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Use of Force and Perceptions of Public Attitude Held by Police Trainers

Kenneth Lee Kinsey

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Walden University
2019
Abstract

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by

Kenneth Lee Kinsey

MS, Troy University, 2011
BS, Clemson University, 1991

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Criminal Justice

Walden University
May 2019
Abstract

Police use-of-force is a topic of interest to most Americans. High-profile shootings of minority citizens and the increase in ambush death rates of police officers has been problematic by dividing society into segments of harsh critics of an entire profession or supporters of the nation’s heroes. While use-of-force is highly researched, most existing work has typically forgone the examination of officer mindset in lieu of the more patent explanatory variables of race, sex, and method. The purpose of this study was to gain insight into the psychological influences of officer motivation from those responsible for providing instruction to police officers. This quantitative study focused on perceptions of Public Attitude Towards Police (PATP) as held by police training officers, specifically Academy Instructors (AIs), Departmental Training Officers (DTOs), and Field Training Officers (FTOs) \(N = 120\). Conflict and organizational theories provided the theoretical foundation for citizen-police conflict, and departmental influence. Data were collected with a Likert scaled questionnaire to discover and present (a) the impacts of perceptions of (PATP) held by police training officers in eleven departments, and (b) variances of those impacts between the three types of trainers. Simple regression analysis revealed a significant statistical impact of use-of-force training by perceptions of PATP by all groups of police trainers, and one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed a significant difference between impacts of PATP on FTOs in comparison to AIs and DTOs. The present study’s results may have a positive impact on social change through the awareness in consideration of mitigating the frequency of use-of-force incidents and increasing safety to law enforcement and the citizenry.
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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Public perception of use-of-force incidents involving the police have been divided into categories of positive support for heroic acts or opposition of an entire profession due to questionable actions by a few. Lone-wolf assailants self-described as “social justice advocates” were responsible for several shooting incidents that claimed the lives of over one dozen police officers in 2016. According to Zhao and Ren (2014), most of the research involving public attitude towards police (PATP) has included the rationale for attributes of explanatory variables (race, sex, method) in lieu of public attitude measurement. It has been widely established that a PATP examination has been lacking, but it is just as uncommon to present research that considers the police officer’s perception of public attitudes and their apparent effect on the safety and survival of sworn first responders. The examination of the influence of officer perception on the propensity to use force is paramount to community engagement in the further development of techniques to minimize the frequency of use-of-force incidents. Chipman (2012) first reported the recommendations of the International Association of Chiefs of Police and the Department of Justice’s (DOJ) Community Oriented Policing Division for future study of police officers’ perception and mindset in use-of-force training (Chipman, 2012; FBI, 2015; Zhao & Ren, 2014).

Background of the Study

South Carolina law enforcement officers are trained at a central criminal justice academy, located in the capital city of Columbia, South Carolina. This training is conducted for municipal, county, town, constables, and state police officers at the South
Carolina Criminal Justice Academy (SCCJA). Academy instructors are tasked with certifying all Class 1 officers at the criminal justice academy in basic and advanced courses that are mandated by the South Carolina Law Enforcement Training Council (SCCJA, n.d.).

Departmental training officers (DTOs) and field training officers (FTOs) are qualified by the SCCJA and are purposed with maintaining the standardized training criteria mandated by the South Carolina Law Enforcement Training Council post-graduation from the SCCJA. The responsibilities of the DTOs, FTOs, and academy instructors (AI) in providing all certified officers with survival training and use-of-force training makes it necessary to examine perceptions and the mindset of those instructors. Important variables of this examination were the perceived influences that PATP has on standardized lesson plans administered by SCCJA instructors, intensity of training, and the variances that may exist between academy, departmental, and field training levels of instruction (Chipman, 2012; SCCJA, n.d.).

Articles related to PATP and its influence on officer perceptions and mindset are listed here:

1. Lee and Gibbs (2015) discussed social distance and influences on PATP, including demographic factors, criminal victimization variables, direct contact with police, exposure to media, and incidents of police misconduct.
2. Fisher, Oddsson, & Wada (2013) used conflict theory to examine race, ethnicity, and geographical area and its influence on law enforcement intensity and departmental size.

4. Ellrich and Baier (2015) recognized a gap in research in assaults committed on police officers and resulting posttraumatic stress issues from those assaults.


6. Schossler, Cha-Jua, Valgoi, & Neville (2015) conducted a case study on a pilot program that was designed by the University of Illinois for the purpose of training police officers in culturally responsive training techniques.

In order to understand the motivations behind a law enforcement officer’s decision to use force, it is first important to understand the perceptions and mindsets of police trainers. Researchers in the current literature have described use-of-force training as one of the most constant activities in the police profession (Burdock, 2013). Researchers have also presented data on the influence of PATP but recognized a gap in the literature in respect to the influence of officer perceptions and the influence of victimization frequency and jeopardy on the utilization of force (Zhao & Ren, 2014).

Burdock (2013) touted the responsibility of law enforcement administrators to provide sustainable, modern, and appropriate training for sworn employees. The level of significance that is placed on instruction by training officers determines the sustainability of training techniques. Perceptions caused by past use-of-force experiences, concern for officer’s safety and well-being due to public atmosphere, community’s perception, and obligation to prevent the misuse-of-force are motivations of trainers worthy of
exploration (Burdock, 2013; Chipman, 2012; Reemst & Fischer, 2016; Zhao & Ren, 2014).

Problem Statement

The United States has developed a barrier between civilians and the nation’s law enforcement profession. Police shootings involving minority suspects have provided continuous content for broadcast and social media. Advocates for social justice have demanded immediate police accountability, often without regard for the right of the officer’s due process. According to Schlosser, Cha-Jua, Valgoi, and Nevelle (2015), incidents such as the Ferguson, Missouri shooting of Michael Brown have significantly affected PATP. The most obvious effect is the unmistakable presentation of distrust of police by minority communities. Working class minority communities have demanded immediate police reform that includes diversity education, conduct reform, and use-of-force policy overhaul (Schlosser et al., 2015).

Law enforcement officers are faced with life or death scenarios daily. The nature of first response can be dangerous, especially when purposed with the duty of trauma assistance, fire suppression, and mediation of conflicts between the citizenry. Although the leading cause of death among police officers remains to be automobile accidents, physical confrontations and ambush deaths have spiked since 2010 (Covington, Huff-Corzine, & Corzine, 2014). The FBI (2015) reported an 88% increase in law enforcement officer felonious line-of-duty deaths in (2013-2014).
Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this comparative-descriptive research study was the identification and presentation of the impacts that PATP have on perceptions held by police trainers related to use-of-force instruction. DTOs and FTOs from randomly selected departments provided their perceptions on PATP, police victimization, and use-of-force training. In law enforcement agencies, DTOs and FTOs are responsible for the introduction of new training and the reinforcement of standardized training at the agency level. The SCCJA instructors were surveyed to establish the impact of public perception on the development and implementation of standardized police survival training. Additionally, SCCJA instructors certify and instruct DTOs and FTOs as well as train new recruits in basic legal procedures and law enforcement fundamentals. Burdock (2013) stated that each police agency has a public responsibility to provide appropriate, modern, and sustainable training to its officers. By examining the perceptions of use-of-force training in DTOs, FTOs, and AIs, I present results that could foster an understanding of the motivations behind police officer decisions to use deadly force, which could benefit the development of techniques that may mitigate the use of force by police officers (Burdock, 2013; FBI, 2015).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following hypotheses and research questions guided the study:

$H1$: Perceptions held by police trainers of PATP are influential to the presentation of use-of-force training.
H01: Perceptions held by police trainers of PATP are not influential to the presentation of use-of-force training.

H2: The perceptions of PATP and use-of-force training varies between AIs, departmental instructors, and FTOs.

H02: The perceptions of PATP and use-of-force training does not vary between AIs, departmental instructors, and FTOs.

RQ1: What impact does PATP have on the perceptions held by SCCJA instructors towards use-of-force training?

RQ2: What impact does PATP have on perceptions held by DTOs towards use-of-force training?

RQ3: What impact does PATP have on perceptions held by FTOs towards use-of-force training?

RQ4: What are the differences in perceptions towards use-of-force between AIs, DTOs, and FTOs?

Theoretical Foundation

In this study, I used social conflict theory and organizational justice theory. According to Fisher et al. (2013), social conflict theory contains attributes of control often associated with entities such as law enforcement agencies and the communities they police. Many issues are related to the strength and size of the police force and the methods of enforcement used. The theory itself aligns attention to power inconsistencies, including those associated with race and class. Fisher et al. examined the influence of race and department size on community relations and perceptions of minority citizens.
They presented law enforcement’s response in relation to perceived threats that result from minority presence and socioeconomic level (Fisher et al., 2013). The results of the Fisher et al. study drew a correlation between African American citizen status as majority or minority and the perceived acceptance level of the law enforcement mission, including use-of-force tactics.

According to Kwon (2012), increased police interaction with minority groups leads to increased conflict between the two groups. This majority-minority conflict influences the dynamics of the relationship between the public and police where control is maintained by the majority interest. Incidents of police misconduct are not recognized and rectified because the minority group is subconsciously labeled as the transgressor. Although refuted by many, Kwon suggested the development of attitudes where transgressors should be controlled, thus causing the arrest and incarceration of minorities.

Conflict theory, as presented by Fisher et al. (2013), is useful in the research proposition of civil disorder and law enforcement’s response to incidents of racial discord. This theory also contained elements of response to incidents of discord and influences that cause situations of racial conflict towards police. Fisher et al. presented the logical framework that an increase in community threat level would result in increased community police response. They used the social conflict theoretical framework to explore law enforcement’s response and acceptance level as influenced by a police/community conflict that involved race and class structure (Fisher et al., 2013). The intention of my study was to document, compare, and analyze data from police training officers in reference to their perception and mindset of threat perception. The
logical application for this study was that an increase in perception of danger or threat level would lead to accelerated use-of-force training that may be hyper-vigilant in nature. Additionally, the majority-minority mindset lends itself to a top down attitude from management that the minority is dangerous and should be managed (Fisher et al., 2013).

Organizational justice theory, according to Myhill and Bradford (2012), employs the elements of distributive justice and procedural justice. Distributive justice can be described as the notion an individual’s perceptions of input and outputs are judged in other citizens with similar characteristics and experiences. Procedural justice considers consistency, bias suppression, ethical codes, and the possibility of correcting incorrect decisions (Myhill & Bradford, 2012). One key element of organizational justice theory that was beneficial to this research study is the context that a member of a strong group will act in context to requirements of that group. The contention is that the law enforcement profession is a closed culture, with members who will make decisions that are in-line or compatible with norms and values that are accepted by the group. Although Myhill and Bradford recognized the influence of citizen perceptions of fairness on satisfaction levels of law enforcement, they used a survey instrument to measure police officer attitudes towards their organization and roles. This study also involved the survey of law enforcement officers to measure their perceptions of PATP in relation to the use-of-force training that they provide (Myhill & Bradford, 2012).

Wolfe and Piquero (2011) recognized the difficulty in separating individual officer misconduct from organizational deficiencies. The authors further presented the lack of research in organizational mechanisms that contribute to police misconduct
Wolfe and Piquero conducted a study using the theoretical framework to present the premise that organizations will have more misconduct if its employees regard the company’s management as unfair and unjust. Their study involved quantitative examination of departmental complaints and the qualitative examination of officer perspectives of management and policy (Wolfe & Piquero, 2011). My study involved a quantitative method and examined the perceptions of study participants with respect to public attitudes, the response to threat situations as dictated and interpreted from the higher structure, organizational entity, or training council.

Social conflict theory and organizational justice theory were beneficial theoretical foundations for the analysis of the intended subject data. Both theories associate the hypothetical expectation that an accelerated use-of-force frequency is influenced by officer conditioning as a result of perceptions of threat level, organizational values and policy expectations, training methods, mode, experience, background, and frequency. The chosen theories also enabled comparisons between organizational standards and expectations, specifically, departmental training officers, field training officers, and academy trainers, and management expectations (Bystrova & Gottschalk, 2015).

Nature of the Study

In the current literature, researchers have examined the impact of police use-of-force and its effect on public attitudes and satisfaction. Law enforcement and civilian conflict with respect to officer-involved shooting incidents has also been a subject of study. The chosen methodology for this research study was the quantitative method. This method was applicable due to the purposed objective of presenting impacts that
public attitude towards police has on perceptions of police trainers and the use-of-force training they provide. Creswell (2009) stated that certain types of social research may require specific methodology in order to address issues of concern. According to Creswell, a quantitative approach is best when the desired results involve the identification of factors that influence an outcome. In the present research, I sought to identify and present perception factors of police trainers that may influence the motivation and decision of trained officers to use deadly force. Focusing on the training aspect of use-of-force, I presented original data relevant to understanding the motivations and reasoning behind an officer’s decision to use force (Creswell, 2009).

Definitions

The presented data, the impact of PATP on training officer perceptions (IV), were collected from DTOs, FTOs, and AIs with a survey instrument. The data were analyzed with a comparative descriptive process to determine the impact of PATP on the provision of use-of-force training (DV), and deviations were noted between the three types of instructors. Walden University (n.d.) defined comparative descriptive research as a nonexperimental research design that examines and describes naturally occurring variables in two or more groups. The quantitative aspect of this study involved a survey research design that included questions purposed with establishing impact of PATP on perceptions of police trainers related to their provision of use-of-force training and further established the variance in presentation of standardized, academy use-of-force mandates. According to Walden University (n.d.), a survey research design is applicable when the
goal is to show relation of variables or to present contrast between existing or discovered variables.

**Academy instructors:** Sworn employees of the SCCJA who are responsible for the instruction and certification of basic and advanced law enforcement officers and instructors throughout the entire state.

**Sheriff’s office:** One of the 46 departments in South Carolina that is governed by a constitutionally elected sheriff.

**Sworn law enforcement officer:** An individual with full police powers of arrest who has attended and completed a prescribed academy curriculum, is certified by a government entity, and has taken an oath to abide by and enforce the laws of the United States of America, and their employing jurisdiction.

**Use-of-force training:** Includes, but is not limited to, instruction in the operation and use of firearms, chemical sprays, deterrents and irritants, conductive energy devices, impact weapons, and defensive tactics instruction (South Carolina Law Enforcement Training Council, n.d.).

**Assumptions**

The scrutiny of deadly force situations between law enforcement and the citizens that they protect has increased over the past 7 years (FBI, 2015). This complex issue often entails elements that may be viewed differently by some segments of society and law enforcement. In consideration of trust between citizens and police, deadly force encounters between officers and minority citizens are almost always divisive. A split-second decision made by an officer may be scrutinized with or without regard for the
well-being of those involved, depending on bits of information known to the public. The focal points of motive, necessity, and outcome are often viewed differently by criminal justice proponents and social justice advocates alike. One problematic aspect of these encounters is a lack of understanding on both sides of the isle due to historical incidents of misuse of force by police officers and the felonious killings of those who are sworn to protect society (Lee & Gibbs, 2015).

One major assumption that was critical when researching the aspects of deadly force encounters involving police, in addition to the issues in public distrust, was the training in preparation for deadly force incidents by police officers and the lack of understanding by the public. Varying opinions of any after-the-fact deadly force incident held by those who are not directly involved is most likely to be situationally biased. Trained officers often compare the details of a highly publicized event with the officer/survival training they have received, whereas the public often relates the entire incident with a historical deadly force encounter containing questionable motives. The public’s systematic review of the event is often limited by the amount of information that has been released and may be influenced by misinformation. Police officers are often skeptical of the media’s coverage and portrayal due to the perceived lack of consideration for an officer’s due process rights. Training officers likely use officer casualties to enforce the importance of situational awareness and effective self-defense (Lee & Gibbs, 2015).
Scope and Delimitations

The choice of a nonexperimental design for this study was due to the non-manipulation of variables. Nonexperimental designs are defined as like experimental designs but lacking variable manipulation, treatment, control, and randomization. The impact of PATP on perceptions of training officers is a naturally occurring attribute and was established and compared among the different study participants. Intentional exposure to negative PATP could create an ethical dilemma that would not meet academic standards; therefore, nonexperimental design was used for this comparative-descriptive study. Additional strengths of nonexperimental research design are that it is predictive, explanatory, and descriptive. According to Rudestam and Newton (2015), these three categories are useful in describing and explaining a certain phenomenon as well as in predicting additional variables that develop in the study application. The purpose of this study was to identify, describe, and explain the impact of PATP on perceptions of AIs, DTOs, and FTOs (O’Sullivan, Rassel, Berner & Talliaferro, 2016; Rudestam & Newton, 2015).

In addition to trust issues that have always existed between the nation’s law enforcement and segments of society, recent incidents of police use-of-force have caused a two-fold issue in the United States. The first issue is the loss of human life, albeit lawful or unlawful use of force police, and, secondly, the increase of officer assaults and on-duty deaths due to lone-wolf assailants who justify their actions as reciprocation for a lack of social injustice. In this research, I identify and present perceptions and mindsets that are held by the three types of police trainers who self-reported their interpretations of
threat levels related to critical incidents, public atmosphere, and media portrayal of the law enforcement profession.

In the present research, I sought to discover and describe the perceptions of PATP held by AIs, departmental instructors, and field training officers. My research further addresses influences on use-of-force training, if any, that result from these perceptions. Finally, I compared and contrasted the perceptions of PATP that are held by the three levels of law enforcement trainers.

Limitations

Nonexperimental designs are not without limitations. According to Rudestam and Newton (2015), nonexperimental designs are not effective at determining causation. Conclusions of nonexperimental research should be presented without a definitive causal statement. Additionally, O’Sullivan et al. (2016) presented limitations of nonexperimental designs as threatening to internal validity due to a lack of consideration of other causes for the observed measure of the dependent variable. Additional threats to internal validity are maturation or natural changes in the dependent variable and design contamination that is caused by participant manipulation of survey answers (O’Sullivan et al., 2016; Rudestam & Newton, 2015).

A direct correlation between subject elements was not probable due to the nature of the nonexperimental design; however, in this research, I did identify, present, and compare elements that have not been previously considered for the purpose of creating social dialogue and to spawn future research. Internal validity was not an issue as this research was descriptive and comparative in nature. External validity was negated by the
statistical configuration, self-reporting of participants, no direct contact between researcher and anonymous participants, and the exclusion of my department from consideration (Creswell, 2009; Lee & Gibbs, 2015).

Significance of the Study

Shooting incidents that involve unarmed suspects and police officers have created a complex situation or barrier between races and law enforcement in the United States. Most law enforcement training academies recognize the possibility of officer death from a significant unarmed assault. The use-of-force continuum is based on an officer’s threat perception and levels of suspect noncompliance. Levels of force are typically officer presence, verbal commands, soft empty hand control, intermediate weapons (less than lethal weapons), and deadly force (Klahn IV, Frank, & Liederbach, 2013). Advocates for police reform have had little consideration for Tennessee vs. Garner or the other case law that establishes an officer’s discretion when determining threat levels (Tennessee vs. Garner, 1985; Kwon, 2012; SCLETC, n.d.).

Some police shootings have produced evidence of obvious misuse of force. Media outlets, citizens, and social justice organizations have demanded an immediate solution to the perceived issue, resulting in anxiety and frustration for law enforcement officers, their supporters, and leaders in the police community. The significance of police training officer’s perceptions regarding officer survival and use-of-force is paramount to understanding the issue of use of deadly force. This study could provide additional significance with the exploration of perception variances and resulting deviations in training due to these differences. The three levels of police instruction were used (AI,
department instructor, and field training officer), thus creating systematic thinking by enabling stakeholders to resolve future issues through understanding and civic engagement, minimization of conflict situations post-incident, and advocacy for the development of additional techniques to mitigate situations that place police officers and civilians in jeopardy (Burdock, 2013; Kwon, 2012).

Significance to Theory

The results of this study can contribute to the existing knowledge of use-of-force incidents involving the police. Understanding the phenomenon of threat perception and discovery of how that perception may influence a trainer’s regiment with respect to how he/she views the public in general provides dialogue for consideration by shareholders, administrators, and advocates for police reform. An understanding of the dynamics of recruit training and the organizational influence that has evolved in the police officer culture may foster a better-rounded discussion and examination of current training techniques and use-of-force policies, including those containing force continuums and presentation of police survival training.

Significance to Social Change

The results of this present study can be of importance to society in general because of its critiqued feelings on current use-of-force policies that have been administratively accepted for decades. The thoughts of police training officers were examined without regard to administrative and politically mandated policy to discern perceived notions and defects between what is accepted and what is needed. In reference to humane ethics, I enabled reflection in respect to the current use-of-force continuum by
all sides of the training spectrum. As society grows and becomes more diverse, it is paramount that stakeholders be given an opportunity to critique not only the evolutionary changes of societal perception, but also the evolution of law enforcement insights. The present research may produce initiatives that can empower the law enforcement community to develop alternate solutions to the use of deadly force, thus fostering positive social change through community relations with education and engagement.

Summary and Transition

Deadly force situations involving the police have become more scrutinized in recent years. Details and motives for these incidents are typically topics for which varying opinions exist, often pitting the entire law enforcement profession against a significant segment of society. This modern dilemma creates controversy that has reportedly led to the increase of ambush style attacks and felonious line-of-duty deaths of America’s law enforcement officers. While acknowledging the fact that incidents of excessive force by police do exist, their existence does not represent the thousands of positive citizen/police contacts that take place daily in this country. To gain an understanding of the deadly force dilemma, all elements related to these events should be examined to present a clear methodology.

Existing research of this subject has included data related to citizens’ perceptions of social injustice, situational and availability biases, and lack of administrative and professional restraint. Consideration for the training elements, and the way that training officers view societal attitudes, as well as their effect on the safety and well-being of officers have been lacking. In the present research, I examined the components of use-of-
force and officer survival training by presenting and comparing the perceptions formed by police training officers. The influences of these factors on the methods of instruction were presented to ascertain variances in the three areas of instruction. The results of this study can foster a better understanding of use-of-force training by enabling a better critique of the accepted standards. A better understanding could result in future research and development of techniques and modalities to prevent loss-of-life by citizens and law enforcement.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

Public perception of use-of-force incidents involving the police have been divided into categories of positive support for heroic acts or opposition of an entire profession due to questionable actions. Lone-wolf assailants described as social justice advocates have been responsible for several shooting incidents that have claimed the lives of over one dozen police officers since 2011 (FBI, 2015). According to Zhao and Ren (2014), most of the research involving PATP has included the rationale for attributes of explanatory variables (race, sex, method) in lieu of public attitude measurement. It has been widely established that a PATP examination has been lacking, but it is just as uncommon to present research that considers the police officer’s perception of public attitudes and their apparent effect on the safety and survival of sworn first responders. The examination of the influence of officer perception on the propensity to use force is paramount to community engagement in the further development of techniques to minimize the frequency of use-of-force incidents.

Literature Search Strategy

Keywords used were as follows: use of force [or] force continuum, deadly force, police ambush, in the line of duty deaths, PATP, availability bias, representative bias, resisting arrest, police shooting incidents, post-traumatic stress disorder, zero-tolerance, ethnographical study, police/citizen interaction, and police misconduct. Additionally, the keywords presented above were interchanged and/or conjoined in numerous arrangements to locate refereed journal articles within an acceptable 5-year period.
The literature review was performed using several databases, including ProQuest, Google-Scholar, Sage, Emerald, and Elsevier. Additionally, literature was used from professional and scholastic journals, U.S. DOJ websites, the U.S. Government, and professional law enforcement journals and organizations. The necessity for this research is the frequency of shooting incidents that involve police, rising incidents of police duty deaths, and generally negative public sentiment that has developed as the result of deadly force incidents in the United States. Recommendations for research involving law enforcement training elements were suggested by the International Association of Chiefs of Police 2012 Use of Force symposium, specifically, research involving the study of police officer perception and mindset (Chipman, 2012).

Theoretical Foundation

A lack of study in police officer perception does not discount the notion of a relationship between contextual and social factors that play an integral part in the method of presentation by police trainers—the concluding being a product of an individual’s style that may be influenced by the former—being a unique closed culture that can be examined through a flexible theoretical component. In this research, I used social conflict and organizational justice theories as a lens for the examination of use-of-force training from a law enforcement perspective.

These two theories associate expectations with performance, including the hypothetical expectation of death or serious injury to self and others, and the assumption of administrative and public expectation in the event of a hypothetical catastrophic incident. Both theories are reactionary in the sense that the trainer must anticipate far
beyond the incident itself, and are scrutinized, albeit secondary, as an outcome in the overhaul of a use-of-force incident. Although the act of officer/public preservation has been apparent since the London days of “hue and call,” the degree of public scrutiny has grown to epic proportions with the evolution of technology and the invention of social media. Elements of law enforcement have changed in the last 3 centuries, particularly the recognition and implementation of proactive strategies and techniques, but the reactionary responsibilities have remained constant as duties continue to address maintenance of order and public safety (Harmon, 2016). The two suggested theories represent the primary consequences from a physical threat and auxiliary effects from administrative and legal sanctions. The effects are believed to exist in all use-of-force training programs, but at varying levels representative of the type of trainer and their exposure to real-life social dilemmas versus scholastic scenarios. The perceptions and mindset of AIs, departmental instructors, and FTOs provide rich and detailed data in the discovery and examination of social and organizational influences that precede the decision to use deadly force (Bystrova & Gottschalk, 2015).

Originating in the 19th century, and evolving into many differing scholarly perspectives, social conflict theory was the product of the work of Karl Marx. Focused on discrepancies in class structure between capitalists and the working class, the theory presented the struggle between the conflicting interests and distribution of resources between the elite minority and the beleaguered majority. According to Coleman, Kugler, and Bui-Wrzosinska (2012), the definition of social conflict has varied in scholarly perspective since Marx’s presentation. Many interpretations have been developed since
its inception, but most theoretical perspectives share commonality of cultural incompatibility due to differing goals, values, and beliefs (Coleman et al., 2012).

Fisher et al. (2013) examined law enforcement response in relation to perceived threats of minority presence and socioeconomic level. Social conflict theory can operate in addition to the idea of status and wealth. Theoretical components of social conflict theory can be a derivative of many particulars of the social contract theory. This theory represents an abstract agreement between society and government where citizens give up certain rights and freedoms in exchange for certain protections, programs, and administrative guarantees that are afforded by the governing authority (Fisher et al., 2013). Statutory and common laws are products of the aforementioned government empowerment through social contract. Law enforcement systems are a significant part of the executive arm, or enforcement authority, for the socially agreed upon policies and directives contained in the statutory and common laws of the land (Stephens Jr. & Scheb II, 2012).

The generally agreed upon association of the philosophical components of social contract and social conflict, from a social perspective, are not exclusive in the sense of perceived racial conflict and police legitimacy that has been created by law enforcement’s use of force. An additional element of the conflict dilemma is retaliatory assaults and ambush incidents perpetrated on law enforcement officers. Gruenwald, Dooley, Suttmoller, Chermak, and Freilich (2015) conducted a mixed-methods study on homicidal victimization of police officers. The authors moved past offender ideology to examine circumstances of police victimization (Gruenwald et al., 2015). They
characterized their data as routine and far-right violence, with interpretations being performed using interviews from actual offenders concerning situational and circumstantial factors (Gruenwald et al., 2015). Influential factors that were presented from the study included four motivators for violent attacks on law enforcement, including avoidance of arrest, mission offenses, protection of property, and protection of family members (Gruenwald et al., 2015).

Covington, Huff-Corzine, and Corzine (2014) described victimization of sworn law enforcement officers as a complex subject that has been lacking in most current studies. They highlighted issues with reporting of police officers who were killed in the line of duty and poor record keeping with respect to specific elements of assaults where cops are victimized (Covington et al. 2014). Numbers are collected by the Department of Justice and Federal Bureau of Investigations, but few details have been scrutinized to understand the dimensions of less-than-lethal incidents of police victimization.

Covington et al. touted limited theoretical components of the few less-than-lethal studies as confined to political and conflict driven foundations. They used data from a large department to examine serious but nonlethal assaults committed against uniformed officers (Covington et al., 2014). Results revealed that most serious assaults occur at night and during officer initiated stops or investigative detention situations by suspects who are armed with only personal weapons (hands, feet, elbows). White male officers were found to be the most assaulted demographic (race 72%, gender 85%; Covington et al. 2014).
FTOs are tasked with negotiating social dilemmas at the citizen level through both answering calls for service and providing recruits for street level on-the-job training and assessment. Due to their positioning in the hierarchy of the police profession, FTOs are often involved in violent citizen encounters and are responsible for neutralizing and mitigating intense issues that involve citizenry. FTOs are responsible for the adherence to policy from the department level and the jurisdiction’s governing body while negotiating tense situations to insure survival for self and recruit. The training received from an FTO will often influence the recruit until the end of their career (Miller & Hess, 2013).

A substantial amount of research has been conducted on the organizational minutia of police administration and the impact of policy on police-citizen conflict. However, research has been limited in other agency characteristics and influences on situational outcomes. Citizen perceptions and views of police legitimacy are often presented while perceptions of the involved profession have been overlooked (Shjarback & White, 2016).

Understanding that violence directed at law enforcement officers can be the result of conflicts caused by a greater disdain for general governance, specifically, negative PATP, is a factor that is commonly addressed in the community policing philosophy and would be a greater consideration to the field training officer who maintains public contact on a constant basis. Future action, including use-of-force by the rookie officer, may be dependent on the presentation of training they received (Miller & Hess, 2013).
The initial development and presentation of survival skills, insurance of mandated standards, safety, well-being of students, and cognition of threats to liability are responsibilities of the AI. Each of the aforementioned is necessary for the navigation of citizen-police conflict. Shjarback and White (2016) presented the usefulness of professionalism and reinforcement training by departmental instructors. According to these authors, professionalism is a key element in the prevention of violent citizen/police encounters (Shjarback & White, 2016). Shjarback and White presented five sets of variables for consideration by administrators when enacting policy and training from an organizational position.

Commitment to education, hiring standards, departmental training, female representation, and departmental commitment to community policing were suggested standards (Chipman, 2012). The importance of departmental instruction and organizational direction can be taken from the mentioned study. AIs are expected to present a rigid and unyielding lesson with respect to use-of-force and conflict resolution. By nature, the isolation of AIs shields them from exposure to citizen conflict, negative media portrayal, and administrative pressure to solve community issues. Pressure to address social conflict exists as an ancillary concern (Shjarback & White, 2016). However, as presented by Bystrova and Gottschalk (2015), in contrast of AIs, departmental instructors certainly play a role in the social control mechanism that is characterized by the authors as a “power differential”.

Departmental instructors, the middle of the training tier, would experience pressure to conform to not only the standards of the governing academy, but would also
experience influences of an administrative and political nature. Shielding their home department from liability and insuring the survival of coworkers and associates would be a major responsibility, in addition to the presentation of benign and administrative training of a non-forceful nature. Departmental instructors would be exposed to situations of social conflict as contact with the public is a necessity, and because department instructors usually perform additional duties that are not covered under the training umbrella. The perceptions of training officers, influences that are generated by those perceptions and examination of levels of influence on three distinct training platforms are applicable to the discovery of motivational factors for use-of-force decisions.

Social conflict theory, and the included thematic foundation of such, is a particular consideration from which to consider the research questions for this project, and will be useful in the discovery, presentation, and consideration of contextual and situational variances in the examination of various influences of perceptions held by police trainers. In addition, diversity aspects of the social conflict theory align, endorses, and supplements this descriptive study by presenting the impact of public attitude on the police trainer’s mindset, specifically, variances in perceptions held by academy, departmental, and FTOs in the utilization force.

Organizational justice theory relates to the perceptions of its employees as to how effective and fair the organization is governed. The theory generally consists of three components; distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. Procedural justice relates to how the employees perceive the organization on the fairness scale with respect to
rules, procedures, and outcomes. Interactional justice, according to Yaghoubi, Ahmadzadeh Mashinchi, Ebrahimi, Abdollahi, and Ebrahimi (2012), deals with the quality of treatment of the employees that is afforded by policy and procedure. Similar to procedural justice, distributive justice also associates employee perception with fairness, but procedural justice considers perceptions equality based on contribution (Yaghoubi et al., 2012).

Marenin’s (2016) case study referenced the COPS 2015 guide when presenting reasons for societal conflict between citizens and police. Historical reasons for police/citizen conflict have concentrated on citizen views of routine police behavior, utilization of force, and discretion afforded cops by limited organizational oversight, including court decisions exonerating or declining prosecution of police officers. As presented, research has included only a few mentions of the usefulness of the value of perceptual training influences as a result of organizational factors. The researcher highlighted omissions in current citizen/police conflict research that addresses the organizational and occupational culture of street cops when detailing reasons why and how they react to danger (Marenin, 2016).

Being an appropriate theoretical framework for the perceptions of citizen satisfaction in police performance, organizational/distributive justice could provide a strong explanation for perceptions of the public that are held by police. One would not look far to find elements of distributive justice in self-value of contribution, awards, and promotion. Police officers are expected to perform certain acts, including acts that include deprivation of civil liberties and use-of-force, specifically, the arrest or detention
of those considered dangerous criminal elements. These expectations, both community and organizationally driven, are rewarded with performance driven accolades to guide an officer in an organizationally accepted direction. Praise may come in the form of monetary reward, publicity, or recognition for high citation and arrest activity. Organizational justice and the included perceptions of an agency’s expectations coupled with individual contributions, rewards for performance, and promotion are catalysts for attitudes and behavior that may create, or in many instances, permit use-of-force (Tasdovan & Kapucu, 2013, p. 527).

Literature Review

The issue of police use-of-force has been examined in previous literature. Existing consideration for this phenomenon has been scrutinized in hindsight by the public, with most research centered on race and gender of those involved. The persistence for public information has only fueled the presentation of misinformation and rhetoric through broadcast or social media. This research is not purposed with picking a side of the debate, as incidents on both sides are of concern.

The situation of inflammation and distrust that evolves after a police shooting places a community in peril. Many times, protesters from outside the immediate area respond for the opportunity to protest police action without factual insight into the tragic happenings. Protesters with a legitimate agenda are said to be the cornerstone of our democracy, but some in attendance have a more nefarious plan. Looting, burning, and the incitement of more violence are common happenings during what starts as a peaceful protest. Many times, the involved officer, if known, is the brunt of death threats but more
often than not the neighborhood or city takes the hit. The actions of police officers are not always justified, and violence in the name of social justice against law enforcement is a danger to our democratic society.

As mentioned, the voices of relative participants have been included in recent research, with the exception of rank and file law enforcement officers. Additionally, most research into force application by cops has been conducted from a psychological standpoint by researchers who are void of experience in high stress situations as in the law enforcement profession. This research included the perceptions of certified police training officers. All study participants were sworn employees and were assigned to one of the three levels in the training hierarchy. The included literature on police use-of-force covers public perspectives, and theoretical components that apply to individual and organizational motivations behind officer discretion.

The police profession has evolved substantially over the past two hundred years, since the days when the first police authority was purposed with protecting the property of the very wealthy Englishman. Privatization was replaced with the principles of Sir Robert Peel who is credited for the creation of the community policing philosophy with his development of the nine ethical policing principles. The most notable Peelian principle includes the notion that “police are the public and the public are the police.” This ideology is seen as the foundation of the community policing philosophy (Miller & Hess, 2013).

Routine tasks such as gathering coal for the less fortunate, lighting oil lamps on sidewalks, and supervising children as they played in the busy 18th century streets were
general duties of the first organized protectors. As the population increased, the responsibilities of police officers increased with evolving social issues. Crowl (2017) explored the change in dynamics in the police profession from the unarmed community helper role of the past to the particular objectives of the current day profession.

Researchers have presented the need to return to a system of service for the citizenry, but the paradigm does not easily shift. Changes in the expectations of law enforcement officers are often met with political and cultural resistance from within the profession. Police use-of-force incidents have been a catalyst for social conflict over the past five years, resulting in the threat of exterior workplace violence, perceived or actual, being a consideration for modern first responders. The nature of first response work is often volatile due to circumstances beyond the control of responders. It places emergency workers in situations where citizens are already frustrated due to the situation.

Reemst and Fischer’s (2016) research concentrated on frequency of contact with citizens by first responders, and the disposition of those contacts. The authors recognized the differing context of community contact by emergency medical technicians, firefighters, and police officers. Police work, and firefighters were found to have much greater propensity for external workplace violence due to the level of violence and destruction that may be involved in calls for service. A correlation to lower education rates, and late-night work hours were found to be contributors to the elevated external workplace violence experienced in law enforcement (Reemst & Fischer, 2016, p. 2-10).

The argument has been made that the police should function as an arm of society, but society is afforded certain rights that are many times overlooked when an officer is
suspected of malfeasance. This differing standard of judgement causes fear, resentment, and apprehension in many officers. Law enforcement’s response to controversy has been to avoid certain circumstances that place the officer at risk to public scrutiny. Proactivity and consideration for community well-being is often replaced with reactionary activity and exclusion of those from the outside. The resulting de-policing is in response, partially, to public cynicism and public denial of law enforcement’s due process consideration (Rosenfeld, 2015). Political leaders, including the President of the United States, have offered public statements that admonish the police profession as a whole, long before the details of the critical incident have been disclosed publicly. Lack of transparency and failure to release public information has only exacerbated public distrust, compounding an already tense situation (Schlosser et al., 2015).

Research has attempted to isolate motivations for police use-of-force. Racial factors, inclusion/exclusion, availability bias, and misconduct have been established as motivators of deadly force. Despite existing research, statutory law only requires fear of great bodily injury or death as a precipitator of the elements of the lawful application of deadly force. Elements of this nationally accepted standard are contrary to the mindset that develops in the law enforcement profession. Many officers are reluctant to admit fallibility as this is seen as a non-warrior mentality. Available research fails to consider fear of demise as being the foremost and biggest motivator for a police officer’s decision to utilize force.

Survival has been shown to be a prevalent motivator but is rarely mentioned outside of the cop circle. The nature of police work and the resulting closed culture
creates and enables a phenomenon that is commonly referred to as the John Wayne syndrome. The resulting attitude happens when the officer displays a certain cynicism and authoritarianism where machismo prevents basic reasoning from being considered the promoter for the impending result. This attitude is a common trait in the closed law enforcement culture (Lord, 2014, p. 81-83).

Research has shown that police officers employ a type of occupational discretion in forceful situations. Understanding why police act as they do in situations of protest or criticism would require exploration into how cops respond to danger. According to Marenin (2016), real street police see danger as an aspect of their career that cannot be controlled or managed by policies or administration. Hazards are seen as common, and one of the few things that can only be handled by virtue of skills and techniques acquired through their occupational training. These skills and techniques often involve other officers in a team concept, thus strengthening the bond of the profession. Police officers see other officers as the only segment of society that understands the true demands of the occupation, and they view these demands and the inherent risks as exclusive of other professions (p. 461-463).

The law enforcement community experienced several assassinations of police officers in 2016. These notable events were perpetrated by individuals who were self-described as social activists whose mission was to avenge the unlawful killings of unarmed minority victims who perished at the hands of police. These in-the-line-of-duty deaths shocked the nation’s conscience, but many were discounted by competing social agendas. Sadly, felonious ambush deaths of police officers have been on the rise for ten
years and were the second cause of police officer deaths in 2012. Automobile accidents remain the number one cause of in-the-line-of duty deaths for law enforcement officers with assault from firearms second. It is widely recognized that ambush situations may be coordinated, planned, or an act of opportunity (FBI, 2015).

A case study by Marotta and Caplan (2013) identified spatial risk factors of police assault and injury. It was noted that fifty-five percent of felonious assaults on police officers were committed by a suspect that was ten feet or less from the officer. This distance represents the appropriate contact distance for an officer’s response to a call for service, or the assumed distance for an enforcement action. Additionally, it was presented that the majority of fatal attacks on officers were considered ambush assaults or murders (p. 1-11).

Unlike Marenin’s (2016) assessment of how real street police view a situation’s potential for violence, Broome (2013) presented a more noble motivation than that of a professional expectation. Police culture places a very high value on life and, therefore, most officers will only consider deadly force as a last resort. The researcher expanded by showing the extremely low number of officers that were involved in violent encounters in respect to the thousands of daily contacts, and reiterated that many officers will avoid deadly force even when backed-up by situation and policy. Psychological processes that are experienced during crisis are not considered a set of absolutes but a process that requires some life experience to negotiate. Experience will often afford veteran officers the opportunity to relive certain situations while providing insight and the opportunity to modify responses depending on previous outcomes (Broome, 2014).
During the case study of several critical incidents of deadly force, the researcher noted that many police officers will go far beyond the legal justification stage before utilizing deadly force, especially if the officer feels no personal jeopardy. This thought would be considered admirable to a novice, but was realized by the researcher to be a severe impediment due to the officer being responsible for protecting society from dangerous felons, with the use of necessary deadly force in certain situations. This hesitation would not necessarily place the officer in peril since there was no threat towards them but to society in general. Reality based training to simulate a life in the balance is useful in lessening the personal sense of morality and decency during use-of-force training. This method provides decision-making training in a lived experience for an actual deadly-force encounter (Tennessee vs. Garner, 1985; Broome, 2013, p. 158-161).

In addition to the individual characteristics of the officer, there are several other motivators for police use-of-force. Subject characteristics, noncompliance with police commands, possession of a dangerous weapon, and display of a hostile demeanor has been identified as strong predictors according to Lord. These motivators have been found to affect the amount of force that is utilized by the involved officers. Some other predictors are suspect history, gang affiliation, ideology, and the initiatives of accomplices (Lord, 2014, p. 82). An often-avoided predictor is bad weapons handling techniques. Weapons training and use-of-force go hand-in-hand. Instructors agree that gun handling skills are repetitive in nature and require an in-depth understanding of nomenclature and operation. Gun handling skills are perishable and many accidental
discharge situations result from improper hand placement and the resulting sympathetic reflex that follows a traumatic strain (Heim, Schmidtbleicher, & Niebergall, 2006).

Covington, Huff-Corzine, and Corzine (2014) examined risk-factors of police officers and their suitability as targets. The examination was purposed with the unique details of victim mannerisms as opposed to subject consideration in search of a more holistic approach to police violence. According to Covington et al., police officers were found to be at a higher propensity for victimization when Cohen and Felson’s three elements existed: being a suitable target, encountering a motivated offender, and participating in situations without guardianship were three common denominators in officer victimization. Additionally, the study provided value for Conducted Energy Devices (CEDs) when compared with empty-hand control of resisting suspects (2014, p. 35-37).

The recent social conflict between segments of American society and law enforcement has hindered the most basic police purpose by increasing social distance that is necessary to the provision of citizen satisfaction. Described as normative social distance, Lee, Lim, and Lee (2015) defined the volatile relationship as outsider verses insider. The increase of violent situations between citizens and police has increased this normative distance, resulting in distrust on both sides of the issue. Despite the thousands of typical police/citizen contacts daily, use-of-force incidents have overshadowed the many positive encounters. Questionable situations of deadly force have become constant content for media presentation (Miller, 2015).
The general public often does not understand the dangers, real or implied, that exist for cops during their daily routine. Use-of-force policies that adhere to the mandates of the DOJ include details that advise that an appropriate and systematic response may go from officer presence to deadly force. Many find this recognized use-of-force continuum unacceptable, where others believe it too tolerant. All sides of the equation have been presented, with the exception of how dangerous the training officers themselves perceive their profession. The gap in existing research will be presented through current literature that relates to police use-of-force and public sentiment. To understand the officer’s mindset and to critique motivations for use-of-force, it would be necessary to examine perceptions of the trainers who are responsible for teaching the police (Chipman, 2012).

Police administrators and researchers recognize the need for trust between police organizations and the communities they serve but little is known about how citizens and police form these opinions. Previous research has shown that much of society forms their opinions of law enforcement by broadcast and social media portrayal, with little or no first-hand contact with the criminal justice system. Donavan and Klahm IV (2015) presented the premise of a belief in a higher level of police misconduct among those who watch a high level of news media, where those with less exposure to broadcast and printed media had a much lower belief of incidents of police misconduct. Crime dramas and real-TV police shows are ranked consistently high among most watched television in the United States. Recent research has shown the effects of these much-watched shows
to have the same impressionable effects on the public as media content (Donavan & Klahm IV, 2015, p. 1261-1262).

The subject matter of these TV dramas is usually homicides. Research has shown that the clearance rate during the typical show is 100%. There are two obvious problems with these numbers. The first issue is that homicide accounts for only about one percent of the crimes committed annually in the United States. Secondly, the clearance rate of crimes in large cities was in the low to high twenty percentile at best. Additionally, police are shown engaged in use-of-force situations too frequently. Hard empty-hand and deadly force were prevalent in fifty percent of the television incidents, with drawn side arms utilized thirteen percent of the time. Statistics show that these numbers are far from accurate as deadly-force situations are extremely rare in law enforcement (Donavan & Klahm IV, 2015; FBI, 2015).}

Police officers who are involved in use-of-force situations are commonly faced with the test of reasonableness. This axiom is considered a contextual foundation of American jurisprudence where comparison is made between the officer’s actions and the symbolic anticipated actions of a reasonably prudent person. Lord (2014) credited Homant with the position that actions undertaken during periods of imminent threat of death, or severe bodily injury are, by nature, void of reflection. Data has shown that police officers are subject to a higher risk of sustaining an injury during these forceful encounters. Statistics present that police are injured 10-38 percent of the time during incidents of hands-on public contact. Contrary to forceful contact, low-lethal methods of force such as chemical sprays and conductive energy devices produced significantly
lower injury rates to officers and suspects. Police officers are never taught to meet a deadly force incident with a less-lethal option. Deadly force incidents are always met with deadly force (p. 79-83).

Many public misconceptions have evolved related to deadly force situations. The greatest misunderstood element of the phenomenon is that an individual must be armed to constitute a deadly threat, or that a threat must be as equally armed as the responding officer. This notion is discounted by researchers. According to Miller (2015), discrepancies between physical size and weapon effectiveness between officer and suspect clash with assumed social norms, and appear to negate a “fair fight.” Miller’s research involved the examination of many elements of the psychology of deadly force encounters including attitude, personality, and job experience. Contradicting the work of Pipkins (2017), Miller recognized an enormous threat from a motivated assailant with bare hands striking and choking a highly armed officer. Pipkins’ case study approach to the shooting of Michael Brown presented implications of act denial, blame reversal, and minimization in the coined phrase “I feared for my life” by police when facing an unarmed suspect. Pipkins’ work ignored the minutia and rulings of Graham vs. Connor (1989), and Tennessee vs. Garner (1985) (Miller, 2015, p. 101; Pipkins, 2017, p. 10).

The examination of police use-of-force by Lee, Vaughn, and Lim (2014) was conducted in consideration of neighborhood contextual characteristics. These authors posited that officer perceptions of higher crime in a neighborhood resulted in more applied force during combative arrest situations. Three categories were utilized to examine incidents of force application during routine calls for service: individual,
sociological, and neighborhood contextual factors. Explaining individual factors, Lee et al. (2014) further analyzed personality and background of officers. Age, gender, education, and race were assumed to affect outcomes differently. Those with authoritarian personalities were presented as having a higher propensity of force utilization when dealing with a contact who is rude and obnoxious (Lee et al., 2014, p. 492-493).

The research of Sim, Correll, and Sadler (2013) was purposed with examining racial bias in shoot-don’t-shoot situations. Police and civilian participants were conditioned to stereotypical conditions in order to produce a measured response to shooting white and minority suspects. The results found that police officers showed more restraint during simulated scenarios than non-police when confronted with a composed situation. The data did produce results that were typical with stereotyping by police when dealing with black suspects versus white suspects. Police were found to react at a faster pace up to the point of shooting, but no correlation was noted with the actual act of firing a deadly weapon with response to race. The researchers presented that training had elevated a level of cognitive control in the officers that allowed what was termed an expertise-based response enabling the police officers to exhibit control in a situation where a citizen had responded with unlawful force (Sim et al., 2013, p. 297-301).

In contrast to the declaration of restraint by officers that was discovered by Sim et al. (2013), Bayerl, Horton, Jacobs, Rogiest, Reguli, Gruschinske, Costanzo, Stojanovski, Vonas, Gasco, and Elliot’s (2013) explorative investigation of law enforcement from several countries identified a police perspective in some officers that was termed “hands
on enforcer.” These officers were described as lacking thought, and motivated solely by action. The officers that fell within this category were self-described as having the authority to utilize force against the citizenry. Compassion for the public, and outside association with non-police groups were seen as unimportant by these officers. This notion is in contrast to the community policing philosophy and relationship building between community and police in general (Bayerl et al., 2013).

Training is a constant activity for all active law enforcement officers. The initial academy instruction a new recruit receives is minimal in the context of the totality the officer will receive throughout his/her career. In addition to education, training has been considered a promoter of departmental professionalism, and has been linked by researchers to the frequency of use-of-force complaints. Shjarback and White (2016) presented the significance of academy, field, and in-service training to the frequency of public complaints. Departments that have high training frequencies were found to have fewer use-of-force complaints from citizens. The authors mentioned a lack of research in the area of law enforcement training but credited Peace Officer Standards and Training Boards in the United States for the recent increase in training in areas of use-of-force and conflict resolution (p. 33-37).

Policies that govern less lethal force are techniques that are utilized by police agency administrators to govern force encounters between officers and suspects. Regardless of the content of these policies, supervision of officer actions and adherence to accepted levels of force are often used to judge the effectiveness of said rules. Control and guidance of discretionary duties are accomplished by administrative rule-making.
Ingram, Weider, Paoline III, and Terrill (2013) credited Davis for exacting the progression of confining, structuring, and checking discretionary decision making through policy implementation and training. Policy was presented as the primary means of influencing officer behavior (Ingram et al., 2013, p. 356).

Policy implementation, as noted, can be a way of guiding officers in the desired direction. Research has also shown transformational leadership and organizational culture as a steering mechanism for intended organizational direction. When police culture is viewed as a closed and inclusive collective unit, occupational phenomena are formed during stressful situations involving citizens on the street. The effects on the organizational culture resulting from these occupational phenomena, according to Shim, Jo, and Hoover (2015), is created over time by front line supervisors and associative social factors (Shim et al., 2015, p. 754-756).

Noting that differing officer reactions take place during situational strain and in times of critical incidents, the correlation between action and organizational culture has been suggested. This correlation has been established in satisfaction level and motivation of activity level. Research has shown the development of group member perceptions that drive decision making in all facets of activity. The perceptions that make up an organization’s culture have shown to be a catalyst for loyalty amongst line officers, but have been found to facilitate social isolation. An awareness of these perceptions may allow administrators to modify or change the behavior of subordinates by modification of the organizational culture (Shim et al., 2015, p. 758).
The resulting organizational culture can limit any focus of interest to inter-agency problems including use of force and the agency’s attitude towards the application of force. Shim et al. (2015) posited that the culture of an organization can be impaired by the minimal impact of the attitudes and actions of its leaders. Opinions and outlooks that are held by management are disseminated throughout the chain of command, to include thoughts and views concerning threat levels and force application that deal with perceived threats. Willingness to engage community officials in times of discourse should be synonymous with the thoughts and direction of departmental management (Shim et al., 2015, p. 754-756).

There are general studies that address supervisory elements in police work; however, specific research on police supervisory direction, mentality, and associations with subordinates and the link to training presentation is very limited. Phillips and Terrell-Orr (2013) presented a lack of empirical evidence of supervisor attitudes with the exception of community policing aspects. Studies have demonstrated lack of support for the philosophy due to the belief that supervisory control is negated when officers answer to the neighborhoods they serve. The authors conducted statistical analysis of the attitudes of supervisors in a Philadelphia area as to their views regarding volunteers assisting sworn officers with a community outreach mission. The study examined three underlying constructs, including supervisory expectations, for partnerships between officers, volunteers, and citizens, expectations for officers in the area of order maintenance, and expectations for officers to perform aggressive enforcement. Survey questions dealing with aggressive patrol centered on the supervisors’ expectation for
subordinates aggressive traffic control, and the importance of aggressive enforcement activities. The results confirmed, to an extent, that police work is generally a closed culture with most officers sharing commonalities in their thought process concerning community engagement. Secondly, the results yielded that supervisory attitudes considered aggressive enforcement oriented did not produce results that were contrary to acceptance or openness to volunteer workers (Phillips & Terrell-Orr, 2013, p. 683-695).

Summary and Conclusions

This chapter presented an overview of existing literature related to police use-of-force incidents, professional and organizational culture, statistical information related to use-of-force incidents, current accepted use-of-force continuum, and the recent increase of victimization of law enforcement officers. Opposing views were examined with respect to minority opinions regarding misuse of force by police officers, and law enforcement’s view of the appropriation of deadly force, and its necessity for health and survival. Additionally, the criteria and dynamics of training positions were presented and defined.

This chapter further touched on the abundance of existing research containing demographics on race and gender, elements of conflict that often lead to use-of-force incidents, and organizational influences that may affect an officer’s decision making process. The lack of recent research that considers law enforcement’s perceptions of deadly force and the absence of data on police training techniques and procedures was presented. Views on community engagement and officer’s discretion in enforcement situations were examined along with recommendations and suggestions from criminal
justice scholars. Finally, policy implementations and supervisory roles associated with enforcement motivations and their influence on the decision making process of patrol officers were covered.
Chapter 3: Research Method

Methodology

In this chapter, I provide descriptions of the test subjects, methods, procedures, design, and questions that were used in this research project. By using theoretical components contained in the literature and statistical comparison of the police trainer subgroups (AI, DTOs, and FTOs), I researched the perceptions that exist in training aspects of the police culture. As described in Chapter 1, the purpose of this comparative/descriptive research study was to discover the perceptions held by police trainers associated with how they believe police officers are viewed by the public and to provide understanding of the impact these perceptions play in the way police trainers present and conduct use-of-force training. Additionally, the perceptions and impact of PATP reported by AIs, DTOs, and FTOs were compared to discern variances in means, if any, and influences of instructor perceptions are described and presented with respect to the presentation of use-of-force training.

Research Design and Rationale

A nonexperimental design was used for this research study due to hazards and ethical issues that would manifest with a true experimental design due to manipulation of variables. Nonexperimental designs are similar to experimental designs but are lacking variable manipulation, randomization, treatment, and control aspects (Creswell, 2009). The impact of perceptions of public attitudes towards any aspect of the first responder profession is a naturally occurring mindset and can be compared amongst the three distinct types of police trainers. Intentional exposure to actual or manipulated negative
public attitudes could potentially create an ethical dilemma contrary to academic standards, so a nonexperimental design is considered a strength for a comparative descriptive study. Nonexperimental designs are descriptive, predictive, and explanatory in nature (O'Sullivan, Rassel, & Berner, 2008). According to Rudestam and Newton (2015), these three categories are useful in describing and explaining a certain phenomenon as well as in predicting additional variables that develop in the study application (Rudestam & Newton, 2015).

As previously stated, the goal of this study was to present the impact of perceptions of PATP on use-of-force training by police training officers. Manipulation of PATP on training officer perceptions is an ethical impossibility. Randomization of study participants was improbable due to variable departmental sizes and the inconsistency of numbers of DTOs and FTOs in various departments. Random assignment of departments was used; however, the number of study participants was dependent on availability within the chosen departments. The intended data, impacts of PATP on training officer perceptions (IV), were collected from DTOs, FTOs, and AIs with a self-reported survey instrument. The data were then analyzed with a comparative descriptive process to determine the impact of PATP on the provision of use-of-force training (DV). Walden University (2010) defined comparative descriptive research as a nonexperimental research design that examines and describes naturally occurring variables in two or more groups. According to Walden University (n.d.), a survey research design is applicable when the goal is to show relation of variables, or to present contrast between existing or discovered variables (Walden University, n.d.).
Population

DTOs, FTOs, and AIs provided their perceptions of PATP on their use-of-force training, previous in-the-line of death statistics, and influences of PATP on perceived police victimization. DTOs and FTOs were used from randomly chosen South Carolina Sheriff’s offices that were ranked as small, medium, and large, depending on the number of sworn officers at their agency. Small sheriff’s offices consisted of less than 50 officers; medium offices encompassed 51 to 100 officers, and large offices consisted of those agencies with more than 100 sworn officers. AIs were used according to availability from the single centralized state training academy.

In law enforcement agencies, DTOs and FTOs are responsible for the introduction of new training and the reinforcement of standardized training at the agency level. SCCJA instructors were surveyed to establish the impact of perceptions of PATP on the development and implementation of standardized police survival training and were compared to those of DTOs and FTOs. Additionally, SCCJA instructors certify and instruct DTOs and FTOs, in addition to training new recruits in basic legal procedures and law enforcement fundamentals. Burdock (2013) stated that each police agency has a public responsibility to provide appropriate, modern, and sustainable training to its officers. By examining the influence of trainer perceptions on use-of-force training in DTOs, FTOs, and AIs, I have provided results that can foster an understanding of the motivations behind police officer decisions to use deadly force, which can be beneficial in the development of techniques that may help mitigate the use of force by police officers.
Sampling and Sampling Procedures

There are currently over 4,000 deputy sheriffs in South Carolina who are employed by 46 sheriff’s offices. These agencies may consist of as few as 20 or as many as 600 sworn deputies. There are over 1,000 instructors of various disciplines who provide aspects of officer survival and use-of-force training to the sworn officers, troopers, and constables in South Carolina. Sheriff’s offices have no determined number of instructors, as certifications will often come with longevity, but most medium to large offices have at least 10 instructors who provide some aspect of use-of-force and officer survival training.

This study was conducted by using 11 of the 46 South Carolina sheriff’s offices due to the willingness of South Carolina sheriffs to participate and the accessibility of contacts through the Sheriff’s Association. Study participants were dependent on the number of instructors at participating departments. I gained verbal approval from the South Carolina Sheriff’s Association of their commitment to and enthusiasm for this research. Twenty-five sheriffs pledged verbal approval; however, 11 sheriffs actually followed through with letters of cooperation. Verbal permission was first assured, and then a written letter of cooperation was obtained from the director of the SCCJA.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection (Primary Data)

Due to the availability and willingness to participate, all police instructors from the chosen departments who qualified as police trainers were included, providing they voluntarily participated and were sworn full-time police officers, and that they provided some aspect of officer survival or use-of-force training. The data were collected with the
use of a self-reported survey instrument that was hand delivered and retrieved from the participating agency’s administrator. Informed consent was obtained from the participating agency-head by letter of cooperation and was also included for individual participants. Particular demographics were few, as the data collection provided complete anonymity to departments and participants, with only department size, years of experience, and type of instructor listed. I did not have contact with actual study participants, and follow-ups were not required. Interviews, observations, and personal engagement would not have benefited this study due to the apprehension of police officers to speak honestly with researchers concerning such a volatile and contested subject. My Walden IRB approval number for data collection was 2018.06.1117:40:20-05'00'.

Data Analysis Plan

In this research, I employed a descriptive, Likert-type survey instrument that was loosely-based in structure on a previously used U.S. Government instrument by the National Police Research Platform to collect perception data from sworn law enforcement officers associated with another research topic. The self-reporting instrument was modified to the subject matter of this research project. I analyzed the data using SPSS to perform a univariate One-Way between Groups ANOVA and a simple regression statistical procedure to compare means between the three target groups to determine if any variance existed between the three groups, considering the number of subjects (degrees of freedom) in each group. Data were scanned to my private computer and will be retained for institutional review, if needed, on a secured external hard drive,
in a locked and secured file cabinet and office for 5 years, at which time the data will be permanently destroyed. The following are hypotheses and research questions to guide the study:

\[ H_1: \text{Perceptions held by police trainers of PATP are influential to the presentation of use-of-force training.}\]

\[ H_{01}: \text{Perceptions held by police trainers of PATP are not influential to the presentation of use-of-force training.}\]

\[ H_2: \text{The perceptions of PATP and use-of-force training varies between AIs, departmental instructors, and FTOs.}\]

\[ H_{02}: \text{The perceptions of PATP and use-of-force training does not vary between AIs, departmental instructors, and FTOs.}\]

RQ1: What impact does PATP have on the perceptions held by SCCJA instructors towards use-of-force training?

RQ2: What impact does PATP have on perceptions held by DTOs towards use-of-force training?

RQ3: What impact does PATP have on perceptions held by FTOs towards use-of-force training?

RQ4: What are the differences in perceptions towards use-of-force between AIs, DTOs, and FTOs?

**Threats to Validity**

A direct correlation between subject elements was not probable due to the nature of the nonexperimental design; however, in the presented research, I identified,
presented, and compared elements that have not been previously considered for the purpose of creating social dialogue and to spawn future research. Internal validity was not an issue as this research study was descriptive and comparative in nature. External validity was negated by the statistical configuration, self-reporting of participants, no direct contact between researcher and anonymous participants, and exclusion of my department from consideration (Creswell, 2009; Frankfort-Nachmias et al., 2015; Lee & Gibbs, 2015).

Ethical Procedures

Many ethical dilemmas were avoided with the choice of a nonexperimental research design, lack of manipulation and introduction of variables. Additionally, departmental and individual informed consent, strict voluntary participation, and complete anonymity insured compliance with institutional and ethical standards. Although a twenty-seven-year veteran law enforcement officer, researcher conflicts of interests were nullified by the exclusion of this researcher’s department, lack of contact with participants, and anonymity of participants.

Unlike most surveys, this study utilized a clustered sample design. Specifically, the responding training officers were clustered within the department where they were employed. There are consequences as a result of the clustered design related to sampling error. In this study, the margin of sampling error depended on the question asked, more than a typical public survey. In general, questions about an officer’s specific department have larger margins of error, whereas questions pertaining to their opinions on specific aspects of use-of-force will have smaller margins of error.
Summary

This chapter provided the methodology and details to describe and present the perceptions and impact of Public Attitude Towards Police (PATP) on police trainers. Methodology, design, study participants, collection and analysis of data, ethical procedures, and threats to validity were presented. The data collected answered the four research questions, addressed hypotheses, and it provided additional information that will be useful in understanding the dynamics of police use-of-force incidents.
Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

In this chapter, I present the review and analysis of this study’s results. A survey was designed and delivered to partnering agencies in the state for voluntary consideration by the agency’s sworn training officers. The participants were categorized as one of three types of police training officer: AI, DTO, or FTO. The survey instrument was only extended to training officers who held an endorsement in some aspect of use-of-force training. The purpose of this study was to identify and present the training officer’s perceptions of public attitude towards police and variances between the perceptions held by the three categories of trainers. Additionally, the perceptions of PATP included departmental leadership, media, and citizenry. In this chapter, I present demographic information such as agency size, type of instructor, and longevity as an instructor. Ultimately, my goal was to identify and present perceptions of PATP as held by training officers for the purpose of exploring an area of use-of-force that has been previously overlooked. Study variables of AIs, DTOs, and FTOs were analyzed to discover perceptions held by police trainers, which were compared by ANOVA and a simple regression to determine significant differences, if any, in perceptions towards use-of-force training held by AIs, DTOs, and FTOs.

In this chapter, I answer the four questions that have guided this research, and specifically address the two hypotheses.

\( H1: \) Perceptions held by police trainers of PATP are influential to the presentation of use-of-force training.
$H_01$: Perceptions held by police trainers of PATP are not influential to the presentation of use-of-force training.

$H2$: The perceptions of PATP and use-of-force training varies between AIs, departmental instructors, and FTOs.

$H_02$: The perceptions of PATP and use-of-force training does not vary between AIs, departmental instructors, and FTOs.

RQ1: What impact does PATP have on the perceptions held by SCCJA instructors towards use-of-force training?

RQ2: What impact does PATP have on perceptions held DTOs towards use-of-force training?

RQ3: What impact does PATP have on perceptions held FTOs towards use-of-force training?

RQ4: What are the differences in perceptions towards use-of-force between AIs, DTOs, and FTOs?

Response Analysis

I hand delivered surveys to participating. A full description of the data collection is provided in Chapter 3. A study announcement and sealed collection box were delivered to each participating agency to be placed in their prospective training area. The announcement and voluntary consent form, contained the purpose of the research and instructions for the security of the surveys in addition to the voluntary waiver of participation. I conducted a follow-up site visit 2 to 3 weeks after to collect any unused surveys, the sealed collection box, and any surveys contained within.
Of the 300 surveys distributed to the population of training officers, 148 (49%) were returned to me. Twenty eight (19%) of these surveys were eliminated from the data pool due to neglect of performance or security directives. As seen in Table 2, 120 training officers completed the surveys according to the directives that were included in the survey announcement and consent. Thus, the actual size of the usable respondents was 120 (81%) of the returned surveys. The average response rate for police officer surveys is around 64% according to Nix, Pickett, Back, and Alpert (2017). Nix et al. stressed that higher invitations correlate with lower response rates, and in person interviews achieve substantially higher participation.

Coding Surveys

Survey data were coded in accordance with Green and Salkind (2014). Categorical variables for department size, training capacity, longevity, type of officers trained, and whether officers were apprehensive in making stops were coded 1 to 2, and 1 to 3 in ascending order. Continuous variables of training officer perception questions were coded from greatest to least 4 to 1, or 3 to 1, in descending order. The data were transferred to an excel spreadsheet and were subsequently analyzed with SPSS. Each of the three training capacities was configured separately and then scaled together to obtain a comparison in accordance to the questions represented on the survey instrument. Questions and results with relevance to the research questions were identified and are reported in this chapter.

The participating agencies were sized by the number of sworn, full-time officers in their employment. To be included in this research, I requested that participants hold
instructor certification in at least one use-of-force area of expertise (firearms, oc spray, taser/electronic control device, baton, or defensive tactics). In the research design, I considered potential participation from up to 15 available agencies. The largest agency in the region employed 650 sworn officers, while the smallest employed 15 to 18. Subsequently, agency size was scaled at 1 to 50, 51 to 100, and 101 to 650. However, the 11 cooperating agency partners employed 22 to 450 sworn officers.

**Descriptive Statistics**

The data were collected from 120 participants from the three sized departments. The breakdown of usable surveys was 30 (25%) from agencies employing 1 to 50 officers, 45 (37.5%) from agencies employing 51 to 100 officers, and 45 (37.5%) from agencies employing 101 to 650 officers (37.5%). Self-identifying training capacities for participants were 33 (27.5%) AIs, 35 (29.2%) DTOs, and 52 (43.2%) FTOs.

The longevity of each participating instructor was categorized by years of service in their training capacity and listed in Table 3. Less than 20% or 18.3% of the participants had 1 to 5 years of service as an instructor. Forty-four instructors or 36.7% were identified as having 6 to 12 years of training experience, and 54 or 45% had surpassed 13 years in their capacity.

The continuous variables of training officer perception questions were coded from greatest to least 4 to 1, or 3 to 1, in descending order. Questions related to training officer’s perceptions of public attitude and use of force training were identified and examined. Survey Questions 7e, 8e, 9e, 12, 14, 15, 17, 18b, and 27 a, b, and c were examined with respect to perceptions of public attitude in Table 1. Survey Questions 5,
7a, 7d, 8a, 8d, 9a, 9b, 20b, 20c, 20d, 21, 25, and 26 were examined as associative to use-of-force training in Table 2. Composite responses were coded were the positive effect or strongly agree (4 or 3), and the lesser effect or strongly disagree (1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Survey Questions: Public Attitude</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In general, how well does your agency’s top-level management Communicate their opinions to police trainers regarding media</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>.840</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
portrayal of the law enforcement profession?

In general, how well does your agency’s mid-level management communicate their opinions regarding media portrayal of the law enforcement profession to police trainers?

Please describe how strongly you agree or disagree: Most angry citizens are capable of harming police officers.

Officers have a reason to be distrustful of most citizens?

Most citizens respect the police.

In general, the media usually utilizes negative implications to describe law enforcement use-of-force incidents.

The media is often too critical of law enforcement’s response to civil disorder after a police officer deadly-force incident.

As you know, many demonstrations have been held throughout the country in the past five years to protest the deaths of African Americans during police encounters.

How much of the protests do you think are motivated by longstanding bias towards the police?

How often, if at all, do PATP make you feel Frustrated?

How often, if at all do PATP make you feel angry?

How often, if at all, do PATP make you feel fearful?

---

### Table 2

**Survey Questions: Use-of-force**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How active is your agency’s top management in the creation of use-of-force policies?</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>.646</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In general, how well does your agency’s top-level management communicate their expectations to police trainers with regard to use-of-force training?</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>.739</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In general, how well does your agency’s top-level management support you in the introduction of de-escalation training?  
3.44 .683

In general, how well does your agency’s mid-level management communicate their expectations with regard to use-of-force training to police trainers?  
3.44 .658

In general, how well does your agency’s mid-level management support you in the introduction of de-escalation training?  
3.46 .660

Officers that I train are often involved in situations with citizens during volatile situations.  
3.41 .692

It is important that the officers that I train always react in a physically superior manner when confronted with resistance from a suspect.  
3.38 .735

Training officers are more concerned about officer safety.  
3.48 .661

Departments have modified their use-of-force policies due to high-profile use-of-force incidents.  
2.39 .873

Officers have become reluctant to use force when necessary.  
2.80 .574

How important, if at all, is it for you to consider new scientific research during the provision of use-of-force training?  
3.53 .593

How important, if at all, is it that you modify the intensity of use-of-force training as a result of an in the line of duty police officer death?  
3.37 .809

How important is the incorporation of in the line of duty death statistics into the training that you provide?  
3.71 .525

---

Research Question 1, Hypothesis 1

To examine RQ1, descriptive statistics were conducted to describe the impact of perceptions (IV) of public attitude towards police (PATP) as held by South Carolina Criminal Justice Academy (SCCJA) instructors towards use-of-force training (DV). A simple regression three-output analysis was used to test the influence of PATP on AIs towards use-of-force training. In table 3 the results of the regression analysis indicated a correlation between perceptions of PATP and use-of-force training (R=0.529), (R² =
0.280). This correlation represents a 28% impact of use-of-force training by perceptions of PATP that are held by AIs.

Table 3

*Model Summary: Public Attitude*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.529</td>
<td>.280</td>
<td>.257</td>
<td>.22740</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* a. Predictors: (Constant), Public Attitude

In analyzing table 4, the regression equation is significant $F(1,31) = 12.05, p = .002$.

Table 4

*ANOVA: Use-of-force Training*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
In table 5, a regression coefficient for the influence of perceptions of PATP on use-of-force training by AIs was statistically significant ($b = 0.372$), ($p = .002$). $P < .05$, therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. The standardized coefficient of .529 indicates a moderate positive impact of use-of-force training by the perceptions of public attitude towards police held by AIs.

Table 5

*Coefficients: Use-of-force Training*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized coefficients</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(constant)</td>
<td>2.292</td>
<td>.321</td>
<td>7.150</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research Question 2, Hypothesis 1

To examine research question two, descriptive statistics were conducted to describe the impact of perceptions (IV) of public attitude towards police (PATP) as held by departmental training officers towards use-of-force training (DV). A simple regression three-output analysis was used to test the influence of PATP on departmental training officers towards use-of-force training. In table 6 the results of the regression analysis indicated a correlation between perceptions of PATP and use-of-force training ($R=0.482$), ($R^2 = 0.232$). This correlation represents a 23% impact of use-of-force training by perceptions of PATP that are held by departmental training officers.

Table 6

*Model Summary: Public Attitude*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>$R$</th>
<th>$R$ Square</th>
<th>Adjusted $R$ Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.482</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.209</td>
<td>.25494</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* a. Predictors: (Constant), Public Attitude
In analyzing table 7, the regression equation is significant $F(1,33) = 9.96$, $p=.003$.

Table 7

*ANOVA: Use-of-force Training*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Regression     .647        1              .647            9.961         .003  
2    Residual     2.145      33              .065  
Total     2.792      34  

Note. a. Dependent Variable: Use Of Force Training  
   b. Predictors: (Constant), Public Attitude  

In table 8, a regression coefficient for the influence of perceptions of PATP on use-of-force training by departmental training officers was statistically significant (b = 0.357), (p = .003). P < .05, therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. The standardized coefficient of .482 indicates a moderate positive impact of use-of-force training by the perceptions of public attitude towards police held by departmental training officers. 

Table 8

Coefficients: Use-of-force Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(constant)</td>
<td>2.317</td>
<td>.349</td>
<td>6.636</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Public Attitude</td>
<td>.357</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>.482</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research Question 3, Hypothesis 1

To examine research question one, descriptive statistics were conducted to describe the impact of perceptions (IV) of public attitude towards police (PATP) as held by FTOs (FTOs) towards use-of-force training (DV). A simple regression three-output analysis was used to test the influence of PATP on FTOs towards use-of-force training. In table 9 the results of the regression analysis indicated a correlation between perceptions of PATP and use-of-force training (\( R = 0.661 \)), \( R^2 = 0.436 \). This correlation represents a 43% impact of use-of-force training by perceptions of PATP that are held by FTOs.

Table 9

Model Summary: Public Attitude

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>( R )</th>
<th>( R^2 )</th>
<th>Adjusted ( R^2 )</th>
<th>Std. Error of the estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.661</td>
<td>.436</td>
<td>.425</td>
<td>.28022</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. a. Predictors: (Constant), Public Attitude*
In analyzing table 10, the regression equation is significant $F(1,50) = 38.71$, $p=.000$.

Table 10

**ANOVA: Use-of-force Training**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>3.040</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.040</td>
<td>38.711</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>3.926</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>.079</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6.966</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Use Of Force Training  
b. Predictors: (Constant), Public Attitude
In table 11, a regression coefficient for the influence of perceptions of PATP on use-of-force training by FTOs was statistically significant ($b = 0.651$), ($p = .000$).  $P < .05$, therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. The standardized coefficient of .661 indicates a substantial positive impact of use-of-force training by the perceptions of public attitude towards police held by FTOs.

Table 11

*Coefficients: Use-of-force Training*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(constant)</td>
<td>1.262</td>
<td>.316</td>
<td>3.995</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Public Attitude</td>
<td>.651</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>.661</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
a. Dependent Variable: Use Of Force Training

Research Question 4, Hypothesis 2

A one-way-between groups ANOVA was conducted to compare the perceptions (IV) of use-of-force training (DV) between AIs, departmental training officers, and FTOs (FTOs). The analysis produced a significant difference in perceptions of use-of-force training at the $p< .05$ level between the three groups of instructors $F(2,117) = 5.26$, $p=.007$ in table 12.

Table 12

One-Way-Between Groups ANOVA: Use-of-force Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1.077</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.538</td>
<td>5.256</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>11.984</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>.102</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13.061</td>
<td>119</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The mentioned statistical significance required post hoc examination to determine specificity in relation to mean values between the groups. In table 13, a Tukey test revealed that the mean score for FTOs (M= 3.21, SD = .369) was significantly different than the AIs (M= 3.39, SD = .263) and departmental training officers (M= 3.41, SD = .286) (Green & Salkind, 2009, p.62-70).

Table 13

*One-Way-Between Groups ANOVA: Use-of-force Training*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval for Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
<td>Upper Bound</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(AI)</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.3963</td>
<td>.26376</td>
<td>.04592</td>
<td>3.3027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(DTOs)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3.4110</td>
<td>.28657</td>
<td>.04844</td>
<td>3.3125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(FTO)</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>3.2130</td>
<td>.36957</td>
<td>.05125</td>
<td>3.1101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>3.3212</td>
<td>.33130</td>
<td>.03024</td>
<td>3.2613</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, the mean score of AIs (M= 3.39, SD = .263) did not significantly differ from the departmental training officers (M= 3.41, SD = .286). A Bonferroni test verified
the significant difference between FTOs and the other two groups with respect to use-of-force training, in table 14. Taken in totality, these results suggest that FTOs (FTOs) hold stronger perceptions of use-of-force training than AIs, and departmental training officers.

Table 14

One-Way-Between Groups ANOVA: Use-of-force Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
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<td>.07766</td>
<td>1.000</td>
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Hypothesis 2. A one-way-between groups ANOVA was conducted to compare the perceptions of public attitude (IV) and use-of-force training (DV) between AIs, departmental training officers, and FTOs (FTOs). The analysis produced no significant difference in perceptions of use-of-force training at the p< .05 level between the three groups of instructors F(2,117) = 5.97, p=.552 in table 15. The null hypothesis is not rejected (p>.05)

Table 15

One-Way-Between Groups ANOVA: Use-of-force Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.085</td>
<td>.597</td>
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<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>16,755</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>.143</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>16.926</td>
<td>119</td>
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Chapter 5: Discussion, Recommendations, and Conclusions

Introduction

In the previous chapter, I presented results obtained from the perceptions survey administered to 120 police trainers. This chapter includes a summation of the results in the context of the study’s research questions and other perceptions of PATP discovered that are currently held by police trainers. First, I include a summary of the research of the perceptions held by AIs, DTOs, and FTOs. Secondly, differences between the three groups of police trainers are presented. Third, I state the implications such findings may imply. Lastly, recommendations for future research are provided.

Summary of the Study

The majority of research addressing PATP has been limited to the rationale for attributes that use explanatory variables (race, sex, methods) in lieu of measuring attitude and feelings. When addressing specific outcomes of questionable shooting incidents involving minority citizens, it is also critical to examine in the line of duty ambush deaths of police officers, and the increase in their frequency concurrent to these incidents. It is widely recognized that the examination of PATP has been overlooked, but just as overlooked has been the research and examination of perceptions held by police officers, specifically police trainers, and the effects of these perceptions on the safety and survival of first responders (Zhao & Ren, 2014).

A result of this narrow view of social dilemma involving society’s protectors has been historically void of equal consideration. Criminologists have identified factors such as social distance, demographic factors, criminal victimization variables, direct contact
with police, exposure to media, and incidents of police misconduct as influences on PATP (Lee & Gibbs, 2015). Whether or not the effort has been expended with regards to equitable and even representation has had little effect on outcomes when faced with a growing societal conflict between the citizenry and the intensity displayed by those entrusted to protect the public (Fisher et al., 2013).

One of the first steps, as stated by Chipman (2012), is placing a high priority on the balance between public and officer safety. Part of this step involves determining and presenting all sides of the conflict to allow stakeholders an opportunity to address pertinent elements. Determining what perceptions exist, especially in those who train police officers, is an important process addressing the recognized gap in research on police use-of-force, assaults committed on police officers, and resulting posttraumatic stress issues from those assaults. Existing research has entailed all facets of the citizen-police conflict with exception of police held perceptions and those responsible for training front line officers.

A survey instrument first used by the National Police Research Platform and then used by Pew Research Group was the inspiration and outline for the comprehensive survey instrument developed for this study. This instrument was distributed to 12 agencies in South Carolina. The surveys were delivered with a study announcement and voluntary consent to participate instruction. I did not administer the survey instrument but provided a sealed collection box with explicit instructions written to the cooperating agency and participants. Approximately one third of the state’s 46 sheriff’s offices were solicited to partner with me, with 12 following through on the commitment. The 12
cooperating agency partners employed 22 to 450 sworn officers. The breakdown of usable surveys were 30 (25%) from agencies employing 1 to 50 officers, 40 (37.5%) from agencies employing 51 to 100 officers, and 45 (37.5%) from agencies employing 101 to 650 (37.5%) officers. The research design considered potential participation of up to 15 agencies. Surveys were hand delivered and collected by me from cooperating agencies. To be included in this research, I requested that participants hold instructor certification in at least one use-of-force area of expertise (firearms, oc spray, taser/electronic control device, baton, or defensive tactics; see Morin, Parker, Stepler, & Mercer, 2015).

The instrument contained three themes and both categorical and continuous variables. The participating agency size, type of instructor participating, and their years in an instructor position were collected, as well as their perceptions held in areas of departmental leadership, media, and the public. Questions of departmental leadership were intended to illicit perceptions related to the theoretical foundation of organizational justice, with media and public content as related to the social conflict theory.

Results

Overall, 300 surveys that were distributed to the population of training officers, roughly 30% of the state’s police instructors for use-of-force training; 60% of the state’s sheriff’s office training officers when considering that approximately half would be municipal officers and not sheriff’s deputies. One hundred forty eight surveys were returned (49%) to me. Twenty eight (19%) of these surveys were eliminated from the data pool due to neglect of performance or security directives. Thus, the actual size of the usable respondents was 120 (81%) of the returned surveys. The demographics of this
research population were representative of small, medium, and large sheriff’s offices. The state’s sole academy was also a cooperating partner in this research.

Four research questions and two hypotheses were posed in this study:

**H1:** Perceptions held by police trainers of public attitude towards police (PATP) are influential to the presentation of use-of-force training.

**H01:** Perceptions held by police trainers of public attitude towards police (PATP) are not influential to the presentation of use-of-force training.

**H2:** The perceptions of public attitude towards police (PATP) and use-of-force training varies between AIs, departmental instructors, and FTOs.

**H02:** The perceptions of public attitude towards police (PATP) and use-of-force training does not vary between AIs, departmental instructors, and FTOs.

1. What impact does PATP have on the perceptions held by South Carolina Criminal Justice Academy (SCCJA) Instructors towards use-of-force training?

2. What impact does PATP have on perceptions held by Departmental Training Officers (DTOs) towards use-of-force training?

3. What impact does PATP have on perceptions held by FTOs (FTOs) towards use-of-force training?

4. What are the differences in perceptions towards use-of-force between AIs, Departmental Training Officers (DTOs), and FTOs (FTOs)?

**Conclusions**

An array of conclusions can be found in this study. This portion of the chapter is devoted to the discussion of those conclusions by addressing the identified research
questions, hypotheses, and individual findings of interest that are not specific to comparisons of the three target groups.

The first course of determining perceptions that are held by police trainers was to identify the specifics types of trainer and to give equal consideration to the collection of data from each. Three subgroups of police trainers were identified. AIs, DTOs, and FTOs are the three subgroups of police trainers. In the group statistical analysis, most participants in the three groups were satisfied or very satisfied with their department’s use-of-force policies. Nearly 96% of respondents presented a favorable response of their department’s policies. Prior researchers have established that aspects of organizational justice, specifically, procedural and distributive justice, have typically shown a strong correlation with job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Myhill & Bradford, 2016).

In addition to addressing the group mean of the departmental leadership’s role in the recognition and acceptance of use-of-force standards, I solicited separate responses with respect to top and middle level management. The findings revealed over a 22% unfavorable response individually when participants considered the communication of top-management’s opinion of the media’s negative view of the law enforcement profession.

The media’s role in law enforcement is as constant as statutory and common law. The right to a free press cannot be abridged. This doctrine was guaranteed by the American constitution and therefore cannot be negated by personal feelings. Respondents were polled as to the media’s frequent portrayal of the law enforcement
profession in a negative light. Almost 96% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that the media would frequently portray law enforcement in a negative manner, with only 4% of police trainers in disagreement.

In regards to social conflict, Chipman (2012) considered ramifications and outside criticism of police use-of-force incidents and the objective analysis of critical incidents when balancing public and police safety. In consideration of outside criticisms, respondents were questioned on the peaceful protest of police-response following a critical incident. Over 83% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that the media had been too sympathetic to peaceful protesters.

Historically, public attitude towards police has been a reflection of favorable impressions and not actual performance ratings or statistics. Law enforcement have enjoyed positive public attitudes towards the profession in 24 articles between 1954 and 2000. Scholars have attributed this satisfaction to delivery of a particular service and not overall satisfaction or loyalty (Zhao & Ren, 2015). Independent of statistical comparison of the research directives of my study, 75% of respondents felt that PATP consideration was necessary or somewhat necessary in response to calls for service. Social scientists have often associated social conflict theory with power struggles of economic measure between haves and have nots. However, aspects of Marx’s original work suggested a resistance to innovation and change as its preamble. Organized resistance to this innovation was seen as an attempt to overthrow the bureaucracy, therefore, placing more social distance between the powerful and those who are weak. This social distance remains a consideration in modern police research, where law enforcement is described
by opponents as an extension of those in power. However, some researchers have recognized elements of social conflict as more than an adversarial result (Fisher, Oddesson, & Wada, 2013). Researchers Lee, Lim, and Lee (2015) credited Leeson’s elements of social distance as being “variables of choice, defined by the actors themselves.” These mentioned choices could be problematic in police-citizen dialects, and could exacerbate negative PATP.

In consideration of these distances and the resulting PATP, police trainers were polled on their perceptions of the public’s attitude. When presented with the statement officers have a reason to be distrustful of most citizens, over sixty percent disagreed or strongly disagreed. Forty seven police trainers reported that police have a reason to be distrustful of most citizens. This forty percent dissenting opinion was not apparent when trainers were surveyed on whether most citizens respect the police. This inquiry produced findings that were over eighty six percent favorable, with most trainers agreeing, or strongly agreeing that most citizens respect law enforcement. Additionally, seventy percent of trainers polled were in disagreement, or strong disagreement that aggressive police work was preferable to courteous police service in some neighborhoods.

Alternative elements of social conflict that are contradictory to race and class structure were presented previously. However, there were several inquiries that revealed responses that could affirm racial and class elements as precipitous to police-citizen conflict. Seventy nine percent of respondents reported that demonstrations that followed the police shooting deaths of African Americans were motivated by not at all or not much
factual information of the case. When queried on their beliefs as to if these protests were based on longstanding police bias, over ninety four percent of the respondents felt that these demonstrations were based on some, or a great deal of longstanding bias against the police.

According to the findings, eighty seven percent believed that the above mentioned demonstrations resulting from high-profile police shooting incidents involving African Americans have made their jobs as police officers more difficult, and a parallel number reported unwillingness by officers to stop and question suspicious persons as a result of these demonstrations. Additionally, findings also presented that ninety two percent of police trainers were more concerned over officer safety as a result of the aftermath of high profile police shooting incidents. Sixty three percent of the police trainers polled were in belief that departments had modified their use-of-force policies, and over eighty six percent reporting that officers have been reluctant to utilize force in relation to these incidents.

Social researchers have established that police training is rooted in military psychology and training methods. Broome (2014) listed factors that are common in deadly police-citizen encounters as proximity, distance, and natural instincts such as fight, flee, bluff, or freeze. These natural instincts would commonly be described as fear. This fear from an officer’s standpoint would be fear of scrutiny, or physical fear of injury and/or death. Tennessee verses Garner set a standard where police officers could not shoot at fleeing felons unless the escape would pose a legitimate threat of great bodily injury, or death to the general public. When probed on the sharp increase of police
officer line-of-duty deaths, eighty five percent of respondents felt it important to modify use-of-force training as a result of these percentages.

Police trainers were queried on their personal feelings of frustration, anger, and fear as a result of PATP. Seventy two percent of respondents reported being frustrated as a result. This number represents over fifty percent of respondents feeling frustrated often as a result of PATP. Respondents reported only a forty percent frequency of anger often, or nearly always, and over half reported that fear was hardly ever experienced as a result of PATP.

Respondents were surveyed on the frequency of their victimization by citizens by verbal and physical assaults while on-duty in the previous five years. Over forty seven percent of police trainers reported that they had hardly ever been verbally abused by the citizenry, while forty percent reported being verbally abused often. AIs would be expected to have experienced less citizen contact due to their scholastic environment, and departmental instructors would have more citizen encounters because of the proximity to actual calls for service. However, over nine percent of AIs reported struggling for their lives often with a suspect, where less than six percent of departmental training officers reporting struggling for their lives, and no respondents reporting nearly always. Finally, sixty percent of police trainers reported that they had never been physically assaulted by a suspect that they were not trying to arrest.

Research Question 1

AIs are employed by the regional criminal justice academy and are responsible for the basic law enforcement certification of every police officer, sheriff’s deputy, and
highway patrol trooper in the state. AIs are also the sole provider of basic instructor
certification, and specific skills instructor certification for departmental and FTOs in the
state. AIs are bound by rigid and constant lesson plans that are established by the
academy and approved by the South Carolina Law Enforcement Training Council.
Independent instruction and certification may be obtained for some training disciplines,
but all lesson plans must be academy approved (SCLETC, 2015).

A regression analysis was performed to examine responses from surveyed AIs. This
simple regression analysis was conducted to compare the impact of perceptions of
public attitude towards police (PATP) that are held by AIs on use-of-force training.
There was a significant impact of ($R^2 = .280$) in use-of-force training by the perceptions
of PATP held by AIs at the $p<.05$ level, $F(1,31)= 12.05$, $p=.002$. These results suggest
that perceptions of negative public attitude have a 28% impact on the use-of-force
training provided by AIs. Although, 28% impact of use-of-force training by the
perceptions of public attitude towards police held by AIs is explained, the remaining 72
% is unexplained. This explained amount was found to be statistically significant with a
beta of . 372. This impact was moderately positive. This indicates as perceptions of
negative public attitude increases, so will its impact on use-of-force training. The
hypothesis that perceptions held by police trainers of PATP are influential to the
presentation of use-of-force training was accepted, and the null hypothesis rejected.

Research Question 2

Departmental training officers are employed by individual agencies and are
responsible for continuing education at the departmental agency. Departmental training
must also adhere to all academy standards. In addition, departmental trainers are responsible for all in-service instruction and basic familiarization of law enforcement principles to new hires at the departmental level, prior to academy attendance. Departmental training officers instruct and guide FTOs throughout the process of indoctrinating new recruits.

A regression analysis was performed to examine responses from surveyed departmental training officers. This simple regression analysis was conducted to compare the impact of perceptions of public attitude towards police (PATP) that are held by departmental training officers on use-of-force training. There was a significant impact of \( R^2 = .232 \) in use-of-force training by the perceptions of PATP held by departmental training officers at the \( p < .05 \). \( F(1,33) = 9.96, p = .003 \). These results suggest that perceptions of negative public attitude have a 23% impact on the use-of-force training provided by departmental training officers. These results suggest that perceptions of negative public attitude have a 23% impact on the use-of-force training provided by Departmental training officers. Although, 23% impact of use-of-force training by the perceptions of public attitude towards police held by departmental training officers is explained, the remaining 77 % is unexplained. This explained amount was found to be statistically significant with a beta of .357. This impact was moderately positive. This indicates as perceptions of negative public attitude increases, so will its impact on use-of-force training. The hypothesis that perceptions held by police trainers of PATP are influential to the presentation of use-of-force training was accepted, and the null hypothesis rejected.
Research Question 3

FTOs are working police officers employed by specific agencies. These officers are responsible for the on-the-job instruction provided to new recruits prior to academy attendance, and reinforcement of policy and procedure for a defined period post-academy graduation. Field trainers are responsible for the real life reinforcement of the skills and techniques that the new recruit had learned in a classroom setting. Field trainers are considered highly skilled at providing police services to the public, and usually are afforded some level of supervisory status. FTOs take their instruction from an initial academy instruction, and in-service training that is provided by the respective departmental trainers.

A regression analysis was performed to examine responses from surveyed FTOs. This simple regression analysis was conducted to compare the impact of perceptions of public attitude towards police (PATP) that are held by FTOs on use-of-force training. There was a significant impact of ($R^2 = .436$) in use-of-force training by the perceptions of PATP held by FTOs at the $p<.05$ level. $F(1,50)=38.71$, $p=.000$. These results suggest that perceptions of negative public attitude have a 43% impact on the use-of-force training provided by FTOs. Although, 43% impact of use-of-force training by the perceptions of public attitude towards police held by FTOs is explained, the remaining 57% is unexplained, this explained amount was found to be statistically significant with a beta of .651. This impact was substantially positive. This indicates as perceptions of negative public attitude increases, so will its impact on use-of-force training. The
hypothesis that perceptions held by police trainers of PATP are influential to the presentation of use-of-force training was accepted, and the null hypothesis rejected.

The theory of social conflict aligns attention to power inconsistencies, including those associated with race and class. Fisher et al. (2013) examined the influence of race and department size on community relations and perceptions of minority citizens, finding dissatisfaction with police activity. My research considered perceptions of use-of-force incidents involving minority suspects and victims, and the accuracy of details that fueled citizen protest. Regardless of validity, research questions 1-3 presented the substantial statistical presence of perceptions of media and citizen bias against police officers during the aftermath of high-profile use-of-force incidents. These perceptions represent the social conflict, legitimate or perceived, that exists in the law enforcement community.

Inconsideration of previous studies, Covington, Huff-Corzine, and Corzine (2014) described victimization of sworn law enforcement officers as a complex subject that has been lacking in most current studies. However, their study did present several risk factors that would be indicators of the likelihood of police officers being victimized. This regression analysis was grounded in Criminal Event Perspective (CEP) theory and utilized pre-existing data of incidents involving battering of police officers. My study involved Social Conflict, and involved self-reported data from police trainers. The Covington et al.(2014) study’s situational variables examined the propensity of police victimization, some of which included multiple officer response, gender of offender, and alcohol consumption of offender. The previous study showed over 90% likelihood that the situational context and suspect characteristics were indicators for violence against
police incidents, where my study presented perceptions of situational context to be nearly 50% consistently.

Research Question 4

In the quest for discovery and presentation of impacts of PATP on the perceptions of criminal justice AIs, DTOs, and FTOs towards use-of-force training, three areas of interests were derived from the literature contained in detail in chapter three. It was imperative that consideration be placed on elements of police work where public attitude was most present in an effort to highlight barriers that prevent public connection, enhancement of community ties, and the establishment of process-based policing initiatives (Myhill & Bradford, 2012). The study instrument for my research was purposed with collecting perceptions of PATP consisting of departmental leadership, media, and the public as held by the police trainers.

In addition to the importance of the discovery and presentation of perceptions held by police trainers, it was particularly important to highlight differences in perceptions between groups of police trainers. Significant mean differences were presented between groups of AIs, DTOs, and FTOs in several responses.

Significant differences were revealed within groups when considering the media’s constant negative portrayal of the profession in general. Additionally, individual group analysis found significant differences when respondents were probed on the media being too sympathetic to peaceful protesters. However, all of the above mentioned differences were not contradictory to the participant’s group perceptions, but were instead choices
available in agreement of various answers that were provided in the collection instrument.

A one-way-between groups ANOVA was conducted to compare the perceptions (IV) of use-of-force training (DV) between AIs, DTOs, and FTOs. The analysis produced a significant difference in perceptions of use-of-force training at the p< .05 level between the three groups of instructors F(2,117) = 5.26, p=.007. The mentioned statistical significance was confirmed and identified in a post hoc examination. A Tukey test revealed that the mean score for FTOs (M= 3.21, SD = .369) was significantly different than the AIs (M= 3.39, SD = .263) and departmental training officers (M= 3.41, SD = .286). This statistical difference in mean and standard deviation does not negate the impact of perceptions of PATP on use-of-force training by departmental training officers or AIs, but represents a substantially stronger positive impact of use-of-force training by perceptions of PATP on FTOs (Green & Salkind, 2009, p.62-70). The hypothesis that perceptions of PATP varies between the three types of instructors was accepted, and the null hypothesis rejected.

As presented, research has included only a few mentions of the usefulness of the value of perceptional training influences as a result of organizational factors. This research included training officer’s perceptions of their top and mid-level management’s support of use-of-force training and de-escalation training. Unlike existing studies, this research did not identify and measure organizational factors, but research questions 1-4 did verify the belief of an overwhelming support of management’s efforts in use-of-force
training. These findings would be consistent with organizational justice theory in part (Marenin, 2016).

Research has shown that police officers employ a type of occupational discretion in forceful situations. Understanding why police act as they do in situations of protest or criticism would require exploration into how cops respond to danger. According to Marenin (2016), real street police see danger as an aspect of their career that cannot be controlled or managed by policies or administration. Myhill and Bradford’s (2012) study was purposed with the examination of organizational justice and the officer’s attitude towards the public. Albeit contrary to perceptions of police trainers, their study presented connections between telling and hearing stories, and their role in shaping police behavior. Although auxiliary, my study presented a strong indication that police behavior, specifically; use-of-force training presented by police trainers is impacted by perceptions; including statistics of officer victimization and citizen protest. Additionally, the current study presented very high satisfaction ratings from participants towards their top, and mid-level management’s actions involving use-of-force training (Myhill & Bradford, 2012).

Implications

My research was purposed with the discovery and presentation of police training officer’s perceptions. These results support the limited research on perceptions that are held by police trainers as a result of PATP. This work represents an often overlooked area of police research. Perceptions and mindset of police trainers represents a facet that should be considered in contemplation of the reduction of societal dilemmas, including
tragic high-profile police shootings and the increasing line-of-duty death statistics of police officers. Alternative factors of Marx’s social conflict theory were presented in contradiction to the resistance to innovation and change (Coser, 1957). Elements of organizational justice, specifically distributive and procedural factors were presented by respondent’s perceptions of agency management. These alternatives may be used in conjunction with organizational factors when considering training modifications that may mitigate critical incidents involving police-citizens.

The results of my study presented a number of PATP as are currently perceived by police trainers. These perceptions should be addressed in an effort to improve the social context of citizen-police encounters. The majority of these perceptions fell into parameters of social conflict theory and organizational justice theory, to include the following: an adversarial relationship with opponents of the police, negative media portrayal of the law enforcement profession with regard to the coverage of peaceful protesters, and subordinate opinions of agency management’s efforts on complex policy matters.

The above mentioned areas would be an effective starting point for consideration by administrators, community stakeholders, and social researchers. Addressing the negative perceptions that exists in the police community would improve unity and allow more representation in the area of problem solving. Understanding perceptions of police officers would add to the current literature that has already considered public opinion, administrative views, and social justice advocates. There are a number of techniques that could be used as a platform for equal representation of the police profession when
troubleshooting societal conflict. Better communication and cooperation with media representatives prior to critical incidents, and community programs that include police officers and the general public would be an effective starting point. Media inclusion is a component that would facilitate understanding of the police-citizen conflict by providing transparency to adversaries and cynics. Partnering with media institutions would lend to support during crisis, and inclusion of the media in community-police programs would allow media outlets the opportunity for acquisition of real-estate with regards to being a part of the community. These efforts would facilitate upward communication of solutions for specific issues with all stakeholders, without diffusing negativity for an entire profession, while providing benefits to administrators and employees.

Recommendations for Future Research

When perceptions of police trainers are identified, aspects of use-of-force can be addressed. Administrators, community leaders, and stakeholders can direct their actions to address perceptions that are contrary to the police mission, and both citizen and police safety. Suggestions for future research would include the qualitative analysis of police trainers. Qualitative analysis of police trainers would provide specific views on the reported frustration, fear, and anger. Victim impact statements are considered the most accurate form of victim examination; however, the closed police culture would hinder the identification of trends that would only be produced in one-on-one inspection (FBI, 2015). The frequencies related to the verbal and physical victimization of participants in relation to frustration, fear, and anger, according to race and gender would provide sufficient usable information when compared to additional quantitative query.
In performing research in the law enforcement community, there are several factors that must be addressed. One issue is the closed culture of police professionals where outsiders are heavily scrutinized and rarely trusted. Administrators are often skeptical when faced with allowing outsiders the opportunity to conduct research for fear that information will be shared with their employees or outside venues. Education of police leaders, greater transparency, increased media-community relations, and improved communication between administrators and their departments would facilitate the needed social change by allaying societal conflict that is associated with use-of-force incidents involving police and the public.
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http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0886260515586358

10.1177/1477370814525935


http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/IJSSP-09-2012-0085


