisted of law enforcement officers assigned to patrol duties in two different police departments in the Midwest. The police patrol officers were frontline officers and did not include any police officers of rank. The police agencies chosen differed primarily in the method of psychological screening used to select from their lists of police applicants. One agency used the screen-in method of applicant selection while the other agency used the screen-out method. It was hoped that the agencies chosen would be as similar as possible, with the exception being the screening methods used.

The overwhelming majority of police agencies use the screen-out method of psychological screening for their applicants. Therefore, once I had identified a screen-in police agency, I selected an agency with similar characteristics from the screen-out

agencies. Using the FOIA, a list of all officers assigned to patrol duties was obtained

from each department. Using a random number generator, eight patrol officers were

randomly selected from each agency ($N = 16$). After the 16 officers were selected, I made

an FOIA request for 10 police-citizen interactions from the screen-out agency and ride-

alongs for the screen-in agency. Public records law requires police agencies to maintain

body-worn camera video for a minimum of 60 days. Using a random number generator,

10 days (from Days 1-60) were randomly chosen from which a randomly sampled citizen

contact was made during a dispatched call for service or self-initiated run was reviewed

and coded with the Jonathan-Zamir et al.'s (2015) SSO tool. The rationale for selecting a

sample size of 16 participants is in the estimation that the unit of analysis, police-citizen

interactions, should result in approximately 8 officers × 10 days of video × 1

interactions/day = 80 (units of analysis) plus 8 officers × 9 contacts/day = 72 interactions

= 152, providing an adequate sample size and sufficient power.

   To test the null hypothesis that $H_0 \neq H_1$, Frankfort-Nachmias and Leon-Guerrero

(2015) state the chi-square test is designed to test for significant relationships between

two nominal level variables in a bivariate table. The chi-square test requires no

assumptions about the shape of the population distribution but does assume the use of

random sampling (Frankfort-Nachmias & Leon-Guerrero, 2015). The obtained chi-square

test statistic is a summary of the differences between the observed and expected

frequencies in a bivariate table, $\chi^2 = \Sigma (f_o - f_e)^2 / f_e$ (Frankfort-Nachmias & Leon-Guerrero,

2015). The obtained chi-square test statistic will be used along with a level of

significance set at $\alpha \leq .05$ and $df = \infty$ to determine if the null hypothesis can be rejected

and the results interpreted to mean there is a statistically significant difference between the amount of procedurally just behaviors of police officers in screen-in and screen-out police agencies.

To preserve confidentiality, no identifying information were disclosed. Additionally, participant identity was revealed as each participant was identified numerically (1 – 16). It was not anticipated that any information pertaining to citizen identity would be available but to safeguard citizen identity, no identifying information was used and all references to citizens was by officer number and interaction number (e.g., the citizen viewed in Officer #2 interaction #8).

Historical artifacts were also obtained from the selected agencies. Using an FOIA request, I obtained participant officers' personnel files to extract awards, compliments, complaints, disciplinary action, and supervisor reviews. Saldaña (2016) stated that qualitative data may come from interview transcripts, participant observation, field notes, journals, documents, open-ended survey responses, drawings, artifacts, photographs, video, and so on. These data were coded to symbolically capture the essence of what each datum contributes to the understanding of the procedurally just behavior of each patrol officer. The process of data triangulation entails gathering as many data sources as possible that bear upon the phenomenon under study seeking a convergence to form themes or categories (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). In my study, observational data were used along with these other data sources to accomplish the task of triangulation.

Instrumentation

The data collection instruments for this study were the SSO instrument developed and validated by Jonathan-Zamir et al. (2015). Mastrofski, Parks, and McCluskey (2010) defined SSO as observations and recordings of human behaviors and settings "done according to explicit procedures which permit replication and … permit the use of the logic of scientific inference" (p. 226). SSOs have been used recently in the literature to measure procedurally just behaviors as well as procedurally unjust behaviors (Dai, Frank, & Sun, 2011; Van Damme, 2017; Worden & McLean, 2015). The SSO instrument developed by Jonathan-Zamir et al. (2015), was shown to have good construct, internal, and external validity and showed support that the composite index captures the full content of the separate elements and that each element makes a unique contribution to the index, making it an excellent choice for use in this study.

Data Analysis Plan

Using the data collection method of researcher observation, it is possible to apply explicit, intersubjectively transmissible standards to real-life police-citizen interactions and assess police behaviors in terms of procedurally just policing and qualitatively assess the citizens' perceptions of the justness of the encounter (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). The behavior of the police officers were qualitatively assessed for each recorded police-citizen interaction (unit of analysis) for the presence of the four elements of procedural justice (i.e., treating citizens with dignity and respect, giving the citizen a voice, demonstrating neutrality, and demonstrating concern for the wellbeing of the citizen).

Additionally, I assessed each police-citizen interaction for the setting, nature of the contact/problem, number of officers, number of citizens, date, time, and location.

To assess participation, I documented the officer actions that indicated they considered the request of the citizen (i.e., engaged in behavior that solicited input from citizens) and the manner in which the officer demonstrated listening skills. Each interaction was scored using the formula:

Participation = Officer asking for information or citizen point of view (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + the citizen expressed view/provided information (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + officer expressed interest in view/information (0 = *dismissive*, 1 = *inattentive listener*, 2 = *passive listener*, 3 = *active listener*; Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). Scores may range from 0 – 5.

To assess the neutrality of decision-making, officers must demonstrate a fair information-gathering process, demonstrate an absence of bias in the decision-making process, and demonstrate transparency in decision-making. To assess decision-making neutrality, the following formula was used:

Neutrality = officer seeks citizen viewpoints of all parties involved (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + officer explains no decision will be made before all information is gathered from all involved parties (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + officer demonstrates that decision was not influenced by citizens' race, age, sex (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + officer explains why police are involved in situation (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + officer explains why/how resolution was decided (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0; Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). Scores may range from 0 – 5.

To assess dignity, officer behaviors, and speech, which convey a message of respect and disrespect were documented. The recorded observation assessed the degree of respect or disrespect the officer demonstrated. Citing the work of Skogan (2006) which demonstrated negative experiences have a much stronger effect than positive experiences, Jonathan-Zamir et al. (2015), allowed demonstrations of disrespect to override demonstrations of respect. The following formula was used to assess officer behaviors demonstrative of respect/disrespect representative of dignity:

Dignity = extent to which officer words/behaviors demonstrated respect toward the citizen (disrespect = 0, officer showed neither but appeared more robotic in interactions = 1, officer demonstrated brief instances of respect = 2, officer demonstrated sporadic instances of respect = 3, officer demonstrated respect throughout contact = 4) (Jonathan-Zamir et al.). Scores may range from 0 – 4.

Assessing trustworthy motives was accomplished by documenting behaviors that demonstrated comfort and/or reassurance and by offering other services or assistance to citizens. The behaviors of the officers must be seen unambiguously as being beneficial to the citizen. The following formula was used to assess the behaviors of the officer that demonstrated trustworthiness:

Trustworthy motives = Showing care and concern = officer asks citizen about their well-being or any combination of behaviors demonstrative of this (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + officer offered comfort of reassurance to the citizen (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + officer actively controlled another on behalf of the citizen or promised to do so (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + officer filed a report or promised to do so (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + officer acted or promised to act on

behalf of the citizen with another government agency or private organization (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + the officer arranged or promised to arrange physical assistance to the citizen (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + the officer provided or promised to provide advice on how to cope/deal with the situation or how to handle the problem (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) (Jonathan-Zamir et al). The scores may range from 0 – 7.

Citizen satisfaction can be measured using observable cues displayed by the citizen during the course of the police-citizen interaction and focusing primarily on the very end of the encounter (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). The level of satisfaction can be rated on a scale ranging from 1 (*very negative*) to 5 (*very positive*) (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). It is critical to base the estimated level of citizen satisfaction on the words and actions of the citizen and not on an estimation of what the citizen might be feeling (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). Jonathan-Zamir et al. (2015), justified this observational coding of citizen satisfaction as their study data suggested that a relationship exists between the number of procedural justice behaviors exhibited by police and the amount of satisfaction displayed by citizens. The more procedurally just the police-citizen interaction was, the more behavioral expressions of satisfaction were manifested by the citizen and the converse was true as well such that the less procedurally just the encounter was, the more dissatisfaction was displayed by citizens (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015).

Assessing the Quality of a Mixed Methods Study

Quality of the Quantitative Strand

The traditional means of evaluating the quality of quantitative research data is accomplished by assessing their validity and reliability using statistical procedures (Plano-Clark & Ivankova, 2016). Plano-Clark and Ivankova (2016) define validity as, "the degree to which inferences can be accurately made based on test scores or other measures" (p. 166), while reliability is defined as, "the accuracy of measurement procedures to consistently produce the same scores" (p. 166). Validity is critical in gauging the relevance of the collected data in answering the quantitative research questions (Plano-Clark & Ivankova, 2016). Reliability refers to the ability to collect similar data using the same instruments in similar studies (Plano-Clark & Ivankova, 2016).

Internal and external validity are used to assess the quality of quantitative results. Internal validity is the researcher's ability to make correct inferences from the data, while external validity refers to the ability to make generalizations of the results to a larger population (Plano-Clark & Ivankova, 2016). Internal and external validity were addressed by Jonathan-Zamir et al. (2015) in the development and testing of their SSO instrument. Jonathan-Zamir et al. (2015) found low correlations among the four procedural justice elements and high correlations between each element and the overall composite index, which are good indicators of the internal validity of the index. The correlations were statistically significant between the four sub-indices and the overall procedural justice index ($r \geq .59$, p < .001). The researchers also noted that multicollinearity between the

sub-indices was not an issue as the variance inflation factors ranged from 1.1 to 1.2,

much below the accepted cut-off value of 10 (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). External

validity was accounted for by linking "the index to other constructs with which it would

be expected to be linked" ((Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015, p. 861). The researchers linked

the procedural justice index with citizen satisfaction and found that interactions in which

the behaviors of the officer demonstrated higher levels of procedural justice had a

significantly greater likelihood of producing citizen satisfaction (Jonathan-Zamir et al.,

2015). The correlation, $r = .37$, p < .001, is positive, moderate in size, and statistically

significant, thus supporting the external validity of the instrument (Jonathan-Zamir et al.,

2015).

The IBM software program for quantitative statistics, Statistical Package for the

Social Sciences (SPSS; Version 25), was used to examine the differences between the

screen-in and screen-out police agencies and the amount of procedurally just police

behaviors demonstrated during citizen interactions by $N = 16$ patrol officers and the

estimated resultant amount of citizen satisfaction. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was

performed to determine if there was a difference between agency screening type and the

variables of dignity and respect, trustworthy motives, participation, neutrality, and citizen

satisfaction. The calculated F statistic was used as the determinant to either reject or fail

to reject the null hypothesis of no difference between agency type and the amount of

procedurally just policing behaviors and citizen satisfaction.

Quality of the Qualitative Strand

Ravitch and Carl (2016), state that the methodological quality of qualitative research is evidenced by the trustworthiness and credibility of the qualitative findings and the subsequent interpretations of those findings. They define trustworthiness as the guiding criteria used by researchers in the production of findings that call attention to themselves and are persuasive in the point they are attempting to make. Credibility is one of the criteria used in the establishing of trustworthiness and references the extent to which the qualitative findings accurately portray the experiences of the study participants (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Ravitch and Carl (2016) cited data triangulation and structured reflexivity as two of the strategies and processes for achieving trustworthiness in qualitative research.

Structured reflexivity is a process in which the researcher systematically and critically engages with their biases, interpretations, processes, and reflections (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). The process of structured reflexivity is one method to use to produce research that is more complex and ethically stringent (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). This process is of critical importance when the researcher is the instrument to ensure the research process is both rigorous and valid. I served as an instrument when estimating the level of citizen satisfaction during police-citizen interactions. It was critically important that I systematically reflected upon my biases and interpretations as I searched for signs of citizen satisfaction and dissatisfaction during the police-citizen interactions.

Triangulation is a set of processes used by researchers to solidify the validity of a study (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Data triangulation is the use of multiple data sources that

add to the richness and depth of the description of the phenomenon under study (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Data triangulation allows researchers to sample data at different times and places from different people (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Data triangulation was used in this study to include performance evaluations, citizen complaints, citizen compliments, awards, discipline. The gathering of this additional data did add to the picture of officer performance and helped to guide the researcher's assessment of procedurally just behaviors as being consistent or inconsistent with the additional data sources.

Credibility is inexorably tied to the research design, researcher's instruments, and data (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). It is the researcher's ability to sort through the many complexities that inevitably crop up in a research study and to deal with emergent patterns that defy immediate explanation (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Through the creation of a recursive research design, the complexities that arose were adequately addressed, and credibility was preserved. Other data sources also served to compliment observational data and enhanced credibility.

Ravitch and Carl (2016) state that dependability in research design is demonstrated by the stability of the data that is to say, that the data are consistent with the argument made for how to collect the data. My research study consisted of collecting observational data of police-citizen interactions using an instrument designed to guide in the systematic collection of observational data of social interactions. Additional data collected were also focused on the job performance of the study participants.

Ethical Procedures

The data collected in this research study was information available to any citizen through the process of filing a FOIA with any law enforcement agency. As such, written informed consent documentation will not be solicited. Written, informed consent was obtained from all officers participating in the study in the screen-in agency. Some law enforcement agencies notify employees when their personal information has been subject to an FOIA but not the reason for the request. I contacted each selected officer via email and inform them of the purpose of the FOIA request and assure them of maintaining confidentiality. This was done to ensure officers did not needlessly worry that the information was requested as part of an impending lawsuit as is often the case. All data collected will be kept in a locked safe during the life of the study and for a period of five years after completion of the study at which point the data will be destroyed. All identifying information was omitted from the study, and all references to the participants was made by the assigned numeric designation of 1-16. No data was collected on any citizens appearing in the body-worn camera videos and any reference to citizens in the video was by assigned officer number and encounter number (e.g., the citizen appearing in Officer 5 - encounter 9). Final approval was obtained from the Walden University Institutional Review Board for the research design and ethical practices (Approval no. 02-07-20-0673411).

Summary

The purpose of this research study was to explore the manner in which officers who have been selected by agencies using two different psychological screening

methodologies (screen-in or screen-out), interact with citizens as they deliver police

patrol services and to discern any difference between the patrol officers' procedurally just

behaviors of the screen-in and screen-out police agencies and the resultant citizen

satisfaction. Officers assigned to patrol duties from two different police agencies in the

Midwest were randomly chosen for inclusion in the study and data was collected using

FOIA requests for body-worn camera video footage of police-citizen interactions as well

as performance evaluations, citizen complaints, citizen compliments, discipline, and

awards. Ethical procedures set forth by the American Psychological Association and the

Walden University Institutional Review Board for Ethical Standards in Research were

followed to safeguard anonymity, confidentiality, ethical data collection, and the

minimization of risk to participants.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

In light of widely publicized controversial police-citizen encounters, much research has been focused on the role procedural justice plays in citizens' perceptions of police legitimacy. The purpose of this mixed-methods study was to explore the manner in which officers who have been employed by law enforcement agencies using two different psychological screening philosophies (screen-in or screen-out) interact with citizens as they deliver police patrol services, and identify any differences between the procedurally just policing behaviors delivered to the communities served by each agency. In this research, I have explored the problem of low levels of perceived police legitimacy in two Midwest communities. Research questions were focused on exploring the behaviors exhibited by patrol officers as being supportive of or obstructive to the antecedents of procedural justice.

In Chapter 3, I outlined the mixed-methods research design for this study as well as the methodology, the procedures used to ensure compliance with ethical standards, and the alignment of the research design. I also stated the sampling method, recruitment strategy, and the number of participants from each police agency. In Chapter 4, the results of this research study will be discussed. Both the quantitative data collection and analysis and the qualitative data collection and analysis will be examined and discussed. Finally, I will discuss the issue of trustworthiness, followed by a summary of the chapter.

Research Questions

The research questions and hypotheses examined in this mixed methods research study were:

RQ1: In a Midwest screen-in police agency, what behaviors by police officers (N = 8) on dispatched calls for service contribute to the level of community trust/police legitimacy during interactions with citizens?

RQ2: In a Midwest screen-out police agency, what behaviors by police officers (N = 8) on dispatched calls for service contribute to the level of community trust/police legitimacy during interactions with citizens?

RQ3: In a Midwest screen-in police agency, what behaviors by police officers (N = 8) on self-initiated runs contribute to the level of community trust/police legitimacy during interactions with citizens?

RQ4: In a Midwest screen-out police agency, what behaviors by police officers (N = 8) on self-initiated runs contribute to the level of community trust/police legitimacy during interactions with citizens?

H_1: There is a statistically significant and meaningful difference in patrol officer behaviors that contribute to citizens' perceptions of police legitimacy in one Midwest screen-in police agency and one Midwest screen-out police agency.

H_0: There is no difference in the procedurally just behaviors of patrol officers during interactions with citizens of screen-in and screen-out police agencies.

Quantitative Data Collection

Setting

I sent an email to police agencies throughout the Midwest requesting information about their psychological screening process for the hiring of police officers, specifically targeting the psychological screening process as either a screen-in or screen-out. Over 90% of the responses indicated that the police agency used screen-out psychological screening. I selected one screen-out agency using a random number generator and contacted that agency's chief of police requesting their participation in my study. The chief of that screen-out agency denied my request. Using the same process as for the first agency, I randomly selected a second medium-sized screen-out agency and contacted the chief to request the agency's participation.

The second department, a medium-sized Midwest police agency, consented, allowing me access to public records requested through the filing of an FOIA for body-worn camera video, compliments, citizen complaints, awards, and disciplinary records. The requested documents were collected for eight randomly selected officers assigned to patrol duties. This resulted in a sampling of 33% of officers assigned to the screen-out agency's patrol officer staffing. From each selected officer, 10 randomly sampled body-worn camera (BWC) videos were collected from a 90-day look-back from March 2020. Each video had to be a minimum of 120 seconds in length to ensure the police-citizen interaction was substantial enough to score for procedurally just behaviors and estimate citizen satisfaction. A total of 80 police-citizen interactions were scored using Jonathan-Zamir et al.'s (2015) Systematic Social Observation Instrument.

Using the same procedure used in selecting the screen-out police agency, I

randomly selected a screen-in police agency and sent a request to that agency's chief of

police for the chief's consent for the agency's participation in my study. The request was

accepted with the caveat that I would need to conduct ride-alongs with patrol officers as

their agency did not have the ability to fulfill the FOIA request for such a massive

amount of BWC video. I created a consent form and electronically delivered it to the

patrol officers and supervisors of the screen-in agency 3 weeks prior to the agreed-upon

date of the first ride-along. Supervisors of the screen-in agency reviewed the consent

form and instructed officers to contact me if they had any questions prior to volunteering

as a study participant. No officers contacted me before the commencement of data

collection, nor did they at any point during the 2-week ride-along process.

The screen-in police agency was staffed with 32 officers assigned to their patrol

section. Eight 12-hour ride-alongs were conducted over a 2-week period with eight patrol

officers between the months of February 2020 and May 2020. Over the 96-hour ride-

along period, I observed a total of 65 police-citizen interactions. I also submitted an

FOIA request for all public records pertaining to compliments, citizen complaints,

awards, and discipline for each of the eight officers with whom I conducted ride-alongs.

<div align="center">

Results: Quantitative

</div>

Descriptive Analysis

Of the 80 randomly selected screen-out agency BWC videos reviewed, $N = 67$

were able to be evaluated completely. I had to exclude 13 BWC videos due to the

inability to evaluate citizen satisfaction because of either conditions of the video or the

citizen not demonstrating signs of either satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Of the 65

observed interactions for the screen-in agency, I was able to evaluate 60 using the SSO

instrument. Five interactions were not scored due to an inability to observe the citizen's

facial expressions and/or a lack of behaviors that demonstrated the citizen's satisfaction

or dissatisfaction. Each officer was observed during interactions with citizens and scored

for behaviors that either supported or diminished the four elements of procedural justice

in policing, those being citizen participation, neutral decision-making, dignity, and

trustworthy motives.

Numeric values for each element were calculated by scoring behaviors I observed

during the course of a citizen contact. The following formulas were used to guide

scoring:

- *Participation* = Officer asking for information or citizen point of view (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + the citizen expressed view/provided information (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) × officer expressed interest in view/information (*dismissive* = 0, *inattentive listener* = 1, *passive listener* = 2, *active listener* =3; Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). Scores may range from 0 – 6.

- *Neutrality* = officer seeks citizen viewpoints of all parties involved (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + officer explains no decision will be made before all information is gathered from all involved parties (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + officer demonstrates that decision was not influenced by citizens' race, age, sex (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + officer explains why police are involved in situation (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + officer

explains why/how resolution was decided (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0; Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). Scores may range from 0 – 5.

- *Dignity* = extent to which officer words/behaviors demonstrated respect toward the citizen (*disrespect* = 0, *officer showed neither but appeared more robotic in interactions* = 1, *officer demonstrated brief instances of respect* = 2, *officer demonstrated sporadic instances of respect* = 3, *officer demonstrated respect throughout contact* = 4; Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). Scores may range from 0 – 4.

- *Trustworthy motives* = *Showing care and concern* = officer asks citizen about their well-being or any combination of behaviors demonstrative of this (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + officer offered comfort of reassurance to the citizen (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + officer actively controlled another on behalf of the citizen or promised to do so (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + officer filed a report or promised to do so (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + officer acted or promised to act on behalf of the citizen with another government agency or private organization (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + the officer arranged or promised to arrange physical assistance to the citizen (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0) + the officer provided or promised to provide advice on how to cope/deal with the situation or how to handle the problem (*yes* = 1, *no* = 0; Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2015). Scores may range from 0 – 7.

Table 1 details the number of observed procedurally just behaviors for each police-citizen contact for N = 8 officers in the screen-out police agency. Table 2 lists the

number of observed procedurally just police behaviors for each citizen contact for N = 8

officers in the screen-in police agency.

Table 1

Displayed Procedurally Just Behaviors per Interaction – Screen-Out

Officer-citizen interaction	Participation behaviors	Neutrality behaviors	Dignity behaviors	Trustworthy motives behaviors
1	3	2	3	1
2	3	3	3	1
3	4	3	4	3
4	2	2	2	1
5	2	1	1	0
6	3	3	3	1
7*	1	1	2	1
8	1	1	2	2
9	4	3	4	3
10	4	3	4	3
11	3	3	4	3
12	3	3	3	1
13*	3	3	2	1
14	3	4	4	4
15	3	2	2	1
16	3	3	2	1
17	3	3	3	2
18	3	2	2	2
19	3	2	1	1
20	3	3	3	3
21	3	3	3	2
22	3	2	2	2
23	3	4	4	3
24	3	2	3	1
25	3	2	4	2
26	3	4	4	3
27	3	4	4	3
28*	3	2	2	2
29	3	2	2	0
30	3	2	3	1
31	3	3	4	3
32*	3	3	3	2
33	3	2	3	2
34	3	3	3	2
35	3	3	3	2
36	1	2	2	2
37	3	3	4	3
38	3	2	3	2
39*	3	3	4	2
40	3	3	3	2

(*table continues*)

Officer-citizen interaction	Participation behaviors	Neutrality behaviors	Dignity behaviors	Trustworthy motives behaviors
41	3	3	4	2
42	3	3	3	2
43	3	2	2	2
44*	3	3	2	2
45	3	3	4	2
46	3	3	2	2
47	3	3	3	2
48	3	3	4	2
49	3	1	2	2
50*	3	2	2	2
51*	1	2	3	1
52	3	3	3	2
53	3	3	4	5
54	1	1	2	2
55*	1	1	2	1
56	3	2	2	1
57	3	3	3	2
58	2	2	2	2
59	3	3	4	3
60	3	3	4	4
61	3	3	4	4
62	3	1	2	1
63*	2	2	2	2
64*	3	1	2	1
65	3	3	3	3
66	3	2	3	2
67	3	2	3	2
68	3	2	3	2
69	2	3	2	0
70	3	2	4	3
71	3	2	4	2
72	2	3	2	2
73	3	2	3	2
74	3	3	4	2
75	3	3	4	2
76*	2	1	3	1
77	2	2	3	2
78	2	1	2	0
79*	3	1	3	1
80	3	1	2	2

Note. Police-citizen interactions marked with an asterisk denote unable to determine satisfaction.

Table 2

Displayed Procedurally Just Behaviors per Interaction – Screen-In

Police-citizen interaction	Citizen participation behaviors	Neutrality behaviors	Dignity behaviors	Trustworthy motive behaviors
1	4	5	4	5
2	4	4	3	3
3*	3	3	3	2
4	3	3	3	3
5	3	5	4	6
6	3	4	3	3
7*	4	3	3	2
8	3	4	4	3
9	4	4	3	4
10	3	5	3	3
11	3	3	2	2
12	3	2	3	2
13	3	3	3	2
14	4	3	4	4
15	4	3	4	2
16	4	3	4	2
17	3	3	3	2
18*	3	3	3	2
19	4	3	4	5
20	3	3	4	2
21	3	3	4	2
22*	3	3	3	2
23	3	2	3	2
24	4	3	3	3
25	3	4	3	3
26	4	3	4	4
27	4	4	4	5
28	3	3	4	3
29	4	3	4	6
30	4	2	4	2
31	3	3	4	4
32	3	2	4	1
33	3	4	4	2
34	4	3	4	2
35	4	3	4	5
36	4	2	4	4
37	2	3	2	2
38	3	3	4	3
39	4	3	4	3
40	3	3	3	4
41	4	4	4	4
42	4	4	4	4
43	4	3	3	4

(*table continues*)

Police-citizen interaction	Citizen participation behaviors	Neutrality behaviors	Dignity behaviors	Trustworthy motive behaviors
44	4	3	4	3
45	4	3	3	4
46	4	3	3	4
47	4	2	4	2
48	4	3	3	4
49	4	3	4	4
50	4	3	4	4
51*	4	3	3	2
52	4	3	4	3
53	4	3	4	3
54	3	3	2	2
55	4	3	4	4
56	4	3	4	2
57	3	2	3	1
58	4	3	4	2
59	3	3	4	2
60	4	5	4	3
61	4	4	4	5
62	4	5	4	5
63	4	4	4	3
64	3	3	3	4
65	4	3	4	3

Note. Police-citizen interactions marked with an asterisk denote unable to determine citizen satisfaction.

Descriptive Statistics/Analysis

To answer Research Questions 1 through 4, descriptive statistics were employed

using IBM's SPSS (Version 25) to describe the procedurally just behaviors of patrol

officers as they interacted with citizens. Total behaviors for each of the four procedural

justice elements were totaled for both agencies. Figure 2 displays the breakdown of the

number of participation behaviors displayed by officers per citizen interaction. The figure

shows the breakdown of behaviors contrasting the screen-in and screen-out agencies.

Similarly, Figures 3, 4, and 5 display the number of officer behaviors supportive of the

respective procedural justice element. Figure 6 displays the total number of behaviors

displayed for each procedural justice element, contrasting the screen-in and screen-out

agencies.
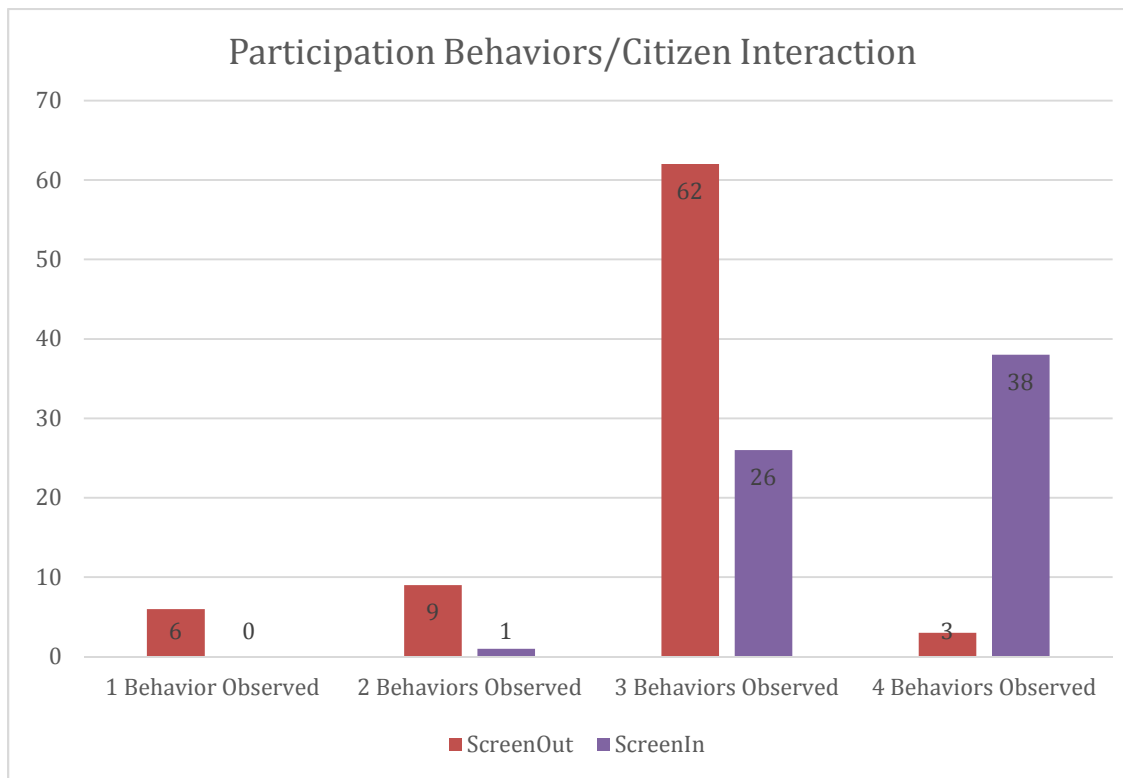
Figure 2. Observed participation behaviors demonstrated by officers in citizen
interactions.
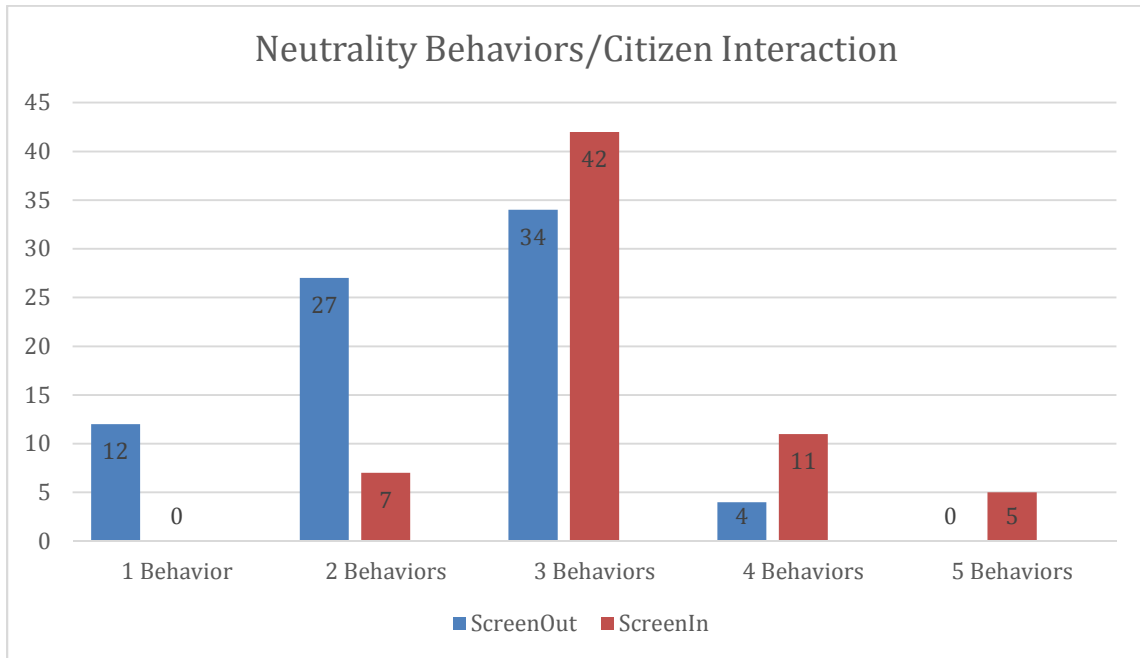
Figure 3. Observed neutrality behaviors demonstrated by officers in citizen interactions.
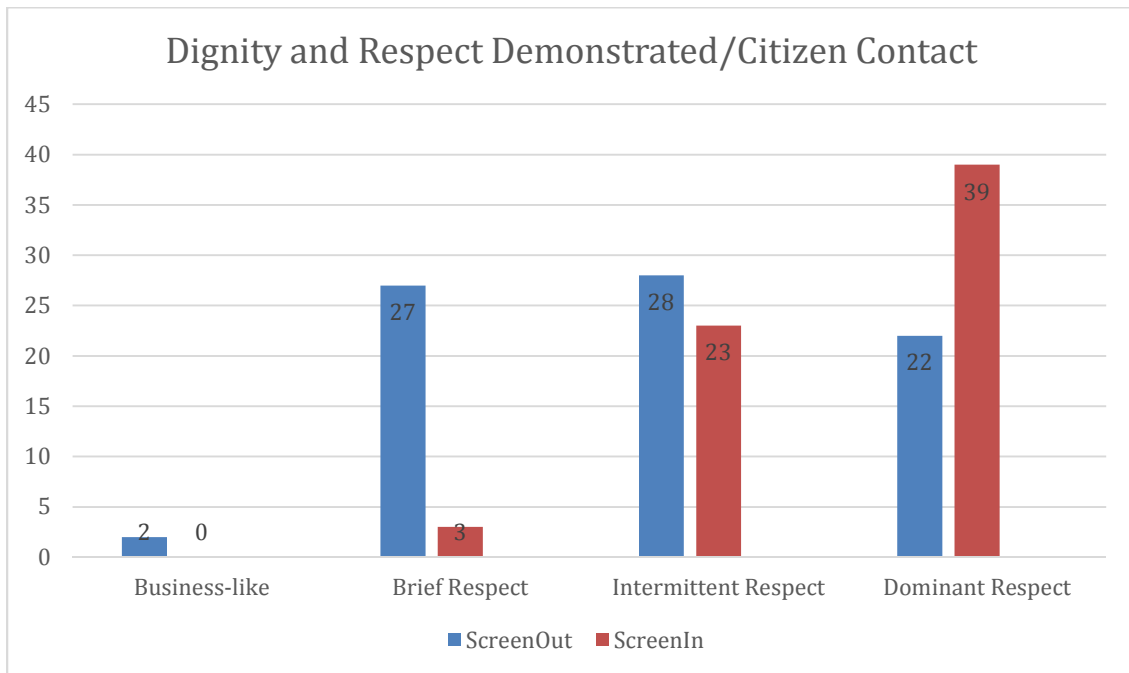
Figure 4. Dignity and respect demonstrated by officers during citizen interactions.
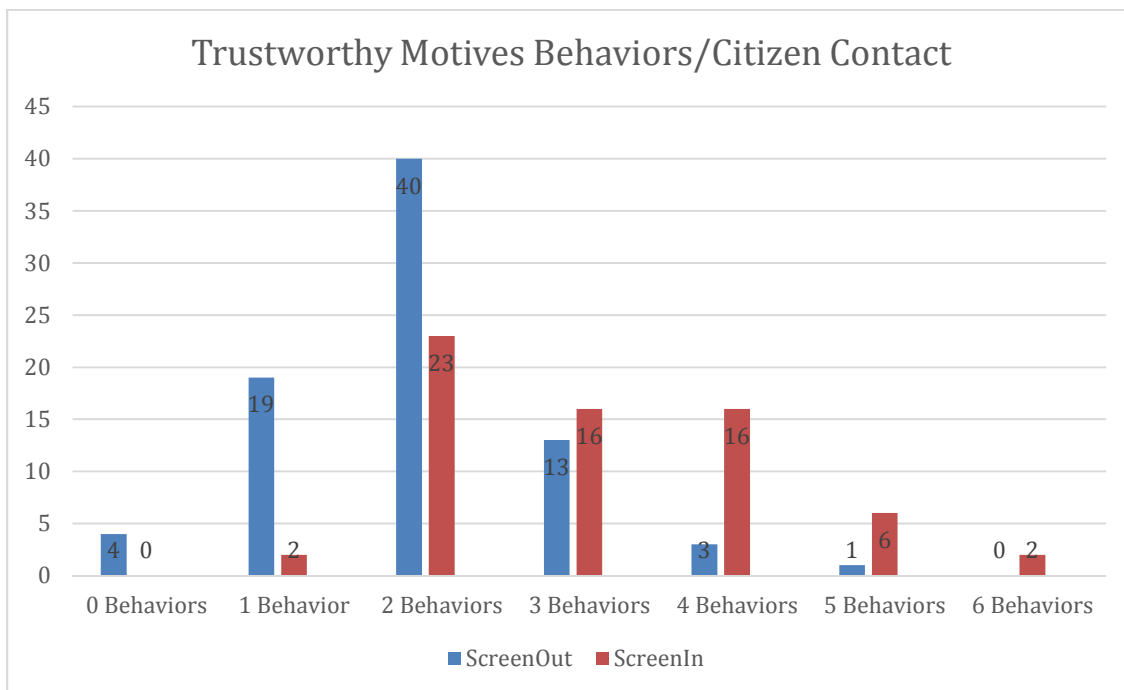
Figure 5. Behaviors indicating trustworthy motives demonstrated by officers during citizen interactions.
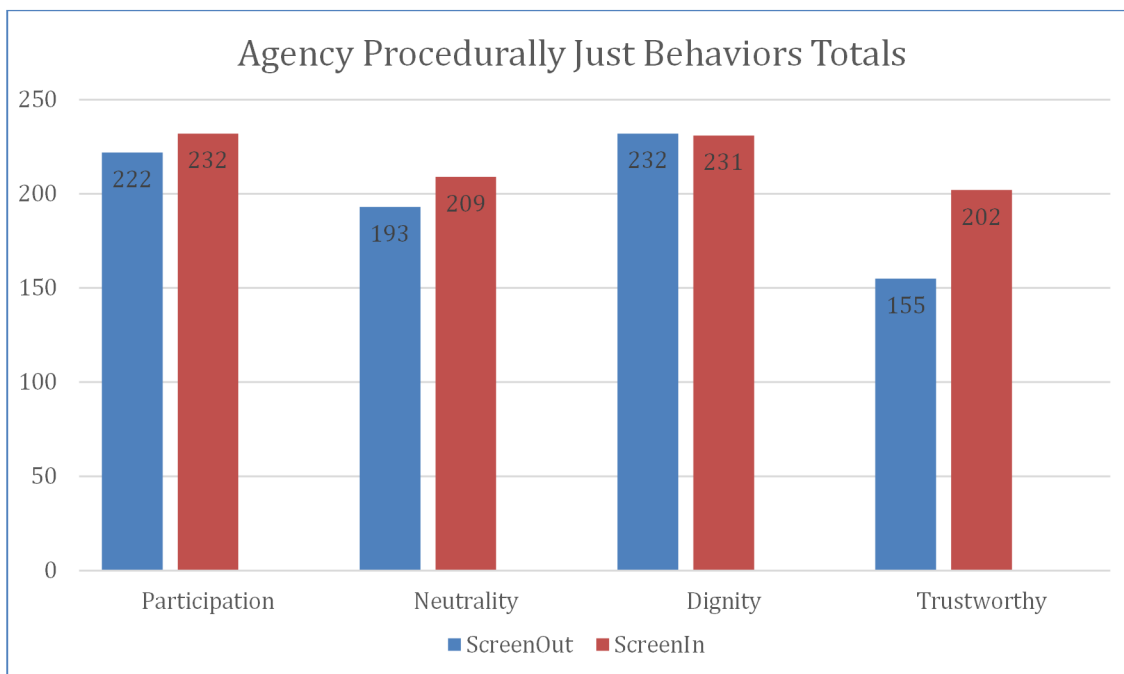
Figure 6. Procedurally just behavior totals for all elements for screen-in and screen-out agencies.

Additional descriptive statistics were used to understand the data better after the data displayed in graphs appeared to show a difference in the way officers delivered procedurally just police services to their community. Using SPSS, the range, mean, and standard deviation were calculated for each of the four elements for both agency types. Tables 3 and 4 show the values contrasting the screen-out and screen-in agencies, respectively. The data in Tables 3 and 4 confirm the observations from the previously listed figures; there is a difference between agency types, as evidenced by the Mean values for each procedural justice element.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics: Screen-out Procedurally Just Behaviors

	Number of observations	Range	Minimum score	Maximum score	Mean	Standard deviation
Participation	80	3	1	4	2.78	.636
Neutrality	80	3	1	4	2.41	.807
Dignity	80	3	1	4	2.90	.851
Trustworthy Motives	80	5	0	5	1.94	.932

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics: Screen-in Procedurally Just Behaviors

	Scored observations	Range	Minimum value	Maximum value	Mean	Standard deviation
Participation	65	2	2	4	3.57	.529
Neutrality	65	3	2	5	3.22	.739
Dignity	65	2	2	4	3.55	.587
Trustworthy Motives	65	5	1	6	3.11	1.174

The next step in the data analysis was determining if the observed difference in procedurally just policing behaviors between agencies was statistically significant and meaningful. Data were organized so that each police-citizen interaction was given an overall procedural justice value. This was accomplished by adding the values for each element per police-citizen interaction. The equation used to calculate the overall procedural justice value was: Participation Value + Neutrality Value + Dignity Value + Trustworthy Motives Value = Overall Procedural Justice Value. Table 5 shows the procedural justice values for each of the $N = 65$ screen-in interactions (SI) and $N = 80$ screen-out interactions (SO).

Table 5

Procedural Justice Value: Combined Element Values for all Interactions

Agency type-police-citizen interaction	Overall procedural justice value
SI -1	18
SI-2	14
SI-3	11
SI-4	12
SI-5	18
SI-6	13
SI-7	12
SI-8	14
SI-9	15
SI-10	14
SI-11	10
SI-12	10
SI-13	11
SI-14	15
SI-15	13
SI-16	13
SI-17	11
SI-18	11
SI-19	16
SI-20	12
SI-21	12
SI-22	11
SI-23	10
SI-24	13
SI-25	13
SI-26	15
SI-27	17
SI-28	13
SI-29	17
SI-30	12
SI-31	14
SI-32	10
SI-33	13
SI-34	13
SI-35	16
SI-36	14
SI-37	9
SI-38	13
SI-39	14
SI-40	13
SI-41	16
SI-42	16
SI-43	14
SI-44	14
SI-45	14

(*table continues*)

Agency type-police-citizen interaction	Overall procedural justice value
SI-46	14
SI-47	12
SI-48	14
SI-49	15
SI-50	15
SI-51	12
SI-52	14
SI-53	14
SI-54	10
SI-55	15
SI-56	13
SI-57	9
SI-58	13
SI-59	12
SI-60	16
SI-61	17
SI-62	18
SI-63	15
SI-64	13
SI-65	14
SO-1	9
SO-2	10
SO-3	14
SO-4	7
SO-5	4
SO-6	10
SO-7	5
SO-8	6
SO-9	14
SO-10	14
SO-11	13
SO-12	10
SO-13	9
SO-14	15
SO-15	8
SO-16	9
SO-17	11
SO-18	9
SO-19	7
SO-20	12
SO-21	11
SO-22	9
SO-23	14
SO-24	9
SO-25	11
SO-26	14
SO-27	14
SO-28	9
SO-29	7
SO-30	9

(*table continues*)

Agency type-police-citizen interaction	Overall procedural justice value
SO-31	13
SO-32	11
SO-33	10
SO-34	11
SO-35	11
SO-36	7
SO-37	13
SO-38	10
SO-39	12
SO-40	11
SO-41	12
SO-42	11
SO-43	9
SO-44	10
SO-45	12
SO-46	10
SO-47	11
SO-48	12
SO-49	8
SO-50	9
SO-51	7
SO-52	11
SO-53	15
SO-54	6
SO-55	5
SO-56	8
SO-57	11
SO-58	8
SO-59	13
SO-60	14
SO-61	14
SO-62	7
SO-63	8
SO-64	7
SOI-65	12
SO-66	10
SO-67	10
SO-68	10
SO-69	7
SO-70	12
SO-71	11
SO-72	9
SO-73	10
SO-74	12
SO-75	12
SO-76	7
SO-77	9
SO-78	5
SO-79	8
SO-80	8

These data were next used to test for a significant and meaningful relationship through the use of an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) using SPSS Version 25. This test was selected because the variables under study were at the categorical and scale levels (Frankfort-Nachmias & Leon-Guerrero, 2015). Partial eta squared was calculated using the formula: $\eta^2_p = SS_{Between} / SS_{Between} + SS_{Within}$ (Frankfort-Nachmias et al., 2015). The results of the ANOVA and partial eta squared shown in Table 6 and can be summarized as $F(1, 143) = 72.49$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .34$. The F value of 72.49 is well above the F critical value of 3.84, demonstrating a statistically significant difference when $p < .001$. The partial eta squared value of .34 signifies that 34% of the variance in officers' procedurally just behaviors can be accounted for by the agency type, making it a substantial finding. .

Table 6

ANOVA: Significance and Meaningfulness of Difference Between Agencies

	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F	Partial eta squared	Significance
Between Groups	419.74	1	419.74	72.49	.34	.000
Within Groups	828.01	142	5.79			
Total	1247.75	143				

Demographics: Qualitative

The qualitative portion of this study was conducted observing in person or watching on recorded body-worn camera video, 145 police-citizen interactions, and assessing if the service rendered by the police officer was deemed satisfactory by the citizen. Of the 145 observed interactions, it was possible to assess citizens' satisfaction in 127. For the screen-in agency's 65 observed interactions, $N = 60$ were assed for citizen

satisfaction, an assessment rate of 92%. For the screen-out agency's 80 observed

interactions, $N = 67$ were assed for citizen satisfaction, an assessment rate of 84%. The

overall assessment rate was 88% for all observed interactions, $N = 127$.

Data Collection: Qualitative

Qualitative data were gathered from observations of citizens' words, expressions,

and mannerisms as they interacted with police officers. Jonathan-Zamir et al. (2015) state

that observations of citizens' attitudes and inner feelings must be based upon observable

cues. Guided by this philosophy, for each police-citizen interaction, observations were

made of the citizen's initial attitude, the citizen's attitude and mannerisms as the

interaction progressed, and a final assessment of the citizen's overall satisfaction with the

encounter. For the observations made while conducting ride-alongs, I remained in the

background, close enough to hear what was said and observe physical cues, but far

enough away that the citizens were unlikely to try and interact with me. Additionally,

maintaining a distance allowed the officer to respond to the citizen without my physical

presence being in their field of vision.

Data Analysis: Qualitative

The systematic collection of qualitative data was performed throughout the use of

In Vivo and Process Coding of field notes made during participant observation of police-

citizen interactions (Saldaña, 2016). The field notes consisted of specific observation

times during the observed police-citizen interactions. An initial observation recorded the

citizen's verbal and behavioral cues to aid in assessing the citizen's attitude toward police

in the beginning stages of contact. As the interaction progressed, additional observations

were recorded of the citizen's actions and verbalizations to paint a rich picture of the citizen's response to the interaction with police. I took filed notes at the conclusion of the interaction to richly describe the behavior of the citizen, which might belie satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the police interaction.

After the interaction was concluded, a determination was made based on a review and theming of the collected data that the citizen was either satisfied or dissatisfied with the police service or that it was not possible to determine the citizen's satisfaction. The process of reviewing the field notes, coding, and theming was reviewed an additional time several days after the original data collection to allow for reflexivity. Figures 7 and 8 show the process of taking observations of citizen behaviors and verbalizations and developing themes leading to an assessment of citizen satisfaction.

Initial Observation **Interim Observation** **Final Observation**

Raised voice, rapid hand gestures, fast speech, argumentative ➡ Initial behavior persists, appears more agitated ➡ Scowling facial expression, voice raised, snatched ticket, sped away

Theming   **Theming**

Frustration ➤ Increased Frustration ➤ Anger ➤ **Dissatisfied**
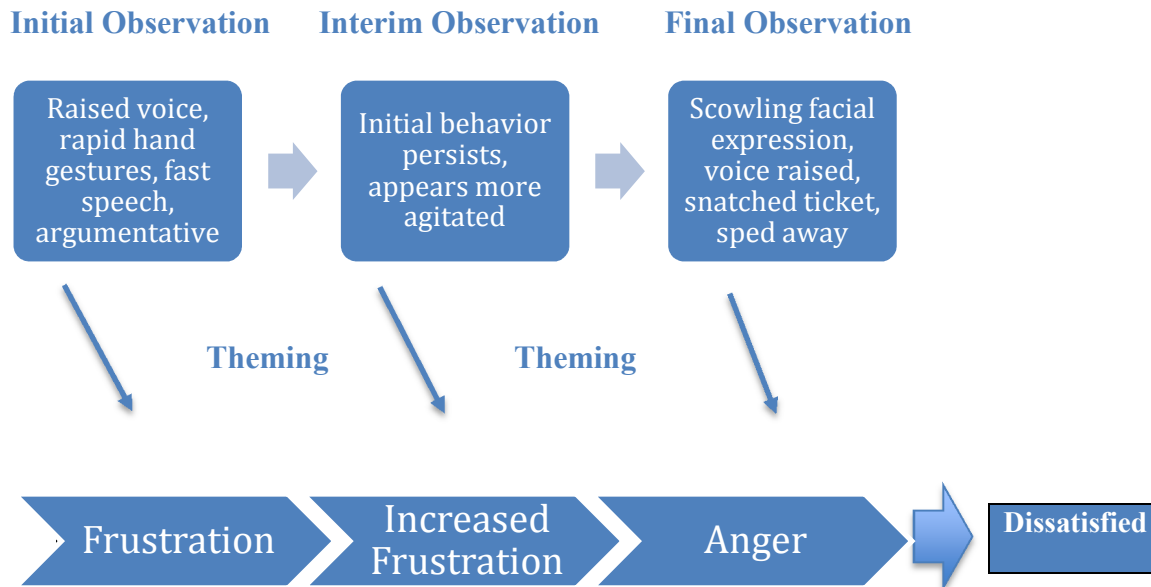
Figure 7. Screen-out officer 1, interaction 1. Theming process to assess citizen satisfaction.

Initial Observation   **Interim Observation**   **Final Observation**

| Adversarial, arguing with officer, stated he did not fail to stop | → | calming down, listening, body relaxing, conversation more civil | → | showing remorse, appologized for behavior, thanked officer |

Theming   **Theming**

Attacking ⟩ Understanding ⟩ Accepting ⟩ **Satisfied**
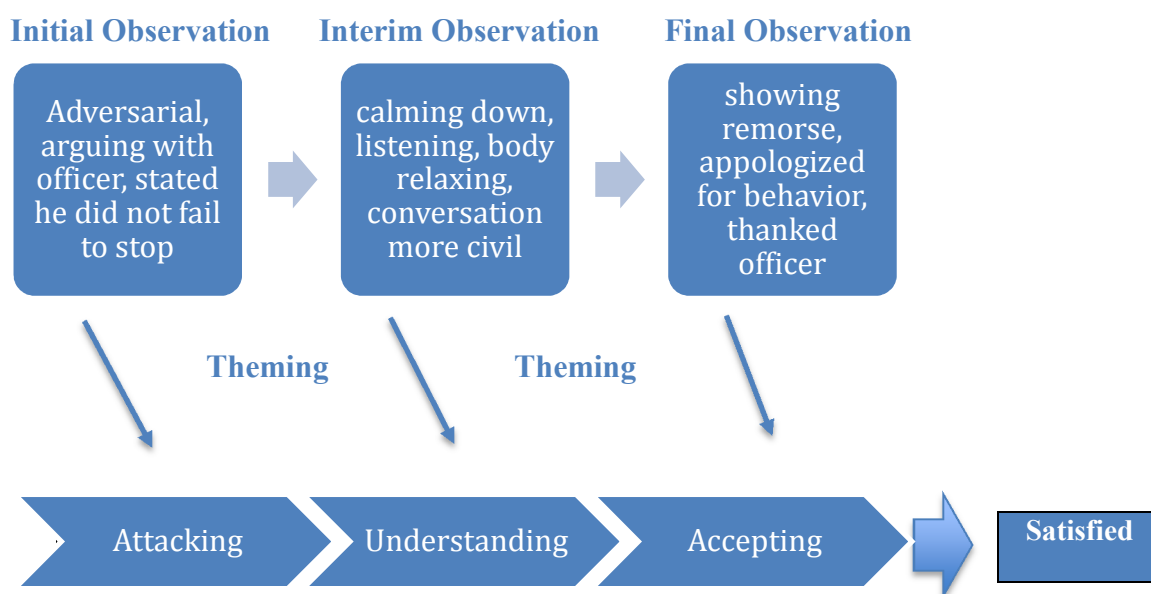
Figure 8. Screen-in officer 3, interaction 2. Theming process to assess citizen satisfaction.

The final analysis of the police-citizen interactions yielded a total of $N = 127$ observations where the citizen's satisfaction could be assessed. 16% (13 of 80) of the interactions of the screen-out agency could not be assessed due to either an inability to hear and observe the citizen, and in three interactions, the citizen was too impaired to be assessed. 8% (5 of 65) of the screen-in agency interactions were not able to be assessed due to an inability to adequately observing the citizen. 20 of the 67 (30%) assessed police-citizen interactions for the screen-out agency were determined to result in a dissatisfied citizen. 6 of the 60 (10%) assessed police-citizen interactions for the screen-in agency were determined to result in a dissatisfied citizen.

These data were transformed into two dichotomous variables, agency type, and citizen satisfaction, and entered into SPSS Version 25 for analysis. I calculated a Pearson Chi-Square, Phi, and Cramer's V to determine if a statistical difference exists between

agency type and citizen satisfaction. Phi and Cramer's V were calculated to assess if the strength of any resultant difference was meaningful. Table 7 shows the results of the Pearson Chi-Square as χ^2(1df) = 7.66 (P <.006). Table 8 shows the Phi as: Φ = .246 (P <.006). The result of the Chi-Square means that we can reject the null hypothesis of no difference and that with 99% certainty, a difference exists in the real world between agency types and citizen satisfaction. The result of Phi is interpreted as there is a moderate relationship between agency type and citizen satisfaction such that 24.6% of the difference in citizen satisfaction can be accounted for by agency type.

Table 7

Pearson Chi-Square: Agency Type and Citizen Satisfaction

	Value	df	Asymptotic significance (2-sided
Pearson Chi-Square	7.66	1	.006
Continuity Correction	6.49	1	.011
Likelihood Ratio	8.05	1	.005
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.60	1	.006
N of valid cases	127		

Table 8

Phi and Cramer's V: Strength of Relationship Between Agency Type and Satisfaction

		Value	Approximate significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.246	.006
	Cramer's V	.246	.006
N of Valid Cases		127	

Evidence of Trustworthiness

Ravitch and Carl (2016) state that the methodological quality of qualitative research is evidenced by the trustworthiness and credibility of the qualitative findings and the subsequent interpretations of those findings. They define trustworthiness as the guiding criteria used by researchers in the production of findings that call attention to themselves and are persuasive in the point they are attempting to make. Credibility is one of the criteria used in the establishing of trustworthiness and references the extent to which the qualitative findings accurately portray the experiences of the study participants (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Ravitch and Carl (2016) cited data triangulation and structured reflexivity as two of the strategies and processes for achieving trustworthiness in qualitative research.

The inclusion of data triangulation in this research study proved to be an invaluable tool in confirming trustworthiness. Historical records were collected through the use of an FOIA for each of the $N = 16$ police officers. The records referenced were citizen complaints, citizen compliments, awards, and disciplinary actions. These records were used in juxtaposition to my recorded observations of the officers' interactions with citizens to ensure my observations were consistent with the officers' past performance. Structured reflexivity was also used to continually safeguard against my own biases and preconceptions during the observation process and while coding and theming the data. Finally, the recursive design of this research study served to preserve credibility by allowing the researcher to navigate complexities encountered in both the data collection and data analysis components.

Summary

In Chapter 4, I have discussed the qualitative and quantitative portions of the research study. In the quantitative portion of the study, the procedurally just behaviors of police officers assigned to patrol were explored as they interacted with citizens on both self-initiated and dispatched runs for service. Addressing research questions $1 - 4$, interactions were scored for $N = 80$ police-citizen interactions for the screen-out agency and $N = 65$ police-citizen interactions for the screen-in agency. The scored interactions resulted in 802 and 874 procedurally just behaviors, respectively. An ANOVA was performed to determine if a statistically significant difference exists between agency types and the procedurally just behaviors they engage in during police-citizen interactions. The results demonstrated a significant difference, $F(1, 143) = 72.49$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .34$, between agency type and procedurally just behaviors. Additionally, the partial eta squared value of .34 demonstrates a moderate relationship between the variables such that 34% of the difference in procedurally just behaviors can be accounted for by agency type.

In the qualitative portion of the research study, observations were made of citizens' verbal and physical cues as they interacted with police. A total of $N = 127$, 67 screen-out, and 60 screen-in, police-citizen interactions were assessed for citizen satisfaction. This resulted in findings of 47 assessments of satisfaction and 20 assessments of dissatisfaction for the screen-out agency, and 54 assessments of satisfaction and six assessments of dissatisfaction for the screen-in agency. Agency type and citizen satisfaction were transformed into dichotomous variables, and a Chi-Square

was performed for hypothesis testing. The Pearson Chi-Square: $\chi^2(1df) = 7.66$ (P <.006), demonstrates less than a one-percent risk of committing a Type I error, allowing the null hypothesis of no difference to be rejected. The obtained Phi value of .246, the mean percent difference between agency type and citizens' satisfaction, shows that approximately 25 % of the difference in citizen satisfaction can be accounted for by agency type.

In Chapter 5, I discuss the limitations of the study, interpretations of the findings, implications, and recommendations.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this mixed methods research study was to explore the manner in which police officers who have been selected by agencies using two different psychological screening methodologies (screen-in or screen-out) interact with citizens as they deliver police patrol services and to discern any difference between the patrol officers' procedurally just behaviors of the different agencies. The problem this research has explored is the problem in communities across the United States, as evidenced by expressions of their distrust of police. That problem, specifically, is low levels of perceived police legitimacy (Mastrofski et al., 2016). I used Lind and Tyler's theory of procedural justice as the theoretical framework for this study and a mixed-methods approach to data analysis. This approach resulted in a holistic understanding of the difference of procedurally just behaviors of patrol officers from police agencies using different methodologies for prescreening psychological assessments and the difference in citizens' satisfaction with their interactions with these agencies' officers. This study is significant because of the contribution it makes to the existing literature on police performance and procedural justice. Precisely stated, my study fills a gap in understanding if psychological assessments administered to police applicants can be used to screen for an applicant's predisposition for procedurally just policing. This study is unique because it addresses the need for police agencies to screen for qualities that build positive community relationships between the police and the citizens they serve, thereby restoring police legitimacy.

In Chapter 4, I reviewed the research settings, sampling strategy, data collection, defined and described the participants, discussed trustworthiness, discussed both the quantitative analysis of the observed procedurally just policing behaviors and the identified themes in assessing citizen satisfaction and the subsequent quantitative analysis of those observations, ending with a summary of the chapter. In Chapter 5, guided by the theoretical framework and peer-reviewed literature cited, I will provide an interpretation of the findings, discuss limitations of the study, give recommendations for future research, outline the implications of positive social change from the study's findings, and end with a conclusion.

Interpretation of the Findings

As discussed in Chapter 2, the body of literature strongly supports the tenets of procedural justice as a means of achieving a societal perception of the police as a legitimate authority. Simply stated, the citizen's perception of the quality of process and quality of treatment leads to perceptions of procedurally just policing (Tyler, 1990). Researchers have started to explore various potential pathways that would allow police agencies to apply the tenets of procedural justice theory to their policing practices in order to achieve perceived legitimacy. One such pathway elucidated by Lawrence et al. (2017) and Morison (2017) calls for police agencies to begin using psychological assessment instruments to screen-in police applicants who demonstrate alignment with the constructs of community policing and procedural justice. Lawrence et al. (2017) discuss the problem of only using psychological assessments to screen-out police candidates who pose a higher risk of problematic behavior. The researchers highlight the

ability of psychological assessment instruments to discern police candidates who have a psychological predisposition to policing in a manner that promotes respect, trustworthiness, neutrality, and citizen participation.

This research was an initial exploration based on the finding of Lawrence et al. (2017), that "pre-screening measures of empathy, emotional control, and neuroticism may indicate which officers are more likely to display higher levels of quality treatment and decision making" (p. 150). These researchers theorized that officers who were screened-in would have a greater likelihood of providing a higher level of quality treatment and decision-making, leading to higher levels of citizen satisfaction than officers hired using a screen-out methodology. The exploration of this theory was accomplished by observing citizen interactions with police officers assigned to patrol duties in one screen-in and one screen-out police agency using the Systematic Social Observation Instrument created and validated by Jonathan-Zamir et al. (2015). Observations were made and recorded of the behaviors of the officers that were either supportive of or detracted from the tenets of procedural justice, as were verbal and behavioral indicators of the citizens' satisfaction.

The quantitative findings of this research study support the hypothesis put forth by Lawrence et al. (2017) of the existence of a difference in the way screen-in and screen-out agencies deliver procedurally just police patrol services to their communities. For the screen-out agency, the elements of participation, neutrality, dignity/respect, and trustworthiness, the mean values ($\bar{x}$) and standard deviation (s) of the number of demonstrative behaviors exhibited per citizen contact were found to be ($\bar{x}$)2.78, (s).636,

($\bar{x}$)2.41, (s).807, ($\bar{x}$)2.90, (s).851, and ($\bar{x}$)1.94, (s).932, respectively. For the screen-in

agency, the mean values were calculated as ($\bar{x}$)3.57, (s).529, ($\bar{x}$) 3.22, (s).739, ($\bar{x}$)3.55,

(s).587, and ($\bar{x}$)3.11, (s)1.174. The ANOVA and partial eta squared confirmed that the

difference in procedurally just behaviors between police agency types was statistically

significant at the $p < .05$ level and that the statistical significance is meaningful. The

calculated F value was calculated to be 72.49, well beyond the $F_{critical}$ value of 3.84.

Additionally, the partial eta squared value of .34 demonstrates that 34% of the difference

in procedurally just behaviors of patrol officers is accounted for by agency type.

The qualitative findings from this study revealed that although there was a

difference in citizen satisfaction with the patrol services delivered by the two police

agencies, overall, the majority of citizens expressed satisfaction with their interactions. I

gathered qualitative data at three specific times during the police-citizen interactions. My

initial observation described the citizen's physical and verbal cues indicative of their

feelings about their interaction with police. A second observation was made, gathering

additional descriptive data describing the ongoing cues, taking note of cues indicative of

changing or ongoing feelings about the interaction. My final observation was made at the

conclusion of the police-citizen interaction, gathering all verbal and physical actions

describing the citizen's feelings and attitudes about the police services they received. I

coded each interaction, and themes were developed from the data, representing the

citizens' emotional journey through their interaction with police.

Of the 145 observed citizen-police interactions, 127 were able to be coded and

themed for citizen satisfaction. Of the 127 citizens assessed for satisfaction, 101 (80%)

appeared to be satisfied with the police patrol services they received from their respective agencies. Forty-seven of the 67 (70%) citizens assessed for satisfaction appeared to be satisfied with the service they received from the screen-out police agency. Fifty-four of the 60 (90%) citizens assessed for satisfaction appeared to be satisfied with the service they received from the screen-in police agency.

The qualitative findings were transformed into two dichotomous variables, agency type, and satisfaction and imported into SPSS. The results from the Pearson Chi-Square and Phi tests show the null hypothesis of no difference can be rejected with a 99% certainty of not committing a Type I error. The Phi value suggests that agency type accounts for 24.6 % of the difference in citizen satisfaction, representing a moderate relationship between the variables. Both the quantitative and qualitative findings suggest there is a statistically significant and meaningful difference between agency type and the procedurally just manner in which patrol officers deliver services to the communities they serve, which results in a difference in the level of citizen satisfaction.

Limitation of the Study

In every study, limitations exist, and this study is not an exception. This study was conducted using two medium-sized police agencies in the Midwest. Although every attempt was made to ensure the two cities were similar, distinct differences existed, which could potentially impact the study. The two cities were similar in size, area of the country, median income, and diversity; conversely, the crime rate, and calls for police service were more divergent. These differences resulted in the screen-in agency engaging in more self-initiated runs and the screen-out agency responding to more dispatched runs

and arrest situations. While it is unknown if the difference in run type played a role in citizen satisfaction or officers' procedurally just behaviors, it is a limitation of this study.

The use of two medium-sized police agencies in the Midwest may limit the generalizability and transferability of this study to larger and smaller agencies in different parts of the country and beyond. Additionally, my research revealed a minimal number of police agencies that use pre-employment psychological evaluations to screen-in police candidates. It is faster and less costly to screen out applicants, making it a preferable choice for most agencies. The rarity impacted the random selection of police agencies for the screen-in random selection as only four agencies were identified by this researcher for potential inclusion.

Lastly, using qualitative observational methods to assess citizens' satisfaction is susceptible to researcher bias and error. In addressing researcher bias, I used reflexivity for the systematic assessment of researcher identity, positionality, and subjectivities (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). An iterative process of reflexivity was used throughout the data gathering stages and the process of coding and theming the qualitative data to safeguard against the contaminating effects of researcher bias. I used thick, rich description of citizens' behavior and verbalizations to minimize the risk of error when assessing satisfaction. Given the complexities of human behavior, there is the possibility of error when assessing human feelings.

Recommendations

This study was conducted using two medium-sized, Midwest law enforcement agencies. Future research should include not only law enforcement agencies from other

parts of the country but should include agencies from other countries. Additionally, agencies of varying sizes should be included to discern any differences the size and subsequent resource availability may have on the variables. Future studies should also include the agency's mission statement, training, core values, and the agency's commitment to model procedural justness to its employees. These variables may add to our understanding of what factors account for the procedurally just behaviors officers engage in when interacting with citizens.

The need to accurately discern a citizen's satisfaction with the policing services they received is vitally important. Future studies should attempt to engage citizens through additional means. The use of structured interviews and Likert surveys could provide greater insight into satisfaction. These other measures could also allow researchers to explore how singular procedurally just behaviors affect individuals. Finally, it would permit different actions to be included and excluded as behaviors perceived by citizens as impacting their satisfaction with police service.

Implications

The divide between law enforcement and society is perhaps more evident now than at any other time in the history of our country. Our country has been rocked by protests and riots in nearly every major city, not because of police agencies as a whole, but because of the behaviors of singular officers. The behavior of officers matters as they engage with citizens, not just with the citizens with whom they engage but also to other citizens as they witness the interactions. The ability of law enforcement agencies to select officers that have been shown to have a psychological predisposition to serving the public

in a procedurally just manner is highly desirable. The findings of this study show that officers who have been selected based on their psychological alignment with the mission and goals of the law enforcement agency engage in more procedurally just behaviors with citizens and have a higher resultant level of citizen satisfaction.

This research study suggests those police agencies who currently use their psychological pre-screening assessments to screen-out police candidates re-evaluate their hiring process for the inclusion of an ability to match their policing philosophy to the candidates best suited to serve as desired. Both medium-sized and small departments have the ability to immediately realign their screening methodologies due to the lower number of employees hired at any given time. Larger departments would require more effort and resources to make this change to accommodate the increased financial cost and increased time for assessment. Finally, this research begins to explore concrete pathways that allow law enforcement agencies to rebuild trust in the communities they serve and restore their perceived legitimacy.

Summary

This study was conducted to explore the procedurally just behaviors of police officers as they interact with citizens from two agencies with different methodologies of using psychological assessments to pre-screen applicants and to assess citizens' satisfaction with the service they received. The quantitative data gathered showed that a statistically significant difference existed between the agencies in the number of procedurally just behaviors officers demonstrated as they delivered patrol services to citizens. The ANOVA conducted showed that the difference was statistically significant,

$F(1, 143) = 72.49, p < .001$ with an F critical value of 3.84. The partial eta squared, $\eta^2_p =$ .34, demonstrated that the difference was meaningful such that 34% of the observed difference in procedurally just behaviors is accounted for by the agency type.

The qualitative component assessed citizen's satisfaction with the observed police interaction. The data collected showed that of the 60 police-citizen interactions assessed for the screen-in agency, 54 (90%) of the citizens demonstrated some level of satisfaction. Sixty-seven police-citizen interactions were assessed for citizen satisfaction for the screen-out agency, with 47 (70%) of the citizens expressing some level of satisfaction. From these data, two dichotomous variables were created to determine the likelihood of committing a Type I error if the null hypothesis of no difference is rejected. I conducted a Pearson Chi-Square was conducted, which demonstrated ($p < .006$) less than a one percent chance of committing a Type I error if the null hypothesis is rejected. Additionally, the calculated Phi value of .246 shows a moderate relationship and that 24.6% of the difference in citizen satisfaction can be accounted for by agency type. The findings from this study demonstrate the need for additional research in screening methodologies as a means to select police applicants with a greater probability of policing in a procedurally just manner, thereby increasing citizen satisfaction and potentially improving the perception of the police as a legitimate authority.

References

Aiello, M. F., & Lawton, B. A. (2018). Campus police cooperation and legitimacy: Extending the procedural justice model. *Deviant Behavior, 39*(10), 1371-1385. doi:10.1080/01639625.2017.1410618Annell, S., Lindfors, P., & Sverke, M. (2015). Police selection – implications during training and early career. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 38*(2), 221-238. doi:10.1108/PIJPSM-11-2014-0119

Antrobus, E., Thompson, I., & Ariel, B. (2018). Procedural justice training for police recruits: Results of a randomized controlled trial. *Journal of Experimental Criminology, 15,* 29-53. doi:10.1007/s11292-018-9331-9

Barrett, G. V., Miguel, R. F., Hurd, J. M., Lueke, S. B., & Tan, J. A. (2003). Practical issues in the use of personality traits in police selection. *Public Personnel Management, 32*(4), 497-517. doi:10.1177/009102600303200403

Bayley, D. H. (2018). The forgotten path to police reform in the United States: An essay. *Policing and Society, 28*(2), 125-136. doi:10.1080/10439463.2018.1435982

Blader, S. L., & Tyler, T. R. (2003). A four-component model of procedural justice defining the meaning of a "fair process." *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 29*(6), 747-758. doi:10.1177/0146167203029006007

Bradford, B., & Quinton, P. (2014). Self-legitimacy, police culture and support for democratic policing in an English constabulary. *British Journal of Criminology, 54*(6), 1023-1046. doi:10.1093/bjc/azu053

Brockner, J., Tyler, T. R., & Cooper-Schneider, R. (1992). The influence of prior

commitment to an institution on reactions to perceived unfairness: The higher they are the harder they fall. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 37*(2), 241-261. doi:10.2307/2393223

Cochrane, R. E., Tett, R. P., & Vandecreek, L. (2003). Psychological testing and the selection of police officers. *Criminal Justice And Behavior, 30*(5), 511-537. doi:10.1177/0093854803257241

Cook, K. S., & Rice, E. (2006). Social exchange theory. In J. Delamater (Ed.), *Handbook of social psychology* (53-76). New York, NY: Plenum.

Corey, D. M., Sellborn, M., & Ben-Porath, Y. S. (2018). Risks associated with overcontrolled behavior in police officer recruits. *Psychological Assessment, 30*(12), 1691-1702. doi:10.1037/pas0000607

Craig, R. J. (2005). *Personality-guided psychology. Personality guided forensic psychology.* Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Crank, J. P. (2014). *Understanding police culture.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Creswell, J. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches,* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Cuttler, M., Detrick, P., Supnick, J., Brewster, J., & Stewart, C. (2014). *Core scientific knowledge for specialists in police and public safety psychology.* Chapel Hill, NC: American Board of Police and Public Safety.

Dai, M., Frank, J., & Sun, I. (2011). Procedural justice during police-citizen encounters: The effects of process-based policing on citizen compliance and demeanor. *Journal of Criminal Justice, 39*(2), 159-168. doi:10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2011.01.004

Davis, R. C., Ortiz, C. W., Euler, S., & Kuykendall, L. (2015). Revisiting "measuring what matters:" Developing a suite of standardized performance measures for policing. *Police Quarterly, 18*(4), 469-495. doi:10.1177/109861111559890

De Maillard, J., & Savage, S. P. (2018). Policing as a performing art? The contradictory nature of contemporary police performance management. *Criminology & Criminal Justice, 18*(3), 314-331. doi:10.1177/1748895817718589.

Detrick, P., & Chibnall, J. T. (2006). NEO PI-R personality characteristics of high-performing entry-level police officers. *Psychological Services, 3*(4), 274-285. doi:10.1037/1541-1559.3.4.274

Diecidue, D. D. (2002). Development of pre-employment psychological "screening-in" testing for police dispatchers. Retrieved from https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/8169/9591ec9aa2719a1403873e1beaae947bcfb7.pdf?_ga=2.248042112.683493371.1553015366-282969468.1553015366

Donner, C., Maskaly, J., Fridell, L., & Jennings, W. G. (2015). Policing and procedural justice: A state-of-the-art review. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Science and Management, 38*(1), 153-172. doi:10.1108/PIJPSM-12-2014-0129

Dunham, R. G., & Alpert, G. P. (2015). *Critical issues in policing: Contemporary readings.* Long Grove, Il: Waveland Press.

Elliot, I., Thomas, S. D. M., & Ogloff, J. R. P. (2011). Procedural justice in contacts with the police: Testing a relational model of authority in a mixed methods study. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law, 17*(4), 592-610. doi:10.1037/a0024212

Falkenbach, D. M., Glackin, E., & McKinley, S. (2018). Twigs on the same branch?

Identifying personality profiles in police officers using psychopathic personality traits. *Journal of Research in Personality, 76*, 102-112. doi:10.1016/j.jrp.2018.08.002

Frankfort-Nachmias, C., & Leon-Guerrero, A. (2015). *Social statistics for a diverse society.* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Gau, J. M. (2015). Procedural justice, police legitimacy, and legal cynicism: A test for mediating effects. *Police Practice & Research, 16*(5), 402-415. doi:10.1080/15614263.2014.927766

Grant, C., & Osanloo, A. (2014). Understanding, selecting, and integrating a theoretical framework in dissertation research: Creating the blueprint for your "house." *Administrative Issues Journal: Connecting Education, Practice, and Research, 4*(2), 12–26. doi:10.5929/2014.4.2.9

Guetterman, T. C., & Fetters, M. D. (2018). Two methodological approaches to the integration of mixed methods and case study designs: A systematic review. *American Behavioral Scientist, 62*(7), 900-918. doi:10.1177/0002764218772641

Hagan, J., & Hans, V. P. (2017). Procedural justice theory and public policy: An exchange. *Annual Review of Law and Social Science, 13*(1), 1-3. doi:10.1146/annurev-lawsocsci-121416-011426

Hamm, J. A., Trinkner, R., & Carr, J. D. (2017). Fair process, trust, and cooperation: Moving toward an integrated framework of police legitimacy. *Criminal Justice And Behavior, 44*(9), 1183-1212. doi:10.1177/0093854817710058

Homans, G. C. (1961). *Social behavior: Its elementary forms.* New York, NY: Harcourt,

Brace, and World.

Hough, L. M. (2016). Community-oriented policing: Hiring in the spirit of service. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 9*(3), 573-582. doi: 10.1017/iop.2016.57.

Huq, A. Z., Jackson, J., & Trinkner, R. (2016). Legitimating practices: Revisiting the predicates of police legitimacy. *British Journal of Criminology, 57*(5), 1101-1122. doi:10.1093/bjc/azw037

Ingram, J. R., & Terrill, W. (2014). Relational demography and officer occupational attitudes: The influence of workgroup context. *Journal of Criminal Justice, 42*(4), 309-320. doi:10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2014.04.001

International Association of Chiefs of Police. (2014). *Preemployment psychological evaluation guidelines.* Orlando, FL: Police Psychological Services Section.

Jonathan-Zamir, T., & Harpaz, A. (2018). Predicting support for procedurally just treatment: The case of the Israel National Police. *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 20*(10), 1-23. doi:10.1177/0093854818763230

Jonathan-Zamir, T., Mastrofski, S. D., & Moyal, S. (2015). *Justice Quarterly, 32*(5), 845-871. doi:10.1080/07418825.2013.845677

Kelley, H. H., & Thibaut, J. W. (1978). *Interpersonal relations: A theory of interdependence.* New York, NY: Wiley.

Kelling, G. L. (1992). Toward new images of policing: Herman Goldstein's problem-oriented policing. *Law & Social Inquiry, 17*(3), 539-559. doi:10.1111/j.1747-4469.1992.tb00626.x

Kitaeff, J. (2011). *Handbook of police psychology.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Lawrence, D. S. (2014). *Predicting procedural justice behavior: Examining personality and parental discipline in new officers* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/central/docview/1592005896/abstract/FDDE9B0A6DF E4B4EPQ/1

Lawrence, D. S., Christoff, T. E., & Escamilla, J. H. (2017). Predicting procedural justice behavior: Examining communication and personality. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 40*(1), 141-154. doi: 10.1108/PIJPSM-07-2016-0107

Leventhal, G. S. (1980). What should be done with equity theory? In K. J. Gergen, M. S. Greenberg, & R. H. Willis (Eds.), *Social exchange: Advances in theory and research* (27-55). Boston, MA: Springer US.

Lind, E. A., & Tyler, T. R. (1988). *The social psychology of procedural justice.* New York, NY: Plenum Press.

Lokhande, A., & Dongre, A. P. (2013). Big 5 personality traits and their relation with public and private sector jobs. *International Journal of Management, IT and Engineering,* 3(4), 1-5. Retrieved from http:// www.ijmra.us

MacCoun, R. J. (2005). Voice, control, and belonging: The double-edged sword of procedural fairness. *Annual Review of Law and Social Science,* 1(1), 171-201. doi:10.1146/annurev.lawsocsci.1.041604.115958

MacQueen, S. & Bradford, B. (2015). Enhancing public trust and police legitimacy during road traffic encounters: Results from a randomized controlled trial in

Scotland. *Journal of Experimental Criminology,* 11(3), 419-443. doi:
10.1007/s11292-015-9240-0

Madon, N. S., Murphy, K., & Sargeant, E. (2017). Promoting police legitimacy among
disengaged minority groups: Does procedural justice matter more? *Criminology
& Criminal Justice,* 17(5), 624-642. doi:10.1177/1748895817692849

Masood, A., Rafique, R., Qaisar, S., & Musarat, R. (2017). Personality traits as predictor
of job performance in police officers. *Bahria Journal of Professional Psychology,*
16(2), 44-58. Retrieved from
https://ezp.waldenulibrary.org/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?
direct=true&db=a9h&AN=131765957&site=eds-live&scope=site

Mastrofski, S. D., Jonathan-Zamir, T., Moyal, S., & Willis, J. J. (2016). Predicting
procedural justice in police-citizen encounters. *Criminal Justice and Behavior,*
43(1), 119-139. doi:10.1177/0093854815613540.

Mastrofski, S. D., Parks, R. B., & McCluskey, J. D. (2010). Systematic social observation
in criminology. In A. R. Piquero & D. Weisburd (Eds.), *Handbook of quantitative
criminology* (225-247). New York, NY: Springer.

Maxwell, J. A. (1992). Understanding and validity in qualitative research. *Harvard
Educational Review,* 62(3), 279-300. Retrieved from http://matt-
koehler.com/hybridphd/hybridphd_summer_2010/wp-
content/uploads/2010/06/maxwell92.pdf

Meier, R. D., Farmer, R. E., & Maxwell, D. (1987). Psychological screening of police
candidates: Current perspectives. *Journal of Police Science and Administration,*

15(3), 210-215. Retrieved from

https://www.ncjrs.gov/App/Publications/abstract.aspx?ID=108534

Metchik, E. (1999). An analysis of the "screening out" model of police officer selection. *Police Quarterly, 2*(1), 79-95. doi:10.1177/109861119900200104.

Miller, W. R. (1999). *Cops and bobbies: Police authority in New York and London 1830-1870.* Columbus, OH: The Ohio State University Press.

Morin, R., Parker, K., Stepler, R., & Mercer, A. (2017). *Behind the badge*: *Amid protests and calls for reform, how do police view their jobs, key issues and recent fatal encounters between blacks and police.* Washington, DC: PEW Research Center.

Morison, K. P. (2017). *Hiring for the 21st century law enforcement officer: Challenges, opportunities, and strategies for success.* Washington, DC: COPS Office.

Murphy, K., Sargeant, E., & Cherney, A. (2015). The importance of procedural justice and police performance in shaping intentions to cooperate with the police: Does social identity matter? *European Journal of Criminology,* 12(6), 719-738. doi: 10.1177/1477370815587766

Murphy, K., & Tyler, T. R. (2017). Experimenting with procedural justice policing. *Journal of Experimental Criminology,* 13(3), 287-292. doi:10.1007/s11292-017-9300-8

Myhill, A., & Bradford, B. (2013). Overcoming cop culture? Organizational justice and police officers' attitudes toward the public. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management,* 36(2), 338-356. doi: 10.1108/13639511311329732

Nagin, D. S., & Telep, C. W. (2017). Procedural justice and legal compliance. *Annual Review of Law and Social Science,* 13(1), 5-28. doi:10.1146/annurev-lawsocsci-110316-113310

Niñerola, J., Figueras, A., Higueras, E., Vilardell, J., Melero, A., & Solé, M. A. (2014). Revised NEO personality inventory normative data for Catalan police officer selection: A preliminary study. *Personality and Individual Differences,* 60(S68). doi:10.1016/j.paid.2013.07.299

Nivette, A. (2014). Legitimacy and crime: Theorizing the role of the state in cross-national criminological theory. *Theoretical Criminology, 18*(1), 93-111. doi: 10.1177/1362480613499793.

Nix, J., Pickett, J. T., Wolfe, S. E., & Campbell, B. A. (2017). Demeanor, race, and police perceptions of procedural justice: Evidence from two randomized experiments. *Justice Quarterly,* 34(7), 1154-1183. doi: 10.1080/07418825.2017.1334808

Nix, J., Wolfe, S. E., Rojek, J., & Kaminski, R. J. (2015). Trust in the police: The influence of procedural justice and perceived collective efficacy. *Crime & Delinquency,* 61(4), 610-640. doi:10.1177/0011128714530548

Noppe, J., Verhage, A., & Van Damme, A. (2017). Police legitimacy: An introduction. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management,* 40(3), 474-479. doi:10.1108/pijpsm-05-2017-0058

Nowacki, J. S. (2015). Organizational-level police discretion: An application for police use of lethal force. *Crime & Delinquency,* 61(5), 643-668. doi:

10.1177/0011128711421857

Office of Community Oriented Policing Services. (2015). *The President's task force on 21st century policing.* Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

O'Sullivan, E., Rassel, G. R., Berner, M., & Taliaferro, J. D. (2017). *Research methods for public administrators* (6th ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Owens, E., Weisburd, D., Amendola, K. L., & Alpert, G. P. (2018). Can you build a better cop? Experimental evidence on supervision, training, and policing in the community. *Criminology & Public Policy,* 17(1), 41-87. doi:10.111/1745-9133.12337

Paoline, E. A. (2004). Shedding light on police culture: An examination of officers' occupational attitudes. *Police Quarterly,* 7(2), 205-236. doi: 10.1177/1098611103257074

Paoline, E. A., Terrill, W., & Rossler, M. T. (2015). Higher education, college degree major, and police occupational attitudes. *Journal of Criminal Justice Education,* 26(1), 49-73. doi:10.1080/10511253.2014.923010

Plano-Clark, V. L., & Ivankova, N. V. (2015). *Mixed methods research: A guide to the field.* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Posick, C., & Hatfield, H. (2017). Putting H.E.A.R.T. into policing: a 21st century model for effective and fair policing. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management,* 40(1), 128-140. doi:10.1108/PIJPSM-07-2016-0113

Ravitch, S. M., & Carl, N. M. (2016). *Qualitative research: Bridging the conceptual, theoretical, and methodological.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Rawls, J. (1971). *A theory of justice.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Reisig, M. D., Tankebe, J., & Mesko, G. (2014). Compliance with the law in Slovenia: The role of procedural justice and police legitimacy. *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research,* 20(2), 259-276. doi:10.1007/s1610-013-9211-9

Roberts, R. M., Tarescavage, A. M., Ben-Porath, Y. S., & Roberts, M. D. (2018). Predicting probationary job performance of police officers using CPI and MMPI-2-RF test data obtained during preemployment psychological screening. *Journal of Personality Assessment,* 42, 1-12. doi:10.1080/00223891.2018.1423990

Rosenbaum, D., & Lawrence, D. (2017). Teaching procedural justice and communication skills during police-citizen encounters: Results of a randomized control trial with police recruits. *Journal of Experimental Criminology,* 13(3), 293-319. doi: 10.1007/s11292-017-9293-3

Rosenbaum, D. P., Lawrence, D. S., Hartnett, S. M., McDevitt, J., & Posick, C. (2015). Measuring procedural justice and legitimacy at the local level: The police-community interaction survey. *Journal of Experimental Criminology,* 11(3), 335-366. doi:10.1007/s11292-015-9228-9

Rosenbaum, D. P., Maskaly, J., Lawrence, D. S., Escamilla, J. H., Enciso, G., Christoff, T. E., & Posick, C. (2017). The police-community interaction survey: Measuring police performance in new ways. *Policing: An International Journal of Strategies & Management,* 40(1), 112-127. doi:10.1108/PIJPSM-07-2016-0119.

Saldaña, J. (2015). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers.* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE

Sargeant, E., Murphy, K., & Cherney, A. (2014). Ethnicity, trust and cooperation with

    police: Testing the dominance of the process-based model. *European Journal of*

    Criminology, 11(4), 500-524. doi:10.1177/1477370813511386

Schulhofer, S. J., Tyler, T. R., & Huq, A. Z. (2011). American policing at a crossroads:

    Unsustainable policies and the procedural justice alternative. *Journal of Criminal*

    Law & Criminology, 101(2), 335-374. Retrieved from

    https://ezp.waldenulibrary.org/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?

    direct=true&db=a9h&AN=60870001&site=eds-live&scope=site

Shenton, A. K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research

    projects. *Education for Information, 22*(2), 63–75. Retrieved from the Walden

    Library databases.

Silver, J. R., Roche, S. P., Bilach, T. J., & Bontrager-Ryon, S. (2017). Traditional police

    culture, use of force, and procedural justice: Investigating individual,

    organizational, and contextual factors. *Justice Quarterly,* 34(7), 1272-1309.

    doi:10.1080/07418825.2017.1381756

Skogan, W. G. (2006). The promise of community policing. In D. Weisburd & A. Braga

    (Eds.), *Police-innovation* (27-43). Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Skogan, W. G., Van Craen, M., & Hennessy, C. (2015). Training police for procedural

    justice. *Journal of Experimental Criminology,* 11(3), 319-334.

    doi:10.1007/s11292-014-9223-6

Suchman, M. C. (1995). Managing legitimacy: Strategic and institutional approaches.

    Academy of Management Review, 20(1), 571-610. Retrieved from

https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Mark_Suchman/publication/273070350_Ma

naging_Legitimacy_Strategic_and_Institutional_Approaches_Academy_of_Mana

gement_Review_20_571-611/links/551991180cf26cbb81a2ac96.pdf

Tankebe, J., Reisig, M. D., & Xia, W. (2016). A multidimensional model of police

legitimacy: A cross-cultural assessment. *Law & Human Behavior,* 40(1), 11-22.

doi:10.1037/lhb0000153

Tarescavage, A. M., Brewster, J., Corey, D. M., & Ben-Porath, Y. S. (2015). Use of

prehire Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory-2-Restructured Form

(MMPI-2-RF) police candidate scores to predict supervisor ratings of posthire

performance. *Assessment, 22*(4), 411-428. doi:10.1177/1073191114548445

Thibaut, J. W. & Walker, L. (1978). A theory of procedure. *California Law Review,*

66(3), 541-566. doi:10.15779/Z38WX8J

Thurairajah, K. (2019). Uncloaking the researcher: Boundaries in qualitative research.

Qualitative Sociology Review, 15(1), 132-147. doi:10.18778/1733-8077.15.1.06

Trinkner, R., Jackson, J., & Tyler, T. R. (2018). Bounded authority: Expanding

'appropriate' police behavior beyond procedural justice. *Law and Human*

Behavior, 42(3), 280-293. doi:10.1037/lhb0000285

Tyler, T. R. (2017). Can the police enhance their popular legitimacy through their

conduct? Using empirical research to inform law. *University of Illinois Law*

Review, 5, 1971-2008. Retrieved from https://illinoislawreview.org/wp-

content/uploads/2017/10/Tyler.pdf

Tyler, T. R. (1988). What is procedural justice? Criteria used by citizens to assess the

fairness of legal procedures. *Law & Society Review,* 22(1), 103-135. doi:

    10.2307/3053563

Tyler, T. R. (1990). Justice, self-interest, and the legitimacy of legal and political

    authority. In J. J. Mansbridge (Ed.), *Beyond self-interest* (171-179). Chicago, Il:

    University of Chicago Press.

Tyler, T. R. (1997). The psychology of legitimacy: A relational perspective on voluntary

    deference to authorities. *Personality and Social Psychology Review,* 1(4), 323-

    345. doi:10.1207/s15327957pspr0104_4

Tyler, T. R. (2004). Enhancing police legitimacy. *The Annals of the American Academy*

    of Political and Social Science, 593(1), 84-99. doi:10.1177/0002716203262627

Tyler, T. R. (2006). *Why people obey the law.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Tyler, T. R. (2012). Justice and effective cooperation. *Social Justice Research,* 25(4),

    355-375. doi:10.1007/s11211-012-0168-5

Tyler, T. R., Goff, P. A., & MacCoun, R. J. (2015). The impact of psychological science

    on policing in the United States: Procedural justice, legitimacy, and effective law

    enforcement. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest,* 16(3), 75-109. doi:

    10.1177/1529100615617791

Tyler, T. R., & Huo, Y. (2002). *Trust in the law: Encouraging public cooperation with*

    the police and courts. New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.

Tyler, T. R., & Jackson, J. (2014). Popular legitimacy and the exercise of legal authority:

    Motivating compliance, cooperation, and engagement. *Psychology, Public Policy*

    and Law, 20(1), 78-95. doi:10.1037/a0034514

Tyler, T. R., & Lind, E. A. (1992). A relational model of authority in groups. In M. P.

    Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (115-191). New York,

    NY: Academic Press.

Van Craen, M., & Skogan, W. G. (2017). Achieving fairness in policing: The link

    between internal and external procedural justice. *Police Quarterly,* 20(1), 3-23.

    doi:10.1177/1098611116657818

Van Damme, A. (2017). How to measure procedurally (un)just behavior during police-

    citizen interactions. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies &*

    Management, 40(3), 587-600. doi:10.1108/PIJPSM-09-2016-0140

Wolfe, S. E., Nix, J., Kaminski, R., & Rojek, J. (2016). Is the effect of procedural justice

    on police legitimacy invariant? Testing the generality of procedural justice and

    competing antecedents of legitimacy. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology,* 32(2),

    253-282. doi:10.1007/s10940-015-9263-8

Worden, R., & McLean, S. (2017). *The mirage of police reform: Procedural justice and*

    police legitimacy. Oakland, CA: University of California Press.

Worden, R. E., & McLean, S. J. (2015). *Assessing police performance in citizen*

    encounters: Police legitimacy and management accountability. Albany, NY: John

    F. Finn Institute for Public Safety.

Yin, R. K. (2017). *Case study research and applications: Designs and methods* (6th ed.).

    Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications

Zhao, J., Thurman, Q. C., & Lovrich, N. P. (1995). Community-oriented policing across

    the U.S.: Facilitators and impediment to implementation. *American Journal of*

Police, 14(1), 11-28. Retrieved from

https://heinonline.org/HOL/Page?handle=hein.journals/ajpol14&id=17&div=&co

llection=

Appendix A: Full SSO Instrument

<u>RIDE</u>

1. Site number?

    1   XXXX

2. Ride number?

3. Your observer code?

4. Date ride began? (USE 4 DIGITS: 2 FOR MONTH AND 2 FOR DAY)

5. What was the official start time of observed officer's shift?

    ENTER 4-DIGIT, 24-HOUR CLOCK TIME
    0000 = midnight   1200 = noon

6. What was the official end time of observed officer's shift?

    ENTER 4-DIGIT, 24-HOUR CLOCK TIME
    0000 = midnight   1200 = noon

7. What time did observation of O1 begin?

    ENTER 4-DIGIT, 24-HOUR CLOCK TIME
    0000 = midnight   1200 = noon

8. What time did observation of O1 end?

    ENTER 4-DIGIT, 24-HOUR CLOCK TIME
    0000 = midnight   1200 = noon

9. To what beat/zone was O1 assigned? [ENTER DEPARTMENT CODE]

10. What is O1's ID number? [SEE OFFICER ID CODES]

11. At the beginning of the ride (first half hour), what was O1's attitude about having an observer present?

    1   Very negative
    2   Negative
    3   Neutral

4   Positive
5   Very positive

12. At the end of the ride (last half hour), what was O1's attitude about having an observer present?
    1   Very negative
    2   Negative
    3   Neutral
    4   Positive
    5   Very positive

    END

ENCOUNTER

1. Site number?

    1   XXXX

2. Ride number?

3. Encounter number? (NUMBER SEQUENTIALLY PER SHIFT)

4. Time encounter began? (24 hour clock)

    0000 = midnight   1200 = noon

5. Time encounter ended?

    0000 = midnight   1200 = noon

6. Did O1 arrive at the scene of the encounter after other officers were involved with the citizen(s)?

    1   No
    2   Yes

7. How did the officer's involvement in the encounter begin?

    1   Officer initiated encounter on own without request or command of others
    2   Dispatcher directed officer
    3   Supervisor/administrator directed officer (include roll call)
    4   Other officer requested or notified officer
    5   Citizen initiated (on scene).

6 Citizen – other (by telephone, cell, or other means directly to officer)
7 Other

8. How much of the interaction in the encounter was the observer able to see and hear?

    1 None. No significant part of the encounter was directly observed.
    2 Some. Important parts of the encounter were not directly observed.
    3 Most. Not all, but the important parts of the encounter were directly observed.
    4 All. All or nearly all parts of the encounter were directly observed.

9. How much of the decision-making lead did O1 take in this encounter – considering other officers involved at the scene?

    1 O1 totally led decision making
    2 O1 mostly led decision making
    3 O1 about evenly split with others (joint decision making)
    4 Others mostly led decision making
    5 Others totally led decision making

10. Before the encounter began was there any indication that this situation was expected to be urgent, difficult, or dangerous?

    1 No
    2 Yes, urgent
    3 Yes, difficult
    4 Yes, dangerous
    5 Urgent and difficult
    6 Urgent and dangerous
    7 Difficult and dangerous
    8 Urgent, difficult, and dangerous

11. What was the initial geographic location of the encounter? [ENTER CODE FROM GPS DEVICE]

12. What was the nature of the initial location of the encounter?

    1 Public property (e.g. road, park, government building).
    2 Police facility (e.g. police station, police parking lot).
    3 Private property (e.g. home, front porch).
    4 Private property open to the public (e.g. sports facility, shopping center).

13. How observable was the initial location to members of the public not involved in it who might be in the vicinity?

    1   Not at all observable
    2   Public could observe that police were dealing with someone, but details of interaction not easily observed
    3   Public could observe some details of interaction
    4   Public could observe most or all details of interaction

14. At any time during this ride did the observed officer show that s/he had prior knowledge of this (first) location (has been here before, knows this is a problem area)?

    1   No.
    2   Yes

15. What was the second geographic location of the encounter? [ENTER CODE FROM GPS DEVICE. IF NO SECOND LOCATION, ENTER -9 AND GO TO Q-18]

16. What was the nature of the second location of the encounter?

    1   Public property (e.g. road, park, government building).
    2   Police facility (e.g. police station, police parking lot).
    3   Private property (e.g. home, front porch).
    4   Private property open to the public (e.g. sports facility, shopping center).

17. How observable was the second location to members of the public not involved in it who might be in the vicinity?

    1   Not at all observable
    2   Public could observe that police were dealing with someone, but details of interaction not easily observed
    3   Public could observe some details of interaction
    4   Public could observe most or all details of interaction

18. What was the problem as radioed by dispatcher or others? [ENTER PROBLEM CODE. ENTER -9 IF NOT DISPATCHED OR RADIOED]

19. What was the problem as it appeared at the beginning of the encounter? [ENTER PROBLEM CODE. ENTER -9 IF NOT DISPATCHED OR RADIOED]

20. What was the most important problem as it appeared at the end of the encounter? [ENTER PROBLEM CODE. ENTER -9 IF NOT DISPATCHED OR RADIOED]

21. Was a supervisor (sergeant or higher) present at this encounter?

    1 No
    2 Yes, for all or most of the encounter
    3 Yes, for some of the encounter
    4 Yes, for a little of the encounter

22. During the encounter did O1 communicate with a supervisor who was not at the scene (by radio, telephone, or computer)?

    1 No
    2 Yes

23. Did a supervisor give guidance or instruction to O1 during this encounter? (SELECT HIGHEST NUMBER APPLICABLE)

    1 No
    2 Yes, but nature of input was not clear
    3 Yes, offered suggestion
    4 Yes, gave order/command

24. Did another NON-SUPERVISOR police officer give guidance or instruction to O1 during this encounter? (SELECT HIGHEST NUMBER APPLICABLE)

    1 No
    2 Yes, but nature of input was not clear
    3 Yes, offered suggestion
    4 Yes, gave order/command

25. When O1 arrived at the scene, how many other police officers were present? [ENTER NUMBER. DO NOT COUNT O1]

26. What was the maximum number of other police officers present at any time during the encounter? [ENTER NUMBER. DO NOT COUNT O1]

27. Upon or shortly after arrival at the scene, how many citizens (bystanders + participants – including civilian service personnel) were present? [ENTER NUMBER]

28. What was the maximum number of citizens (bystanders + participants – including civilian service personnel) present at any time during the encounter? [ENTER NUMBER]

29. Did the officer complete an official report of this event (including traffic tickets) or indicate that he/she would do so?

    1   No
    2   Yes, made clear to citizen that report would be made
    3   Yes, did not make clear to citizen that report would be made

30. Was there any indication that O1 changed his/her behavior because of your presence or actions (initiating or during this encounter)?

    1   no significant change [GO TO Q-32]
    2   yes, a little change
    3   yes, a substantial change

31. In what way did O1 change his/her behavior during this encounter?

    1   police more inclined to exert formal authority (stop, question, search, cite, arrest, force)
    2   police less inclined to exert formal authority
    3   police more inclined to engage in procedural justice
    4   police less inclined to engage in procedural justice

32. Did you perform any police tasks during this encounter?

    1   no
    2   yes, offered police information, advice, or an opinion
    3   yes, performed some physical aspect of police work
    4   yes, had more than casual communication with citizen participants
    5   yes, two or more of the above

33. *DEBRIEFING:* What was O1's goal for this encounter? [SELECT MOST IMPORTANT]

    1   no goal articulated
    2   procedural justice (have citizen think well of the process)
    3   solve immediate problem at the scene (safety, order, just deserts)
    4   solve long-term problem (avoid problem in future)
    5   efficiency (deal w/problem using least time/resources possible)
    6   Meet a production goal
    7   other

34. *DEBRIEFING:* What factor made it challenging to meet the most important goal?

    1   no factor identified

2   challenges presented by citizens
3   challenges presented by situation/circumstances (not citizen actions)
4   law, department rules, procedures, or guidelines inadequate
5   insufficient resources available on scene
6   insufficient resources available for subsequent mobilization
7   officer's personal skills not adequate
8   other

35. *DEBRIEFING:* What was the officer's estimate that goal was/will be achieved?

1   not at all achieved/likely to be achieved
2   somewhat achieved/likely to be achieved
3   about equally likely and unlikely that the goal was/ will be achieved
4   likely that goal was/will be achieved
5   very likely that goal was/will be achieved

36. *DEBRIEFING:* What would officer do differently? [SELECT MOST IMPORTANT]

1   nothing
2   attend to procedural justice
3   pay more attention to law, rules, procedures, or guidelines
4   get more information for achieving outcome, take more time deciding
5   give a citizen more of what he/she wants for outcome
6   give a citizen less of what he/she wants for outcome
7   select a more lenient outcome
8   select a more severe outcome
9   assert more authority or assert authority sooner
10 assert less authority or assert authority later
11 Other

END

CITIZEN

1. Site number?

   1   Manassas

2. Ride number?

3. Encounter number? [NUMBER SEQUENTIALLY PER SHIFT]

4. Citizen number? [NUMBER SHOULD MATCH NARRATIVE]

5. What was the citizen's sex?

    1 Male
    2 Female

6. What was the citizen's age?

    1 Preschool (up to 5 years)
    2 Child (6-12)
    3 Young adolescent (13-17)
    4 Older adolescent (18-20)
    5 Young adult (21-29)
    6 Adult (30-44)
    7 Middle-aged (45-59)
    8 Senior (60 and above)

7. What was the citizen's race/ethnicity?

    1 White
    2 Black
    3 Hispanic
    4 Asian/Pacific Islander
    5 American Indian
    6 Other
    7 Could not determine

8. What level of wealth did the citizen appear to have?

    1 Chronic poverty (homeless, no apparent means of support)
    2 Low (subsistence only)
    3 Middle
    4 Above middle

9. Was the citizen representing an establishment?

    1 No
    2 Business
    3 Government agency
    4 School
    5 Church
    6 Neighborhood organization
    7 Other

10. Did this citizen summon the police to this encounter?

    1   No
    2   Yes
    3   Not clear

11. At the beginning of this encounter was the citizen in custody?

    1   no
    2   yes, protective custody
    3   police custody

12. Did the citizen understand the officer's spoken language?

    1   citizen appeared to understand *completely* the officer's spoken language [GO TO Q-14]
    2   citizen appeared to understand *most* of the officer's spoken language
    3   citizen appeared to understand *some* of the officer's spoken language
    4   citizen appeared to understand *little or none* of the officer's spoken language

13. Did the citizen receive help in translation from a third party?

    1   No third party assisted the citizen understand the officer's language
    2   Yes, a third party tried to assist the citizen understand the officer, however the citizen appeared not to understand
    3   Yes, a third party enabled the citizen to understand the officer's spoken language

14. Did the citizen appear to be under the influence of alcohol or other drugs?

    1   no indication of alcohol/drug use
    2   indication of use, but no visible effects on mental capacity/behavior
    3   slight effects on mental capacity/behavior
    4   strong effects on mental capacity/behavior
    5   unconscious

15. Did the citizen show any signs of mental disorder?

    1   no indication of mental disorder
    2   indication of mental disorder, but able to understand officer
    3   indication of mental disorder, some difficulty understanding officer

4   indication of mental disorder, and considerable difficulty understanding officer

16. What best characterizes the citizen's emotional state at the beginning of contact with O1?

    1   calm
    2   somewhat elevated, but able to understand officer
    3   elevated, some difficulty understanding officer
    4   highly elevated, considerable difficulty understanding officer

17. What best characterizes the citizen's emotional state at the end of contact with O1?

    1   calm
    2   somewhat elevated, but able to understand officer
    3   elevated, some difficulty understanding officer
    4   highly elevated, considerable difficulty understanding officer

18. Did the citizen show any signs of physical injury or illness?

    1   no [GO TO Q-20]
    2   yes, minor injury or illness.
    3   yes, moderate injury or illness, which, however, did not seem to require immediate medical attention.
    4   yes, serious injury or illness that required immediate medical attention.

19. Did the citizen become injured or ill during the encounter?

    1   no, citizen was injured/ill before encounter began
    2   yes, citizen was injured/ill due to actions of other citizens
    3   yes, citizen was injured/ill due to actions of police
    4   yes, both 2 & 3

20. Was there any indication that this citizen was in conflict with another citizen present during this encounter?

    [SELECT HIGHEST NUMBER APPLICABLE]

    1   No [GO TO Q-23]
    2   yes, calm verbal disagreement with other citizen (no threats or aggressive gestures)
    3   yes, agitated verbal disagreement (no threats or aggressive gestures)
    4   yes, verbal threats or gestures to other citizen (no contact)

    5   yes, display of weapon in threatening manner
    6   yes, used or attempted to use weapons or make physical contact
    7   yes, used weapons or made physical contact

21. When did this conflict occur?

    1   Before encounter
    2   During encounter
    3   Both before and during encounter

22. What was the nature of the relationship between this citizen and the other citizen with whom this citizen had the strongest conflict?

    1   strangers
    2   casually acquainted
    3   well acquainted-no legal relationship (friends, neighbors, coworkers)
    4   well acquainted-legal relationship (spouse, caregiver, care receiver, parent/child)
    5   could not determine

23. Was there any indication that this citizen was in conflict with police officers present during this encounter? [SELECT HIGHEST NUMBER APPLICABLE]

    1   no
    2   yes, calm verbal disagreement with police (no threats or aggressive gestures)
    3   yes, agitated verbal disagreement (no threats or aggressive gestures)
    4   yes, verbal threats or gestures to police (no contact)
    5   yes, display of weapon in threatening manner
    6   yes, used or attempted to use weapons or make physical contact with police
    7   yes, used weapons or made physical contact with police

24. Did this citizen attempt to flee the scene during this encounter?

    1   no
    2   yes

25. At the end of this citizen's involvement in the encounter, what attitude did the citizen display toward the police handling of the situation?

    1   very negative attitude
    2   somewhat negative attitude
    3   about equally negative and positive

4   somewhat positive attitude
5   very positive attitude
6   unable to detect citizen's attitude toward police [GO TO Q 27]

26. Did the citizen indicate the source(s) of his/her attitude toward the police handling the situation?

1   no
2   yes, focused primarily on the outcome of the encounter
3   yes, focused primarily on the process of how the police dealt with citizen(s)
4   yes, both 2 & 3
5   yes, other

27. When the police first encountered this citizen, in what role did the police place this citizen?

1   Victim
2   Suspect
3   Disputant
4   Service recipient
5   Helpless person
6   Third party
7   Witness
8   Role not clear

28. What was the final role placed on this citizen by police (at the end of the encounter)?

1   Victim
2   Suspect
3   Disputant
4   Service recipient
5   Helpless person
6   Third party
7   Witness
8   Role not clear

29. Did O1 appear to have prior knowledge of this citizen? [SELECT HIGHEST APPLICABLE NUMBER]

1   No [GO TO Q-31]
2   Yes, knows citizen, but not clear how or how well
3   Yes, knows citizen by reputation or from police records

4   Yes, knows citizen as a passing acquaintance
5   Yes, knows citizen from prior interactions

30. What is the nature of O1's knowledge of this citizen? [SELECT HIGHEST APPLICABLE NUMBER]

   1   No indication or not clear
   2   Knows citizen as a problem person (violator, trouble-maker)
   3   Knows citizen as a victim or person requiring help
   4   Both 2 and 3
   5   Knows citizen as a personal friend
   6   Other

31. Did the police ask/tell the citizen to sign a formal complaint or otherwise use the legal process? [SELECT HIGHEST NUMBER APPLICABLE]

   1   no [GO TO Q-33]
   2   yes, suggested to citizen
   3   yes, requested of citizen
   4   yes, negotiated with citizen (offered something desirable in exchange for compliance)
   5   yes, commanded citizen explicitly
   6   yes, threatened citizen explicitly

32. What was the citizen's final response to this request (sign a formal complaint)?

   1   no indication one way or the other
   2   refused
   3   promised to do it (said he would do it, but not done in presence of police)
   4   did it in police presence

33. Did the police ask/tell the citizen to seek help from or submit to the guidance of another person, agency, or police unit? [SELECT HIGHEST NUMBER APPLICABLE]

   1   no [GO TO Q-35]
   2   yes, suggested to citizen
   3   yes, requested of citizen
   4   yes, negotiated with citizen (offered something desirable in exchange for compliance)
   5   yes, commanded citizen explicitly
   6   yes, threatened citizen explicitly

34. What was the citizen's final response to this request (seek help from or submit to guidance of another person, agency, or police unit)?

    1   no indication one way or the other
    2   refused
    3   promised to do it (said he would do it, but not done in presence of police)
    4   did it in police presence

35. Did the police ask/tell the citizen to help or control another person/animal? [SELECT HIGHEST NUMBER APPLICABLE]

    1   no [GO TO Q-37]
    2   yes, suggested to citizen
    3   yes, requested of citizen
    4   yes, negotiated with citizen (offered something desirable in exchange for compliance)
    5   yes, commanded citizen explicitly
    6   yes, threatened citizen explicitly

36. What was the citizen's final response to this request (help or control another person/animal)?

    1   no indication one way or the other
    2   refused
    3   promised to do it (said he would do it, but not done in presence of police)
    4   did it in police presence

37. Did the police ask/tell the citizen to provide information about a suspected wrongdoer? [SELECT HIGHEST NUMBER APPLICABLE]

    1   no [GO TO Q-39]
    2   yes, suggested to citizen
    3   yes, requested of citizen
    4   yes, negotiated with citizen (offered something desirable in exchange for compliance)
    5   yes, commanded citizen explicitly
    6   yes, threatened citizen explicitly

38. What was the citizen's final response to this request (provide information about a suspected wrongdoer)?

    1   no indication one way or the other
    2   refused
    3   promised to do it (said he would do it, but not done in presence of police)

4   did it in police presence

39. Did the police ask/tell the citizen to cease undesirable behavior (cease troubling behavior, leave another person alone, stop bothering someone, leave the premises, cease disorderly/disruptive behavior, cease illegal behavior)? [SELECT HIGHEST NUMBER APPLICABLE]

1   no [GO TO Q-41]
2   yes, suggested to citizen
3   yes, requested of citizen
4   yes, negotiated with citizen (offered something desirable in exchange for compliance)
5   yes, commanded citizen explicitly
6   yes, threatened citizen explicitly

40. What was the citizen's final response to this request (cease undesirable behavior)?

1   no indication one way or the other
2   refused
3   promised to do it (said he would do it, but not done in presence of police)
4   did it in police presence

41. Without being asked or told by police, did the citizen cooperate with police (provide or promise information or evidence, physical assistance)?

1   no
2   yes

42. Did the police attempt to shame the citizen (an effort to evoke regret or remorse by pointing out the harm the citizen has caused or the moral standards violated)?

[SHAME IS NOT HUMILIATION. SHAME FOCUSES ON THE OFFENDER'S ACT. HUMILIATION IS LOWERING SOMEONE'S STATUS IN THE EYES OF OTHERS]

1   No [GO TO Q-44]
2   yes

43. What was the citizen's response to the police effort to shame him/her?

1   citizen said or did nothing
2   citizen did or said something indicating a feeling of shame
3   citizen said or did something indicating defiance of attempt to shame

44. Did this citizen fit the description of someone known to the officer as wanted by the police or other law enforcement agencies?

    1   no
    2   yes

45. Did the police search the citizen, the area immediately around the citizen, his/her possessions, home, or automobile?

    1   no [GO TO Q-47]
    2   yes, before arresting the citizen
    3   yes, after arresting the citizen
    4   yes, before and after arresting the citizen
    5   yes, the police did not arrest the citizen

46. Did the search yield contraband/evidence?

    1   no
    2   yes, drugs or paraphernalia
    3   yes, weapon
    4   yes, other evidence

47. Did the police threaten to cite or arrest this citizen?

    1   no
    2   yes, threatened citation
    3   yes, threatened arrest
    4   yes, both 2 & 3

48. Did the police issue a citation (or summons to appear before a magistrate) to this citizen?

       [SELECT 000 FOR NO CITATION ISSUED.
        SELECT PROBLEM CODE THAT FITS MOST CLOSELY FOR
       OFFENSE IF CITATION ISSUED. SELECT MOST SERIOUS
       OFFENSE IF MORE THAN ONE]

49. Did the police notify, promise to notify, or threaten to notify another government agency about citizen's wrongdoing?

       [SELECT 000 TO ANSWER NO.
        SELECT PROBLEM CODE THAT FITS MOST CLOSELY TO
       DESCRIBE WRONGDOING NOTIFIED. SELECT MOST SERIOUS
       WRONGDOING IF MORE THAN ONE]

50. Did the police arrest this citizen?

> [SELECT 000 TO ANSWER NO.] [IF 000, GO TO Q-56]
> [SELECT PROBLEM CODE THAT FITS MOST CLOSELY TO
> DESCRIBE OFFENSE FOR WHICH ARRESTED. SELECT MOST
> SERIOUS WRONGDOING IF MORE THAN ONE]

51. BEFORE arresting the citizen, did police observe this citizen engage in an illegal act or observe circumstantial evidence of an illegal act? [SELECT HIGHEST NUMBER APPLICABLE]

    1   no
    2   yes, observed circumstantial evidence of illegal behavior
    3   yes, observed citizen perform illegal act
    4   yes, observed both circumstantial evidence and observed the citizen perform an illegal act

52. BEFORE arresting the citizen, did the police observe physical evidence that implicated this citizen in the offense?

    1   no
    2   yes

53. BEFORE arresting the citizen, did the police hear claims from others that implicated this citizen in the offense?

    1   no
    2   yes, other citizen(s) had second-hand information implicating this citizen
    3   yes, other citizen(s) observed citizen commit the offense
    4   yes, this citizen fit the description of someone known to the officer as wanted by the police for a criminal violation

54. BEFORE arresting the citizen for this offense, did the police receive a confession to the offense from the citizen?

    1   no
    2   yes, partial confession (admitted involvement short of committing offense)
    3   yes, full confession

55. AFTER arresting the citizen for this offense, did the police uncover other evidence implicating the citizen? [SELECT HIGHEST NUMBER APPLICABLE]

    1   no
    2   testimony from other citizens
    3   police received partial confession (admitted involvement short of committing offense)
    4   police received full confession
    5   physical evidence
    6   police observed illegal behavior

56. Did police observe this citizen engage in an illegal act or observe circumstantial evidence of an illegal act before or during the encounter? [SELECT HIGHEST NUMBER APPLICABLE]

    1   no
    2   yes, observed circumstantial evidence of illegal behavior
    3   yes, observed citizen perform illegal act
    4   yes, observed both circumstantial evidence and observed the citizen perform an illegal act

57. Did the police observe physical evidence that implicated this citizen in the offense?

    1   no
    2   yes

58. Did the police hear claims from others that implicated this citizen in the offense?

    1   no
    2   yes, other citizen(s) had second-hand information implicating this citizen
    3   yes, other citizen(s) observed citizen commit the offense
    4   yes, this citizen fit the description of someone known to the officer as wanted by the police for a criminal violation

59. Did the police receive a confession to the offense from the citizen?

    1   no
    2   yes, partial confession (admitted involvement short of committing offense)
    3   yes, full confession

60. Did the police threaten to use physical force on this citizen [INCLUDE BOTH VERBAL THREATS AND GESTURES]

    1   no
    2   yes

61. Which of the following forms of force did the police use on this citizen? [SELECT THE HIGHEST NUMBER APPLICABLE]

    1   firm grip or non-pain restraint
    2   pain compliance (hammerlock, wristlock, finger grip, carotid control, bar arm control)
    3   none of these were used

62. Did the police brandish a weapon at the citizen? [SELECT HIGHEST NUMBER APPLICABLE]

    1   no
    2   nightstick or other striking instrument
    3   chemical spray
    4   TASER, CED device
    5   Firearm

63. Did the police discharge or make contact with the citizen using any of the following? [SELECT HIGHEST NUMBER APPLICABLE]

    1   nightstick or other striking instrument
    2   chemical spray
    3   TASER, CED device
    4   Firearm
    5   None of these were used

64. Did the police handcuff the citizen?

    1   no
    2   yes

65. Did the citizen provide information or his/her viewpoint about the matter of interest in this encounter?

    1   no, officer did not request and citizen did not offer information/viewpoint [GO TO Q-67]
    2   no, citizen declined officer's request to provide information [GO TO Q-67]
    3   yes, without officer's request
    4   yes, in response to officer's request
    5   yes, don't know if without or in response to officer request

66. How did the officer receive the citizen's information/viewpoint?

1   Dismissive listener: cut the citizen off and or discredited the citizen's effort

2   Inattentive listener: tolerated the citizen's statements, but did not pay close attention, express appreciation, or offer encouragement

3   Passive listener: listened attentively to what the citizen said, but did not encourage additional participation or show appreciation

4   Active listener: expressed interest in or appreciation for citizen's statement or offered encouragement, asked follow-up questions

67. What did the officer show to this citizen about his/her desire to hear all viewpoints about the matter at hand?

    1   officer made no indication one way or the other
    2   officer indicated that he would seek all viewpoints
    3   officer indicated that he would exclude or discount this citizen's view
    4   officer indicated that he would exclude or discount another citizen's view
    5   both 3 and 4

68. Did the officer indicate to this citizen that he would not make a decision about what to do until he had gathered all the necessary information?

    1   no
    2   yes

69. Did the officer display any indication that his decisions in this situation were influenced by the personal characteristics (race, age, sex) of anyone present?

    1   no
    2   yes, by this citizen's characteristics
    3   yes, by other citizen's characteristics
    4   yes, both 2 & 3

70. Did the officer explain to the citizen why the police *became involved* in this situation?

    1   no [GO TO Q-76]
    2   yes

71. Did the officer's explanation of why he *became involved* include a description of the law or department/government procedures that justified the intervention?

    1   no
    2   yes

72. Did the officer's explanation of why he *became involved* include a reference to fulfilling community/society interests (e.g., safety, quality of life, community morals, etc.)?

    1   no
    2   yes

73. Did the officer's explanation of why he *became involved* include a reference to fulfilling the interests of persons involved in the situation at hand?

    1   no
    2   yes, this citizen only
    3   yes, another citizen only
    4   yes, both 2 & 3

74. Did the officer's explanation of why he *became involved* include a description of the evidence on which the officer was basing his decision?

    1   no
    2   yes

75. Did the officer's explanation of why he *became involved* include a statement that someone failed to follow his commands/ directions?

    1   no
    2   yes

76. Did the officer explain why he chose to *resolve the situation* as he did?

    1   no [GO TO Q-82]
    2   yes

77. Did the officer's explanation of the *resolution of the situation* include a description of the law or department/government procedures that justified the intervention?

    1   no
    2   yes

78. Did the officer's explanation of his *resolution of the situation* include a reference to fulfilling community/society interests (e.g., safety, quality of life, community morals, etc.)?

1   no
2   yes

79. Did the officer's explanation of his *resolution of the situation* include a reference to fulfilling the interests of persons involved in the situation at hand?

    1   no
    2   yes, this citizen only
    3   yes, another citizen only
    4   yes, both 2 & 3

80. Did the officer's explanation of his *resolution of the situation* include a description of the evidence on which the officer was basing his decision?

    1   no
    2   yes

81. Did the officer's explanation of his *resolution of the situation* include a statement that someone failed to follow his commands/ directions?

    1   no
    2   yes

82. Did the citizen ask any questions or express unhappiness about the reason for the officer's involvement in or resolution of the situation?

    1   no [GO TO Q-84]
    2   yes

83. How did the officer respond?

    1   ignored or did not respond to the citizen
    2   responded in a cursory fashion
    3   responded with a detailed explanation

84. Did the officer describe to the citizen a way that the citizen could file a complaint about the officer's handling of the situation or have it reviewed by another authority?

    1   no
    2   yes

85. Did the police show disrespect to this citizen during the encounter?

1 no [GO TO Q-92]
2 yes, the police initiated disrespect without any disrespect coming first from the citizen
3 yes, the police showed disrespect only after the citizen was disrespectful to the police
4 yes, do not know sequence

86. What best characterizes the duration of the police's disrespectful behavior to this citizen?

1 Brief: disrespect occurred in only a small portion of the encounter
2 Intermittent: disrespect occurred several times during the encounter
3 Dominant: disrespect occurred constantly throughout the encounter

87. As part of the police's disrespectful behavior, were the citizen's questions ignored?
1 yes
2 no

88. As part of the police's disrespectful behavior, did the officer speak in loud voice to citizen?
1 yes
2 no

89. As part of the police's disrespectful behavior, did the officer interrupt the citizen without apology?
1 yes
2 no

90. As part of the police's disrespectful behavior, did the officer use impolite language/gestures *not directed* specifically at this citizen?
1 yes
2 no

91. As part of the police's disrespectful behavior, did the officer use impolite language/gestures *directed* at this citizen?
1 yes
2 no

92. Did the police show any *respectful* behavior to this citizen during the encounter?

1 no, neither the police nor the citizen showed respect to each other [GO TO Q-94]

2   no, the police did not show respect, although the citizen *did* show respect to the police [GO TO Q-94].

3   yes, the police initiated respect without any respect coming first from the citizen

4   yes, the police showed respect only after the citizen was respectful to the police

5   yes, do not know sequence

93. What best characterizes the duration of the police's respectful behavior to this citizen?

    1   Brief: respect occurred in only a small portion of the encounter
    2   Intermittent: respect occurred several times during the encounter
    3   Dominant: respect occurred constantly throughout the encounter

94. Did the citizen show disrespect to the police during this encounter?

    1   no [GO TO Q-101]
    2   yes, the citizen initiated disrespect without any disrespect coming first from the police
    3   yes, the citizen showed disrespect only after the police were disrespectful to the citizen
    4   yes, do not know sequence

95. What best characterizes the duration of the citizen's disrespectful behavior to this police?

    1   Brief: disrespect occurred in only a small portion of the encounter
    2   Intermittent: disrespect occurred several times during the encounter
    3   Dominant: disrespect occurred constantly throughout the encounter

96. As part of the citizen's disrespectful behavior, were the officer's questions ignored?

    1   no
    2   yes

97. As part of the citizen's disrespectful behavior, did s/he speak in loud voice to officer?

    1   no
    2   yes

98. As part of the citizen's disrespectful behavior, did s/he interrupt officer without apology?

    1   no
    2   yes

99. As part of the citizen's disrespectful behavior, did s/he use impolite language/gestures *not directed* specifically at this officer?
    1   no
    2   yes

100. As part of the citizen's disrespectful behavior, did s/he use impolite language/gestures *directed* at this officer?
    1   no
    2   yes

101. Did the citizen show any *respectful* behavior to the police during the encounter?

    1   no, neither the citizen nor the police showed respect [GO TO Q-103]
    2   no, the citizen did not show respect, although the police *did* show respect to the citizen [GO TO Q-103].
    3   yes, the citizen initiated respect without any respect coming first from the police
    4   yes, the citizen showed respect only after the police was respectful to the citizen
    5   yes, do not know sequence

102. What best characterizes the duration of the citizen's respectful behavior to the police?

    1   Brief: respect occurred in only a small portion of the encounter
    2   Intermittent: respect occurred several times during the encounter
    3   Dominant: respect occurred constantly throughout the encounter

103. Did the officer ask the citizen about his/her well being or ask others about the citizen's well-being in a way that the citizen observed it?

    1   no
    2   yes

104. Did the police offer comfort or reassurance to the citizen?

    1   no [GO TO Q-106]

    2   yes

105. What best characterizes the duration of the officer's comforting/reassurance toward this citizen?

    1   Brief: comfort/reassurance occurred in only a small portion of the encounter
    2   Intermittent: comfort/reassurance occurred several times during the encounter
    3   Dominant: comfort/reassurance occurred constantly throughout the encounter

106. Did the officer provide or promise to exert control or influence over another person for this citizen?

    1   no: citizen did not request and officer did not initiate on own [GO TO Q-108]
    2   no: citizen requested, but officer did not exert any control
    3   yes, partial compliance: citizen requested and officer exerted less control than requested
    4   yes, officer initiated on own without citizen request
    5   yes, full compliance: officer initiated in response to citizen request

107. What was the nature of the control/influence the citizen requested? [SELECT HIGHEST NUMBER APPLICABLE]

    1   Persuade another citizen to do or not do something
    2   Warn or threaten another citizen
    3   Tell another citizen to leave the scene or stay away from this citizen
    4   Arrest another citizen

108. Did the officer file a report or promise to file a report for this citizen (exclude reports filed to document the citizen's arrest or his status as a suspect/wrongdoer).

    1   no: citizen did not request and officer did not initiate on own
    2   no: citizen requested, but officer did not comply
    3   yes, officer initiated on own without citizen request
    4   yes, full compliance: officer initiated in response to citizen request

109. Did the officer act or promise to act on behalf of the citizen with a government agency or private organization?

    1   no: citizen did not request and officer did not initiate on own

    2   no: citizen requested, but officer did not comply
    3   yes, officer initiated on own without citizen request
    4   yes, full compliance: officer initiated in response to citizen request

110. Did the officer provide/arrange or promise to provide/arrange any physical assistance to the citizen?

    1   no: citizen did not request and officer did not initiate on own
    2   no: citizen requested, but officer did not comply
    3   yes, officer initiated on own without citizen request
    4   yes, full compliance: officer initiated in response to citizen request

111. Did the officer provide or promise to provide advice on how the citizen could handle the situation or deal with the problem?

    1   no: citizen did not request and officer did not initiate on own
    2   no: citizen requested, but officer did not comply
    3   yes, officer initiated on own without citizen request
    4   yes, full compliance: officer initiated in response to citizen request

112. Did the officer provide the citizen with any documentation of this encounter (report form, receipt, ticket, summons, calling card)?

    1   no
    2   yes

113. Did this citizen change his/her behavior because of observer's presence or actions during encounter?

    1   no significant change
    2   yes, a little change (unlikely to have much influence on police-citizen interaction)
    3   yes, a substantial change (likely to have had significant influence on police-citizen interaction)

<div align="center">END</div>

Appendix B: Coding Instructions

RIDE

Item	Instructions
2	Rides are numbered sequentially for each observer; make sure you enter the same ride number as in the narrative.
3	Enter the observer code you were assigned.
5	The official start time is the time that the department has officially declared as the beginning of the officer's work shift. The official start time for the shifts of the Manassas PD are: Morning shift: 6:30 Night shift: 16:00 Midnight shift: 20:00
6	The official end time is the time that the department has officially declared as the ending time of the officer's work shift. The official end time for the shifts of the Manassas PD are: Morning shift: 17:00 Night shift: 02:30 Midnight shift: 06:30
7	Your observation begins with the first activity/encounter that you observe the officer engaged in. So if, for example, you began observing the officer only after roll call, or if the officer was late because he was engaged in some personal activity/official duty, the time the observation began would be later than the official start time of the shift.
8	Your observation ends with the end of the last activity/encounter you observe.
9	If O1 was not assigned to a specific beat/zone, enter 999
11/12	*1. Very negative*: Officer complains to supervisor, peers, or observer about having an observer assigned, tries to get out of having observer assigned. *2. Negative*: Officer is reluctant to engage in conversation, ignores observer's questions or is terse in answering, frequently attempts to exclude observer from observing officer's actions. *3. Neutral*: No indication that officer is either positive or negative about observer's presence. *4. Positive*: Officer willingly engages in conversation, is attentive to observer's questions, attempts to include observer in routine, non-dangerous events. *5. Very positive*: Officer speaks positively to supervisor, peers, or observer about having observer along. Makes special effort to explain things to observer. Makes special effort to ensure that observer has access to all events.

ENCOUNTER

Item	Instructions
General	An "encounter" is a face-to-face interaction between O1 and a citizen, which lasts at least one minute; involves 3 verbal exchanges; or includes significant physical contact.
2	Rides are numbered sequentially for each observer; make sure you enter the same ride number as in the narrative and in item 2 of the *Ride* information.
4	An encounter begins when the officer and citizen first begin communicating with each other. Thus, an encounter does not necessarily begin when the officer first arrives at the scene of an assigned call. It only begins when the officer first encounters a citizen and one of them begins communication.
5	An encounter ends when the communication ends between all citizens involved in the encounter and the officer. This usually occurs when the citizen or the officer depart the scene. Temporary gaps in communication with citizens present do not end an encounter as long as the officer and citizen are in proximity and at least one is attending to the other. For example, an officer responds to a "cold" burglary call. After interviewing the homeowner, the officer tells the citizen he'll walk around the house and look for evidence. The officer leaves the citizen's presence to do this, but then returns to the citizen to speak further with him about what evidence he found. This is all one encounter. Another example: an arrested citizen may be placed in the back of the officer's squad car after an investigation involving communication with that citizen and others. Once the citizen is in the car, the officer and citizen may say nothing to each other during the ride to the station, but the encounter still continues because they are in proximity and the citizen is in that officer's custody. However, if the officer places the citizen in a paddy wagon for the trip to the station, then the citizen is no longer close enough to continue communication if one of them wanted to do so, and the encounter ends. A subsequent encounter may begin at the station when the officer meets the paddy wagon and resumes custody of the prisoner.
7	*1. "Officer initiated encounter on own without request or command of others"* - Should be coded when there is no command, suggestion, or request from others that the officer engage in this encounter. *2. "Dispatcher directed officer"* – Includes ALL encounters where the source of information for mobilization was the dispatcher. For example, if O1 hears about a problem at some address but the dispatcher does not dispatch this officer, and s/he decides on his/her own initiative to go to the scene of the call, this should be coded as "2." *3. "Supervisor/administrator directed officer (include roll call)"* - Includes ALL encounters where the source of information for mobilization was a supervisor/administrator (same principle as code 2).

	4. "Other officer requested or notified officer" - Includes ALL encounters where the source of information for mobilization was other officers of the same rank (same principle as code 2). *5. "Citizen initiated (on scene)"* - A citizen ON SCENE hails or summons an officer to an encounter directly, without going through the dispatcher or other police. *6. "Citizen – other (by telephone, cell, or other means directly to officer)"* - A citizen NOT ON SCENE hails or summons an officer to an encounter directly, without going through the dispatcher or other police (such as through a phone call directly to the officer).
8	*"None"* – Should be coded if you remained in the car or in a different location from where the encounter took place for most or all of the encounter, and thus all of your information about this encounter came from debriefing the officer. *"All"* – Should be coded when you were able to SEE and HEAR all of the interaction between O1 and the citizen/s involved. *"Some"* and *"Most"* should be coded when you were able to SEE and HEAR parts of the encounter, such as in situations where you were initially instructed to stay in the car but were later allowed to come out and observe, or if you stood a few feet away and were thus able to only partially see/hear the interaction. Differentiating between *"Some"* and *"Most"* requires a judgment call.
10	*"Urgent" "difficult"* or *"dangerous"* – On his/her way to the encounter, did O1 SAY that this situation is expected to be urgent/difficult/dangerous, and perhaps explain why? The way O1 proceeded to the scene of the encounter or prepared for it may provide additional information. For example, increasing speed or turning on the lights/siren would indicate that the situation is urgent. Calling for additional backup or instructing you to remain in the car may suggest that the situation is expected to be difficult/dangerous.
22-24	Code "no" unless you directly observed, or O1 specifically said that s/he communicated with a supervisor, or received guidance/instruction from a supervisor/non supervisor. In some cases the officer will send/receive a call or message, and it will not be clear to you whether the other party is a non-supervisor or a supervisor. You may ask the officer "Who was that?" or "What was that about?"-- as long as you can make it seem like a natural outgrowth of your curiosity about what is going on. You want to avoid doing this constantly, however, as this may sensitize the officer to this issue.
29	An "official report" is any type of report that would leave a "paper trail" of this encounter with the department, such an incident report, traffic ticket or summons. Unofficial documentation (such as notes in the officer's notebook) does not count as "official reports."

30	Requires a judgment call. If coded "yes" (2 or 3), you should be able to describe something that the officer did or said or that someone else did or said that would lead a reasonable person to believe that the police changed their behavior because of your presence. This should be described in your narrative account of the encounter.
31	If O1 changed his/her behavior during this encounter in a way not mentioned in options 1-4 DO NOT answer this question.
35	If O1 just stated in the debriefing stage that his goal was achieved ("goal achieved"), this should be coded as 5. To code 4 or 3 O1 needed to somehow indicate that his goal was less than 100% achieved.

CITIZEN

Item	Instructions
General	A "citizen" is a member of the public (not including civilian service personnel on duty, such as medics or fire fighters) with whom O1 had an interaction that qualifies as an "encounter" (see above).
2	Rides are numbered sequentially for each observer; make sure you enter the same ride number as in the narrative and in item 2 of the *Ride* and *Encounter* information.
3	Encounters are numbered sequentially for each ride; make sure you enter the same encounter number as in the narrative and in item 3 of the *Encounter* information.
4	Citizens are numbered separately for each encounter, often in the order they appear in the encounter narrative; make sure you enter the same citizen number as in the narrative.
5	In rare instances you will be unable to determine the sex of a citizen. You may inquire what the officer believed the citizen's sex to be. If you cannot determine the citizen's sex with confidence, code 999. In cases of transvestites (cross-dressers), code the presumed biological sex, not the image presented by the citizen.
8	Coding categories should be selected based on (1) the information available to the officer; and (2) the citizen's appearance. This information should include the citizen's dress, property, possessions and income. For example, if the officer knows that a shabbily dressed person is an eccentric wealthy person, then the officer's knowledge will "override" appearances. If a citizen has no job but has other sources of wealth (owns property, has investments, depends upon parents or other family members), take into account those other sources of wealth. Youths and dependents should be presumed to have the level of wealth of those who are responsible for them (e.g., parents, spouses), unless the citizen's status is known to be different.

	"1. Chronic poverty" - Someone who appears not to have a domicile that provides a shelter. Someone who has no regular food, shelter, or clothing. Put a homeless person in this category. Ordinarily persons in this category would not own a functional motor vehicle. *"2. Low"* - Someone who has regular food, shelter, and clothing, but can provide these things only at very modest levels at or only slightly above subsistence. People who are on welfare or rely on low paying (minimum wage) jobs belong in this category. Persons in this category may <u>own</u> a functional motor vehicle, but it would be of very modest value (old, dilapidated). *"3. Middle"* - People with jobs above minimum wage or otherwise able to support themselves and their families. This category represents a broad range of wealth and occupations--from what has typically been called "working" class (factory workers and skilled labor) to teachers, small business owners and managers, low and mid-level government employees. *"4. Above middle"* - People whose appearance and possessions suggest the capacity to afford many luxury items (e.g., large, well-kept homes, luxury automobiles, expensive clothes and jewelry). Often you will rely upon a variety of indicators (dress, speech, home, possessions, occupation) to determine which category best suits the citizen. If you are presented with conflicting information (e.g., modest or shabby appearance but an occupation or home that suggests much greater wealth), you should take the totality of cues into account and select the category that best seems to fit over all. **NOTE:** This item does <u>not</u> ask you to judge the esteem in which society holds this individual or the individual's social standing in the neighborhood, larger community, or with the police. You are asked to make the best judgment possible of this individual's level of wealth, regardless of how he or she obtained it and how others may feel about this individual or his/her occupation.
9	To receive code 2 (*"Yes"*), the citizen should clearly be presenting him/herself as a representative of an organization.
11	*"Police custody"* means that the citizen was not free to come and go. Indications that a citizen is in custody include: officer states that citizen is under arrest; officer handcuffs citizen; officers surround the suspect; citizen is placed in a space where he/she is not free to leave (e.g., police vehicle); officer states that citizen is being taken to a place not of the citizen's choosing (e.g., parents' home, alcohol treatment facility, mental health facility, homeless shelter); officer states to citizen that he/she is not free to leave. *"Protective custody"* includes taking people into custody who are mentally or physically incapable of looking after their own safety and welfare. Police may do this when citizens are displaying dangerous or abnormal behavior.

	Examples: drunks taken to detoxification facility, homeless taken to shelters, runaways returned to parents/custodians, mentally deranged taken to mental health facility.
12	Indications of *no* or *partial* understanding of the officer's spoken language may include specific statements by the citizen or by other citizens/police that this citizen does not speak English; attempts to communicate in a different language; and verbal responses that indicate that this citizen does not speak English well/ did not understand the officer's questions.
14	*2. "Indication of use, but no visible effects on mental capacity/behavior"* – Code if the citizen has the smell of alcohol on his/her breath, but there are no behavioral indications of intoxication. *3. "Slight effects on mental capacity/behavior"* – Code if speech is only slightly slurred. The citizen understands and can respond in a comprehendible fashion to all queries. *4. "Strong effects on mental capacity/behavior"* - indicate severe impairment of mental or motor skills. *5. "Unconscious"* – Code if the citizen at any time during the encounter lost consciousness.
15	Mental disorder refers to an inability to perceive situations as a reasonable person would or to control one's emotions and actions. Further, there must be some indication that it is a chronic (continuing) condition, not one arising from the immediate circumstances (e.g., anger or frustration arising from a personal conflict).
16, 17	Emotional state of citizens should be judged on observable cues from the citizen's *behavior* (not your estimate of the nature of their "inner" feelings). The most important goal of these questions is to code the citizen's ability to understand the officer. His/her emotional state is mentioned because it is expected to impact the citizen's understanding ability. However, if in conflict, answer according to the citizen's ability to understand the officer.
18	*"Minor"* illnesses and injuries are those which are not life threatening or do not pose the risk of permanent disfigurement or disability if not attended to. For example: shortness of breath, minor bruises and abrasions, wounds that are not bleeding profusely would fall into this category. *"Serious"* injuries/illnesses are those which are life threatening or pose the risk of permanent disfigurement/disability. For example: strokes, heart attacks, seizures, profusely bleeding wounds (arterial), wounds penetrating body cavities, shock symptoms, broken arm or leg.
20-23	Conflict means that the citizen was in an antagonistic relationship with another citizen present. These may involve disagreement over some goal or the way to achieve that goal. They may be over personalities (who one is). Conflicts may be engaged in calmly or an agitated state, peacefully or violently. Conflicts may be in progress before the police arrive, or they may arise only after the police are on the scene.

	If the citizen was in conflict with more than one citizen present, you must select only one citizen for item 22. Select the other citizen with whom this citizen had the most interaction during the encounter. If two or more other citizens in conflict with this citizen had the same amount of interaction, then select the one with whom this citizen first interacted.
24	To constitute "fleeing," the police must first give a clear sign to the citizen that he/she wants the citizen to stop and not leave without permission. Examples of such signs include: an officer attempts to pull a motor vehicle over to the side of the road with lights or siren; an officer says "Halt!"; an officer tells someone they are under arrest or otherwise makes it clear that they are not free to come and go at will. Once that expectation is established, code *"Yes"* if the citizen leaves or attempts to leave without police permission or acquiescence. It is *not* flight if the citizen appears merely to be evading or avoiding contact with police, *and the police have not yet given a clear signal for the citizen to stop*.
25	The citizen's attitude should be judged on observable cues from the citizen's *behavior*, such as verbal comments the citizen makes to the police, to other citizens or to you (not your estimate of the nature of their "inner" feelings).
27-28	*1. Victim* – complainant, injured or wronged party. Indications from police: queries about harm/injury done to citizen, comfort and assistance offered. Indications from citizen: describes self as wronged/injured party. *2. Suspect* - peace disturber, wrongdoer, person complained about. Indications from police: interrogation, searching, threats and warnings, use of force to prevent/stop wrongdoing, arrest, citation. Indications from citizen: confessions and admissions of crime, disorder, wrongdoing. *3. Disputant* - person whose role as victim or suspect is unclear or who may be both. Indications from police: police listen to citizen's side of story and other party's side of story; police do not separate parties to conflict into wrongdoer and wronged. Indications from citizen: claims to be wronged party while other party claims that citizen is wrongdoer; citizen admits to wrongdoing but also claims to have been wronged. *4. Service recipient* - neither 1, 2, or 3 above--but requests service for self. *5. Helpless person* - in need of police assistance but unable or incompetent to request help (sick, injured, lost child, mentally deranged). *6. Third party* - desires no assistance for self, but only for others [USE ONLY IF 1-5 ABOVE ARE NOT APPLICABLE], citizen acts as advocate on behalf of another citizen. *7. Witness* - or person with potentially useful information [FOR WHOM CODES 1-6 DO NOT APPLY]. Indications from police: police ask questions about problem--but not focused on citizen's role as suspect or victim. Indications from citizen: citizen volunteers information about problem--but not focused on citizen's role as suspect or victim. Item 28 – code as different from item 27 only if there is a clear indication that the officer changed his/her view of that role. An example of a clear

	indication is a victim/complainant in a domestic dispute who ends up getting arrested for fighting with an officer when the officer does not comply with her request not to arrest her husband. Another example: An officer who mistakenly believes that someone is an offender and handcuffs him/her, only to find out from witnesses that the handcuffed person is actually the victim. The officer removes the handcuffs and apologizes to the person, asking if he/she would like some help. There are certain times when suspects are released by the police without arrest, but this is not necessarily because the police believe the person is no longer a suspect. It is because they have inadequate evidence to justify holding them, arresting them, or citing them. Or the police may simply feel that doing these things is too much work. You may not know why the police let someone go unless they mention it in debriefing. In the absence of a clear indication that the officer thinks that a suspect is vindicated, code the final role the same as the initial role.
29-30	The officer may reveal his/her prior knowledge by the way he deals with the citizen during the encounter or what he tells you during debriefing. The citizen too may reveal the nature of the officer's prior knowledge by his/her manner of dealing with the officer.
31 - 40	2.” *Suggested to citizen*” - It was merely a suggestion by the officer without any pressure. The citizen can take it or leave it. The officer appears to have no investment in the citizen's response. He/she is just being helpful. For example: "If you want to, you can sign a formal complaint against your husband." 3. *“Requested of citizen”* - The officer asked the citizen to do it. The officer clearly has an investment in getting the citizen to do it, but the officer makes no effort to persuade, negotiate, speak authoritatively (command), or threaten the citizen. For example: "Would you be willing to sign a formal complaint against your husband?" 4. *“Negotiated with citizen”* - The officer offers something that will benefit the citizen if the citizen will do what the officer wants. Negotiation is offering something positive, *not* threatening the citizen with something negative. For example: "If you sign a formal complaint, then I'll be able to do something about your husband beating you, but if you don't sign a complaint, then I really can't do anything." 5. *“Commanded citizen”* - The officer commands the citizen to do it. He/she draws explicitly or implicitly on his authority to command citizens--but he/she makes no explicit threat about what will happen if the citizen does not comply. For example: "I want you to sign this complaint now, and I don't want to hear all your reasons why you can't!" 6. *“Threatened citizen”* - The officer tells the citizen that he/she will punish or see that the citizen experiences negative consequences if the citizen does not comply. Example: "If you don't sign a complaint now, I'm not even going

	to bother to come back next time; your husband can beat you to a pulp for all I care." *Citizen's final response to request* - Sometimes citizens are first noncompliant and then become compliant. Sometimes they go from compliance to noncompliance. And sometimes they fluctuate back and forth. For this item you are to select the response reflecting the last indication given by the citizen.
44	You will know this from information provided by the officer, either immediately before the encounter or at the debriefing stage.
45	- Do not consider a "plain view" search (looking at what is in plain view of the officer without moving objects or entering an area in which he/she does not have a right to be). Plain view searches may be conducted with the aid of a flashlight, binoculars, and other visual aids. - For the purposes of this item, you should consider a "frisk" as a search. A frisk is a patdown of the outer clothing (presumably to look for weapons). A frisk may also extend to the inside of an over garment (e.g., an overcoat). - Searches also include reaching into pockets, removing clothing, opening containers and personal belongings, peering into places that go beyond "plain view" (i.e., where the officer would ordinarily not have a right to pry), lifting and moving property to see what it might conceal, body cavity searches. - It is still a search, even if the citizen consents if any of the above activities are conducted.
46	Evidence refers to those items that can be produced in court to support some allegation of fact. In this context, typical forms of physical evidence may includes drugs or paraphernalia, weapons, property, contraband and money.
47-48, 50	Citations and summonses may be issued for some minor criminal offenses, but most will be for violations of state traffic control code; municipal code violations; and state code civil violations. Issuing a citation allows the officer to notify the citizen that he/she is being charged with a legal violation, but the officer does not take the citizen down to the station for the purposes of charging the citizen, posting bail, etc. Note that warning tickets are not citations. Also note that a citizen may be both arrested and cited. For example, a citizen might be arrested for drunk driving and also cited for failure to obey the speed limit. The citizen is considered arrested if the police took the citizen into custody for the purpose of charging the citizen with a criminal offense. **To be arrested, a citizen should be in custody at the end of the encounter**. The point at which the citizen is considered "under arrest" is when the police make clear that he/she is in custody to be charged with a violation of the criminal law. You will code the citizen as arrested only if the police make clear that they intend to charge the citizen with a criminal offense. Thus, someone who is handcuffed and later *during the encounter* is released should NOT be coded

	as arrested. A citizen who is stopped for a traffic offense and receives a citation and then released should NOT be coded as arrested. Nearly always, to be arrested, a citizen should be in custody at the end of the encounter.
49	Often this will be some other government agency with law enforcement or regulatory powers relevant to this citizen. It can also be an agency that could withhold or withdraw service from this citizen. Some examples of such agencies are welfare, code enforcement, alcohol beverage control agency, fire department, sanitation department.
51, 55, 56	*"Circumstantial evidence"* (code 2) involves observations from which the citizen's commission of the crime may be logically inferred. For example, seeing bruised knuckles on a husband who is alleged to have struck his wife on the face, or observing fresh bruises on her face. With circumstantial evidence, the officer did not observe the criminal act, but he may infer that the husband did it from the evidence. If the officer *observed an act that appeared to be illegal,* then select Code 3. Hunches that a citizen has or is about to commit a crime do not qualify. If the officer "knows" this citizen to be a prior offender, that in itself does not qualify. However, if an officer sees a car weaving down the road, that constitutes evidence that the driver may be in violation of the drunk driving laws. An officer who sees something that looks like a money-for-drugs exchange between two citizens would receives a 3 code. Observing an act of assault or disorderly conduct also receive a 3 code. This item does NOT require you to make a judgment about whether the officer's observation satisfied "probable cause" requirements. Simply determine whether the officer observed some behavior or condition regarding this citizen that appeared to constitute all or part of the offense.
52, 55, 57	Physical evidence refers to those items that can be produced in court to support some allegation of fact. Physical evidence is *not* testimony, which only people can provide. Typical forms of physical evidence are fingerprints, blood stains, tire marks, documents, property, contraband, money, photographs of people and things, weapons, the readout on breathtest machine. Physical evidence is that which can be submitted to the property room to produce later in court during hearings and trial.
53, 55, 58	*Code 2: "Second hand information"* – information from a citizen about what he heard another person say. If Citizen 1 says that Citizen 2 *told her* that he saw Citizen 3 break into Citizen 1's house, then Citizen 1 is offering second-hand testimony about this crime. [Hearsay evidence is generally inadmissible in trial, but it may be acceptable under some circumstances. And it may be acceptable at administrative hearings, initial or preliminary hearings, grand jury hearings, and sentence determination]. *Code 3* - citizens offer a first hand (eyewitness) account. *Code 4* - information implicating this citizen that was made available to the officer from official sources: roll call, be-on-the-lookout (BOLO) reports, and court documents. These documents may provide the name of the citizen,

	or they may provide a description of the citizen, car, etc. that would justify an investigative stop.
54, 55, 59	This item refers to self-incriminating testimony by the citizen. *A partial confession (code 2)* constitutes an admission. It is a self-incriminating statement (against the citizen's personal interest) that falls short of a full confession to having committed the offense. Guilt may be inferred from an admission that acknowledges facts that, when combined with other facts, will produce such a conclusion. When a driver admits that he has had several drinks, this would qualify as a partial confession. *A full confession (code 3)* is the total acknowledgment of the citizen that he/she is guilty of the offense. If the driver admits to being intoxicated, this qualifies as a full confession.
65	The citizen's viewpoint about the matter of interest in this encounter may include (but is not limited to) any type of information on the events that took place (what, according to the citizen, happened and did not happen, sequence of events etc.); his/her views about who is at fault; explanations why s/he or others behaved as they did; information about potential witnesses to the event; and suggestions to the officers about what they can do in order to get the complete picture ("you can talk to XXX, he will tell you…" or "there is a camera in the parking lot, it will show that I didn't XXX"). DO NOT include the citizen's point of view about the way the police handled the encounter. For coding this information see items 25-26.
67	*"Desire to hear all viewpoints about the matter at hand"* may include intention to speak to witnesses or to other citizens involved, or obtain additional information from other sources (documents, camera footages) that would clarify the matter.
69	Code *"yes"* (2, 3 or 4) only if the personal characteristics influencing the officer's decisions are not legally relevant to the situation at hand. For example, if the officer found this person's personal characteristics to match those of the suspect for whom he was looking, then that would not qualify for a "yes." However, if the officer decided to cite someone because they acted "like a mouthy kid," then that would qualify for a yes.
70-75	Why the officer *became involved* in the situation refers to the initiation of contact with the citizen. For example, "I stopped you because you were speeding at XXX on a XXX mph road." Or "one of the neighbors complained about loud music coming from this apartment."
76-81	The *resolution of the situation* refers to decisions that describe the ultimate responsibility of the police in dealing with this event, such as arrest, citation, using force, telling a citizen to leave the scene, or providing information or advice.
85-91	Your answers here should be independent of anything the citizen says or does about whether the officer showed or failed to show respect to which the citizen felt entitled.

	To qualify as "yes," the officer must do something or fail to do something that shows disrespect. This can include a variety of verbal statements: calling the citizen names, making derogatory statements about the citizen or his family, making disparaging or belittling remarks, slurs (racial, sexual, lifestyle). Ignoring the citizen's questions, and certain gestures/actions are also to be coded as disrespectful, such as "flipping the bird" (displaying the 2nd finger in the direction of the police), obscene gestures, and spitting in the presence of a citizen (even if not in the direction of the citizen). If the officer is argumentative, the officer may or may not be disrespectful, depending on how it was done. If the officer disagrees with the citizen or questions/objects to his actions--but does so in a polite tone--then do NOT code the officer as disrespectful. If the officer speaks loudly, interrupts, or ignores the citizen, then code this as disrespectful. [Unless the officer does these things in the context of an emergency or disorder that creates the potential for an emergency. An emergency occurs when life, health, or property are in immediate danger. If an officer speaks loudly, interrupts, or ignores the citizen in an emergency or significant disorder, this in itself does not constitute disrespect.]
92-93, 101-102	Respectful behavior includes language or gestures, such as calling the officer "officer"/ "sir," or the citizen "sir"/"madam," or using polite language ("please"/ "thank you"). Note that casual, matter-of-fact, businesslike behavior, low-key approach or even showing attentiveness *do not* count as respect (although they may suggest compliance with other elements of procedural justice). Not showing disrespect also *does not* count as "respect." "Respectful behavior" should be coded only if the officer/citizen displayed one of the clear signs of respect mentioned above.
94-100	Your answers here should be independent of anything the officer says or does about whether the citizen showed or failed to show respect to which the officer felt entitled. To qualify as "yes," the citizen must do something or fail to do something that shows disrespect to the individual or the authority of the police officer. This can include a variety of verbal statements: calling the officer names, making derogatory statements about the officer or his family, making disparaging or belittling remarks, or slurs (racial, sexual, lifestyle). Ignoring the officer's commands or questions, and certain gestures and actions, are also to be coded as disrespectful, such as "flipping the bird" (displaying the 2nd finger in the direction of the police), obscene gestures, and spitting in the presence of an officer (even if not in the direction of the officer). If the citizen is argumentative, the citizen may or may not be disrespectful, depending on how it was done. If the citizen disagrees with the officer or questions/objects to his actions--but does so in a polite way--then do NOT code the citizen as disrespectful. However, if the citizen disagrees with the officer by speaking loudly or interrupting the officer, then code this as disrespectful.

103	"Well being" refers to the citizen's physical, mental or social condition. Any inquiry that shows care and concern for this citizen's condition should be coded as "yes."
104	Code "yes" if the officer made any attempt to ease the pain of the citizen, relieve his/her anxieties, soothe or cheer him/her.
106	The citizen over whom control or influence would be exerted may be either present or absent from the scene. Some examples include the officer arresting an abusive husband or promising to arrest him if a complaint is filed; or the officer promising to speak to the daughter's boyfriend and clarify that he is not welcome in the citizen's house. *"Partial compliance"* means that the officer does/ promises to do some, but not all, of what the citizen has requested. In the above example, the citizen may have requested that the boyfriend be arrested for trespassing. The officer declines, but promises to speak to him instead.
108	Code based on the behavioral element – was a report which could help the citizen filed or not? [Include both reports filed based on the officer's discretion, either in compliance with the citizen's request or out of goodwill, in a sincere attempt to help the citizen, AND reports filed as part of the officer's official obligations according to departmental guidelines.]
110	Physical assistance is any assistance that goes beyond verbal communication. For example, transportation, medical assistance, fixing problems with a car or home, retrieving lost pets, children, and property.
112	Code according to the specific citizen the officer handed the documentation to (for example, code "no" if the officer gave the documentation to the citizen's spouse rather than to the citizen), unless the officer explicitly said the documentation is meant for this citizen as well.
113	Requires a judgment call. If coded "yes" (2 or 3), you should be able to describe something that the citizen did or said or that someone else did or said that would lead a reasonable person to believe that the citizen changed his/her behavior because of your presence. This should be described in your narrative account of the encounter.