

2019

African American Men's Deaths in the U.S. and Perceptions of Procedural Justice

Annette Woods Fields
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Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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Annette Woods Fields

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Walden University
2019

Abstract

African American Men's Deaths in the U.S. and Perceptions of Procedural Justice

by

Annette Woods Fields

MS, Troy University, 2012

BS, Georgia State University, 1992

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Walden University

August 2019

Abstract

African American men between the ages of 18-35 years are increasingly likely to die during arrests by police under the purview of procedural practices. Using procedural justice and critical race theory as the foundation, the purpose of this correlational study was to evaluate the statistical relationship between procedural justice, consent to police authority, and certain demographic characteristics including socioeconomic status and age in a large Metropolitan area in the southern United States. Survey data utilizing the Procedural Justice Inventory and Willingness to Submit to Police Authority Survey were collected from African American adult males ($n = 69$) and analyzed using least-squares regression. Regression analyses revealed a significant relationship between procedural justice and consent to police authority ($p < .05$). In addition, socioeconomic status and age were did not affect the relationship between procedural justice and consent to police authority ($p < .05$). Implementation of recommendations for training may provide police practitioners with the basis to develop training programs to affect behavioral outcomes of police. Following these recommendations may change the systemic relationship between the community and police. The findings of this study may also serve African American males by allowing them to take an introspective look at how they may react in certain statutory situations and taking positive actions as opposed to being reactive; thereby, possibly mitigating deaths during police interaction. The implications for positive social change afford community practitioners an opportunity to develop community programs that support individuals and communities to change systemic practices that foster procedural injustice.

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my late parents and sister: my mother and father, Mr. and Mrs. Mothaniel (Annie) Woods, Sr., and Ms. Wanda Lynne Woods. I also dedicate this dissertation to my loving and extremely supportive husband, Mr. Vernon Laselle Fields.

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I would like to extend my sincere appreciation and gratitude to my committee chairperson, Dr. Richard Worch, and committee methodologist, Dr. Victor Ferreros for their assistance and mentorship during the completion of my doctoral dissertation. This has been a wonderful and rewarding journey that has allowed me to grow as a person and better my life.

To all of the African American men in metro Atlanta, Georgia who have had undesirable and frightening experiences during police interaction whereas you may have feared for your lives, I am truly grateful for your participation in this study and the knowledge that you imparted to help make it successful. This study could not have been conducted without your willing participation and cooperation. It is because of your participation that I will forever be grateful to each of you for your assistance.

Finally, I would like to thank my late parents, Mr. and Mrs. Mothaniel (Annie) Woods, Sr., for inspiring me to be the best that I can be and encouraging me to pursue my Ph.D.; my late sister, Wanda, for being one of my best friends; my loving husband, Vernon; my sons, Jeffrey, Michael, Dominique Sr. and Darius; my daughters-in-law, Mia, Iman and Catrice; my grandchildren, Khi, D'Arrius, Breon, Dominique Jr., Dream, Tia, Ahmari, Zahniya and Jaidon; my siblings, Mothaniel Jr., Arthur, James Sr. and Angela, my in-laws, Mr. and Mrs. Vernon L. (Juanita) Fields, Sr.; my Godson, Mr. and Mr. Jerry (Raquel) Evans; my Goddaughters, Chanze, Hanna, Kennady, and Sharee; my best friends, Rose, Ann, and Tonnette; two special first cousins, Drs. Arvind and Patricia D'Souza; and my mentor, Dr. Jim, for loving me and supporting me on this journey.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Overview of the Study

African American (AA) men between the ages of 18 and 35 years are increasingly likely to die during arrests by police under the purview of procedural practices (U.S. Department of Justice, 2011). Questionable procedural actions deployed by police have resulted in numerous unarmed AA men dying during interaction with a police officer between 2012 and 2016 (Chaney & Robertson, 2013; Embrick, 2015; Gabbidon & Jordan, 2013; Stagers-Hakim, 2016; Weitzer, 2015). Unarmed AA males in this age group stand a higher chance of losing their lives during police interaction, with some scholars citing as much as 21 times higher (Gabrielson, Jones, & Sagara, 2014). Chaney and Robertson (2013) noted that racism, which is deeply embedded in society, has played an integral part in how certain groups of individuals are discriminated against and treated by law enforcement. As a result, AA men have begun to challenge those actions carried out under the purview of existing procedural practices by way of protests and refusal to consent to police authority (Dai, Frank, & Sun, 2011; Davenport, Soule, & Armstrong, 2011; Lawson, 2015; Marable & Mullings, 2015).

This study contributes to social change by contributing to the current literature on police reform and the role that procedural justice plays in encouraging AA men to willingly cooperate with and obey the police. This study also explored the level at which this social issue exists, as well as how and why it disproportionately affects a specific group of individuals. This problem impacts society because AA men continue to feel

devalued; this can result in them contesting police authority, creating tension with police in AA neighborhoods, and engaging in marches, protests, and riots that risk creating an even greater distrust of the police and division of the races (Engler, 2016; Gabbidon & Jordan, 2013; Gau, Corsaro, & Stewart, 2012; Lawson, 2015; Marable & Mullings, 2015). Understanding the root causes that underlie these tensions is the first step toward resolving these persistent conflicts. Critical race theory and procedural justice theory were applied as a framework by which to examine this complex issue. This study supports positive social change by contributing to the current literature on police reform and role that procedural justice plays in encouraging AA men to willingly cooperate with and obey the police.

Background of the Study

Early in the 20th century, instructors at police training academies began teaching human relations as a way to bring attention to relationships between the police and communities (Bayley & Mendelsohn, 1969; Radalet & Carter, 1994). This training was geared towards gaining more insight on group behavior, job efficiency, and collaboration in organizations (Radalet & Carter, 1994). Following World War II, interest in human relations training for law enforcement personnel and the communities they served began to emerge (Radalet & Carter, 1994). To improve their organization's interaction with the community, police administrators sent officers to summer workshops such as the National Conference of Christians and Jews (NCCJ; Radalet & Carter, 1994). Beginning in 1947, police officers enrolled in workshops to better understand human relations and

setting up and conducting training programs for their departments (Radalet & Carter, 1994). In 1954, the International Association of Chiefs of Police and the National Association of Intergroup Relations Officials also conducted training in Philadelphia geared towards police executives and professionals working in the field of human relations interested in gaining a better understanding of police-citizen relationships (Radalet & Carter, 1994).

In 1955, the National Institute on Police and Community Relations (NIPCR) was born out of the success of NCCJ and the Michigan State University School of Police Administration and Public Safety working together to bring attention to police-community relationships (Radalet & Carter, 1994). The training offered by NIPCR proved successful enough that, from 1955–1970, the 5-day conferences were held annually (Radalet & Carter, 1994). Both police officers and community leaders worked together to create similar programs for leadership at the local and state levels and to discuss the same and similar issues facing communities across the nation (Radalet & Carter, 1994). The training sparked conversations between law enforcement and criminal justice professionals about creating police-community relations programs on a national scale (Radalet & Carter, 1994).

Police brutality in the 1960s and 1970s occurred much more than it does today, because rarely was there talk of holding a police officer accountable for his actions as there is today. Individuals such as the Dr. Reverend Martin Luther King, Jr. and the Black Panther Organization fought against police violence and injustice, but it appeared

that the police during this time could do virtually whatever it wanted to do with no repercussions (Police Brutality Timeline, 2017). For AAs, the punishment for peacefully protesting racial injustice and inequality were brutal attacks by the police, such as the case of Bloody Sunday in Selma, Alabama on March 7, 1965 (Police Brutality Timeline, 2017). During Bloody Sunday, the Alabama State Police attacked approximately 300 AA Civil Rights Activists and marchers with bullwhips, night sticks, and tear gas, simply because they disagreed with their right to protest (Police Brutality Timeline, 2017). For AAs, it appeared that procedural justice did not exist.

Tyler's work on procedural justice in the 1990s laid the groundwork for interpretation of how procedural justice influenced citizen's willingness to obey the law. Past researchers have concluded that the following four factors must exist for an individual to determine if they have received procedural justice from authorities: (a) being treated with dignity and respect, (b) showing concern for a citizen and fair treatment, (c) remaining unbiased and neutral in decision-making, and (d) having a voice or say in the matter prior to authorities making a decision (Tyler, 1990).

Tyler and Huo (2002) found that different ethnic groups assessed police and judges not on the outcome of situations, but instead on the process utilized that led to the outcome. Tyler and Huo determined that AAs and Hispanics have the same concept about the procedural justice system as do Whites, but have different experiences with authorities. Those who felt that they may not be treated fairly by law enforcement were less likely to comply; however, one reason for compliance with police may be fear of

punishment and sanctions for not complying (Tyler & Huo, 2002). Further, researchers have consistently shown that procedural justice is more important to citizens than how effectively law enforcement perform their duties (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Tyler & Huo, 2002).

From the 1970s to the 2000s, although police brutality was still occurring, it appeared to occur less. There were cases of police beating Blacks and killing Blacks and Blacks still protested, but it was more localized in the states (Police Brutality Timeline, 2017). Police weapons of choice against Blacks were fists, pistol barrels, flashlights, billy clubs, stun guns, and hot water, to name a few; however, police still were not prosecuted for their illegal actions (Police Brutality Timeline, 2017). From the 2000s to present day, not much has changed. AAs still suffer the fate of police brutality and police killings at the hands of the police with no justice in sight (Police Brutality Timeline, 2017). Due the advancement in technology and the use of cell phones and video, the media has brought national attention the recent killings of young, unarmed AA men such as John Crawford III (2014), Ezell Ford (2014), Eric Garner (2014), Akai Gurley (2014), Tamir Rice (2014), Freddie Gray (2015), Walter Scott (2015), Philando Castille (2016), Alton Sterling (2016), and Quah & Davis (2017) to name a few. Most of the victims are millennial AA men, and all were unarmed and killed during police interaction. The majority died during officer-involved shootings. Most officers responsible for the killings have been exonerated, except in the case of Walter Scott. The officer who killed Walter Scott was convicted of 2nd degree murder and sentenced to 20 years in prison on

December 7, 2017 for violating Scott's civil rights by unlawfully shooting him in April 2015 (Blinder, 2017). These shootings sparked national outrage by AAs who found themselves supported by other races, and protest erupted in most major cities nationwide.

The shooting death of Michael Brown, who was unarmed, at the hands of police in Ferguson, Missouri in 2014 led to unrest, mass demonstrations, and protests nationwide by angry AAs, who were at times supported by other races. The huge outcry against what was perceived as social injustice, racial discrimination, and a rise in police killings of unarmed AA men led to the creation of The President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing by President Barack Obama, whose task was to address the tensions and issues between police and citizens and develop resolutions (Klinger, Rosenfeld, Isom, & Deckard, 2016; U.S. Department of Justice, 2014). In addition, the task force required that more information on officer-involved shootings and citizens' perceptions of police be provided, as well as the removal of policies that positively recognize police for the high number of arrests and convictions they obtain (U.S. Department of Justice, 2014).

Klinger et al. (2016) conducted a study to determine the use of firearms by law enforcement by examining cases in St. Louis, Missouri from 2003-2012. The researchers concluded that most officer-involved shootings did not happen in locations necessarily based on race and high crime, but instead more police shootings occurred in areas of midlevel crime (Klinger et al., 2016). Klinger et al. suggested that a national officer-involved shooting database be created that tracked both the shootings of citizens and the shootings of police to include race, type of weapon used, injuries, fatalities,

circumstances of the shooting as a means of keeping detailed records on all shootings nationally.

Chaney and Robertson (2013) examined the findings from the National Police Misconduct Statistics and Reporting Project between 2009 and 2010 and interviewed 36 respondents. The researchers concluded that police brutality was high, many AAs had a strong contempt for police, and that many AAs were very suspicious of them.

Embrick (2015) discussed the blatant disregard for AA men, with the recent murders by policemen across the nation and the escalation of police brutality and violent acts against economically challenged people of color in a supposed period of colorblindness. Colorblindness purports that a person's race should not matter when making a decision in society even as it relates to decisions made by law enforcement, sprung out of the critical race theory advanced by the late Derrick Bell, originator of the critical race theory. Embrick further discussed these acts as a method of social control that highlights the differences between the races in which one is privileged (Whites), and the others' rights are trampled (AA men).

Police problems with community relations have led to a rise in the killing of AA men between the ages of 18 and 35 years during arrests under the purview of procedural practices (U.S. Department of Justice, 2011). This highlights a problem of questionable procedural action deployed by police, which has resulted in numerous AA men dying during an interaction with a police officer (Chaney & Robertson, 2013; Embrick, 2015; Weitzer, 2015). Also, according to Chaney and Robertson (2013), racism has played an

integral part in how certain groups of individuals are discriminated against and treated by law enforcement. As a result, AA men have begun to challenge those actions carried out under the purview of existing procedural practices by way of protests, and refusal to consent to police authority (Dai et al., 2011; Davenport et al., 2011).

Currently, some police departments throughout the country are using body cameras and discussing police reform and retraining police (Drover & Ariel, 2015). However, even with body cameras and additional training, AA men are still dying at the hands of police by way of excessive force. Current research on the topic is dated, and gaps exist in the literature, as no studies address perceptions of procedural justice and treatment by the police involving deaths of unarmed, AA males correlated with consent to police officer authority exist. Again, understanding the root causes of why unarmed AA men are losing their lives during police interaction was the basis for this study of AA men's views on procedural justice correlated with consent to police officer authority, and is the first step toward resolving these persistent conflicts.

Problem Statement

Researchers have shown a relationship between race, education, and gender regarding interactions with police during traffic stops, racial profiling, and other criminal activity, but there are no studies involving the loss of life of unarmed, AA men while detained or under arrest. The problem is that more unarmed, AA men, as opposed to unarmed White men or Hispanic men, are killed at a rate of 2-3 times higher than other ethnic groups (Buehler, 2017; Swaine, Laughland & Lartey, 2015; Weitzer, 2015). The

research problem examined the relationship between AA males' views of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority. It also examined whether socioeconomic status (SES) and age moderated the relationship. The study was developed to address why the systemic killing of unarmed AA men is happening and offer criminal justice policy makers some ideas about how to improve police-citizen relationships and minimize the deaths.

Many researchers have examined the relationship between procedural justice and willingness to submit to police authority. For example, White, Mulvey, and Dario (2016) conducted a quantitative study examining the “robustness of the relationship between procedural justice, police legitimacy, and the willingness to cooperate with the police involving female adult arrestees” (p. 343). The data were collected from interviews with 1,262 participants in Maricopa County, Arizona from June 2011 to May 2012, based on the time they were booked (White et al., 2016). Participants were asked to complete the core Arizona Arrestee Reporting Information Network instrument, which collects a variety of self-report data on an individual's background, demographics, and several individual-level attributes (White et al., 2016). The independent variable was procedural justice (White et al., 2016). The dependent variables were police legitimacy and willingness to cooperate with police. The covariates were age, sex, race/ethnicity, education, employment, and prior police contacts. Linear regression was used to test the relationship between the variables (White et al., 2016).

Researchers concluded arrestees' perceptions are directly related to police legitimacy, and Blacks had a stronger unfavorable view of police than Whites and Hispanics. This is consistent with the findings of previous researchers, who found that legitimacy is tied to procedural justice, which affects willingness to consent to police authority; however, inconsistent with other studies, the researchers concluded that race/ethnicity was not related to cooperating with the police (White et al., 2016).

Baker et al. (2015) conducted a quantitative study examining the relationship between voice, shared race/ethnicity, procedural justice, obligation to obey the law, and the relationship between inmates' perceptions of procedural justice in court proceedings based on the racial makeup of the court officials. Data were collected in one day from 554 female inmates who were Black, White, and Hispanic via a Likert scale survey by graduate students. Inmates were allowed up to 45 minutes to take the survey. The dependent variable was procedural justice, and the independent variable was shared race; the mediator variable was court procedural justice. The control variables were type of attorney, marital status, and age. Researchers used an ordinary least squares regression model to test the effect of voice and shared race/ethnicity with each court actor on perceptions of court proceedings and voice, and shared race/ethnicity and procedural justice on obligation to obey the law (Baker et al., 2015).

Researchers showed a strong relationship between voice and perceptions of procedural justice (Baker et al., 2015). Whites perceive the court system to be fairer when they were the same race as the court actor; however, Blacks and Hispanics

perceived more fairness if the court actor was a minority (Baker et al., 2015). In addition, there is also a strong link between procedural justice and the obligation to obey the law (Baker et al., 2015). Given that the relationship between female attitudes toward procedural justice and intent to obey is supported, it is important to build from this research to discover if AA males generate similar results.

The main two variables used in the study were attitudes toward procedural justice and willingness to submit to police authority. The dependent variable was willingness to submit to police authority, and the predictor variable was attitudes toward procedural justice. It was expected that a positive relationship will exist between the two variables. This meant that as attitudes toward procedural justice increase, willingness to submit to police authority linearly increase. SES and age were specified as control variables. The control variables are considered interaction terms, meaning that the strength of the relationship between procedural justice and willingness to submit may depend on SES and age.

Research has not been found on millennial AA attitudes toward procedural justice and willingness to submit to police authority. More unarmed, young men of color between the ages of 18-35 years are losing their lives than any other age group in the United States and more than any other ethnic group in the United States (Swaine et al., 2015; Weitzer, 2015). Therefore, it was necessary to conduct research on this group of millennial men to gather information as to why there is a high rate of incidence lives lost, and I believed that the answer and possible solution to this social and health crisis may lie

with the affected community of individuals themselves. Results gathered have the potential to inform policy and guide social change.

Further, Nix, Wolfe, Rojek and Kaminski (2014) conducted a quantitative study examining the relationship between respondents' perceptions of collective efficacy and the trust in police. Authors used participants who belonged to specific neighborhoods, and the sample included both AAs and Caucasians. The dependent variable was trust in the police, and the independent variables were procedural justice and perceived collective efficacy. The control variables consisted of age, gender, race, education, and the dummy variables were lower crime neighborhood, citizen-initiated contact, no police contact, and police-initiated contact. Findings concluded citizens who believed that collective efficacy did in fact exist in their neighborhoods tended to believe that the police treated them fairly. However, those individuals who believed that collective efficacy did not exist, tended to believe the police were more unfair. Researchers also found that past experiences with police, demographics and past victimization did not moderate these opinions of the police (Nix et al., 2014).

Purpose of the Study

The wider research problem that provided the foundation of this study was that an increase in unarmed AA deaths after confrontation or interaction with police has been observed. This increase in deaths has led to greater unrest, marches, protests, anger, hostility and further distrust of the police in the AA community; this is perceived to be due to racial injustice. Correlational studies have been conducted on the topic, but no

specific study has examined the relationship between AA millennial men attitudes toward procedural justice and willingness to submit to police authority. A quantitative study provides the means to investigate this relationship and fill the gap in the literature on the topic.

Based on research and theory, researchers have suggested that a relationship between attitudes toward procedural justice and willingness to submit to policy authority exists (Baker et al., 2015; Gau et al., 2012; Jackson et al., 2011; Johnathan-Zamir et al., 2013; White et al., 2016). As such, it was anticipated that AA millennial attitudes toward procedural justice would positively relate to willingness to submit to police authority. This meant that as attitudes in procedural justice increases, willingness to submit to police authority would increase linearly. Also, I expected to discover some reasoning as to why these attitudes exist and what solutions can be offered to guide policy creation that can aid in minimizing these deaths and create positive and trusting police-citizen relationships.

A review of the literature revealed that few studies have been conducted on the connection between police use of deadly force and the willingness of AA men to consent to police authority in the United States. This contemporary phenomenon may be responsible for the increase in deaths of unarmed AA men as opposed to other ethnic groups. The purpose of this quantitative study was to gain a better understanding of AA men's perception of procedural justice and treatment by the police involving arrest-related deaths.

In an effort to establish better citizen-police relations and reduce the number of deaths involving unarmed AA males, it was imperative to conduct a quantitative study to gain a better understanding of why these young men are losing their lives, and to explore the possibility that these outcomes may be influenced by their willingness to obey police officer authority. Data gathered in this study could be used to retrain officers and offer policy guidance on how to build stronger and reputable relationships with young AA men. The variables studied using quantitative statistical analysis were the perception of the procedural justice system (independent variable/predictor variable) and the consent to police authority (dependent variable). The control variables were SES and age.

Research Questions

RQ1: What is the relationship between procedural justice viewed by African American millennial men and consent to police officer authority?

RQ2: How does millennial African American male's socioeconomic status affect the relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority?

RQ3: How does millennial African American male's age affect the relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority?

Hypotheses

Following are the alternative and null hypotheses used in the study. The variables that were studied via a survey/questionnaire using quantitative statistical analysis were

the perception of the procedural justice system (independent variable/predictor variable) and the consent to police authority (dependent variable). The control variables were SES and age.

H_01 : There is a relationship between procedural justice viewed by African American males (AAM) and consent to police officer authority

H_A1 : There is no relationship between procedural justice viewed by African American males (AAM) and consent to police officer authority

- DV: Consent to police officer authority
- Predictor Variable (PV): African American male's (AAM) perception of procedural justice system

H_02 : There is a relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority after controlling for African American male's (AAM) socioeconomic status

H_A2 : There is no relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority after controlling for African American males' (AAM) socioeconomic status

- DV: Consent to police officer authority
- Predictor Variable (PV): African American males (AAM) perception of procedural justice system
- Control Variable: African American male's (AAM) socioeconomic status

H_{03} : African American male's (AAM) age does not affect the relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority

H_{A3} : African American male's (AAM) age does affect the relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority

- DV: Consent to police officer authority
- Predictor Variable (PV): African American male's (AAM) perception of procedural justice system

Control Variable: African American male's (AAM) age

Perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority were measured via a validated Likert type survey. SES and age were collected via the demographic survey. Both variables were measured via a Likert-type survey.

Theoretical Framework

The researchers examined the phenomenon under study through the lenses of critical race theory (CRT) and procedural justice theory (PJT). Both theories provide a useful framework on which to establish an understanding between the variables in question. "Critical race theory expresses skepticism toward dominant legal claims of neutrality, objectivity, colorblindness, and meritocracy" (Brooms & Perry, 2016, p. 170). CRT looks at what steps can be taken to improve race relations between the majority and subordinate classes to eradicate racism. The PJT is based on fairness and equity. "If people in authority...behave fairly and respectfully to those they direct, the latter will

regard the authority of the former as legitimate, they will defer to this authority, and they will justify the power that the authority figure wields” (Jackson et al., 2011, p. 10).

These theories help explain existing power structures and address inequities in fairness and having a voice in matters as they relate to procedural justice, and compliance with police. CRT and PJT cumulatively address the research questions and hypotheses for this study by addressing the effects of the role of White supremacy, racial domination and oppression of people of color in society and the expected fairness in criminal justice and judicial processes to treat all humankind justly and equally.

Critical Race Theory

The major theoretical propositions of CRT purported by Bell (1992, 1995), Crenshaw (1995), Matsuda, Lawrence, Delgado, and Crenshaw (1993) and their CRT colleagues are that racism is a normal reaction by the dominant race in society and is historically enshrined in American culture. CRT should work to bring an end to all oppressive forms of government, which marginalize people of color, putting in writing and sharing the experiences of people of color are important in creating and reforming current law seen as discriminatory and racially oppressive, White supremacy and White privilege are the products of racism and must be uprooted to reveal their true meaning, racism can only be eradicated through social platforms and programs aimed at bettering the lives of the oppressed, understanding the history of racism is important in effecting changes in the current laws and policies that affect people of color, and that CRT is highly critical of supposed legal claims of fairness for all people.

CRT purports that White supremacy and White privilege are woven into the American fabric and its legal system, and that the laws that this country was founded upon, including current laws, have allowed the White race to dominate and marginalize people of color (Bell, 1992, 1995; Mitchell & Stewart, 2013).

CRT was first introduced in the 1980s by late attorney and legal scholar, Derrick Bell, who is viewed as the Godfather of CRT, and Alan Freeman. Bell (1992) pushed back against scholars who only focused on colorblindness and discrimination of AAs, and believed that racial inequalities suffered by people of color deserved more attention (Bell, 1992, 1995; Crenshaw, 1993). CRT is applicable to this research study because it addresses the racial discrimination that AA millennial men experience in the American criminal justice system.

Procedural Justice Theory (PJT)

PJT emphasizes the idea of treating individuals fairly and equally when resolving issues as it relates to citizen-police interactions. The major theoretical propositions of PJT purported by Tyler (1990) are that having a voice in decision-making is important, information sharing, feedback, and protection of self-interests is important, and fairness, honesty, neutrality and judgment in decision making affects individuals' attitudes and perceptions. Dai et al. (2011) used the PJT framework to explain what compelled citizens to comply with police requests during an interaction. The PJT is also pertinent to this research study because it deals directly with equality and fairness in the criminal justice system that some AA millennial men complain about not receiving.

Jackson et al. (2011) conducted a study to determine if the way respondents perceived collective efficacy in any way influenced their trust levels in the police, and if their perceptions of their neighborhoods help in shaping these attitudes. The researchers applied PJT by asking questions such as “Are people more likely to comply with the law, and to cooperate with the justice system, when they regard criminal justice institutions as legitimate?” and “Does legitimacy affect compliance and cooperation with the police and the courts?” (Jackson et al., 2011, pp. 10-11).

Nature of the Study

A quantitative study involving a correlational cross-sectional research design was chosen for this research study. I investigated if a correlation between AAM’s perception of procedural justice (independent variable/predictor variable) and the consent to police authority (dependent variable) exists. The procedural justice system was defined as a criminal justice system that must consistently demonstrate its legitimacy to the public it serves. The variable was continuously scaled, meaning that there was a perceived relationship between response options. Consent to police authority was defined as the likelihood of an individual to submit to police authority. The variable was continuously scaled, meaning that there was a perceived relationship between response options.

The control variables were SES and age. This means that SES was expected to affect the relationship between procedural justice and willingness to submit to police authority. The variable was continuously scaled, meaning that there is a perceived relationship between response options. Similarly, age was also presumed to affect the

relationship between procedural justice and willingness to submit to police authority.

The variable was also continuously scaled.

Data were collected by way of a validated procedural justice instrument (Likert scale survey/questionnaire) utilizing SurveyMonkey to survey a nationally representative sample of AAM men between the ages of 18-35 years. Semantic responses to the Likert scale survey were quantified from 1-6 (*strongly disagree, disagree, slightly disagree, slightly agree, agree, strongly agree*) and descriptive statistics were used to report findings.

Approximately 68 AAM men were needed to test the three hypotheses and to achieve power at .80 or above. The research design, methodology, and instrument chosen allowed me to obtain reasonable and valid responses to the research question and gain insight into the phenomena, which is the rise in the deaths of AAM men during police interaction, and to support the critical race and procedural justice theories used to frame this study.

Regarding perceptions of procedural justice, MacDonald, Stokes, Ridgeway, and Riley (2007) conducted a quantitative correlational cross-sectional study examining the relationship between race, neighborhood context and perceptions of injustice by the police. Data were collected from 2002 respondents living within one of the 53 neighborhoods located within the city of Cincinnati, Ohio, via random digit dialing (MacDonald et al., 2007). Those respondents age 18 years or older signifying that they lived within one of the 53 neighborhoods were selected to take the survey (MacDonald et

al., 2007). The Likert scale survey was designed to measure perceived injustice by the police and perceived racially biased policing. Covariate variables included age and SES (education, employment and household income; MacDonald et al., 2007).

Researchers concluded that Blacks differed significantly from Whites in their perceptions about injustice by police even after taking into account that both races lived in the same or similar neighborhoods (MacDonald et al., 2007). Blacks tended to believe that police treated them more unfairly than Whites and that they experienced higher levels of racially biased police practices compared to Whites (MacDonald et al., 2007). In addition, younger people were significantly more likely to complain of racial injustice by police than older participants in the study (MacDonald et al., 2007).

Operational Definitions

Consent to police authority: The likelihood of an individual to submit to police authority. Some individuals do not believe in their government, or in the laws they put in place. Others do not believe in any government, and thereby reject the imposition of criminal law (Morreall, 1976).

Procedural justice: Perceived fairness in the legal processes that serve to resolve disputes and distribute resources (Tyler & Blader, 2003).

Socioeconomic status: An individual or “group position within a hierarchical social structure. Socioeconomic status depends on a combination of variables, including occupation, education, income, wealth, and place of residence” (American Psychological Association, 2012, p. 4).

Assumptions

It is postulated that the “quantitative approach is objective and relies heavily on statistics and figures” (Jean Lee, 1992, p. 88). In the application of this approach, the researcher is seen as peripheral to the study with very little interaction with participants. Under the positivist approach, researchers discover and reveal knowledge (Jean Lee, 1992). Researchers have the skills that afford them the ability to answer their questions accurately and scientifically (Jean Lee, 1992). With regards to the anti-positivist, the social world is explained by studying and observing the participants in real time whereas the researcher is heavily involved with participants and the study is subjective (Jean Lee, 1992). This study accepts Jean Lee’s conclusion that both research approaches have merit; however, this study is premised on the assumption that quantitative research methodology is an acceptable and suitable methodology for this study. Therefore, this study assumes the positivist approach and utilizes survey methodology and data collection to address the phenomenon being studied to get to the truth (Jean Lee, 1992).

The positivism approach works best when the goal is to “seek to explain and predict what happens in the social world by searching for regularities and causal relationships between its constituent elements” to make predictions about the social world (Jean Lee, 1992, p. 90). In contrast, the anti-positivist “attempts to understand the world from the respondents’ frame of reference and believes that the researcher can best come to know the reality by being there,” and personally becoming a part of the study

(Jean Lee, 1992, P. 91). In this case, the former theoretical position better aligned with the goal of the study.

It was assumed that (a) the theoretical foundation was accurate and reflected the phenomena studied, (b) survey questions accurately measured the construct of procedural justice, (c) participants would freely participate and be honest in their responses, (d) sample size was large enough, and (e) statistical test was appropriate. The CRT and PJT were assumed to be the proper depiction of the phenomena being studied. Therefore, the results of this study are restricted by the validity of the theoretical framework to mirror the phenomena of CRT and PJT.

It was also assumed that the survey questions used would encourage participants to freely respond to the questions. It was assumed that each individual would be a willing participant. Respondents were given the option to participate in the study voluntarily and remain anonymous which increased the probability that the participants would respond honestly. Therefore, I assumed that participants would respond honestly and objectively.

It was also assumed that the convenience sampling technique would produce a sample that would be representative. In spite of the obvious limitations associated with convenience sampling, this sampling methodology provides an opportunity to gather data from participants that reflect or replicate the population being studied. Random sampling is functionally difficult to obtain in most social research studies. Accordingly,

convenience sampling methodology provides the means to collect a sample from a population that is not easily identified or wholly organized.

For this study, millennial AA men can be somewhat quantified, but not necessarily physically identified given the scope of the group and their geographic distribution. Moreover, it was assumed that the number of participants chosen to participate in the study adequately reflected the act of procedural justice in the population. Finally, it was assumed that a correlational analysis accurately tested the hypothesized relationships.

Scope

The scope of the study involved AA millennial males. Millennials were chosen given the generational values they hold and likelihood to question authority. Harris (1998) purported that the prefrontal cortex in young adults is designed to question authority during this developmental phase of life. Essentially, the developing brain is testing the parameters of its logic when rebelling against authority. Concrete or absolute perceptions about life evolve to embrace and explore the world in abstract terms.

As such, the population of the study encompassed all AA millennials in the metropolitan Atlanta, Georgia area. However, the scope of the sample was limited to a sample maintained by SurveyMonkey. The sample was assumed to be a representation of the population at large. The scope of the project was also limited to perceptions of procedural justice and willingness to submit to authority. The focus was born from the increase in AA males' deaths that have occurred recently during interaction with police.

The study design chosen was a quantitative approach, which lessens the effect of researcher bias. In other words, the chance of researcher bias influencing research findings was lessened. Also, the study relied on validated and reliable instruments, which decreased the chance of measuring latent constructs that were not part of the variables under study. However, it is imperative to understand why police deploy excessive force when dealing with unarmed AA millennial men who pose no threat to retrain law enforcement, inform policymakers and researchers, thus working to minimize deaths (Bolton & Feagin, 2004).

Delimitations

AA males between the ages of 18 and 35 years were asked to participate in the study. This group is considered to be in the millennial generation. Only millennials were investigated to reduce the likelihood of other generational attitudes affecting the outcome of the study. The study was limited only to AA male millennials in metropolitan Atlanta, Georgia. Further, only a defined and validated survey was used to assess participant's attitudes about procedural justice. Also, a correlational design was used to reduce the effect of researcher bias and other factors that may affect outcome.

This study did compare how race affects the relationship between procedural justice and willingness to submit to police authority. This meant that Caucasian and AAs were not compared. Finally, this study did not explore AA millennial males' inner feelings via a qualitative component. Although rich data may be accessible via open-ended interviews, the data were not collected.

Limitations

Possible constraints of the study include sampling technique, inferential statistics, and type of statistical analysis utilized. Utilization of the convenience sampling technique may hinder the ability to generalize to the broader population. However, I assumed that the targeted sample was a representative sample of the population being studied. Limitations to external validity involve generalizability, experimenter effects, specificity of variables and operationalization of definitions. Limitations of internal validity involve history, selection bias and regression to the mean. Limitations of construct validity involve choosing a poor survey instrument that does not measure what it is intended to measure.

Inferential statistics were utilized to draw conclusions which increases the likelihood of committing a Type I error existed. A Type I error is the rejection of a true null hypothesis. The technique draws from the general linear model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), which requires certain assumptions are met. Since human error is a condition of life, 100% accuracy of data collection and manipulation cannot be guaranteed. As such, even though statistical assumptions were met, they may not reflect the true properties of the data.

To alleviate this issue, the confidence level to determine acceptance of the null hypothesis was set at .05. This meant that the probability of error will be less than 5%. Lastly, the nature of the variables tends to limit generalizability in correlational designs. The independent and dependent variables in the study were already predefined by nature.

Therefore, a true experiment utilizing random assignment was not utilized. Therefore, only correlation can be deduced from the results of the study as opposed to causation.

Participants were drawn from panels maintained by SurveyMonkey. These panels are purported by SurveyMonkey to be representative of the specific population selected. However, these panels are obtained by encouraging computer literate individuals to participate in exchange for a charitable contribution. As such, participants may not fully reflect the population under study. In addition, correlational research does not yield cause and effect. This means that proof that a relationship between the two specified variables cannot be inferred.

I am and identify with the AA race. As such, intrinsic and extrinsic philosophies and sensibilities align with the nature of the study. Given this, natural biases may be woven into the fabric of this study. However, all standard research protocols were used to describe and discuss components of this paper, including the use of properly sourced peer-reviewed journal articles. I attempted to consciously maintain diligence from allowing biases to seep into the study. This effort was supported by the fact that a quantitative study was used, and rigorous statistical protocols were followed to generate findings that are not affected by my feelings.

Significance of the Study

This study contributes to social change by contributing to the current literature on police reform and role that procedural justice plays in encouraging AA men to willingly cooperate with and obey the police. Findings help researchers and policymakers

understand the level at which the phenomenon is increasing relative to a specific group of individuals regarding treatment by police from the critical race and procedural justice perspectives. This study was imperative to gain a better perspective from the group affected, namely AA men, as to why this problem persists in the United States regarding excessive use of deadly force.

Results from this study lead to positive social change that can be affected by creation of public policy requiring mandatory annual ethics training, cultural sensitivity training, and annual re-training of law enforcement personnel needed to improve the relationship between this group and AA men, which can aid in finding the middle ground in treating individuals in a fair and respectable manner while effectively working to reduce deaths, violence, and crime.

This study was needed to understand what the relationship is between AA millennial males' perceptions of procedural justice and consent to police authority. Current research on the topic is dated, and gaps exist in the literature. AA males have been increasingly combative due to cultural and economic divisions in the country. For example, in 2007, Cohen, Celestine-Michener, Holmes, Merseth, and Ralph reported AA millennials feel that "the United States isn't a fair country" (p. 2). Their perspectives and voice have not only been absent from public-policy debates, but also academic research.

More and more, both researchers and policymakers have been content to marginalize the behavior of young Black people with little concern for their "attitudes, ideas, wants, and desires" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 3). This divide may provide the impetus

for AA millennials to act out in ways that sacrificially disrupt the status quo. Data were collected by way of a validated procedural justice instrument from a non-random convenient sample of AA men between the ages of 18-35 years. This population is, perhaps, one of the most affected by the current breakdown in race relations and police-public trust. Findings provide information about these attitudes that could affect public and private policy.

Summary and Transition

Questionable procedural action by police has resulted in numerous AA men dying during an interaction with a police officer (Chaney & Robertson, 2013; Embrick, 2015; Weitzer, 2015). As a result, AA men have begun to challenge actions carried out under the purview of existing procedural practices by way of protests, and refusal to consent to police authority (Dai et al., 2011; Davenport et al., 2011). Currently, some police departments throughout the country are using body cameras and discussing police reform and re-training police (Drover & Ariel, 2015). However, even with body cameras and additional training, AA men are still dying at the hands of police by way of excessive force.

There is a need to gain a better understanding, establish better citizen-police relations and to minimize the number of deaths involving unarmed AA millennial males during police interaction; therefore, this research study was critical in gaining insight into why these young men are losing their lives and to explore the possibility that these outcomes may be influenced by their willingness to obey police officer authority. Data

gathered are helpful in retraining officers and offering policy guidance on how to establish better relationships with young AA millennial men.

A quantitative correlational study was used to address the research questions and subsequent hypotheses. Approximately 200 AA millennial males were targeted to respond to a series of survey questions related to procedural justice, willingness to submit to police authority, and demographics. Participants completed the survey online via a SurveyMonkey platform. Data were coded and analyzed using correlational statistics.

Chapter 2 outlines the background literature on which this study expounds, and Chapter 3 provides a detailed discussion of the research design and methodology used to conduct the study, as well as the type of data to be collected, research instrument, and consent forms used to obtain permission from participants.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

There is a problem in the United States with the killing of unarmed, AA males between the ages of 18 and 35 years during arrests by police under the purview of procedural practices (U.S. Department of Justice, 2011). That problem, specifically, stems from questionable procedural action deployed by police, resulting in numerous AA males dying during interactions with police between 2012 and 2016 (Chaney & Robertson, 2013; Embrick, 2015; Swaine et al., 2015; Weitzer, 2015). As a result, AA males have begun to challenge actions carried out by police under the purview of existing procedural practices by way of protests and refusal to consent to police authority (Dai et al., 2011; Davenport et al., 2011). Given the challenges arising from the AA male community, the existing unfair procedural practices, AA males refusing to consent to police authority, and the few studies relating to the exact keyword search criteria, this research is timely and prudent to current public policy (Dai et al., 2011; Davenport et al., 2011).

A review of the literature revealed that few studies have examined race, police brutality, perceptions and the unwillingness of AA males to consent to police authority in the United States, or how these factors may lead to an increase in deaths. The purpose of this quantitative study was to gain a better understanding of AA males' perceptions of procedural justice and treatment by the police involving arrest-related deaths viewed as negative and unfair. Survey data gathered contributed to developing this understanding.

Nix et al. (2014) recommended “exploring the consequences of trust, cooperation and compliance” during police interaction (pp. 632-33). Jackson et al. (2011) recommended “examining whether relationships of socially expected behaviors are more important than instrumental ones in shaping compliance with the law” (p. 11). This study was developed as a partial response to those recommendations.

Search strategies for the development of the literature review included searching scholarly databases and seminal literature for past and current research that contributed to an understanding of the problem under study and the associated research questions and hypotheses. Themes identified during the research process include police perceptions, racism, police brutality, police legitimacy and trust, police misconduct and police killings of unarmed AAs, especially men (Brooms & Perry, 2015; Chaney & Robertson, 2015; Nix et al., 2014; Jackson et al., 2011). A review of potential theoretical frameworks included consideration of CRT, PJT, group value model, social disorganization theory, critical criminology, community accountability theory, group engagement theory, group position theory, racial threat theory, comparative conflict theory, broken windows theory, and conflict theory.

The keyword search using Google Scholar and the Walden Library revealed the above themes, but simultaneously revealed a gap in the literature: no studies address perceptions of procedural justice and treatment by the police involving deaths of unarmed, AA males correlated consent to police officer authority. Supporting this research design and by identifying the gap in the literature, both CRT and PJT were

chosen theoretical frameworks. CRT and PJT cumulatively address the research questions and hypotheses for this study by addressing the effects of the role of White supremacy, racial domination and oppression of people of color in society and the expected fairness in criminal justice and judicial processes to treat all humankind justly and equally.

Organization of the Literature Review

This chapter provides a review and synthesis of the scholarly literature as it pertains to the research questions and hypotheses, as well as existing research facts and findings. The literature review is divided into three major sections. The first section introduces the problem statement, theoretical framework, and sources searched. The second section lays out the literature review, both scholarly and non-peer reviewed sources, that offered support for the study's research questions and hypotheses, as well as variables selected to measure. The third section concludes with different methodologies used in the field to research similar topics. The following historical perspectives lay out the literature review section of the chapter.

Dai et al. (2011) found that police who treated citizens fairly, respectfully, and allowed them to have a voice were viewed more favorably by citizens leading to more cooperation with police requests. The researchers recommended moving from focusing on citizens' subjective evaluations of police behaviors to more comprehensive evaluations of police procedures. Gau et al. (2012) found that AAs and Latinos were more likely to be stopped by police both inside and outside of their communities, and that

the context (middle-class or urban) of the neighborhood had no bearing on the stop. The researchers recommended examining if neighborhood context impacts the legitimacy of police and integrating the PJT when considering macro and micro level impacts on procedural justice and perceptions of police contact (Gau et al., 2012).

Similar to Gau et al. (2012), Schuck and Martin (2013) also examined community context as it relates to procedural justice to determine if race, type of police contact, and location had any effect on citizen behavior and perceptions of procedural justice. The researcher recommended additional research on police contacts in communities and embracing the fairness and effectiveness model holding police accountable (Schuck & Martin, 2013). Nix et al. (2014) examined the influence of procedural justice and neighborhood cohesion on trusting the police. The researchers recommended researching compliance with the police and its relationship to trusting the police (Nix et al., 2014).

Chaney and Robertson (2015) discussed recent cases involving the deaths of unarmed Black men in the United States. The researchers noted that Black men have been marginalized and dehumanized for decades and the killings must stop. The research conducted in 2013, 2014, and 2015 provided validation for the study, which is why the design and frameworks for this study were chosen.

Scope of Review, Databases, Search Terms

The scope of the literature review covers a span of five years from 2011-2016 covering procedural justice, police legitimacy, racial bias and discrimination, racial profiling, and the killings of unarmed AA males. Seminal literature for the theoretical

perspective dates to the 1980s, with the introduction of the CRT by scholar Derrick Bell and the introduction of the PJT by author and researcher Tom Tyler. Collectively, the CRT and PJT framework set the foundation for the current study to offer an explanation for why citizen-police issues exist still today based on White dominance, the perceived unfairness and disparity between the races, as well as, the need to respect and treat all citizens fairly during police interactions that has deeply divided the races.

Ideas and information for the study were gleaned from Broome and Perry (2016), who interviewed Black men following the high-profiled death of an unarmed Black man to elicit their feelings regarding the issue; Murphy, Sargeant, and Cherney (2015) who discussed perceptions of police performance and how it impacted the willingness to cooperate with police; Chaney and Robertson (2013), regarding police brutality and the need to have a national database to keep account of all officer-involved and arrest related deaths; and Gau et al. (2012), who discussed macro and micro level impacts on procedural justice and perceptions of police contact with citizens.

Sources searched include Google Scholar, Walden University's academic databases, online books, newspapers and reports from news stations. The following databases were chosen and utilized because they were best suited to research, collect and acquire the most up-to-date and most accurate information, such as scholarly and peer-reviewed articles and statistics, pertaining to the research topic: Academic Search Complete, Bureau of Justice Statistics, CQ Researcher, Dissertations & Theses at Walden University, EBSCOhost, ERIC, Expanded Academic ASAP, Google Scholar, ProQuest

Central, ProQuest Criminal Justice, ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global, PsycINFO, SAGE Premier, Science Direct, Thoreau Multi-Database Search, and Web of Science.

The following search terms and search strings were used to conduct the search for relevant literature: *African American, African American male, African American men, age, arrests, bias, Blacks, Black males, Black men, consent, consent to police authority, cooperation, cooperation with police, critical race theory, death, discrimination, excessive force, income, perception, police, police arrest, police brutality, police killing, police legitimacy, police misconduct, police perception, profiling, law, legitimacy, males, men, murder, race, racial bias, racial profiling, racism, shooter bias, shootings, social economic model, social economic theory, socioeconomic status, stereotyping, trust, unwillingness to obey the law, White privilege, White supremacy, and willingness to obey the law.*

Although there are many studies relevant to procedural justice, willingness to obey, and police brutality that test variables similar to those used in this study; as of this date of this writing, researchers have not commented on the killing of unarmed African American or Black men during police interaction. This specific topic was vital to this study and research questions. However, I was able to find recent scholarly literature that discussed the epidemic killings of unarmed AA males or use of deadly force was located. Anecdotally, there are many expert opinions on this subject. The following is an outline of expert opinion theory and analysis which is pertinent to this research.

Theoretical Framework

Research espoused several theories on which the study could be based. The first, and most prevailing, theory is CRT. CRT, introduced by scholars Derrick Bell and Alan Freeman, purports that White supremacy and White privilege are woven into the American fabric, and that the laws that this country was founded upon, including current laws in place, have allowed the White race to dominate and marginalize people of color. CRT emphasizes the need to look for solutions to eradicating racism (Bell, 1992, 1995).

The second, known as the PJT, is attributed to Tom Tyler, author and professor, who introduced seminal literature on compliance with the law in 1990. According to Tyler (1990), individuals obey the law because they believe it to be fair and honest, not because they fear reprisal. In addition, PJT emphasizes the idea of treating individuals fairly and equally when resolving issues as it relates to citizen-police interactions.

Critical Race Theory

CRT was first introduced in the 1980s by late attorney and legal scholar, Derrick Bell, who is viewed as the Godfather of CRT, and scholar Alan Freeman. Bell (1992) pushed back against scholars who only focused on colorblindness and discrimination of AAs and believed that racial inequalities suffered by people of color deserved more attention (Bell, 1992, 1995; Crenshaw, 1993). Crenshaw (1995), who introduced the theory of intersectionality as a way of showing how society and culture interacted with race, power and White supremacy, expounded on Bell's and Freeman's CRT taking it a

step further by calling for scholars and society to focus on racial domination and oppression of people of color.

The major theoretical propositions of CRT purported by Bell (1992, 1995), Crenshaw (1995), Matsuda et al. (1993) and their CRT colleagues are that first, racism is a normal reaction by the dominant race in society and is historically enshrined in American culture. Secondly, awareness of this ingrained racism should provide a basis for putting an end to all oppressive forms of government that marginalize people of color. Third, putting in writing and sharing the experiences of people of color is important in creating and reforming current law seen as discriminatory and racially oppressive. Fourth, White supremacy and White privilege are the products of racism and must be uprooted to reveal their true meaning. Fifth, racism can only be eradicated through social platforms and programs aimed at bettering the lives of the oppressed. Sixth, understanding the history of racism is important in effecting changes in the current laws and policies that affect people of color. Lastly, CRT is highly critical of supposed legal claims of fairness for all people.

Chaney and Robertson (2013) used the CRT framework to explain the deaths of unarmed AA males due to oppression of the dominant class. Also, according to Chaney and Robertson (2013), CRT is pertinent as a theoretical framework because it addresses issues faced by marginalized people suffered at the hands of those in the ruling class. Therefore, I chose to use this theoretical framework for this research study.

The purpose of this study was to gain a better understanding of how AA males view the procedural justice system and how it correlates with their willingness to consent to police officer authority based on race, SES, and age. Further, the study explored how this view of the procedural justice system and willingness to cooperate with the police affect what appears to be the rising death rate of unarmed AA males during interactions with the police. While conducting the literature review, I found that the most prevalent theoretical framework for supporting AA males' perceptions of the police, police killings, police brutality, racism, racial profiling, stereotyping, trust and mistrust of the police, and police legitimacy was the CRT. Based on past and current research and the research questions and hypotheses in this study, CRT was the best theoretical framework for conducting this study.

According to Brooms and Perry (2016), CRT points to race as its core value. CRT also brings to light many other forms of oppression and racial discrimination that affect AA males other than just domination by the White ruling class. "Critical race theory expresses skepticism toward dominant legal claims of neutrality, objectivity, colorblindness, and meritocracy" (Brooms & Perry, 2016, p. 170). CRT looks at what steps can be taken to improve race relations between the majority and subordinate classes in an effort to eradicate racism.

Chaney and Robertson (2015) examined the deaths of 78 unarmed Black men and women that occurred between 1999 and 2015 regarding non-indictment of the police involved, its ties to White supremacy, and increased mistrust of the police. The

researchers introduced CRT to aid in explaining the deaths of unarmed Blacks during police interaction, with no charges brought against police; this led to a perception that the deaths were justified due to a belief in White supremacy. Hence, the racial divide between Blacks and Whites in the United States and a tumultuous relationship with police in which Blacks fear and distrust them. This issue is directly related to the AAs males' perception of procedural justice.

Procedural Justice Theory

The major theoretical propositions of PJT purported by Tyler (1990) are that having a voice in decision making is important, information sharing, and feedback is needed, protection of self-interest is important, and fairness, honesty, neutrality and judgment in decision making affects individuals' attitudes and perceptions. Dai et al. (2011) used the PJT framework to explain what compelled citizens to comply with police requests during interaction.

PJT is said to be one of the best frameworks from which to explain compliance with police officer authority. It is believed that individuals comply with the law not because they fear being punished, but because they expect the law to be fair and just. According to Dai et al. (2011), individuals are more likely to comply with police officer authority if they believe that the police have treated them fairly, respectfully, and allowed them to have a voice in the matter.

With the theoretical framework established, a basis is provided for exploring the various factors that create the dynamic under study. The following section examines the

literature that examines the potential root causes and contributing factors to the ongoing tensions between AA males and police, and also explores the consequences of this ongoing dynamic.

Factors that Influence Interaction between Black Men and Police

A major and more recent theme in the current literature today is racial injustices that Black men face in the killings of unarmed AA males in the United States by police, mostly of the White race. Other themes were dehumanization, marginalization, and human rights violations of Blacks in America (Staggers-Hakim, 2016). Some in Black America view the killings as unjustifiable and dehumanizing. It is unheard of for Black policemen to gun down unarmed White men at the rate that White policemen are killing Blacks.

Unfortunately, this issue has led to riots, arrests, marches, sit-ins, die-ins, in which Black America, just as in the 1960s civil rights movement, is demanding justice and an end, in a so-called post-racial society, of these heinous crimes. In addition, White officers are not being held accountable for their actions leaving Blacks to feel as if their lives do not matter in a world dominated by White privilege (Staggers-Hakim, 2016; Passavant, 2015). Hence, the need to improve upon the procedural justice process, another major theme, so that all men in society feel inclusive and treated in a fair and just manner (Murphy & Cherney, 2015; Nix et al., 2014; White et al., 2016). The following section of the literature review examines the factors that contribute to this problem.

The Influence of History

It is not possible to address issues of race in the United States without recognizing the history of race in America, and how current conditions are directly informed by past events. Aymer (2016) examined the killings of unarmed Black men during police interaction utilizing a theme arising from a case vignette involving an adolescent Black man undergoing psychotherapy. The researcher argued that the killing of unarmed Black males stems from their race, perpetual racism in society, and their gender. Aymer utilized the CRT as framework for garnering a better understanding of the racial injustices suffered by Black men in the United States, where he stated, “police killings are viewed as lawful,” pointing to the historical suffrage of Black men during slavery, lynching, Jim Crow and the civil rights movement of the 1960s (p. 367).

The 16-year-old was referred by his parents to a psychotherapist because although he was a straight “A” student who did not believe in wearing sagging pants; he had no desire to attend college. On his way to his appointment with the therapist, the 16-year-old was chased by police, stopped and frisked, and detained briefly, although he had committed no wrongdoing. He suffered, at the hands of the police, aggressive treatment involving pushing him, which led to a psychological breakdown often experienced by men of color who are discriminated against and racially profiled by police. Aymer (2016) suggested that the 16-year-old’s situation was the result of living in a society where racial animus towards men of color leads to marginalization, risks and

vulnerability of being targeted by police at any given time resulting in possible police brutality, racial discrimination, and even death.

Moore et al. (2016) discussed the shooting deaths of unarmed Black men by police which has become a daily discussion in the media and around the dinner table, and has highlighted decades-long police interactions with people of color. Noted is the death of 18-year-old Michael Brown who was unarmed in Ferguson, Missouri, in which Officer Darren Wilson was not indicted; this incident led to massive protests and marches across the nation. The authors suggest that historical contexts of police-citizen relations with Black males and why their lives are devalued as opposed to White males must be taken into consideration.

Moore et al. (2016) offered that in order to address these issues, it may be necessary to involve Black churches, the police, social workers, and human services professionals who could provide a proactive approach to minimize and solve the issues. The author noted that police brutality and the killings of Black males by police is no new phenomenon and has led to a culture of oppression, racism, marginalization, and dehumanization that “transcends all socio-economic classes and permeates every social institution” (Moore et al., 2016, p. 258). Due to this disparate and unjust treatment at the hands of the police, Blacks in America feel negatively towards police and display high levels of mistrust, making it difficult to work together and comply with police requests.

Rembert, Watson, and Hill (2015) discussed the killings of unarmed AA males using a multidisciplinary investigation and trifocal exploration from the perspectives of a

social worker, criminologist, and political scientist. The researchers noted that the history documents over four centuries of the killing of AA men that has continued into the current century. They point out that Black lives do not matter and have never mattered. Changes in industry and the economy and the advent of the Information and Technological age has left out many Black men who are now fighting to obtain jobs that pay a decent wage (Rembert et al., 2015).

Although slavery has been eradicated, Black America is still forced to live by the laws and rules of Whites, the dominant race in society. Whites view Blacks as a threat to the economic and political wellbeing; therefore, the killing of a Black person, especially males, by the police is a method of disabling the threat (Rembert et al., 2015). “This is what slavery and colonialism did to African people: reduced them to property—chattel—and foreclosed against the Black human being’s claim to be human” (Rembert et al., 2015, p. 228).

The Supreme Court is also recognized for ruling on cases that set the standard for police use of deadly force, as in the case of a fleeing suspect which worked against Black men (*Tennessee v. Garner*); however, the court overturned this ruling in 1985 (Rembert et al., 2015). The militarization of the police sanctioned to kill men of color at will continues until policies and programs are created to minimize the racial issues and harmful police practices are addressed and corrected through proper retraining. These historical contexts provide basis on which to better understand how current setting and

contexts, including neighborhoods and localities, influence interactions between police and citizens.

Setting and Context

Murphy and Cherney (2015) conducted a quantitative study examining the relationship between group identification (minority or majority) and willingness to cooperate with police. The data were collected from 2010-2011 from 10,148 Australian residents, inclusive of a booster sample of 908 participants with an ethnic minority background, living in or near Brisbane using random digit dialing. Participants in the sample were required to be 18 years or older. The minority residents were Vietnamese, Indian, and Arabic speaking groups, and were first contacted by phone and then interviewed in person and given a survey in their spoken language (Murphy & Cherney, 2015). These minority ethnic groups were selected because they reported higher incidents of police action or viewed the police as problematic (Murphy & Cherney, 2015).

The researchers measured “police cooperation, procedural justice, police performance, superordinate identity, subordinate identity, separatist identity and demographics” (Murphy, 2015, p. 724). The dependent variable was procedural justice. The independent variable was willingness to cooperate with police. The control variables were age, gender, education, employment, prior contact with police, ethnicity and language. Researchers used an ordinary least squares regression model to test willingness to cooperate (Murphy & Cherney, 2015). The researchers corroborated

previous researchers showing that an individual's intent to cooperate with police is tied directly to his or her perceptions of procedural justice. In addition, researchers concluded that police performance was more important than procedural justice regarding an individual's intent to cooperate with police. Lastly, it was concluded that an individual's social identity determined if an individual would or would not cooperate with police and that this particular measure was higher for minorities (Murphy & Cherney, 2015).

Setting was also explored by Bonner (2014), who conducted a qualitative study on perceptions of procedural justice and experiences with the police by AAs and Whites with southern patrols in public and semipublic locations in a popular, low-crime tourist location in which the participants were middle class. Bonner's data was taken from a larger study consisting of 202 surveys, four focus groups, records from the police and community meetings, and an observational study. Bonner utilized the data from the four focus groups comprised of 37 participants from different races. The first three focus groups were comprised mainly of AAs. Each focus group was comprised of 6-13 individuals who were similar in skin complexion, hair texture, clothing style, dialect, choice of music style, and ages.

The first three focus groups reported seeing and interacting with the police more and reported seeing more police during the day, at night, and on weekends when they frequented public and semipublic spaces at the tourist resort. The fourth focus group, comprised mainly of Whites, reported seeing the police less frequently during the week

days and nights, and a little more on weekends during their visits to the tourist location.

The fourth group also reported having little to no interaction with the police.

Most interaction with police was initiated by police. AAs also reported greater use of horse patrols by police as a way of intimidation when they frequented the resort area.

Bonner concluded that race, space, and policing practices do indeed influence perceptions and that AAs, especially males, are stereotyped and often experience arbitrary policing, intrusiveness, biasness and unnecessarily aggressive police treatment even in areas depicting low crime rates.

Gersternberger, Beatty, and Weatherby (2014) conducted a quantitative study in 2010 of eight U.S. cities (Durham, North Carolina; Las Vegas, Nevada; Miami, Florida; New York, New York; Omaha, Nebraska; Seattle, Washington; and Spokane, Washington) based on location, size, and temperatures to determine if the factors of population density, racial diversity, climate, and crime rates influenced fatal police shootings. The theoretical perspectives used for this study were the social disorganization and conflict theory.

The researchers concluded that 92% of fatal officer-involved shootings occur more in larger cities with populations over 400,000, as opposed to smaller cities. Los Angeles reported 16 fatal officer-involved shootings, double the state of New York, which is a larger city. However, researchers determined that New York saw a record low number of fatal officer-involved shootings in 2010 because the normal annual average is between 20 to 40+ fatal police shootings. When pairing cities, the least dense cities

displayed higher rates of fatal officer-involved shootings per 100,000 residents. Las Vegas and Spokane had more fatal officer-involved shootings per 100,000 residents compared to New York, Seattle, and Durham; however, Miami's fatal officer-involved shootings rate was lower. Cities with fewer White people displayed a higher number of fatal officer-involved shootings, and 75% of the shootings involved minorities, especially Blacks and Hispanics.

Understanding the psychology of these interactions can also be useful. Nix et al. (2014) conducted a quantitative study examining the relationship between respondents' perceptions of collective efficacy and the trust in police. Data were collected using a random mail survey of 1,681 respondents. Four different types of neighborhoods were targeted for the study. One neighborhood was selected based on predicted future crime, and two control neighborhoods were selected based on being economically challenged and having a high crime rate (Nix et al., 2014). The fourth neighborhood was used for contrast purposes, and was considered affluent (Nix et al., 2014). Those who participated in the survey were 52% White, 41% AA and 7% other (Nix et al., 2014). The dependent variable was trust in the police, and the independent variables were procedural justice and perceived collective efficacy. The control variables consisted of age, gender, race, education, and the dummy variables were lower crime neighborhood, citizen-initiated contact, no police contact, and police-initiated contact. Researchers used an ordinary least squares regression model to determine the effect that perceived collective efficacy would have on perceived procedural fairness (Nix et al., 2014).

Researchers concluded that citizens who believed that collective efficacy did in fact exist in their neighborhoods tended to believe that the police treated them fairly. However, those individuals who believed collective efficacy did not exist tended to believe the police were more unfair. Researchers also found that past experiences with police, demographics, and past victimization did not moderate these opinions of the police (Nix et al., 2014). Therefore, perceived collective efficacy only played a part in citizens' trust in the police; however, "when perceptions of procedural justice are taken into consideration, the effect of perceived collective efficacy is largely mediated" (Nix et al., 2014, pp. 629-630).

Procedural fairness was also explored by Jonathan-Zamir, Mastrofski, and Moyal (2013), who conducted a qualitative study measuring procedural justice in natural settings with police. The researchers noted that procedural justice has traditionally been measured using a survey or questionnaire depicting the citizen's perspective. However, the researchers believed that surveys may yield false reports; therefore, they developed their own construct to measure procedural justice that would prove useful for gathering and measuring qualitative data, and accompanied police on their shifts to observe police-citizen interactions in their natural settings (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2013).

Data were gathered from a small, suburban city in the United States from June 2011 to December 2011 (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2013). A total of 12 policemen participated in the study. Nine officers were observed three times, one officer underwent one observation, one officer was observed twice, and another officer was observed five

times. Their ages ranged from 25 to 48. Regarding race, 67% of the officers were White and the remaining 34% identified as either Black or another race. Researchers accompanied the police on 35 shifts; 12 morning, 10 evening and 13 nights. They witnessed the police interact with a total of 319 citizens in 233 encounters. A fifth of the citizens were Black, about a half were White and nearly one third were Hispanic or Latino (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2013). The construct answered close-ended questions regarding participation, neutrality, trustworthiness, dignity, respect and satisfaction (Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2013). The researchers concluded that observations “make it possible to distinguish the temporal ordering of officer and citizen behaviors to be used in measuring constructs” (Johnathan-Zamir et al., 2013, p. 866). Also, the fact the officers were aware that they were being studied may have altered the way in which they interacted with citizens.

Neighborhood and community factors have also been found to be relevant, according to the literature. Gau et al. (2012) conducted a quantitative study on the examination of the impact of neighborhood and community level factors on individual’s perceptions of procedural justice and police legitimacy. The researchers collected data from three sources to include a general population survey, census tract data divided into “high crime target areas, high crime non-targeted areas, and remaining census tracts throughout the overall city for a general comparison,” and the local municipal police department (Gau et al., 2012, p. 336). A total of 531 participants were gathered using stratified sampling.

Hierarchical linear modeling was used to integrate census data measuring perceptions of law enforcement, police legitimacy, and neighborhood context. The dependent variables were procedural justice and police legitimacy. The independent variables were distributive fairness, social cohesion (concentrated disadvantage residential instability and homicide rate). The control variables were age, race, gender, and SES. The researchers concluded that Blacks likely question legitimacy more, because neighborhood context acts a mediator such as having high levels of concentrated disadvantage that may lead to requiring more use of the police (Gau et al., 2012).

The influence of neighborhood was also documented by Barrett, Fletcher, and Patel (2013), who reviewed a 2009-2010 qualitative study involving a sample in north of England of Black minority ethnic (BME) groups and their interaction with a law enforcement agency in the north of England. A total of 45 individuals participated in the study. The researchers employed a mixed-methods approach inclusive of focus groups, interviews, and surveys of victims, which was used to describe the different perspectives of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with police encounters based on differences in ethnicities (Barrett et al., 2012). Focus groups were used specifically to capture perspectives of the BME communities regarding how to best service them, policing in their communities and its impact of their personal views (Barrett et al., 2012).

The researchers concluded that communication is important when interacting with the community and young people, leading to more fair ways of policing and decreases in abuses such as stop and frisk with BMEs, thereby increasing the levels of satisfaction in

police practices. In addition, the researchers recommended that age, social class, and gender be given attention during police interaction with the community. Further, the researchers offered developing a course of action that would allow the police and different BME groups to communicate with each other in a mutual and respectful manner as a method of improving police-citizen relations and levels of satisfaction (Barrett et al., 2013).

Hough's (2012) findings were similar to Barrett et al. (2013), in that he suggested that police display more unfairness when interacting with young people of different ethnic backgrounds during police responses. Hough reviewed a qualitative study using case studies conducted by the Economic and Social Research Council in 2010 of different policing styles used when conducting police responses in different communities involving youth of different ethnic backgrounds suspected of criminal activity. The study involved 49 officers, 32 young people, and data collected from two basic command units in London, England used to assess the dynamics between the two groups.

Hough's (2012) review concluded that police took on either an adversarial policing style or a professional policing style that was either proactive or reactive in nature. The researcher revealed that an adversarial style was used mainly with young Black people as a means of showing them who controlled the streets by demanding respect and compliance (Hough, 2012). Hough also noted an underlying theme of procedural justice which he believed could possibly allow the police to do more with less

if they chose to interact with disadvantaged youth in a respectful and fair manner upon engagement (Hough, 2012).

Both Hough and Barrett et al. (2012) pointed out similarities of the difficulty in dealing with youth and their perception of unfair procedural justice that reflect a long history of difficult relations and deep mistrust of law enforcement and the issue with stop and frisk or stop and search. Also noted, is the over-representation of some ethnic minority statistics during stop and search in which few arrests take place (Hough, 2012).

Perceptions of Procedural Justice

According to Gau et al. (2012), procedural justice consists of two major elements: one is the officer's use of facts and fairness in his or her decision-making, and the other is the person's perception of the officer being reasonable and respectful in carrying out his or her duties. The way in which an officer responds to a situation signals to that person where they stand in society. The issue is that more Blacks than Whites have reported feeling less important as it relates to procedural fairness in America (Gau et al., 2012). This quantitative study based on the PJT utilized a telephone survey involving 531 respondents in 2010. Researchers looked at neighborhood and community level influences on perceptions of police legitimacy and procedural justice and concluded that procedural justice was the biggest factor in police legitimacy and that neighborhood and "macro-level distress – homicide rates, residential instability, and low social cohesion were not statistically significant" (Gau et al., 2012, p. 339).

Gau et al.'s (2012) study differed from Barrett et al.'s (2013), and from Hough's (2012), who looked at the procedural justice process based on the public's trust of interaction with justice institutions and instead looked and procedural justice and "neighborhood and community level factors on procedural justice and police legitimacy" to uncover what influences the sociostructural environment may contribute to perceptions in high crime areas through use of a survey (p. 333).

Jackson et al. (2011) conducted a study across 28 European countries in 2010. More than 39,000 face-to-face interviews were conducted in which respondents were asked if they had had any contact with the police two years prior to the interview, and whether they trusted the police and court system, and if they perceived the justice systems to be legitimate. The researchers concluded that a variation in trust and legitimacy across Europe, where Nordic countries were found to be more trusting and Eastern and Southern European countries were found to be less trusting of the police. Jackson et al.'s (2011) findings are similar to Barret et al. (2013) and Hough (2012) in that the researchers evaluated trust in criminal justice institutions and how they interacted with the public. According to Jackson et al. (2011), "Measures of trust and legitimacy can be used to inform careful, long-term policies that foster public compliance and cooperation instead of short-term 'electioneering strategies that exploit public feelings for political gain, and which are skewed towards short-term crime-control strategies" (p. 10). The researchers concluded that trust was based on "effectiveness, procedural fairness,

and distributive justice” and took a qualitative approach in which the researchers utilized a survey to gather data from residents (Jackson et al., 2011, p. 8).

Schuck and Martin’s (2013) study was similar to the other studies in that it evaluated perceptions of the procedural justice process. The study was closer in similarity to Gau et al.’s (2012) study, in that it also evaluated community context as it relates to procedural justice. The purpose of the study was to “determine the influence that race, type of contact, place of encounter and community context had on individuals’ perceptions of procedural justice” (p. 219). The study was conducted by the Minority Trust and Confidence in the Police Project in Chicago and involved 479 randomly chosen participants. Participants were selected “based on prior police contacts, perceptions of the police, race, gender and age” (Schuck & Martin, 2013, p. 223).

Researchers concluded AAs and Latinos encountered the police more than Whites and were more likely than Whites to report procedural unfairness (Schuck & Martin, 2013). The researchers also concluded that AA and Latinos were not only likely to be stopped outside of their neighborhoods, but also likely to be stopped by the police inside of their neighborhoods and that living in a middle-class neighborhood did not matter lessen the number of police stops.

Baker et al.’s (2015) study also affirmed the role of perceptions of procedural justice in predicting behavior. Their qualitative study of female Florida inmates, based on PJT, concluded that female inmates who trusted legal authorities who possess the same racial or ethnic characteristics as themselves and who had a voice in their trial saw

the outcome of the procedural justice process as fair, even if the outcome was not a favorable one and complied with the law (Baker et al., 2015). The researcher concluded that an inmate's age, education, and ethnicity had a direct bearing of the inmate's perception of the procedural justice process.

Rounding out the exploration of the perceptions of procedural justice is the work for Doherty and Wolak (2012), who conducted a quasi-experimental study that differed from the other studies cited in the review, in that they examined the conditions under which people use accuracy goals versus directional goals to evaluate procedural justice processes. A total of 214 participants were recruited through email announcements from a university in the mountain west (Doherty & Wolak, 2012). Participants were asked in a survey to about whether they defer to their views on policy to evaluate procedural justice processes (Doherty & Wolak, 2012).

The researchers concluded that accuracy goals can prevail over directional goals when asked to assess governmental fairness (Doherty & Wolak, 2012). In other words, when policy processes are clearly fair, both those for and against the policy agree to its fairness and assess the process accurately (Doherty & Wolak, 2012). However, when policy processes are clearly unfair, people are against the processes whether they like or dislike the policy, and people defer to their prior experiences and beliefs to assess the procedural justice process (Doherty & Wolak, 2012).

Prior Experiences with Police

Prior experiences appear to have a significant influence on the perceptions of AA males during their interactions with police. Renauer and Covelli (2011) conducted a quantitative study examining the relationships between police experiences and perceptions of police bias. Data were collected via a telephone survey by the Portland State University Survey Research Lab between August and September 2007 using stratified sampling (Renauer & Covelli, 2011). The researchers conducted telephone interviews with 1,431 Oregon residents that included 741 residents randomly selected statewide, 164 AAs, and 161 Hispanics to examine how often they believed race/ethnic bias contributed to police stops. The dependent variable was public perception that police unfairly used race, and the independent variables were procedural justice and police contact. A 5-pt Likert Scale was used to record responses and ordinal logistic regression was used to test the hypotheses (Renauer & Covelli, 2011). No multicollinearity existed and the assumption of independence was assessed to avoid a Type II error by controlling for residents clustered within countries. Ordinal regression showed procedurally negative involuntary police contacts. Ordinal regression and bivariate analyses showed that police bias was related to both voluntary and involuntary police stops (Renauer & Covelli, 2011).

Weitzer (2015) discussed the escalation in the recent police killings of AA men 2012, which has led to numerous national debates about police practices, police brutality, alleged police misconduct, citizen-police interactions, citizen-police relations, and police

reform. Weitzer posited that perceptions of the police among AA men were based on their past interactions with them. Police interactions with AAs, whether personal or based on police involvement with relatives and friends, shapes their overall perception of the police and the procedural justice systems.

According to Weitzer (2015), if an individual is constantly stopped by the police and given no reason as to why they were stopped, harassed, demeaned, and spoken to rudely, the chances that that individual will view the police as negative and unjust is extremely high. Additionally, the SES of a neighborhood could also affect how police interact with citizens regardless of race, especially in disadvantaged communities where the police are viewed as less favorable during interactions. Young Black and Latino men in depressed neighborhoods report being stopped and harassed by the police more often, as well as being the recipients of aggressive treatment at the hands of the police (Epp, Maynard-Moody, & Haider-Markel, 2014; Weitzer, 2015). These perceptions also affect their willingness to cooperate with the police and consent to police officer authority.

Stereotypes and Implied Bias

Kahn and McMahon (2016) conducted a quantitative study on “positive intragroup bias for Whites via perceived phenotypic racial stereotypicality” for Blacks and the decision by law enforcement to use more severe, and at times, deadly use of force against minorities for similar crimes committed by the dominant race (p. 403). The researchers note the 2014 Pew’s Research Center’s study, which concluded that more unarmed Black men and women were killed during interaction with police since 2014

than any other race (Pew Research Center, 2014). The issue is now a hot topic of debate in the nation and has created an even greater divide and tension among the races due to the senseless and publicized frequency of deaths (Kahn & McMahon, 2016). The researchers obtained 164 case files, depicting 250 cases of use of force, collected during 2009-2010 from a large, racially diverse, urban police department located on the West Coast. Suspect data was representative of 75 Whites, 16 Asians, 23 AAs and 50 Latinos. The researchers concluded that Whites had less phenotypic racial stereotypicality than Blacks and other non-Whites, thus making them a more protected class in society in which law enforcement used less force against them thus shielding them from use of force (Kahn & McMahon, 2016). The results support the fact that Whites are a more privileged and protected people due to their race.

Sim, Correll, and Sadler (2013) examined three studies on how training may exacerbate racial stereotypes in the decision to shoot a target. The studies employed research from first-person-shooter task; training that provided base rates of certain races and criminal activity; and officers who, as part as their daily routine, interact with minority gang members. Participants were randomly assigned to a training task that either encouraged Black-danger stereotypes or discredited the stereotypes. For part of the experiment, a total of 120 students from the Chicago area (62 females, 58 males; 49 Blacks, 46 Whites, 18 Asians, and seven Hispanics) participated. In another experiment, 22 (one female, 21 males, 12 Whites, seven Blacks, two Hispanics, one Native

American/Pacific Islander) officers from the gang and street-crime unit participated (Sim et al., 2013).

Overall, officers displayed less bias than the students (Sim et al., 2013). Like other studies, researchers concluded that a bias exists for shooting Blacks over other ethnicities. In addition, researchers explain the limitations of such experiments. For example, the study cannot replicate work-related fatigue and stress related to officers considering actual lethal force from a suspect (Sim et al., 2013). Constraining time, cognitive resources, and uncertainty of the surrounding area limit an officers' ability to process information and accurately determine the probable degree of threat (Sim et al., 2013).

Unconscious bias was explored in Tillyer and Engel's (2013) multiyear study of police actions during traffic stops applying the social conditioning model. Officers' decision making was analyzed based on unconscious profiles of demographics including race/ethnicity, gender, and age. The unconscious profiles of individuals are more commonly known as stereotypes. Officers' stereotypes occur as a result of social identity theory, illusory correlation, and the ecological fallacy "reinforced through personal, vicarious, and media experiences with crimes and violence" (Tillyer & Engel, 2013, p. 373). As a routine part of duty, officers' work experience substantiates such stereotypes based on increased encounters with criminal activity (Tillyer & Engel, 2013). Officers are faced with negative and potentially dangerous experiences.

The researchers suggest an officer's negative encounters will have a stronger impact on interactions during a traffic stop than stereotypes (Tillyer & Engel, 2013). The number of encounters may impact the intensity of the stereotypes, which lead to disparities in traffic stop outcomes. In addition, the more criminal encounters with a certain group an officer has, the greater the association of criminal activity towards certain demographics (Tillyer & Engel, 2013).

Racial stereotypes and their influence on officers' decisions to shoot minorities were explored by Kahn and McMahon (2015) following the deaths of Amadou Diallo, Michael Brown, Oscar Grant, Samuel DuBose and other unarmed Black men. The researchers used the full-cycle model to frame their work, paying very close attention to shooter bias and results from shoot/do not shoot video studies involving non-police participants conducted in laboratories. The full-cycle model purports using natural observation, theory, and laboratory experiments to garner a better understanding of the cause of this social issue (Kahn & McMahon, 2015). The researchers also examined the current literature, which was minimal, on shooter bias and racial influence on the decision to shoot. Most non-police study participants erroneously decided to shoot unarmed Blacks who may have been holding a wallet or a tool, as opposed to a weapon at a higher rate than Whites and Asians.

Kahn and McMahon (2015) concluded that there may be some instances in which an officer's personal, racial biases may impact the decision to shoot, especially in economically challenged rural areas with high crime, but that most shootings of

minorities are the result of “unconscious activation of stereotypes linking a particular group to danger, which facilitates stereotype consistent responses” unless the officer can control his response not to act too quickly (p. 315). These individual encounters, whether grounded in bias and stereotype or not, create a perception in the public and the media that further complicates the situation.

Public Perception and the Role of the Media

Gabbidon and Jordan (2013) conducted a study in 2012 using the racial gradient theory during the trial of George Zimmerman, a self-appointed neighborhood watch security officer, who stood trial in the death of Trayvon Martin, an unarmed, AA teen. Martin was walking home from a convenience store minding his own business when he was confronted by Zimmerman and forced to defend himself, causing him to lose his life. The researchers used the racial gradient thesis, which is one of the tenets of the comparative conflict theory, which posits that public opinion on an issue viewed as criminally unjust will be judged along the lines of race with the race of the person affected objected the most (Hagan, Shedd, & Payne, 2005).

Based on a *USA Today* Gallup Poll taken in 2012, the researchers concluded that public opinion about Trayvon Martin’s killing was divided along racial lines, with AAs believing that Martin’s killing was unjust and Whites believing the opposite. AAs continue to report the greatest level of criminal injustice towards them, as opposed to other races and ethnic minorities. Recent killings of unarmed AA men have resulted in

numerous marches and protests across the nation about unjust treatment of AA men during police interaction proving that the racial divide in the country runs deep.

Oliveira and Murphy's (2014) quantitative study examined the various factors impacting people's attitudes toward law enforcement officers using social identity theory. Researchers determined some factors impacting negative attitudes toward police are SES, race/ethnicity, gender, age, policing practices across neighborhoods and cities, as well as location. Social identity and SES greatly impact the varying attitudes of minorities towards police. Similar to Weitzer and Tuch's (1999) study, race alone did not adequately predict Americans' attitude toward police in this study. Data collected from 1,204 Australian citizens reflected that the biggest factor impacting attitudes toward law enforcement officers was social identity, not race. Social identity allows individuals to make meaning of and develop a sense of belonging to a designated group. Individuals' social identity is taken from a social psychology theory which categorizes people based on "in-groups" and "out-groups." The "in-groups" reflect a group with similar beliefs, traditions or attitudes, and the "out-groups" reflect a contrasting set of beliefs, traditions, or attitudes than the "in-groups." In some societies, how marginalized a particular group feels impacts the overall attitude towards officers because officers are in essence a representative of the state that is causing the feeling of marginalization. As a result, similar to Weitzer (2015), individuals who categorize themselves as part of the "out-group," namely racial minorities, feeling marginalized establishes an innate belief that law enforcement officers are prejudiced, biased, and discriminate toward them.

Wu (2014) conducted a quantitative study on perceptions of the police related to race and ethnicity, which he extended to include not only Blacks and Whites, but also Asians and Hispanics. The researcher used group position theory (GPT) as his theoretical framework. The GPT asserts that members of the dominant, White race assume a position of superiority or group identity and view other races as subordinate and always competing with them to attain the same privileges and entitlements (Bobo & Tuan, 2006). The researcher utilized a combination of telephone interviews, surveys delivered personally to residents, and mailed surveys to collect data from 4904 households in the Seattle, Washington area from 2002-2003, measuring residents' perceptions of the police, including problem-solving, racial profiling, and police bias.

Wu (2014) concluded the following: (a) most respondents viewed problem-solving positively; (b) Blacks more than any other ethnic group viewed racial profiling negatively; (c) most believed that the police treated them unequally depending on their race and social status; (d) Hispanics and Asians fell in the middle of Whites who were more positive about police interaction and Blacks whose perceptions of the police were the most negative; and (e) as far as police bias, the wealthy were treated better than the economically challenged, Whites were treated better than AAs and Hispanics, and those who spoke English were treated better than those who did not.

Murphy (2015) conducted a quantitative study of 10,148 Australian residents who took part in the Australian Community Capacity Study in 2010 and 2011 regarding citizens' willingness or intent to cooperate with the police based on the public's

perception of procedural justice, police performance, and social identity. The researchers conducted computerized telephone interviews utilizing random dialing. The sample included a booster sample involving 908 individuals from ethnic minority backgrounds (Murphy, 2015). The researcher utilized the group value model (GVM) as its theoretical foundation to explain why individuals believe being treated in a procedurally fair manner is important (Murphy, 2015). The GVM ties together procedural justice and cooperation in relation to social identification. The study measured the following variables: “cooperation with police, procedural justice, police performance, superordinate identity, subordinate identity, separatist identity, and demographic/control characteristics” (Murphy, 2015, p. 724).

The author corroborated previous researchers showing that an individual’s intent to cooperate with police is tied directly to his or her perceptions of procedural justice. In addition, researchers concluded that police performance was more important than procedural justice regarding an individual’s intent to cooperate with police. Lastly, an individual’s social identity was also found to determine if an individual would or would not cooperate with police and that this particular measure was higher for minorities.

Hadden, Tolliver, Snowden, and Brown-Manning (2016) conducted a quantitative study of the relationship between race, racism, attitudes toward police violence against adult males. A total of 1,974 adult males and females participated in the study, in which they completed the 2012 General Social Survey (GSS). Surveys used for secondary data analysis were administered in person and by phone by GSS personnel. Similar to

Patterson and Swan (2015), Hadden et al. (2016) also noted the lack of police shootings data makes it difficult to determine if shootings were justified and at what frequency the shootings occur nationwide.

Hadden et al. (2016) framed their study with several theories, but most importantly CRT, that connects race to racism and power, which they believed best captures the purpose of their study with race being the central component of violence exhibited toward unarmed Black males. Nearly 75% of the participants were White and 2.6% were Black. Researchers concluded that Whites approved of police brutality against a citizen at a much higher rate than did Blacks, Whites believed that the difference in SES between them and Blacks was due to Blacks being unmotivated and lacking willpower, and that Whites believed that Blacks were less successful because they lacked the inability to learn (Hadden et al., 2016).

Public perception is often shaped by the media. Smiley and Fakunle (2016) explored how language is used to dehumanize and demonize unarmed AA men killed by police following their deaths. The researchers analyzed the deaths of 43-year-old Eric Garner, 18-year-old Michael Brown, 28-year-old Akai Gurley, 12-year-old Tamir Rice, 19-year-old Tony Robinson, and 25-year-old Freddie Gray. Articles on the men deaths were retrieved from the LexisNexis database about 30 days following their deaths utilizing autoethnography, which allowed the researchers to find out as much as they could about each individual case.

Researchers concluded that race and racism are still prevalent in post-racial America that tends to overlook racism today as if it no longer exists or is not pertinent in society. The media was responsible for digging into each victim's pasts and dredging up any negative information on them to include past criminal transgressions, if they existed, in an effort to make the victim look as bad as they could as a means of justifying their deaths further exonerating the officers that killed them (Smiley & Fakunle, 2016). Further, the researchers revealed increased racial inequality, higher rates of incarceration for Black men as opposed to White men who commit the same or similar crimes, unfair employment opportunities with Whites being hired over Blacks, and differences in the healthcare given to Blacks versus Whites with Whites receiving better healthcare (Smiley & Fakunle, 2016).

Explaining Elevated Response by Police

To fully understand this issue, it is also important to understand the characteristics of the police, police perceptions, and how their tactics and training play into this dynamic. Hall, Hall, and Perry (2016) conducted a review of past and current media reports to better understand why the nature of police work may attract a certain type of individual and gender, usually men, with characteristics that may make them inclined to deal with Black men negatively and more aggressively. The researchers utilized the trait activation theory (TAT) to ground their research in as they seek explanations for the recent killings of unarmed Black men and break down the interaction between policing and racial bias.

According to Tett, Simonet, Walser, and Brown (2013), the TAT asserts that individuals seek out the types of jobs that best compliment their character traits and preferences. The researchers gleaned through numerous media reports and past literature that linked the actions of police to historic dehumanization of Black men and studies on shooter bias (Hall et al., 2016). The researchers concluded that White police officers were more likely to shoot an unarmed Black man quicker than he would a White male, White female, or even a Black female (Plant, Goplen, & Kuntman, 2011; Sim et al., 2013). Further, the researchers concluded that individuals with high social dominance orientation, meaning those who view Blacks as lower than Whites wishing to maintain White supremacy, usually gravitate to positions in law enforcement.

Police Characteristics

Cochran and Warren (2012) conducted a study to determine if racial perceptions of police officer behavior are moderated by the officer's race by examining race, ethnicity, and gender. The theoretical framework used for this study was conflict theory. Data were gathered from the Bureau of Justice Statistics' 2005 Police Public Contact Survey (PPCS), which is supplemental information from the National Crime Victimization Survey. The survey included only information of those individuals who had been involved in a traffic stop during the previous 12 months, and who had reported the officer's race and their race. The PPCS was conducted during the last half of 2005 and includes information on individuals age 16 and older.

Researchers concluded that citizens involved in police encounters with minority police believed the stops were illegitimate. Minority officers stopped minority men and women at a rate of 1.5 to 3 times higher than White policemen. This result is about the same for Hispanics. White officers stopped White citizens at a higher rate, especially females, than did minority officers. With regard to discretionary stops, minority officers stopped citizens at a higher rate than White officers.

Further, the researchers concluded that both Black males and females complained of illegitimate stops when compared to White men. Past contact with police led to a high rate of negative reporting against the police. When analyzing race, ethnicity, and gender together, both Black men and women had a higher rate of reporting illegitimate stops.

The influence of citizen and officer race was also examined in Brunson and Gau's (2015) qualitative study of 44 AAs that included 25 women and 19 men living in East St. Louis, Missouri regarding their perceptions and personal experiences with officers of their race. Using the community accountability theory, the researchers conducted in-depth interviews with respondents located in majority Black, high crime, economically challenged communities who reported having experiences with Black policemen. The community accountability theory asserts that citizen-police encounters can be improved by hiring Black officers to police communities of their same race.

Brunson and Gau (2015) concluded that Black residents saw no difference in the way that they were treated between both Black and White police; therefore, the officers' race was not a factor. Respondents reported that simply living in economically depressed

communities, high crime communities lend itself to being mistreated by police because all police viewed residents of these areas as criminal and dangerous. Further, the researchers concluded that Black residents' negative perceptions of White officers mistreating them was tied to racial discrimination, and that the mistreatment of them by Black officers was viewed as these officers working for a corrupt police department that was poorly mismanaged and severely unfunded. Though characteristics have been shown to be highly influential in police interactions with minorities, training, tactics, and approaches are also highlighted in the literature as problematic.

Police Approaches

Passavant (2015) discussed the formation of neoliberal authoritarianism by those in power politically in the 1960s to explain the militarization of the police, which led to further dehumanization and over-policing of Black men. According to Passavant, "police were encouraged to go beyond law enforcement to control the perception of disorder...to kick ass," which led to numerous riots and protests (p. 330). Such police behavior arose from massive race riots in the 1960s stemming from racial inequality which was addressed by the Kerner report (Passavant, 2015).

Passavant (2015) highlighted two recent cases of unarmed Black men losing their lives during police interactions. First, the death of 18-year-old Michael Brown in Ferguson, Missouri shot and killed by police, and 43-year-old Eric Garner, who was choked to death in New York for selling loose cigarettes on the street. The death of both men, accused of failing to comply, led to marches and protests across the nation, but

Passavant pointed to the “Manner of Walking in the Roadway” law in Ferguson that led to Brown’s death, and the Broken Windows theory adopted and implemented in 1993 in New York as means of over-policing in Garner’s death.

Passavant (2015) explained that excessive brutality against Blacks grew out of neoliberal authoritarianism that sanctioned militarization of the police. Today, the hashtags “We Can’t Breathe” in honor of Garner and “BlackLivesMatter” are the new civil rights movements by which those racially discriminated against and subjected to unnecessary police brutality can hopefully find justice (Passavant, 2015).

Fryer (2016) conducted a quantitative study examining the racial differences in the use of force by police. Data were collected from four sources to include New York City’s Stop and Frisk Program (officer supplied information only) from 2003-2013 totaling 3,457,161 arrests, Police-Public Contact Survey (citizen supplied information only) inclusive of more than 500,000 incidents, event summaries of citizen-police contact involving the discharge of a police weapon from Austin, Dallas, and Houston (three major cities in Texas) inclusive of 1,332 shootings from 2000-2015, and police-citizen interactions in Houston, Texas involving arrests in which police use of force may have been justified inclusive of 507 officer-involved shootings and more than 4,000 instances of some type of lesser force used by officer. Fryer followed several high-profile officer-involved shootings of unarmed Black men such as Michael Brown in Missouri in 2014, Walter Scott in South Carolina in 2015, and Samuel DuBose in Ohio in 2015, to name a few.

Fryer (2016) concluded that in the use of lesser force (i.e., tasers, batons, and using one's hands to subdue an individual), there were racial differences with Blacks being subjected to this type of force more than Whites, and Hispanics falling in the middle. However, when examining extreme use of force involving police shootings, the researchers were unable to detect any racial disparities. It should be noted the Fryer's study is a working paper and is soon to be published.

Lee's (2014) discussion and findings of New York City's firearm discharge report is similar to Fryer (2016), in that he discovered that between 2000-2011 Blacks were shot at a much higher rate than Whites and Hispanics. Lee pointed out that the police killing of 18-year-old Michael Brown in Ferguson, Missouri on August 9, 2014 for failing to comply with police orders was only one of four unarmed Black men that died during police interaction within a 30-day period in the United States. According to Lee, police are not required to report arrest-related deaths or deaths involving police shootings to federal authorities, so no uniform database exists. Reports on the killings of unarmed Black men are sketchy at best, and the information contained within reports is not reliable, and it is rare that a police officer is convicted of murder or manslaughter.

Lee (2014) also discussed the number of police-involved shootings in Oakland, California totaling 45 between 2004-2008; 37 of the 45 individuals shot were Black, and 33% being fatal. None of those shot were White, and in 40% of the cases the victim was unarmed. This data did not include one of the most highly profiled cases, which is that of Oscar Grant who was unarmed and killed by police in the subway station and caught on

cell phone video. Although convictions are rare, and it took several years, the officer in Grant's killing was eventually charged in his death.

Correll, Hudson, Guillermo, and Ma (2014) used sociological, correlational, and experimental research to assess the effects of an individual's race on the likelihood of being shot. Researchers utilized a first-person-shooter task (FPST). Participants were placed in a realistic environment coupled with either a Black or White male who was either armed or unarmed. Participants were given the option whether to "shoot" or "don't shoot." A total of 124 Denver community leaders, 127 Denver officers, and 113 officers from across the nation participated in the study (Correll et al., 2014). Based on the signal detection theory (SDT), the readiness to shoot an unarmed target is based on the judgment-relevant dimension, also known as the perceived threat (Correll et al., 2014). Sensitivity and criterion are two factors affecting SDT. Sensitivity allows people to differentiate the armed target from the unarmed target, and criterion analyzes a participant's predisposition to shoot based on the perceived threat required for a participant to shoot (Correll et al., 2014).

Similar to Kahn and McMahon (2015), Correll et al. (2014) determined that police did not show a clearly defined bias when given sufficient time to properly assess the situation. However, the community members demonstrated a low criterion and increased likelihood to shoot an armed Black male. Nevertheless, community members out-performed officers when time to assess a target was decreased. When the participants were given FPST coupled with training, the tendency to assess a Black male as a threat

decreased, but even with additional training, external factors of fatigue and stress prevented participants from overcoming the bias stereotypes of Black males being more dangerous and even more of a threat than their White counterparts.

Like the “don’t shoot” versus “shoot” studies, Sadler, Correll, Park, and Judd (2012) examined the implied bias to shoot minorities viewed as threatening. Stereotypes unconsciously affect the actions of both law enforcement and society as a whole, oftentimes without awareness or intention of the actor. When race and law enforcement are correlated, the mere association of a particular race in a perceived criminal activity may impact the speed and likelihood of a decision to use lethal force. However, this societal phenomenon of “shooting” minorities is not exclusive to law enforcement.

Society has the same general response of using lethal force against a minority, particularly AAs. Research, such as the shoot/don’t shoot decision, reflect that race alone does influence responses to threatening objects (Sadler et al., 2012). The target race in the simulation is not indicative of having the presence or absence of a weapon. Not having a target race as a diagnostic for whether weaponry is present was vital for the researchers to take a direct examination of per se racial cues on the likelihood to shoot (Sadler et al., 2012).

However, racial bias toward other target races such as Latinos and Asians were associated more with the extent to which a law enforcement officer related the amount of violent crime in a particular type of community to those races (Sadler et al., 2012). For example, personal stereotypes related to the increased bias to shoot Latinos and cultural

stereotypes were more related to bias to shoot Asians (Sadler et al., 2012). Nevertheless, contact and discrimination predicted the racial bias towards AAs (Sadler et al., 2012).

Unlike the traditional shoot/don't shoot laboratory experiments, James, Vila, and Daratha (2013) employed a more real-life experiment using a quantitative approach. The study participants consisted of 36 police officers, 72 civilians, and six military personnel; totaling 102 participants and 1,812 responses. All participants interacted with the target, and the high definition of the scenarios provided a much more realistic environment compared to merely sitting at a computer and selecting shoot/don't shoot (James et al., 2013). Also, participants in this study utilized a modified gun to shoot targets.

In contrast to other studies, comparing the likelihood of race to increase a shoot response, participants were less likely to shoot Blacks compared to their Latino and White counterparts (James et al., 2013). This study did not note a significant difference between the likelihood to shoot White and Latino suspects (James et al., 2013). The researchers argued that other administrative measures, such as education, for people are necessary for equating a societal bias to shooting (James et al., 2013). However, the results of the study never specified whether the study was a blind study. As a result, the participants may have known of the purpose of the study and were simply overly cautious in an attempt not to appear biased (James et al., 2013).

With the contributing factors and potential causes highlighted, it is important to recognize the varied consequences of the current problem. The following section examines the existing consequences of the issue, including psychological issues,

declining police legitimacy, and more loss of life. Each is examined in relation to the literature, and each highlights the necessity that this problem be addressed.

Consequences of the Issue

Stokes, Wilson, Jordan, and Harris (2016) asserted that race is a dominant factor that influences officers in their decision to make an arrest or use deadly force against AA males. The researchers framed their work with the institutional discrimination perspective to explain how race can have harmful and deadly consequences. Crime data show that AAs are arrested, sentenced, and convicted at a higher rate than their White counterparts who display similar behavior and commit similar crimes (Stokes et al., 2016). The researchers note that following the death of Michael Brown, the Justice Department concluded that police in Ferguson, Missouri racially profiled, ticketed, and fined AAs discriminately as a means of generating funds for the city (Stokes et al., 2016).

Institutional racism and discrimination is deeply entrenched in our nation's history, "customs, laws and social practices" (Stokes et al., 2016, p. 50). Police use of unlawful, deadly force against AA males brings to light how differently they are treated from White men based on perception of threat and stereotypes, thus proving that their lives are devalued, especially when very few officers are indicted or held accountable for their actions (Stokes et al., 2016). These circumstances have significant consequences for AA males, and for society as a whole.

Psychological Consequences

Brooms and Perry (2016) conducted a qualitative study involving in-depth interviews with 25 Black men with educational attainment ranging from those who attended some college up to receiving post college degrees regarding, “their self-conceptions of race, stereotyping, profiling...and their reflections on the recent killings of Black men” (p. 166). The researchers’ goal was to gain a better understanding of how race intersected with being a Black male and how their living conditions were impacted by cultural, environmental, and institutional factors (Brooms & Perry, 2016). The researchers utilized CRT and invisibility syndrome to frame their study. According to the invisibility syndrome, Black men are devalued because the dominant race is racist and prejudiced against them, causing them to feel worthless, hopeless, anger, depressed, and to turn to drug abuse (Brooms & Perry, 2016). Brooms and Perry concluded that Black men believed (a) they were not respected, (b) they felt devalued and worthless, (c) they were constantly surveyed, stereotyped and profiled when they were in public, and (d) being Black men could cost them their lives on any given day, because their race and gendered identities made them subject to racism, prejudices, dangerous and criminal in the eyes of Whites.

Race-related stress was examined by Hudson et al.’s (2016) qualitative study as well. Hudson et al. conducted four focus groups with AA men near the city of Ferguson in Saint Louis, Missouri. The purpose of the study was to garner a better understanding of the effects of race-related stress and the risk it posed to their mental and physical

health (Hudson et al., 2016). A total of 26 AA men aged 18 years and older participated in the study. The themes of “perceptions of interpersonal discrimination, structural racism, and coping” emerged from the study (Hudson et al., 2016, p. 137).

Racial discrimination and systematic racism materialized as pervasive stressors for the participants (Hudson et al., 2016). Participants expressed systemic experiences of discrimination when interacting with the criminal justice system (Hudson et al., 2016). The participants shared that their religious faith, familial support, drinking, and smoking were coping mechanisms to deal with their issues (Hudson et al., 2016). Due to chronic exposure to stress and discrimination, the poor health behaviors such as smoking, substance abuse, and alcoholism predispose AAs to increase interactions with police (Hudson et al., 2016). The participants also expressed observing microaggressions, defined as subtle, unfair treatment and demeanor from Whites they felt powerless against (Hudson et al., 2016). Furthermore, the participants expressed excessive use of racial profiling as well as constantly feeling as if they were under surveillance by White officers (Hudson et al., 2016).

Sewell, Horsford, Coleman, and Watkins (2016) employed the Mundane Extreme Environmental Stress model to explore how the discriminatory surveillance and overt vigilance while patrolling AA areas provokes social, physical, and mental health issues. In addition, the Family Stress Model and racial socialization theory aided the researchers in developing a theoretical framework for understanding the various ways Blacks interact with law enforcement officers in response to the unreasonable and unjustified shootings

of Blacks in their communities (Sewell et al., 2016). This is due to police perception, unfair police practices, structural inequality, hyper-surveillance, and stereotyping (Sewell et al., 2016).

Nationwide, police misconduct data is often based on voluntary local reporting. As a result of lack of a comprehensive program monitoring police use of deadly force, a research collaborative entitled Mapping Police Violence has been developed. Experiences in low-income neighborhoods range from “targeted for illegal activity...search, seizure, and arrest, whether it is warranted or not, are frequent occurrences” (Sewell et al., 2016, p. 296). According to Sewell et al. (2016), hyper-surveillance affects police perception and has a direct bearing on coping mechanisms for Black families such as the threat of arrest, which can affect families long-term and destroy any hope of trust citizens may have with the police (Sewell et al., 2016).

Staggers-Hakim (2016) conducted a qualitative pilot study utilizing in-depth interviews to get a better understanding of the impact of high-profile police killings of AA men on the lives of young boys. The researchers compiled three focus groups totaling 16 participants between the ages of 14-18 years with parental permission and the Institutional Review Board approval. Themes that emerged from the interviews were (a) awareness of the recent cases of police brutality and police killings in high profile cases, (b) knowledge of perceptions and stereotypes of Black men viewed as a threat, (c) fear of the police and being in the presence of police, (d) knowledge of having to be careful of their actions in public and the their dress, (e) strategies to stay alive and arrive at home

safely, (f) self-identification with victims, and (g) understanding that it could have been them that was killed during police interaction or that it could happen to them (Staggers-Hakim, 2016). Staggers-Hakim noted that it is imperative to address the racial injustices geared toward men of color and the unwarranted, and in some cases, targeting and killing of the Black man. It should be incumbent upon the Justice department to hold those officers who engage in police brutality, unlawful murder and abuse of power accountable for actions as a warning that police misconduct will not be tolerated.

Loss of Police Legitimacy

In the ongoing discussion of the consequences of negative interactions between AA males and the police, the legitimacy of the police and their authority can become compromised. Gau and Brunson (2015) conducted a qualitative study using interviews to determine if perceived procedural injustice destroys police legitimacy and influences individuals to rely on self-help as a mode of protection, which could lead them to commit the very crimes for which they are scrutinized. Participants in the study totaled 45 Black and White young males ranging in ages from 13-19 years who resided in distressed neighborhoods in St. Louis, Missouri with high rates of poverty, unemployment, and single-parent homes headed by women. The researchers utilized purposive sampling to target males who were considered urban, at-risk, and possibly had past interactions with police viewed as negative.

The researcher concluded that most respondents believed that the police harassed them most of the time. Half stated the police were always rude and difficult to talk to.

Roughly 78% had been stopped by the police once, with some reporting that they have been stopped by the police as many as 100 times. One-third admitted to being stopped by the police in the last six months for minor and status offenses, and more than 45% had been arrested at least once. Many participants stated that the police often stopped them even when they were not engaged in any wrong-doing, which lead to erosion of police legitimacy, thus causing the respondents to rely on their own friends for protection as opposed to calling the police when in need.

Posick, Rocque, and McDevitt (2013) also documented the lasting damage that a loss of confidence in the police can have. Posick et al. conducted a quantitative study using data from the National Police Research Platform's Police-Community Interaction Survey (PCIS) comprised of more than 12,000 responses from individuals who had recently had an encounter with the police. A total of 1,290 individuals participated in the study. The study's purpose was to "examine the psychometric properties of...confidence in the police and procedural justice" utilizing the "classical theory test (CCT)" and "item response theory (IRT)" to determine if the scales used in past research to measure these two constructs were reliable, valid, and worked the same based on race (Posick et al., 2013, p. 195).

The researchers utilized a Rasch analysis, which is an IRT method, to determine if there was differential item functioning in how the different races, comprised of Whites, Blacks, Hispanics, Asians, Indians, and others, interpreted and answered the surveys. Researchers indicated that the scales were valid and reliable using CCT, confidence in the

police and procedural justice are related to being satisfied with the police, and there was evidence supporting the literature regarding Blacks and Hispanics having a more negative view of the police than Whites (Posick et al., 2013).

Van Craen and Skogan (2014) examined the factors influencing the trust in the police in European countries using a quantitative approach. Similar to the United States, European countries have documented increased distrust and perceived discrimination toward officers in minority communities. Data were gathered from 418 participants using performance theory, which posits that societal trust is based on the overall evaluation of the government's performance (Van Craen & Skogan, 2014). Positive attitudes toward officers correlate with a community's interpretation of preferred outcomes (Van Craen & Skogan, 2014).

When citizens believe the outputs of officers are satisfactory, the citizens of that community tend to trust and support officers (Van Craen & Skogan, 2014). In general, citizens believe that an officer's duties entail preventing crime and apprehending criminals (Van Craen & Skogan, 2014). The common public attitude toward officers improves when crime rates are down and more assailants are arrested, but as crime rates increase and assailants are not arrested, citizens demand more or better officers (Van Craen & Skogan, 2014).

Civil Disobedience and Protesting

Civil disobedience is an indicator that officers are not viewed as professionals with moral authority. Trust and positive attitudes toward officers can be swayed by the

way officers treat citizens. One-way police demonstrate procedural unfairness is to treat members of various communities differently based on an individual's race (Van Craen & Skogan, 2014). Systemic "venality, discrimination, intimidation, excessive force, brutality," and a lack of procedural fairness are some factors exacerbating the negative attitudes towards officers (Van Craen & Skogan, 2014, p. 305). Officers can demonstrate they encompass a moral structure by treating citizens fairly.

Davenport et al. (2011) examined data on more than 15,000 protests held by Blacks and Whites from 1960 to 1990 to determine the level of police involvement in protests based on race. Researchers used systemic racism theory (SRT), GPT and racial threat theory (RTT), and the ethnic competition theory to explain why AAs are treated differently than protesters of other races during protests. SRT states that minorities are oppressed for the economic benefits of Whites, which makes them the more superior race (Feagin, 2013). RTT asserts that if the number of people in a subordinate race surpasses that of the dominant race then it threatens the political and economic power of the dominant race, thus the dominant race is forced to implement social control over the subordinate race which it views as a criminal threat (Eitle, D'Alessio, Stolzenberg, 2002). The ethnic competition theory posits that resources such as jobs, housing and governmental benefits are scarce, so individuals favor right-wing political parties to thwart competing for these resources from immigrants and minorities (Olzak, 1992).

The researchers concluded that police involvement in AA protests was higher than involvement in protests held by Whites. In addition, law enforcement was also more

likely to make arrests during Black protests because Black protesters were viewed as more threatening. White protests were viewed as less threatening and drew less police monitoring of them and interaction with the police during protests (Davenport et al., 2011).

Recent Killings

Maskaly and Donner (2015) integrated social learning theory (SLT) and terror management theory (TMT) to explain the shootings of unarmed Black men in the United States. The researchers noted the killings of Michael Brown and Tamir Rice, both in 2014, Sean Bell in 2006, and Amadou Diallo in 1999. All men were unarmed. In the case of Michael Brown, he was shot six times for failure to comply with police orders to stop running. Sean Bell, who had just left a night club and was in a vehicle with two other occupants, was fired on up to 50 times when he failed to comply with police orders and attempted to pull away in his vehicle. Officers stated they believed a gun was in the vehicle when they fired, but no gun was found. Amadou Diallo was shot at 41 times, with 19 bullets striking him, while reaching for his wallet after police asked him to put his hands up. Diallo did not speak nor understand English and did not possess a gun. SLT attributes the learning process to both acceptable and criminal and deviant behaviors. TMT purports that the anxiety brought on by the idea of dying affects human behavior. Researchers concluded that officers fear annihilation, that is losing their own lives to death in a shoot-out with suspects, and thus protect the police subculture by shooting suspects out of fear first.

Channel 2 Action News – Atlanta Journal Constitution, located in Atlanta, Georgia, conducted an investigation examining the details of every deadly police shooting case in Georgia (Table 1) from January 2010 to January 2016 (Fleischer, 2016). The researchers filed an open records request for every case with the Georgia Bureau of Investigation or the local agency that handled the case. The cases were tracked through district attorneys’ offices and grand jury outcomes (Fleischer, 2016). Data were collected from medical examiner’s reports, death records, and Peace Officers Standards and Training records (Fleischer, 2016).

Table 1

Deadly Police Shootings in GA 2010-2016

	Armed	Unarmed	Total
Black	73	17	90
White	75	14	89
Other	10	0	10
Total	158	31	189
Shot in the Back			
	Unarmed	Armed	Total
Black	7	13	20
White	4	5	9
Total	11	18	29

Of the 189 total individuals fatally shot over a 6-year time span, 90 were Black, 89 were White, and 10 were another race; 31 were unarmed. Of those 31 unarmed, 17 were Black, 14 were White, and 1 Uncertain (it was not clear whether this individual possessed a gun). Of those individuals unarmed, seven Blacks and four Whites were shot

in the back only. Of the 158 who were armed, 70 individuals were shot in the back and elsewhere on their bodies; however, 18 were shot only in the back. Of those 18 armed and shot only in the back, 13 were Black and five were White.

Martinot (2013) examined the high-profiled deaths of numerous Black men dating back to 2009. According to the researcher, all of the police except one were exonerated, but the issue with most of the cases is the poor and unbelievable excuses rendered by law enforcement to justify the killings. Those killed involved Oscar Grant, Trayvon Martin who was killed by a community neighborhood watchman, Chavis Carter, Gary King, Alan Blueford, and Kenneth Harding, to name a few. According to Martinot, all of the officers were driven by an internal fixation to kill. Each refusal to comply resulted in an immediate response to kill (Martinot, 2013).

Martinot (2013) indicated a pattern whereby the officers kill and devise a justification; the police departments, district attorneys, and judges refuse to indict; the media buys into the officer's story and demonizes the victim; hence, a collective hand on the gun used in the killings. However, this is not the case for Whites who usually escape with their lives and lesser sentences than Black men who commit the same or similar crimes. Whites must be protected, but Blacks are viewed as threat. According to Martinot, the police take part in creating the criminal element involving Blacks by creating situations in which they comply, but are fixated on punishing the suspect if they refuse to comply, even those who are placed in a situation where they cannot comply.

Patterson and Swan (2016) conducted a quantitative study to examine factors present in the police killings of AA men. The researcher noted that no national database exists that keeps records on the statistics of police shootings, which makes it difficult to find reasons for why these deaths occur. Due to the lack of this information and the widespread attention and anger it has garnered, the Director of the Federal Bureau of Investigation announced on September 28, 2015 that as part of the Uniform Crime Reporting criteria, data would be collected on both fatal and non-fatal police shootings (Patterson & Swan, 2016). However, most police departments across the nation do not participate in supplying the data because they are not mandated to, so providing the data is voluntary.

Research conducted in 15 databases using Boolean phrases such as *AA males*, *Black males*, *unarmed and armed males/men*, *social work*, and *shootings/killings* were used to locate studies involving deaths of AA men at the hands of police. The search yielded six articles, but none that discussed social work since they report to be committed to social justice. Results indicated that it is very difficult to determine what factors are present in police shootings, because the data that was available did not distinguish police shootings that result in injuries and shootings that result in death. However, the repeated headlines reporting deaths of AA males in police interactions continue to fill newspapers.

A recent example of this is Alton Sterling. On July 5, 2016, Alton Sterling, a Black man age 37, was shot and killed outside of a Baton Rouge, Louisiana Triple S Food Mart by a White policeman. According to the store's owner, Abdullah Muflahti,

Sterling was in the parking lot of the store selling CDs as he had done for several years with his permission, when he was approached by two White policemen. According to the Baton Rouge police, an anonymous 911 call from what was later determined to be a homeless man was called in regarding an earlier threat against him by someone who fit the description of Sterling, allegedly waving a gun at him. Officers Blane Salmoni and Howie Lake approached Sterling, tasered him and then tackled him to the ground. Sterling did not wave a gun nor threaten anyone, according to Muflahti (Fausset, Pérez-Peña & Robertson, 2016). Muflahti and BlackLivesMatter activist, Arthur Reed, both videotaped the altercation. In addition, Muflahti's store video, which captured the killing, was confiscated by police without his permission (Fausset et al., 2016).

Sterling's death, which aired on social media, led to protests and marches across the nation. As Sterling lay on the ground, one officer threatened to shoot him if he moved, and another officer yelled "he has a gun," while Sterling's hands and arms were pinned to the ground, prompting the other officer to shoot him multiple times. The police were later seen on videotape removing a gun from his pocket (Fausset et al., 2016). Sterling, a convicted felon, allegedly posed no threat to the officers prior to being killed, although felons are not allowed to possess firearms. The Department of Justice was asked to investigate Sterling's death by the governor of Louisiana, state officials, and activists.

Within 24 hours of Sterling's death, Mr. Philando Castile, age 32, accompanied by his girlfriend, Ms. Diamond Reynolds and her four-year daughter, all Black, were

pulled over in Flacon Heights, Minnesota, allegedly for a broken tail light on Wednesday, July 6, 2019. According to Reynolds, the police asked Castile for his driver's license and car registration, at which time Castile and Reynolds both allegedly informed the officer that Castile had a gun on his person and a license to carry it. According to Reynolds, as Castile reached for his identification, Officer Jeronimo Yanez, a White officer, fired several shots into the vehicle striking and killing Castile.

Reynolds, who remained composed, began to livestream the aftermath of the shooting of Facebook social media for millions to view in real time. The shooting prompted President Barack Obama to speak out about the racial indifferences in the United States and the treatment of people of color responding to the shootings by stating "This is not just a Black issue, not just a Hispanic issue. This is an American issue that we all should care about" (Furber & Pérez-Peña, 2016, p. 1). In addition, Governor Mark Dayton of Minnesota believed race played a part in the shooting of Castile and reiterated that if the person had been White, he did not believe this would have happened (Furber & Pérez-Peña, 2016).

Miller (2016), a writer for the Washington Post, reported another death of an unarmed Black man killed at the hands of police the same month. On July 28, 2016, there was a report of a stolen Honda Civic automobile in the city of Los Angeles, California in which the suspect, 24-year-old Robert Alexander, was allegedly armed when he carjacked the victim. Later that same day, the stolen vehicle was reported by police as seen in the city of Compton, California, and the police ensued a chase.

Allegedly, the suspect exchanged gunfire with the police and crashed. The suspect fled on foot into a residential area where he forced his way into someone's home, threw his gun under the couch, undressed, and got into bed with an elderly woman.

At the same time, a young man named Donnell Thompson, age 27, but who had the mind of a 16-year-old and no criminal record, was reported sleeping in a neighbor's yard nearby. The police SWAT team arrived in armored vehicles, believing Thompson to be the carjacking suspect in question because of his physical appearance and clothing. The police fired flash-bang explosives at Thompson, who did not respond. They then fired rubber bullets at him and he jumped to his feet, unarmed, and ran toward the armored vehicle, at which time he was shot and killed. It took two weeks for the police to admit that Thompson had nothing to do with the crime and that they had made a terrible mistake in killing him.

These examples, and the very narrow timeframes within which they occurred, highlight the ongoing problem, and the risk that AA males face in any interaction with police. Understanding the root causes of the tensions that create these tragic outcomes is a crucial precursor to identifying solutions. This study is one step toward collecting the necessary data that will support future solutions.

Literature Supporting the Selected Methods

A review of the literature revealed that most of the studies used methods and variables that validated past research regarding perceptions of procedural justice and cooperation with police. For example, Murphy and Cherney (2015) conducted a

quantitative study examining the relationship between group identification (minority or majority) and willingness to cooperate with police utilizing a cross-sectional survey. The data were collected from 2010-2011 from 10,148 Australian residents, inclusive of a booster sample of 908 participants with an ethnic minority background, living in or near Brisbane using random digit dialing. Participants were 18 years or older. The researchers measured “police cooperation, procedural justice, police performance, superordinate identity, subordinate identity, separatist identity and demographics” (Murphy, 2015, p. 724). The dependent variable was procedural justice. The independent variable was willingness to cooperate with police. The control variables included age, gender, education, employment, prior contact with police, ethnicity and language.

Researchers concluded that an individual’s intent to cooperate with police is based on their perception of procedural justice, identity plays a role in police cooperation, and police performance was more important than procedural justice regarding an individual’s intent to cooperate with police (Murphy & Cherney, 2015). The strengths of their chosen method are as follows: proof that predicted relationships existed, large samples aided in finding differences, and the relationship between key variable and intention to cooperate were statistically significant (Murphy & Cherney, 2015).

However, the weaknesses are that cross-sectional surveys are a snapshot in time and cannot offer support for causality, risk of Type I errors, cannot generalize to the larger populations, and selection of different factors may have offered stronger support

for predicting intentions to cooperate, to name a few (Murphy & Cherney, 2015).

Conducting a longitudinal or experimental study would have allowed the researcher to test for causality.

Another example is White et al.'s (2016) study that examined the strength of "the relationship between procedural justice, police legitimacy, and the willingness to cooperate with the police" utilizing interviews and surveys (p. 343). Part of the study involved administering participants a survey using a 4-point Likert scale with responses ranging from "strongly disagree," "disagree," "agree," and "strongly agree" (White et al., 2016, p. 351). The independent variables included procedural justice and legitimacy relationship and the covariates included age, sex, race/ethnicity, SES, education, employment (White et al., 2016).

Researchers concluded that procedural justice was positively and significantly correlated with police legitimacy, that Blacks who had prior contact with police reported lower levels of trust and legitimacy, and perceptions of procedural justice and legitimacy were strongly correlated with willingness to cooperate (White et al., 2016). Strengths of this study design include being able to detect a strong link between the key variables and being able to generalize to individuals with criminal pasts. In addition, perceptions of procedural justice and police legitimacy are good predictors of willingness to cooperate. Weaknesses include data only being collected from one location which does not allow for comparison or generalizability, data was self-reported, and the study uses the standard

measures of procedural justice rather than asking specific questions that may elicit more supportive data.

MacDonald et al. (2007) conducted a quantitative correlational cross-sectional study examining the relationship between race, neighborhood context and perceptions of injustice by the police. A Likert scale survey was used to measure perceived injustice by police on a 4-point scale and perceived racially biased policing on a five-point scale. Covariate variables included age and SES (education, employment and household income; MacDonald et al., 2007).

The researchers concluded that Blacks differed significantly from Whites in their perceptions about injustice by police even after taking into account that both races lived in the same or similar neighborhoods (MacDonald et al., 2007). Blacks tended to believe that police treated them more unfairly than Whites and that they experienced higher levels of racially biased police practices compared to Whites (MacDonald et al., 2007). In addition, younger people were significantly more likely to complain of racial injustice by police than older participants in the study (MacDonald et al., 2007).

Implications

As read in the literature, several studies supported the study in part, if not in whole. Many of the researchers demonstrate the need to continue to study and gain more knowledge regarding all the moving parts of the criminal justice system as it pertains to procedural justice and citizen-police interactions. Knowledge about and answers regarding these issues can lead to informed policy decisions and police retraining needed

to aid in improving citizen-police relationships in the Black community, which at this time is deeply divided in many areas across the nation.

It is virtually impossible to examine the correlation between the way in which AA males perceive procedural justice and consent to police authority without measuring the main variables of interest. This study drew its justification of variables from literature that follows created by notable authors on the issues in the field which include, procedural justice, consent to police authority, race, age and SES, all believed to have an impact on citizen-police interactions. Gau et al. (2012) measured procedural justice, police legitimacy, age, race, gender, and SES. Inclusion of these variables in the study aided in revealing and confirming that Blacks were more likely to feel negatively about police legitimacy and procedural justice (Gau et al., 2012).

One of the most significant findings that justified the study was Nix et al. (2014), whom examined whether respondents' perceived collective efficacy in any way influenced trust of the police and compliance with police officers. The researchers concluded that citizens who believed that collective efficacy was important also believed that the police demonstrated fairness. However, those individuals who did not believe that collective efficacy existed believed the police as unfair and unjust (Nix et al., 2014). Secondly, White et al. (2016) examined the "robustness of the relationship between procedural justice, police legitimacy, and the willingness to cooperate with the police" regarding females arrested (p. 343). Findings concluded that AAs who have had contact with the police in the past do not think favorably of them (White et al., 2016).

Lastly, Gau et al. (2012) examined the impact of neighborhood and community level factors on individual's perceptions of procedural justice and police legitimacy. Measuring many of the same variables as the current study, the researchers concluded that Blacks view procedural justice much more negatively than their White counterparts, and that Blacks are more likely to feel negatively about police legitimacy due to disparities in treatment by the police (Gau et al., 2012).

Based on the literature, research supports the idea that those individuals who feel as if the police treated them with respect and allowed them to have a voice in the process tend to cooperate more and think more favorably of police performance, even if the process does not end in their favor (i.e., receiving a traffic ticket). In addition, researchers have concluded that there are deep divisions between law enforcement and the Black community stemming from many years of racism, racial bias, racial profiling, impartial decision making, lack of transparency in decision making, police brutality, White privilege and supremacy, harassment, dehumanization, marginalization, incarceration, use of deadly force, non-indictment of officers that unlawfully kill unarmed Blacks, that has gone unresolved for decades and led to anger, rage, tension, marches, riots and national debates in the United States. What was not known is how race, age, and SES interact with perceived procedural justice to predict actual cooperation with the police as it relates to the killing of unarmed Black males, as well as how an AA male's personal experience(s) may shape his willingness to cooperate with the police if the officer is a member of the White race. The study gathered that knowledge.

Summary

A topic very much in the forefront of media attention today is the killing of unarmed AA men with no justice served. Prosecutors often refuse to indict policemen responsible for the killings and police are being exonerated for doing what they say are their jobs (Jacobi, 2000). AA men are tired of being dehumanized and believe that Black Lives Matter (BLM) too. These deaths have led to a movement sparked by rage and protests in most major cities across the nation, because the killings are senseless. AAs want answers, they want the deaths to stop, and most of all they want law enforcement held accountable. The BLM movement was started by three women who were outraged by the acquittal of George Zimmerman, a Hispanic neighborhood watchman, in the shooting death of Trayvon Martin, an unarmed Florida teen walking from a convenient store through his father's neighborhood to his father's home. It is the BLM movement's belief that AAs, especially young men, are unfairly targeted for demise by White police (Garza, 2014). Its goal is to bring attention to police misconduct and social inequities involving people of color (Rickford, 2016).

The literature review shows a link between the way in which AA males view the procedural justice system and compliance, whether willing or unwilling, with police officer authority (Dai et al., 2011; Doherty & Wolak, 2012; Gau & Brunson, 2015; Gau et al., 2012; Hough, 2012; Johnathan-Zamir et al., 2013; Murphy et al., 2015; Nix et al., 2014; Schuck & Martin, 2013; Tyler & Blader, 2003; White et al., 2016).

This study was an effort to fill the gap in the literature that showed that no studies had been conducted to specifically determine if deaths of unarmed AAM males was related to refusal to consent to police officer authority with regard to their perception of the procedural justice system; this study determined the correlation between these two variables, as well as the moderating variables, which included age and SES. Chapter 3 provides a detailed discussion of the research design and methodology used to conduct the study, and the type of the data collected, research instrument, and consent forms used to obtain permission from participants.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to gain a better understanding of AAM males' perception of procedural justice and treatment by the police regarding officer-involved deaths. CRT and PJT perspectives provide the framework for this study. CRT is based on the assertion that effects of White supremacy, colorblindness, and racial domination are maintained over time and has become ingrained in society because the law sustains it. PJT asserts that people expect fair treatment and equality by criminal justice and judicial processes when resolving issues and problems have to do with the police and the courts. The variables studied in this research were the perception of the procedural justice system (independent variable/predictor variable) and the consent to police authority (dependent variable). The control variables were SES and age.

Research Design

A quantitative correlational research design was chosen for this study. Cooperrider and Schindler (2008) defined research design as the “blueprint for fulfilling objectives and answering questions” (p. 89). Educational institutions vary in their classification of research design. In quantitative research, these institutions generally accept that there are three major types of research design: correlational, descriptive and experimental. The research questions are answered using deductive reasoning, which is a process in which several premises are logically determined to be true and are merged together to draw a specific conclusion. According to the positivist approach, deductive

reasoning assumes that the truth comes by way of the five senses. If the research results are not based on one or more of the five senses, then they are not true (Popper & Miller, 1983). For example, participants' values will be measured via numerical values. As such, the principal outcome of the research represents the truth that exists at the time the study was conducted.

A correlational, ex-post facto design was used to further guide the research. Correlational research refers to the fact that two variables are, to some degree, related. As such, cause and effect will not be measured. Ex-post facto means that participants are not assigned to a group since group status has already been defined by CRT and PJT perspectives; that is, based on the effects of White supremacy, colorblindness and racial domination as well as the expected fairness in criminal justice and judicial processes to treat all mankind just and equally.

Data were collected from AA millennials by way of a demographic survey and a validated procedural justice (Likert scale survey/questionnaire) instrument from a non-random convenient sample. I used the SurveyMonkey platform to target approximately 200 participants living in metropolitan Atlanta, Georgia, via the SurveyMonkey portal; 69 participants were included in the study.

Justification for the Study Design

The nature of the study was primarily a quantitative, non-experimental correlational research that employs survey methodology to obtain data. There is strong theoretical support that attitudes and beliefs about procedural treatment are significant

predictors of behavior. Based on a lack of specific research on the topic, adequate information is needed to broaden all categories of procedural justice, and intent to submit to police authority to better promote the lives and well-being of individuals.

Options for the study included a qualitative or quantitative design. Both types of research would serve the body of knowledge that currently exists, but a quantitative design is supported by the specified theoretical framework and evidence that theory has previously been established on the topic. Accordingly, a quantitative design was selected as the best method for the study.

Quantitative research provides the means to empirically establish a relationship between two variables while qualitative research enables the researcher to uncover rich information that could not otherwise be detected via a quantitative design (Creswell, 2013). Quantitative results derived from this study yield effect sizes and probability coefficients to determine the effect the independent variable has on the dependent variable. This allowed me to infer efficacy of findings and impact on AAMs.

Resources were limited by my ability to obtain a sufficient sample of AAMs to test the hypotheses, and financial and academic course constraints that limited my ability to conduct the study within a certain time frame. A quantitative design provides the means to limit the amount of time necessary to collect data from AAMs (Creswell, 2013). This means that surveys can be distributed within a certain time frame and subsequently collected without a lot of interaction between the researcher and participants (Creswell, 2013). Also, analysis of data was conducted using accepted statistical protocols

(Creswell, 2013). This methodology streamlines the statistical process and limits the amount of bias due to a passion for the topic.

A quantitative design provides the means to advance knowledge on the topic while limiting bias and error (Creswell, 2013). Bias was limited given the nature of the methodology and the fact that validated instruments were used to assess participant attitudes toward procedural justice and intent to submit to police authority. Moreover, error was limited by obtaining a representative sample of the population and analyzing the data using standard statistical techniques. For example, provided statistical assumptions are met, multiple regression produces robust results that can be used to guide policy and future research on the topic.

Population, Setting, and Sample

The target population for this study was adult millennial AA males living in metropolitan Atlanta in the state of Georgia. The metropolitan Atlanta area includes 9 (Metro Atlanta Chamber of Commerce, 2017) counties in North Georgia, with an estimated population of 5.8 million people, according to the 2016 U.S. Census (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). Specifically, millennial AA males between the ages of 18 and 35 years living in metropolitan Atlanta in the state of Georgia was the target population for the study. The U.S. Census Bureau expects the millennial generation to outgrow the Baby Boomer generation by 2015 (Rogowski & Cohen, 2015).

Most millennials live near urban areas, less than 15% live in rural areas, more than 50% live in suburban areas, and roughly 32% live in the city. The economy does

not bode well for them, with the median household income being about \$35,300 before taxes which is lower than the median income of \$43,900 as of 2001, and 20% face poverty (Rogowski & Cohen, 2015).

Millennials are described as the most racially diverse group of individuals in the nation, with 40% identifying as non-White, 19% as Hispanic or Latino, 13% AA or Black and 6% Asians. At the rate of growth of millennials in the nation, they are expected to out-pace Whites in the next few decades (Rogowski & Cohen, 2015). There are approximately 10 million Black or AA millennials that reside in the United States. Through data extrapolation, there are approximately 4.9 million Black or AA millennial males (Rogowski & Cohen, 2015).

Millennials were chosen given the generational values they hold and likelihood to question authority. Harris (1998) purported that the prefrontal cortex in young adults is designed to question authority during this developmental phase of life. Essentially, the developing brain is testing the parameters of its logic when rebelling against authority. Concrete or absolute perceptions about life evolve to embrace and explore the world in abstract terms.

Convenience sampling was used in this study to extricate the sample from the target population. Researchers have established that there are various types of purposeful sampling which include typical, homogeneity, extreme, maximum variation, convenience, and snowball. The convenience sample is a non-probability sampling technique that aids the researcher in obtaining participants that can be easily reached who

are close at hand. Specifically, Merriam (1998) asserted that this type of sampling technique is used due to restrictions of “time, money, location, and availability of sites or respondents” (p. 63).

Convenience sampling is frequently used to collect data that is generally representative of the population under study in research. “This method is often used during research efforts to get an estimate of results, without incurring the cost or time required to select a random sample” (StatPac, 2007, p. 1). This sampling technique is more affordable and allows the researcher to gather the data needed within a certain period of time and in an environment that makes data collection easier. The use of convenience sampling makes it difficult to generalize to the larger population and may not represent the target population sufficiently. In other words, the participants selected for the study may not fully represent the population being studied. Therefore, replication of study results may be needed to validate the study (Keppel & Zedeck, 2001).

Thereby, the convenience sampling technique despite its shortcomings is the best method of procuring a sample from a population when time, lack of funding, and conditions prohibit random sampling (Neuman, 2003). Therefore, convenience sampling as opposed to random sampling, allows the researcher to seek an estimation of the true distribution when procuring a true representation of the population is tentatively restrictive. Selection bias may occur when using this type of sampling technique and represents a limitation to the study.

The sample was obtained from SurveyMonkey. The scope of the sample was therefore limited to a sample maintained by SurveyMonkey. The sample obtained from Survey Monkey was assumed to be a representation of the population at large. To be included in the population, the individual must have been at least 18 years of age or older, but not older than 35 years. Potential participants were given an informed consent letter that contained information on the purpose of the study and what their participation would entail. The letter also provided information regarding their rights to withdraw from the research study at any time without penalty. Only participants agreeing to the consent letter were able to complete the survey. The survey included statements that had to be answered.

SurveyMonkey maintains panels of individuals who voluntarily agree to participate in research. According to Creswell (2009), the SurveyMonkey online tool has existed since 1999 and can be used by researchers to formulate their own survey questions and “can generate results and report them back to the researcher as descriptive statistics or as graphed information...results can be downloaded into a spreadsheet or database for further analysis” (p. 149). Given the distributed nature of the sample, no specific setting was defined.

Sampling Frame

Participants must have self-identified as Black or AA. This meant that if participants did not select a forced-choice option on the survey that stated *Black or African American*, they were thanked for their time and effort. Participants also had to be

between the ages of 18 and 35 years. Participants older or younger than the specified age were graciously thanked, but not allowed to continue with the survey. Participants also had to identify as male, rather than female to obtain unfettered access to the survey.

Participants were not restricted based on income, SES, or philosophical sensitivities. Further, participant's ontological focus was not a condition for inclusion or exclusion.

Power analysis. Three statistical parameters are described in the literature to ensure adequate sample size: power, expected effect size, and critical alpha (Aguinis, 2004). Power is defined as the probability of finding a statistical difference between groups, if one exists in the population (Aguinis, 2004). Power is usually set at 80%, which means that there is an 80% chance, given the sample size, that a significant difference will be found (Aguinis, 2004). The effect size is the amount of construct overlap expected between the variables being measured (Cohen, 1988). The magnitude of effect size is defined in terms of *Cohen's d* as .10 represents a "small effect," .15 signifies a "medium effect," and .50 signifies a "large effect" (Cohen, 1988). For this study, a medium expected effect size of .15 was adopted.

Critical alpha determines likelihood that a significant finding occurred by chance. In the social sciences, critical alpha is generally set at .05, which means that "there is a 5% chance that the null hypothesis will be rejected when in fact it is true" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 78). Therefore, a formal power analysis was conducted using where: power, effect size and alpha were - .80, .15 and .05 respectively. Therefore, for H1, using

G*Power 3.0.12 (a power analysis program used to produce sample size), 68 participants were needed to produce an 80% probability of rejecting the null hypothesis (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007).

Recruitment was effectively managed by SurveyMonkey, but under my control. The survey was loaded into the SurveyMonkey portal, and then age and ethnicity criteria were selected to define the sample. Participants were asked to complete the survey by the SurveyMonkey automated program. The survey took approximately 15 minutes to complete. Once the minimum sample size was collected, data collection ceased. It was expected that the data collection process would take around two weeks to complete.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Questions

RQ1: What is the relationship between procedural justice viewed by African American millennial men and consent to police officer authority?

RQ2: How does millennial African American male's socioeconomic status affect the relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority?

RQ3: How does millennial African American male's age affect the relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority?

Hypotheses

H_01 : There is a relationship between procedural justice viewed by African American males (AAM) and consent to police officer authority

H_A1 : There is no relationship between procedural justice viewed by African American males (AAM) and consent to police officer authority

- DV: Consent to police officer authority
- Predictor Variable (PV): African American male's (AAM) perception of procedural justice system

H_02 : There is a relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority after controlling for African American male's (AAM) socioeconomic status

H_A2 : There is no relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority after controlling for African American male's (AAM) socioeconomic status

- DV: Consent to police officer authority
- Predictor Variable (PV): African American males (AAM) perception of procedural justice system
- Control Variable: African American male's (AAM) socioeconomic status

H_03 : African American male's (AAM) age does not affect the relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority

H_{A3} : African American male's (AAM) age does affect the relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority

- DV: Consent to police officer authority
- Predictor Variable (PV): African American male's (AAM) perception of procedural justice system

Control Variable: African American male's (AAM) age

Correlational research refers to the fact that two variables are, to some degree, related. As such, cause and effect were not measured. Ex post facto means that participants are not assigned to a group since group status has already be defined by socioecological conditions; that is, participants belong to a group via natural circumstance rather than random placement.

Parametric/interval data were collected via a Likert-type scale. A Likert scale is theoretically ordinal, but it is acceptable to use in parametric tests in some cases provided that there are at minimum of 5 to 7 categories. Lubke, Dolan, Kelderman, and Mellenbergh (2003) postulated that when using Likert scale data that it is possible to find true parameter values in factor analysis, provided assumptions about normality, skewness and kurtosis are met. Glass, Peckham, and Sanders (1972) posit that when using Likert scales that it is possible to obtain accurate p -values from tests that use the general linear model. Therefore, this study assumed that participants represented the numerical anchors needed in the survey to warrant the use of interval level measurement based on theoretical support of the use of Likert-type scales.

Four variables were used in this study: perception of the procedural justice system (independent variable/predictor variable), consent to police authority (dependent variable), SES (control variable), and age (control variable).

The procedural justice system was defined as a criminal justice system that must consistently demonstrate its legitimacy to the public it serves. The variable was continuously scaled, meaning that there is a perceived relationship between response options. Consent to police authority was defined as the likelihood of an individual to submit to police authority. The variable was continuously scaled meaning that there is a perceived relationship between response options.

SES was a control variable in the study. This meant that SES (as defined by education, income, living arrangement) was expected to affect the relationship between procedural justice and willingness to submit to police authority. A single variable was derived from the three SES questions by running a factor analysis. The main factor (identified by the largest eigenvalue) was extracted and saved as a continuous variable. The variable was scaled from 0-1 meaning that as values increase, SES increases.

Similarly, age was also presumed to affect the relationship between procedural justice and willingness to submit to police authority. The variable was also scaled continuously meaning that as values increase, age increases – see Table 2.

Table 2

Description of Each Specified Variable Including Variable Description, Type, and Scale

Item	Variable Description	Type	Scale
1	Procedural Justice	Dependent Variable	Interval
2	Consent to police officer authority	Independent Variable	Interval
3	Socioeconomic status	Control Variable	Continuous
4	Age	Control Variable	Continuous

Instrumentation

Two surveys were used in the study, Procedural Justice Inventory (PJI) developed in 2014 by Dr. Dennis P. Rosenbaum, and Willingness to Submit to Police Officer Authority (WSPA), developed in 2016 by Dr. Jim Baxter. Both surveys have been empirically validated and found to be reliable.

Procedural Justice Inventory

PJI was used as the independent variable in the study. The survey was created in 2014 by Dr. Rosenbaum. Four sub-constructs are measured by 12 continuously scaled items. The four sub-indexes were developed on key dimensions found in the procedural justice literature: (a) Quality of interaction (e.g., was the officer polite?), (b) quality of communication and emotional control (e.g., remains calm), (c) task competence (e.g., knows what they are doing), and (d) empathy and emotional support (e.g., listens). A copy of the instrument is located in Appendix C.

Response options were continuously scaled using a progressive Likert-type scale (*Strongly Disagree* = 1; *Strongly Agree* = 6). Results of principal components factor

analyses indicated items were unidimensional and internally consistent within each index. Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were strong for all four indexes ($\alpha=.76$ and $\alpha=.76$, respectively).

Survey development. The Police-Community Interaction Survey Instrument, also referred to as the PJI, was used to assess the quality of police-citizen interactions involving local police departments and sheriff's offices from 58 cities across the United States. Police and sheriff's agencies were asked to identify citizens with whom they had come into contact with in the previous two weeks involving a number of incidents from traffic stops, traffic accidents or incidents of crime (Rosenbaum, 2014). Once agencies identified cases that fit this description, invitations were mailed out to members of the community that were male, female, White, non-White, under 30 years of age, over 30 years of age, involved in a traffic stop, traffic accident and reporting a crime (Rosenbaum, 2014).

Rosenbaum (2014) compared the results of the PJI with previously used survey methods and telephone survey methods. The study found that widely known survey methods and telephone survey methods were useful in replicating findings from prior research. Also, the study produced no significant differences in results involving race and type of incident when measuring procedural justice.

Rosenbaum (2014) collected data from participants who came in contact with police officers in 2013 and 2014. Cities allied with the National Police Research Platform were contacted and asked to participate in the study. Fifty-three cities

volunteered to participate in 2013 and 2014. The original sample was arranged in sequence by region of the nation and selected local police departments and intentionally selected 20% sheriff's offices from within each region. PJI "cities were similarly representative of agency type, size, and region of the country. A total of 16,659 community members completed the survey, for an average response rate of 6.29%" (Rosenbaum, 2014, pp. 13-14).

Willingness to Submit to Police Officer Authority

Willingness to Submit to Police Authority, used in the study, was created by Baxter in 2016. The survey uses four continuously scaled questions to measure a single construct. Two of the four questions are reverse-coded, meaning that Q1 and Q4 are positively scaled, while Q2 and Q3 are negatively scaled. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the four items and was found to be unidimensional. Cronbach's alpha was also run and found to be reliable; $\alpha = .68$ (Baxter, 2016).

Survey development. Baxter (2016) surveyed 176 millennials (between the ages of 18-35 years) in 2016 to validate the WSPA. Participants were contacted via SurveyMonkey panels and asked to participate. No reward was given other than what SurveyMonkey distributes to charities on behalf of panel participants.

Both the PJI and the WSPA are appropriate and address the constructs that are being researched in the study. Both have been used and validated in prior studies involving police-citizen interaction and compliance with police officer's directions. Dr. Dennis P. Rosenbaum granted permission to use his PJI in the study. The PJI measured

police officers' performance and more specifically the quality of police-community interactions that affect police legitimacy and the public's trust of the police. The WSPA speaks to AA males' beliefs prior to an encounter with police. This belief ultimately drives behavior that molds perceptions and aids in understanding willingness to comply with police.

I personally reached out to Dr. Jim Baxter to request the use of his survey on the WSPA, as it related directly to my study. Dr. Baxter initially reached out to Dr. Dennis P. Rosenbaum on my behalf, seeking permission for me to use his survey for my study, and permission was granted. I also personally reached out to Dr. Rosenbaum requesting permission to use his PJI for my study. The emails granting permission are attached as Appendix A and Appendix B. Permission to use the PJI was granted by Dennis P. Rosenbaum, Ph.D. on 3-17-2017 (See Appendix A); and permission to use the WSPA was granted by Dr. Jim Baxter, Ph.D. on 7-26-17 (See Appendix B).

Response options were continuously scaled using a progressive Likert-type scale (*Strongly Disagree* = 1; *Strongly Agree* = 6). Cronbach's alpha and principal component factor analysis was run to determine reliability and construct validity. Results from the principal components factor analyses revealed that all items were unidimensional and internally consistent within each index. Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were strong for all four indexes ($\alpha=.76$ and $\alpha=.76$, $\alpha=.71$, $\alpha=.73$, respectively) (Rosenbaum, 2014). A copy of the instrument is available in Appendix D.

Operational definitions for the variables to be studied were (a) Consent to Police Authority: The likelihood of an individual to submit to police authority. Some individuals do not believe in their government, or in the laws they put in place. Others do not believe in any government and thereby rejects the imposition of criminal law (Morreall, 1976), (b) Procedural Justice: Perceived fairness in the legal processes that serves to resolve disputes and distribute resources (Tyler & Blader, 2003), (c) Socioeconomic Status: An individual or “group position within a hierarchical social structure. Socioeconomic status depends on a combination of variables, including occupation, education, income, wealth, and place of residence” (American Psychological Association, 2012, p. 4); and (d) Age.

Perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police authority were measured via a validated Likert type survey. SES and age were collected via the demographic survey. Both variables were measured via a Likert-type survey. SES and age were used as continuous variables. Semantic responses to the Likert scale survey were quantified from 1-6 (*strongly disagree, disagree, slightly disagree, slightly agree, agree, strongly agree*) and descriptive statistics were used to report findings. Both the consent to police authority and procedural justice variables were continuously scaled, meaning that there is a perceived relationship between response options.

The control variables were SES and age. SES was continuous and expected to affect the relationship between procedural justice and willingness to submit to police authority. The variable was continuously scaled, meaning that there is a perceived

relationship between response options. Similarly, age was also continuously scaled, meaning that there was a perceived relationship between response options and is presumed to moderate the relationship between procedural justice and willingness to submit to police authority. The variable was ordinal.

Role of the Researcher

I used the SurveyMonkey platform to obtain participant data. This means that I selected participants via the SurveyMonkey portal using the minimum participation criteria specified. Participants were provided an opportunity to complete the survey by way of an invitation and informed consent form embedded in the survey. I did not have any direct contact with participants, as SurveyMonkey controls participant panels. Also, I had no personal and professional relationship with participants and had no implicit power over their behavior or attitudes on the topic.

I was interested in the topic and researched the plight of AA males as it relates to attitudes toward procedural justice and intent to submit to police authority. I am and identify with the AA race. As such, intrinsic and extrinsic philosophies and sensibilities align with the nature of the study. Given this, natural biases had the potential to be woven into the fabric of this study. However, I did not have any relationship with subjects and bias was minimized by using standard research protocol, validated surveys, and standard statistical techniques to answer the question.

Data Collection

The survey was made available online via SurveyMonkey that was emailed to participants who met selection criteria. The selection criteria were: Millennial AA or Black male between the ages of 18-35 years living in the metropolitan Atlanta area, and who had an agreement with SurveyMonkey to voluntarily participate in research studies. No incentives for participation were offered. Participants were sent an email describing the purpose of the study and an informed consent letter for participation, which informed the participant of the number of questions on the survey and approximately how long it would take to complete. The informed consent letter guaranteed the participants complete confidentiality and informed them of the potential risks or harm they may be exposed to as well as any benefits of the study. The participant was informed that the study was completely voluntary, and they had the option to exit the study at any time – See Appendix F.

If they agreed to the terms of the form, access to the actual survey was granted via SurveyMonkey portal (Appendix G). The survey took approximately 15 minutes to complete. Once participants finished the survey, they were thanked via a Thank You page that emerged after clicking the Submit button on the final survey page. Results from the surveys were compiled and analyzed using descriptive statistics.

The SurveyMonkey panel from which participants were recruited is composed of a diverse population of millions of individuals across the United States who agree to participate in surveys if SurveyMonkey contributes to their favorite charities and a

chance to win prizes in sweepstakes which encourages participants to provide honest responses. I purchased a list of participants residing in metropolitan Atlanta, Georgia who met criteria from SurveyMonkey.

There was no need to follow up with participants because this was an anonymous online survey, other than to share results from the study if the participant requested them. When survey questions were incomplete, missing data were analyzed to evaluate the scope of the problem and determine if the data was missing at random.

Data Analysis

Simple linear regression was used to test the first hypothesis, and sequential multiple regression was used to test the second and third hypotheses. Sequential multiple regression involves entering the control variable in the first step and then entering the independent variable in the second step. R-squared change is used to determine if, after controlling for age or SES, a relationship exists between the predictor variable and dependent variable. Assumptions for regression was examined prior to conducting the statistical tests.

Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) 23.1, is one of the most popular statistical packages and is used in many universities and colleges throughout the world. SPSS is a comprehensive, interactive system for analyzing data. The software is used to take data from almost any type of file to generate descriptive reports, and create charts, and plots of distributions and trends. SPSS 23.1 was used to process, clean and test the hypotheses.

Prior to analysis, the data were screened for missing data, outliers, and the assumptions for regression (normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity). If the assumptions were not met, appropriate steps were planned. Outliers were detected by converting observed scores to z-scores to determine if any z-score value exceeds +/- 3.29 (George & Mallery, 2011). Missing data were detected by conducting a missing values analysis in SPSS. Values missing at random were imputed into the data set using the series mean function in SPSS (George & Mallery, 2011).

Hypothesis 1 was tested using a Pearson's linear regression equation where: " $\hat{Y} = a + bx_1 + e$," (Tabachnick & Fidell, p. 35). In the equation $\hat{Y} =$ consent to police authority, $a =$ "constant (value of Y when $x = 0$), $b =$ beta (coefficient of x), and $e =$ error term" (Tabachnick & Fidell, p. 35). Y was the dependent variable (consent to police authority) and x was the predictor variable (procedural justice).

For Hypothesis 2-3, sequential multiple regression was used. Sequential regression was used to control for the effects of a variable. In sequential regression, a hierarchal model is created where SES is entered into the regression model (model 1) and then, subsequently, the predictor variable (procedural justice) is entered into model 2. Using R-squared change, the relationship between procedural justice and consent to police authority was determined after controlling for SES.

The research questions were as follows:

RQ1: What is the relationship between procedural justice viewed by African American millennial men and consent to police officer?

RQ2: How does millennial African American male's socioeconomic status affect the relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority?

RQ3: How does millennial African American male's age affect the relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority?

Following are the alternative and null hypotheses to be used in the current study:

H_01 : There is a relationship between procedural justice viewed by African American males (AAM) and consent to police officer authority

H_A1 : There is no relationship between procedural justice viewed by African American males (AAM) and consent to police officer authority

- DV: Consent to police officer authority
- Predictor Variable (PV): African American male's (AAM) perception of procedural justice system

H_02 : There is a relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority after controlling for African American male's (AAM) socioeconomic status

H_A2 : There is no relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority after controlling for African American male's (AAM) socioeconomic status

- DV: Consent to police officer authority

- Predictor Variable (PV): African American males (AAM) perception of procedural justice system
- Control Variable: African American male's (AAM) socioeconomic status

H_{03} : African American male's (AAM) age does not affect the relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority

H_{A3} : African American male's (AAM) age does affect the relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority

- DV: Consent to police officer authority
- Predictor Variable (PV): African American male's (AAM) perception of procedural justice system

Moderator: African American male's (AAM) age

Perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority will be measured via a validated Likert type survey. Socio-economic status and age will be collected via the demographic survey.

Threats to Validity

External Threats to Validity

The premise of external validity maintains that inferred statistical results can be generalized to the research population (Creswell, 2003). Threats to external validity were partially mitigated by aligning the research population with the targeted sample. The population under study was AA millennial males. Criteria for inclusion included being at

least 18 years old, but not older than 35 years of age, self-identify as Black or AA male, and reside in metropolitan Atlanta, Georgia. Threats to external validity included experimenter effects, which meant that the researcher can unintentionally influence participant's responses. This was minimized by the types of survey questions selected and conducting an online survey administered via SurveyMonkey in which the researcher had no personal contact with respondents.

Other threats to validity were specificity of variables and operationalization of definitions. These threats were minimized by using the same variables as used in other similar studies and using widely accepted and agreed upon definitions of those variables that are meaningful.

Threats to Internal Validity

History could play a significant role in this research since social media and news agencies could quickly broadcast a police-related shooting that could affect perceptions of participants. This threat was minimized by ensuring that all participants were administered the survey during the same short period of time in an attempt to eliminate any outside influences that may have affected the outcome of the study (Creswell, 2009).

Selection bias had the potential to threaten validity, as participants who agree to participate in SurveyMonkey panels may be particularly engaged or involved with the subject matter. It was difficult to minimize this threat, given the nature of the data collection; however, I chose this method based on the cost being minimal and convenience (Ferber, 1977). Also, I justified the use of a convenience sample in that it is

a good means to obtain varying perspectives on the hypotheses presented within this study, and to seek possible explanations for the underlying national issue associated with this topic (Ferber, 1977).

Regression to the mean also posed a potential threat to validity in this study since extreme attitudes may exist given the nature of the topic and sensationalism that sometime surrounds current events. That is, survey scores may regress toward the mean if time between newsworthy events is extended. This threat was minimized by limiting the data collection period to two weeks (Creswell, 2009).

Threats to Statistical or Conclusion Validity

According to Creswell (2013) and Field (2013), construct validity refers to whether or not an instrument measures what it is intended to measure in a study. More recent research also adds the usefulness and positive consequences of scores used in studies (Hubley & Zumbo, 1996). Selection bias could have been a threat to validity, as participants who agree to participate in SurveyMonkey panels may be particularly engaged or involved with the subject matter. Regression to the mean was another potential threat to validity in this study since extreme attitudes may exist given the nature of the topic and sensationalism that sometime surrounds current events. That is, survey scores had the potential to regress toward the mean if time between newsworthy events is extended. Also, Creswell (2003) stated, “threats to construct validity occur when investigators use inadequate definitions and measures of variables” (p. 171). To

minimize this threat, I constructed research questions that are correlated with the theoretical framework of my study.

Threats to statistical conclusion validity could involve drawing a conclusion that there is a relationship when there is not one or vice versa. This is usually the issue in most research. This could be due to setting the alpha too low which is referred to as 'low statistical power,' and the types of participants involved in your study referred to as random heterogeneity of respondents (Trochim, 2006). According to Trochim (2006), a researcher can reach this conclusion if they do not pay very close attention to the assumptions in their analysis which can lead the researcher to believe that their research is true or normal when in fact it is the opposite. To minimize these threats, I used a statistical power of .80 and a reliable, validated instrument and asked valid questions related to the study (Trochim, 2006).

Ethical Procedures

An essential element of the study was to safeguard the rights of the research participants during data collection and throughout this study. To that end, I complied with all principles and guidelines required by the University Institutional Review Board. No participants were forced to participate and all participation was strictly voluntary. Potential participants were provided with an electronic consent form that informed them fully about the procedures and risks involved in the study. During the data collection phase and before statistical analyses were performed, each participant's results were coded to ensure anonymity of the participant. All data were stored on a USB flash drive

in a secured locked file cabinet that will be secured for five years and later destroyed in a secure manner to protect the privacy of the participants.

Participants were not exposed to any physical or psychological harm. The risk level to participants was minimal. Ethical considerations included the participant's right to anonymity. Confidentiality was protected through anonymity. Participants were assured of anonymity. No identifying information was collected nor made available to anyone; only demographic information was collected. Although the I collected data online, participants' information was anonymous. No compensation was paid to any of the participants in the study.

Participants were given the opportunity to consent to the survey in the introduction of the survey administered by SurveyMonkey. The introduction explained the study and its purpose, benefits, and risks. The consent form indicated participation was voluntary and explained the degree of anonymity. In addition, the introduction and consent provided participants assurances that they were not required to participate if they felt uncomfortable in doing so.

The survey that was utilized in the study met research standards and provided clear instructions before a participant could respond to the survey (Appendix E). The procedures of this study were based upon the position that ethical research informs the respondents prior to agreeing to participate in the study about what they are being asked to and being giving the option of not participating if they so choose (Fowler, 2009). No personal information regarding the participant's name, race, religious beliefs, sexual

orientation, health and criminal background were requested or obtained for this study. The participants were assured confidentiality, privacy, and anonymity via informed consent.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to gain a better understanding of how AA males perceive procedural justice and treatment by the police, applying the theoretical lenses of CRT and the PJT. That is, based on the effects of White supremacy, colorblindness and racial domination, as well as the expected fairness in criminal justice and judicial processes to treat all mankind just and equally.

The problem derives from the fact that AA millennial men are dying via confrontation with police. Despite this, little research has been conducted that examines the attitudes about procedural justice and consent to police authority among AA males. Given this, a quantitative, cross-sectional study involving a correlational research design was chosen to explore the issue.

The study involved collecting primary research using survey methodology to collect data from AA males from the millennial generation. AA millennial males make up the population for the study. Millennials were chosen given the generational values they hold and likelihood to question authority. A convenience sampling technique was used to extricate the sample from the population. The sample was obtained from SurveyMonkey. The scope of the sample was therefore limited to a sample maintained by SurveyMonkey. The sample obtained from Survey Monkey was assumed to be a

representation of the population at large. A demographic, WSPA, and PJI was distributed to 69 subjects. Multiple regression and sequential multiple regression were used to test the specified hypotheses.

This chapter discussed the descriptive focus on AA millennial males' perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority. It further described the quantitative methodology, research question, hypotheses, variables that were statistically tested, data collection, data collection instruments (PJI and WSPA) and how the data were analyzed using SPSS. The following chapter presents the data analysis for the three hypotheses regarding AA millennial males' perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority, and if SES and age affects the correlation.

Chapter 4 summarizes the results of the study based on responses to the research questions to include tables and graphs. Chapter 5 provides an overview of the study and summary to include result findings, social change, recommendations for policy makers and law enforcement, as well as future research recommended.

Chapter 4: Results

More unarmed young men of color between the ages of 18-35 years are losing their lives than any other age group in the United States and more than any other ethnic group in the United States (Swaine et al., 2015; Weitzer, 2015). In an effort to establish better citizen-police relations and reduce the number of deaths involving unarmed AA millennial males, it was imperative to conduct a quantitative study to gain a better understanding of factors that affect these young men lives when interacting or in confrontation with a police officer, and to explore the possibility that these outcomes may be influenced by their willingness to obey police authority. Results gathered may inform policy and offer guidance on how to build stronger and reputable relationships with young AA men and guide social change. Data gathered in this study could also be used to retrain police officers.

The research questions developed for this study are as follows:

RQ1: What is the relationship between procedural justice viewed by African American millennial men and consent to police officer?

RQ2: How does millennial African American males' socioeconomic status affect the relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority?

RQ3: How does millennial African American males age' affect the relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority?

A quantitative study involving a correlational cross-sectional research design was chosen for the research study. The variables that were studied using quantitative statistical analysis are the perception of the procedural justice (independent/predictor variable) and consent to police authority (dependent variable). The control variables were SES and age. I investigated whether a correlation between AA males' perception of procedural justice (independent variable/predictor variable) and the consent to police authority (dependent variable) exists. Procedural justice is defined as a criminal justice system that must consistently demonstrate its legitimacy to the public it serves. Consent to police officer authority is defined as the likelihood of an individual to submit to police authority.

Data were collected via SurveyMonkey over a four-day period from October 18, 2018 through October 21, 2018. The target population for this study was adult millennial AA males living in metropolitan Atlanta in the state of Georgia. The metropolitan Atlanta area includes nine counties (Metro Atlanta Chamber of Commerce, 2017) in North Georgia, with an estimated population of 5.8 million people according to the 2016 U.S. Census (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). Millennial AA males between the ages of 18 and 35 years living in metropolitan Atlanta in the state of Georgia made up the population for the study.

Two surveys were used in the study, PJI developed in 2014 by Dr. Dennis P. Rosenbaum, and WSPA, developed in 2016 by Dr. Jim Baxter. Both surveys have been empirically validated and found to be reliable. Both the consent to police authority and

procedural justice variables are continuously scaled, meaning that there is a perceived relationship between response options. The control variables are SES and age. SES is continuous and is expected to affect the relationship between procedural justice and willingness to submit to police authority. The variable is continuously scaled. Similarly, age is also continuously scaled. Accordingly, the following three hypotheses were developed:

H₀1: There is no relationship between African American males' (AAM) procedural justice and consent to police officer authority

H₀2: There is no relationship between African American males' (AAM) perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority after controlling for socioeconomic status.

H₀3: African American males' (AAM) age does not affect the relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority

The sample size included 69 millennial AA men drawn from the metropolitan Atlanta area in the United States. Approximately 200 AAM men were targeted to test the three hypotheses, with 69 completing the entire survey; accordingly, the response rate was 34.5%. The research design, methodology, and instruments allowed me to obtain reasonable and valid responses to the research questions and gain insight into the phenomena, which is the rise in the deaths of AA males during police interaction, and to support the critical race and procedural justice theories used to frame this study.

Power for the study was defined as the prospect of finding a statistical difference between groups, if one exists in the population (Aguinis, 2004). The three statistical parameters that were used to ensure sample size adequacy were power, expected effect size, and critical alpha (Aguinis, 2004). In social research, power is generally set at 80%, which means that there is an 80% chance, given the sample size, that a significant difference will be found (Aguinis, 2004). The effect size is the amount of construct overlap expected between the variables being measured (Cohen, 1988). The magnitude of effect size is defined in terms of *Cohen's d* as .10 represents a “small effect,” .15 signifies a “medium effect,” while .50 signifies a “large effect” (Cohen, 1988). For this study, a medium expected effect size of .15 was adopted.

Critical alpha determines the likelihood that a significant finding occurred by chance. In the social sciences, critical alpha is generally set at .05, which means that “there is a 5% chance that the null hypothesis will be rejected when in fact it is true” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 78). Therefore, a formal power analysis was conducted using the following parameters: power, effect size and alpha - .80, .15 and .05 respectively. Thus, for H1, using G*Power 3.0.12 (a power analysis program for sample size), 68 participants were needed to produce an 80% probability of rejecting the null hypothesis (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). As such, the obtained sample was 69, meaning that an additional case was obtained above and beyond the minimum sample size.

Participants obtained from a panel maintained by SurveyMonkey were asked to complete a survey hosted by SurveyMonkey. Only SurveyMonkey had direct access to participants and I did not interact with participants at all. Participants were sent a link to complete the informed consent form (Appendix G). If they agreed to the terms of the form, access to the online survey instrument employed to collect data from the AA males was granted. It took the participants approximately 15 minutes to complete the survey. Once participants completed the survey, they were thanked via a Thank You page. No anomalies occurred when collecting the data. Information on demographics was also obtained to provide a description of the sample collected. For Age Group, approximately 51% were between the ages of 18-25 years while 49% were between the ages of 26-35 years of age (Table 3).

Table 3

Age Group Frequency and Percent Statistics

Age Group	Frequency	Percent
18-25 Years	35	50.7
26-35 Years	34	49.3
Total	69	100

Note. $N = 69$

Education information was also collected from AA males. For each level of education, an education code was created from low to high to facilitate development of an SES variable. Most participants reported having some college (39%). Seventeen

participants (24%) reported a high school or equivalent education. In addition, another 20% reported having a bachelor's degree. Education information is presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Education Frequency and Percent Statistics

Education	Education Code	Frequency	Percent
Less than High School	1	1	1.4
High School or Equivalent	2	17	24.6
Some College	3	27	39.1
Bachelor's Degree	4	14	20.3
Master's Degree	5	9	13
Greater than Master's Degree	6	1	1.4
Total	7	69	100

Note. $N = 69$

Household income information was collected from AA males. For each level of income, an income code was created from low to high to facilitate development of an SES variable. Most participants reported making \$25-49,999 per year (27%). Seventeen participants (25%) reported making between \$50,000 and 74,999 per year. Annual household income was presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Annual Household Income Frequency and Percent Statistics

Household Income	Income Code	Frequency	Percent
0-9,999	1	11	15.9
10-24,999	2	8	11.6
25-49,999	3	19	27.5
50-74,999	4	17	24.6
75-99,999	5	8	11.6
100-124,999	6	3	4.3
125-149,999	7	1	1.4
150-174,999	8	2	2.9
Total	9	69	100

Note. $N = 69$

Household income and education were combined to create an SES variable. A numerical value, from low to high was assigned to each level of household income and education. These two values were added to create a continuously scaled SES variable. Low SES indicates low SES while higher scores represent higher SES. SES scores ranged from 3 to 13. Generally, most participants scored in the middle of the scale, meaning they were found to have average SES.

For example, 14 participants (20%) were found to have a SES score of 6. Moreover, 72% of the sample scored between 4 and 10 on the SES scale. Approximately 19% of the sample were found to have a low SES, and approximately 9% were found to have a high SES score. SES is presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Socioeconomic Status Frequency and Percent Statistics

SES	Frequency	Percent
3	7	10.1
4	6	8.7
5	9	13.0
6	14	20.3
7	9	13.0
8	9	13.0
9	9	13.0
10	4	5.8
13	2	2.9
Total	69	100

Note. $N = 69$

Age group was collected from each participant. Participants were asked to select either 18-25 years old or 26-35 years old. In total, 69 participants responded to the questions. The sample was split almost evenly, where approximately 51% reported being 18-25 years old, while 49% reported being 26-35 years old – see Table 7.

Table 7

Age Group Frequency and Percent Statistics

Age Group	Frequency	Percent
18-25 Years	35	50.7
26-35 Years	34	49.3
Total	69	100

Note. $N = 69$

Figure 1 presents frequency statistics via a histogram for procedural justice. Average score was 3.31 and the standard deviation was .992. Total response was 69

participants. As evidenced by the graph, most participants ($n = 18$) average score was between 3.0 and 3.5 (out of a possible 6.0).

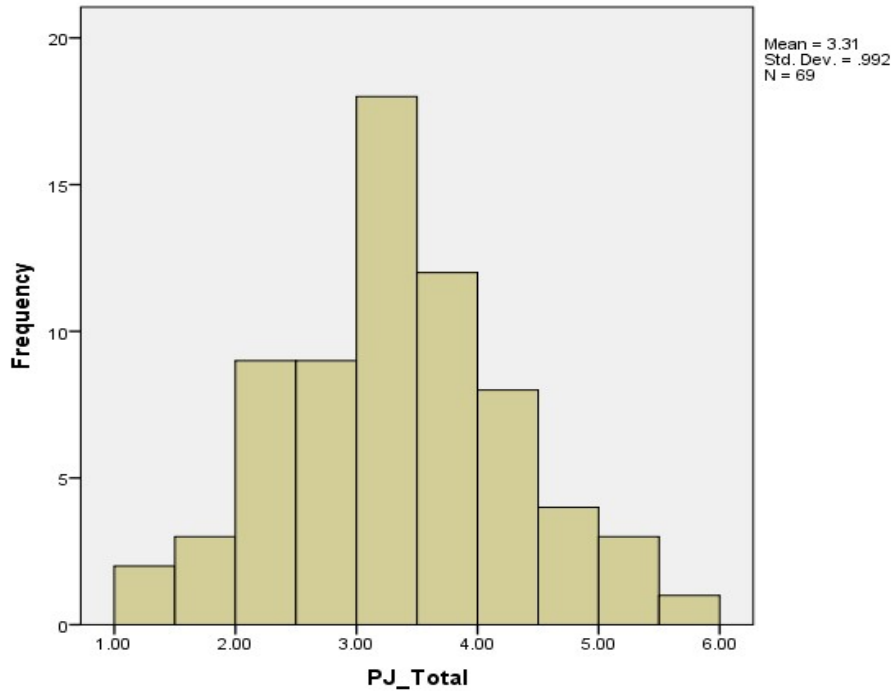


Figure 1. Graph of procedural justice displaying frequency statistics across the continuous scale.

Figure 2 presents frequency statistics for police authority. Average score was 3.81 and the standard deviation was .756. Total response was 69 participants. As evidenced by the graph, most participants ($n = 18$) average score was 3.5 (out of a possible 6.0). Approximately 71% of participants were found to have average attitudes about police authority (scored between 2.75 and 4.50) while approximately 9% reported having poor attitudes about police authority. Approximately 19% reported to have very good attitudes toward police authority.

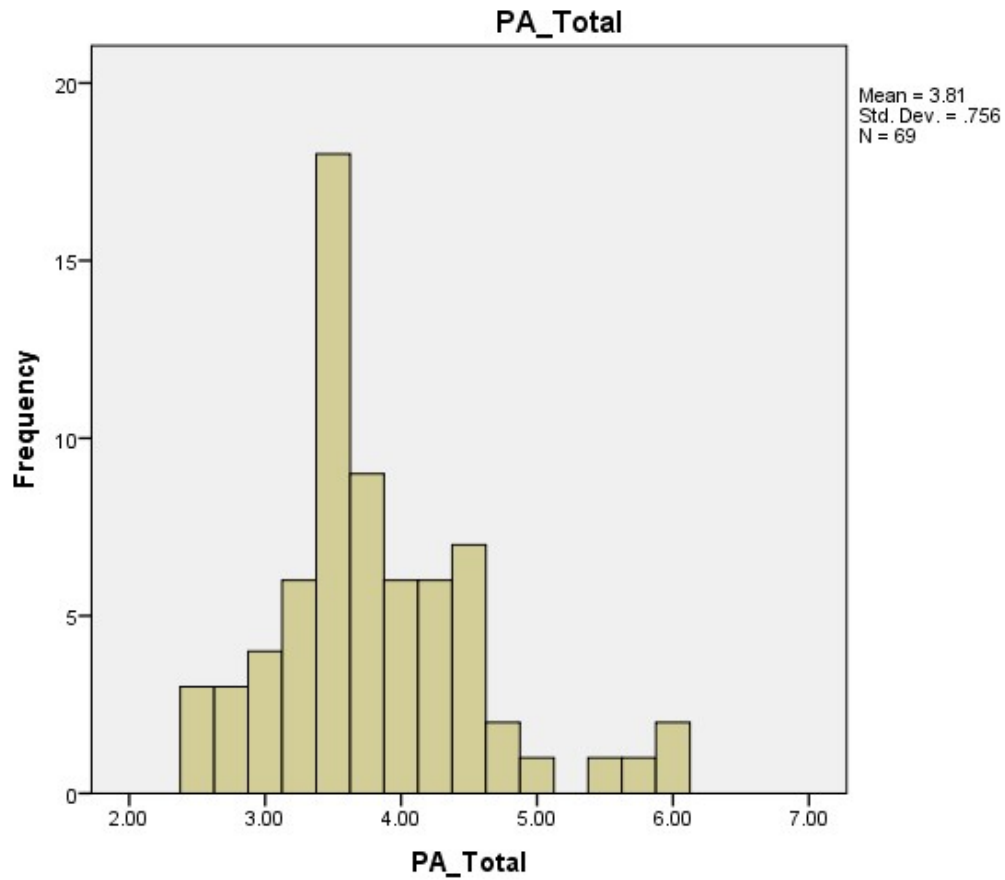


Figure 2. Frequency graph of police authority displaying statistics across the continuous scale.

SES was created by adding education to household income. That is, participant scores were put together to create an SES composite score that was used to represent a participant's SES. Low scores represented low SES status, while high scores represented higher SES status. Scores ranged from 2.0 to 13.0. The scale was defined as continuous.

Average SES score was 6.61 (SD = 2.296). Most participants ($n = 14$) were found to have an SES score of around 6.0. Two participants had a high score of 12.0,

while seven participants had a low score of around 3.0. This variable was used as a control variable in Hypothesis 2 – See Figure 3.

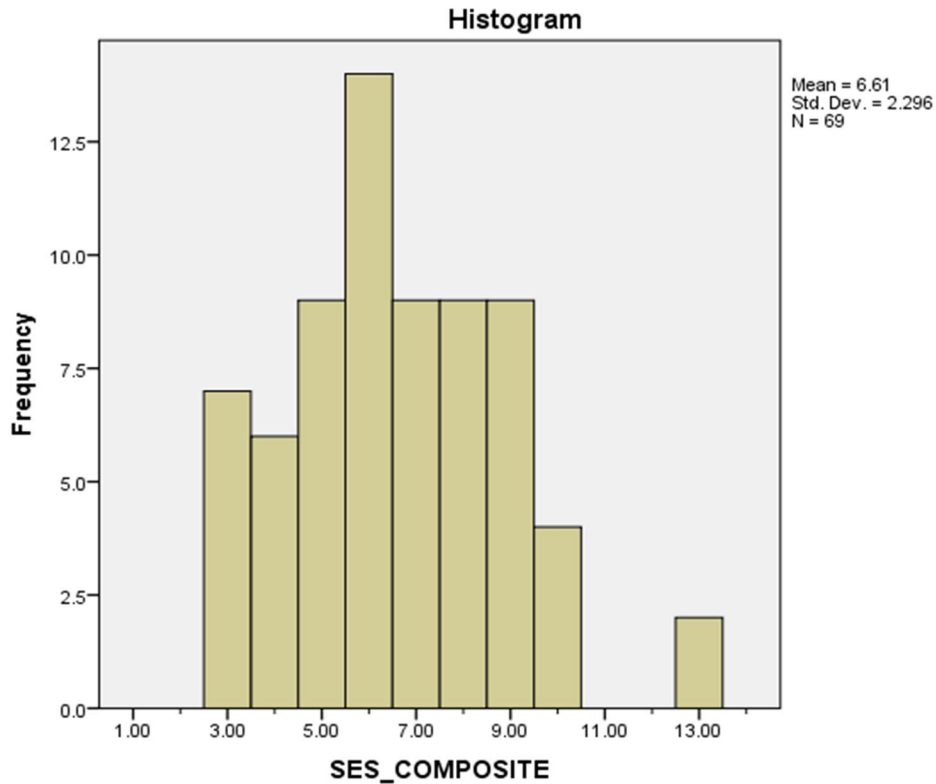


Figure 3. Frequency graph of SES composite displaying statistics across the continuous scale.

Data Analysis Procedure

Conclusions were produced using inferential statistics for the sample tested.

Scores collected via survey were coded and tabulated utilizing SPSS. In addition, values were summarized when needed and mean and standard deviation were produced.

Regression analyses were used to assess the three hypotheses.

Prior to examining the research questions, data cleaning screening were carried out to make certain the variables met the proper statistical assumptions. The variables under study were evaluated for missing data, univariate outliers, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. Regression analyses were then performed to determine if the variables being studied had any significant relationships between them.

Data Cleaning

Prior to the research questions being assessed, data were screened for missing values and univariate outliers. Univariate outliers are cases where a participant's response to a question is extreme. Missing data were assessed using frequency counts; no cases with missing values were present. The data were "screened for univariate outliers by transforming raw scores to z-scores and comparing z-scores to a critical value of ± 3.29 , $p < .001$ " (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 56). Z-scores that exceed this critical value were considered possible outliers. No univariate outliers were found after evaluation. As such, 69 participants were used in the regression mode. Displayed in Table 8 are descriptive statistics for the criterion (police authority) and predictor variables (procedural justice).

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for Police Authority and Procedural Justice

Variables	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
PA Total	2.500	6.000	3.808	0.756	0.894	1.234
PJ Total	1.000	5.820	3.315	0.992	0.057	0.001

Note. Valid N (listwise) = 69, Skew Error = .289, Kurtosis error = .57

Test of Normality

Parametric assumptions were evaluated prior to analyzing research questions. Parametric assumptions are evaluated to make sure the data can be used as described in Chapter 3. With regards to the dependent variable (police authority) and independent variable (procedural justice), three parametric assumptions were tested. No violations of linearity and homoscedasticity, which were assessed using residual scatterplots, were found. In addition, “the skew and kurtosis coefficients were divided by the skew/kurtosis standard errors, resulting in z -skew/ z -kurtosis coefficients” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 67). Z -skew/ z -kurtosis coefficients outside the range between -3.29 and +3.29 ($p < .001$) may possibly show non-normality. Therefore, based on the assessment of the residual scatterplots and z -skew/ z -kurtosis coefficients, research variables did not exceed critical values (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This means that all the data and statistical tests can be used as planned.

Results are presented in order of hypothesis tested. Description of the data is presented first. Second, parametric data was evaluated for assumptions related to the

general linear model. Last, final statistical results are displayed along with appropriate charts and graphs.

Hypothesis 1

Using SPSS 24.0, Hypothesis 1 was evaluated using simple linear regression analysis to determine if there was a significant relationship between AA millennial males' attitudes toward procedural justice and police authority: H_{01} : There is no relationship between AAM procedural justice and consent to police officer authority.

The results indicated a significant positive relationship did exist between specified variables, $B = .302$, $R = .396$, $R^2 = .157$, $p = .001$. That is, 16% ($R^2 < .157$) of the variance observed in participants' attitudes toward police authority was due to their attitudes toward procedural justice. This means that attitudes toward police authority were affected by millennials attitudes toward procedural justice (Table 9).

Table 9

Regression Table Displaying Procedural Justice v. Police Authority R, R-squared, and F-Change Statistics for Model 1

Model	Coefficients (a)	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	2.808	0.296		9.498	0	2.218	3.399
	PJ Total	0.302	0.086	0.396	3.527	0.001	0.131	0.472

Note. a Dependent Variable: PA Total

Displayed in Figure 4 is a graph of the regression analysis conducted for Hypothesis 1. The graph displays a significant positive relationship between procedural justice and police authority. This means that as attitudes toward procedural justice increases, attitudes toward police authority also increases. The slope of the regression line ($\hat{Y} = 0.74 + 0.81 * x$) demarks the strength of the relationship between the two variables.

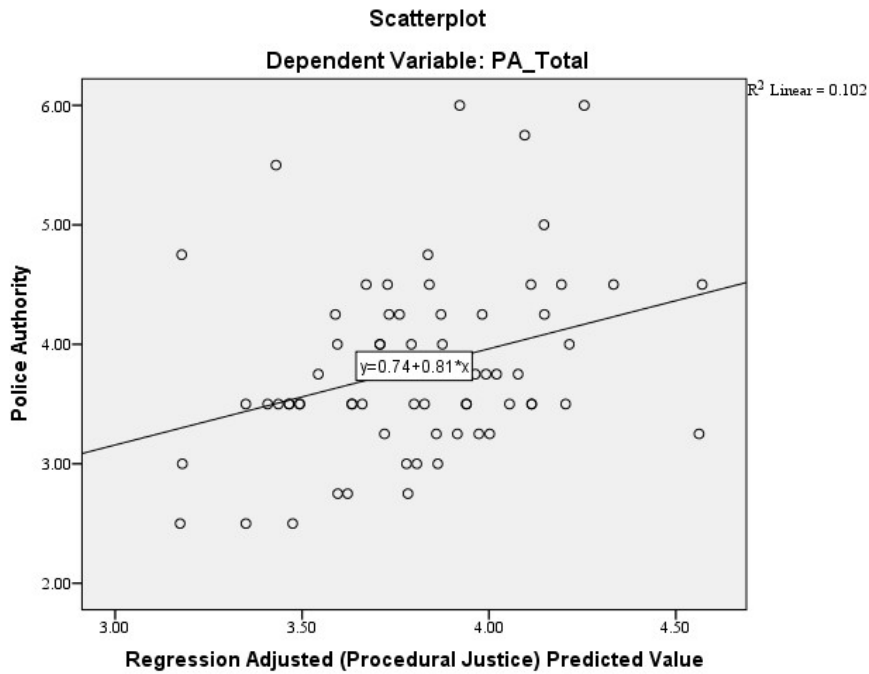


Figure 4. Scatter-dot plot of the significant relationship between procedural justice and police authority.

Hypothesis 2

Using SPSS 24.0, Hypothesis 2 was evaluated using sequential multiple regression analysis to determine if, after controlling for SES, there was no significant

relationship between AA millennial males' attitudes toward procedural justice and police authority: H_02 : There is no relationship between African American males' (AAM) perception of procedural justice and consent to police authority after controlling for SES.

The relationship between SES and police authority was examined first. The results indicated a non-significant relationship existed between SES and police authority, $B = -.039$, $R = .133$, $R^2 = .018$, $p = .277$. This means a relationship was not found between SES and police authority. Approximately, 2% ($R^2 < .020$) of the variance observed in participants' attitudes toward police authority was due to their SES. This implies that a very small non-significant effect was found; police authority was only slightly affected by SES.

For the second part, SES was used as a control variable in the equation. The results indicated a significant relationship did exist after controlling for SES between procedural justice and police authority, $\Delta R^2 = .153$ (1, 66), $p = .001$. That is, after controlling for SES, 15% ($R^2 < .153$) of the variance observed in participants' attitudes toward police authority was due to their attitudes toward procedural justice. This means that SES did not affect the relationship between procedural justice and police authority (Table 10).

Table 10

Regression Table Displaying R, R-squared, and F-Change Statistics for Model 1 and Model 2

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.133a	0.018	0.003	0.755	0.018	1.204	1	67	0.277
2	.413b	0.171	0.146	0.699	0.153	12.183	1	66	0.001

a Predictors: (Constant), SES_COMP

b Predictors: (Constant), SES_COMPOSITE, PJ Total

Table 11 displays the model coefficients for Model 1 and Model 2. Model 1 beta coefficient for SES-composite was $B = .044$, $t = -1.097$, $p = .277$. Model 2 beta coefficient after, controlling for SES-composite was: police authority $B = .298$, $t = -3.49$, $p = .001$.

Displayed in Figure 5 is a graph of the regression analysis conducted for Hypothesis 2. The graph displays a significant positive relationship between procedural justice and police authority. The slope of the regression line ($\hat{Y} = 1.03 + 0.73 * x$) demarks the strength of the relationship between the two variables.

Table 11

Model Coefficients for Procedural Justice, Police Authority, and the SES Control

Model	Coefficients (a)	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	4.097	0.279		14.694	0	3.541	4.654
	SES_COMPOSITE	0.044	0.04	-0.133	-1.097	0.277	-0.123	0.036
2	(Constant)	3.078	0.39		7.897	0	2.3	3.856
	SES_COMPOSITE	0.039	0.037	-0.119	-1.061	0.293	-0.113	0.035
	PJ Total	0.298	0.085	0.391	3.49	0.001	0.128	0.469

a Dependent Variable: PA Total

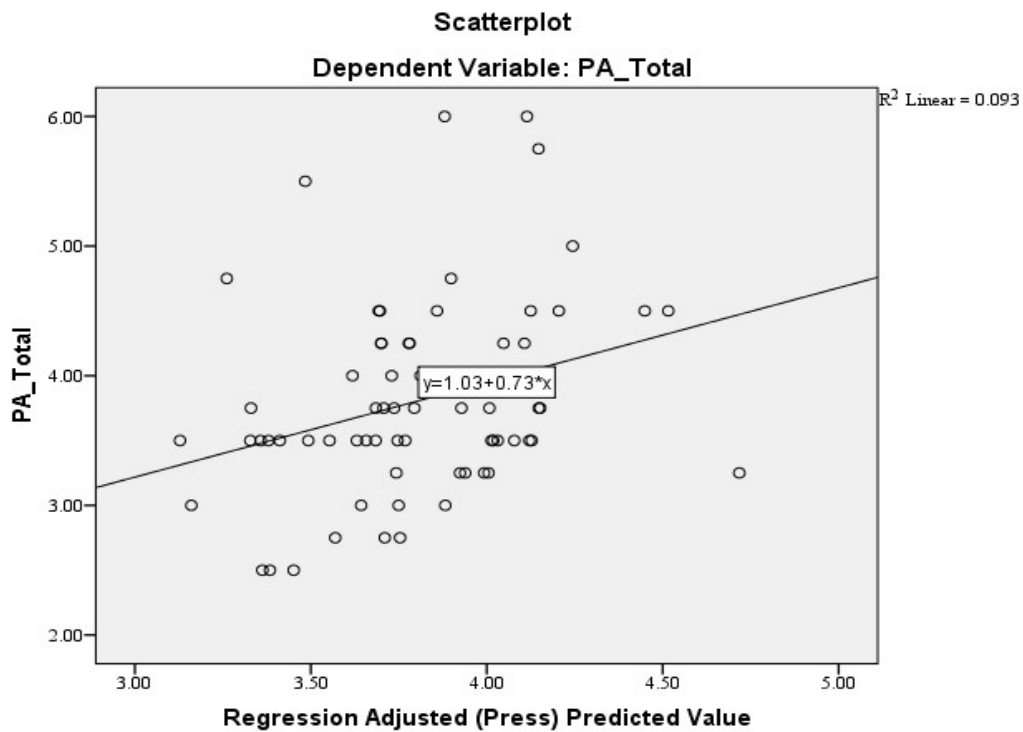


Figure 5. Scatter-dot plot of procedural justice and police authority after controlling for SES.

Hypothesis 3

Using SPSS 24.0, Hypothesis 3 was evaluated using sequential multiple regression analysis to determine if, after controlling for age, there was no significant relationship between AA millennial males' attitudes toward procedural justice and police authority: H_03 : There is no relationship between African American males' (AAM) perception of procedural justice and consent to police authority after controlling for age.

The relationship between age and police authority was examined first. The results indicated a non-significant relationship existed between age and police authority, $B = -.172$, $R = .115$, $R^2 = .013$, $p = .348$. That is, approximately 1% ($R^2 < .013$) of the variance observed in participants' attitudes toward police authority was due to their age. This means that age did not relate to police officer authority.

In addition, results indicated a significant relationship existed, after controlling for age between procedural justice and police authority, $\Delta R^2 = .152$ (1, 66), $p = .001$. That is after controlling for age, 15% ($R^2 < .152$), the variance observed in participants' attitudes toward police authority was due to their attitudes toward procedural justice. This means that age did not affect the relationship between attitudes toward police authority and attitudes toward procedural justice. (Table 12).

Table 12

Regression Table Displaying Model Coefficients R, R-squared, and F-Change Statistics for Model 1 (Age v. Police Authority) and Model 2 (Procedural Justice v. Police Authority After Controlling for Age)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.115a	0.013	-0.002	0.75687	0.013	0.893	1	67	0.348
2	.406b	0.165	0.14	0.70146	0.152	12.004	1	66	0.001

Note. a Predictors: (Constant), Age group

b Predictors: (Constant), Age Group, PJ Total

Table 13 displays the model coefficients for Model 1 and Model 2. Model 1 beta coefficient for Age Group was $B = -.172$, $t = -.945$, $p = .348$. Model 2 beta coefficient after, controlling for Age Group was: Procedural Justice $B = .297$, $t = -3.46$, $p = .001$.

Table 13

Model Coefficients for Procedural Justice, Police Authority, and the Age Control Variable

Model	Coefficients (a)	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	4.237	0.463		9.145	0	3.313	5.162
	Age Group	-0.172	0.182	-0.115	0.945	0.348	-0.536	0.192
2	(Constant)	3.166	0.529		5.984	0	2.11	4.223
	Age Group	-0.138	0.169	-0.092	0.816	0.417	-0.476	0.200
	PJ Total	0.297	0.086	0.39	3.465	0.001	0.126	0.469

Note. a Dependent Variable: PA Total

Displayed in Figure 6 is a graph of the regression analysis conducted for Hypothesis 3. The graph displays a significant positive relationship between procedural justice and police authority after controlling for age. The slope of the regression line ($\hat{Y} = 1.01 + 0.74 * x$) demarks the strength of the relationship between the two variables. That is, after removing the effect of age, as attitudes toward procedural justice increases, attitudes toward police authority increases.

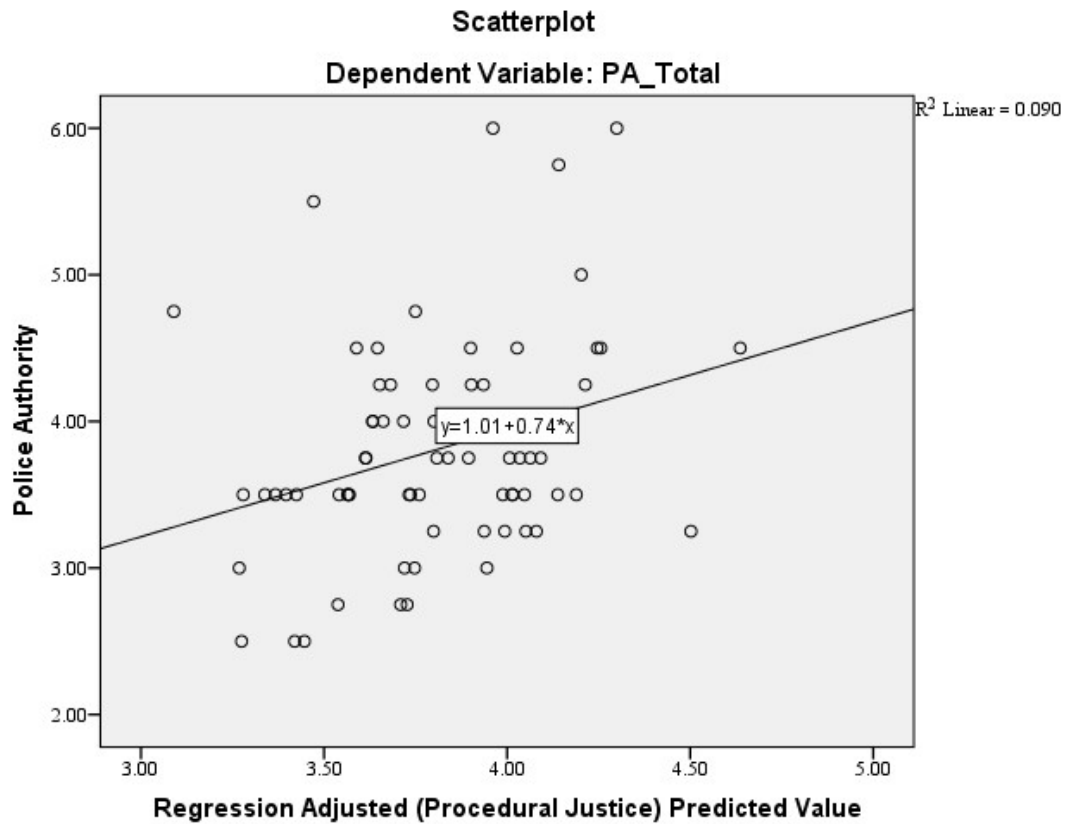


Figure 6. Scatter-dot plot of procedural justice and police authority after controlling for age.

Final Model

A final model was run to examine the relationship between procedural justice and police authority after controlling for age and SES. Results indicated no relationship between age, SES and police authority ($R = .159$, $R^2 = .025$, $p = .429$). That is, approximately 2.5% ($R^2 < .025$) of the variance observed in participants' attitudes toward police authority was due to age and SES. This means that age and SES combined did not relate to police authority.

In addition, results indicated a significant relationship existed, after controlling for age and SES between procedural justice and police authority, $\Delta R^2 = .150$ (1, 65), $p = .001$. That is, after controlling for age and SES, 15% ($R^2 < .152$), the variance observed in participants' attitudes toward police authority was due to their attitudes toward procedural justice. This means that age and SES did not affect the relationship between attitudes toward police authority and attitudes toward procedural justice. (Table 14).

Table 14

Regression Table Displaying Model Coefficients R, R-squared, and F-Change Statistics for Model 1 (Age and SES v. Police Authority) and Model 2 (Procedural Justice v. Police Authority After Controlling for Age and SES)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.159a	0.025	-0.004	0.025	0.857	2	66	0.429
2	.419b	0.175	0.137	0.15	11.818	1	65	0.001

Note. a Predictors: (Constant), Age Group, SES Co

b Predictors: (Constant), Age Group, SES Compos

Table 15 displays the final model coefficients for Model 1 and Model 2. Model 1 beta coefficient for age and SES was $B = -.037$ and $-.135$, $p = .367$ and $.473$ respectively. Model 2 beta coefficient was: procedural justice $B = .296$, $t = -3.44$, $p = .001$.

Table 15

Final Model Coefficients for Procedural Justice, Police Authority, and Two Control Variables

Model	Coefficients (a)	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4.39	0.494		8.894	0
	SES Composite	-0.037	0.041	-0.113	-0.908	0.367
	Age Group	-0.135	0.187	-0.09	-0.721	0.473
2	(Constant)	3.313	0.555		5.974	0
	SES Composite	-0.034	0.038	-0.104	-0.899	0.372
	Age Group	-0.104	0.174	-0.069	-0.599	0.551
	PJ Total	0.296	0.086	0.388	3.438	0.001

Note. a Dependent Variable: PA Total

Summary

In conclusion, the target population for this study was adult millennial AA males living in metropolitan Atlanta in the state of Georgia. Two surveys were used in the study, PJI, developed in 2014 by Dr. Dennis P. Rosenbaum, and WSPA, developed in 2016 by Dr. Jim Baxter. Three hypotheses were derived from the research questions and tested according to the plan specified in Chapter 3:

*H*₀₁: There is a relationship between African American males' (AAM) perception of procedural justice and consent to police authority

*H*₀₂: There is no relationship between African American males' (AAM) perception of procedural justice and consent to police authority after controlling for socioeconomic status

*H*₀₃: After controlling for African American males' (AAM) age, there is no relationship between perception of procedural justice and consent to police authority

The sample size included 69 millennial AA males drawn from the metropolitan Atlanta area in Georgia. An online survey instrument was employed to collect data from AA males. Demographic information was also collected to provide a description of the sample collected. Findings from the test revealed that a significant relationship existed between procedural justice and police authority. In addition, after removing the variance observed from SES and age, a relationship between procedural justice and police authority was still evident.

Chapter 5 will present interpretation of the data based on findings from the series of regression analyses. Included in the discussion, Chapter 5 presents recommendations for practice and recommendations for research. Finally, a discussion of the limitations and final summary gleaned from the analyses will be presented.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The wider research problem is that an increase in unarmed AA deaths after confrontation or interaction with police has been observed. This increase in deaths has led to greater unrest, marches, protests, anger, hostility, and further distrust of the police in the AA community; this is perceived to be due to racial injustice. Correlational studies have been conducted on the topic, but no specific study has examined the relationship between AA millennial men attitudes toward procedural justice and willingness to submit to police authority. A quantitative study provided the means to investigate this relationship and fill the gap in the literature on the topic.

Researchers have suggested that a relationship between attitudes toward procedural justice and willingness to submit to policy authority exists (Baker et al., 2015; Gau et al., 2012; Jackson et al., 2011; Jonathan-Zamir et al., 2013; White et al., 2016). As such, I theorized that AA male millennial attitudes toward procedural justice will positively relate to willingness to submit to police authority. This means that as attitudes in procedural justice increases, willingness to submit to police authority will also increase linearly.

A review of the literature revealed that few studies have been conducted on the connection between police use of deadly force and the willingness of AA men to consent to police authority in the United States. This contemporary phenomenon may be responsible for the increase in deaths of unarmed AA men as opposed to other ethnic groups. The purpose of this quantitative study was to gain a better understanding of AA

men's perception of procedural justice and treatment by the police involving arrest-related deaths.

In an effort to establish better citizen-police relations and reduce the number of deaths involving unarmed AA males, I conducted a quantitative study to gain a better understanding of why these young men are losing their lives, and to explore the possibility that these outcomes may be influenced by their willingness to obey police officer authority. Data gathered in this study could be used to retrain officers and offer policy guidance on how to build stronger and reputable relationships with young AA men. The variables studied via a quantitative design were the perception of procedural justice (independent variable/predictor variable) and consent to police authority (dependent variable). The control variables were SES and age.

Research Questions

RQ1: What is the relationship between procedural justice viewed by African American millennial men and consent to police officer?

RQ2: How does millennial African American male's socioeconomic status affect the relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority?

RQ3: How does millennial African American male's age affect the relationship between perception of the procedural justice system and consent to police officer authority?

A quantitative study involving a correlational cross-sectional research design was chosen for this research study. I investigated if a correlation between AA males' perception of procedural justice (independent variable/predictor variable) and consent to police authority (dependent variable) existed. Procedural justice was defined as a criminal justice system that must consistently demonstrate its legitimacy to the public it serves. The variable is continuously scaled. Consent to police authority is defined as the likelihood of an individual to submit to police authority. The variable is also continuously scaled. The control variables are SES and age. This means that SES is expected to affect the relationship between procedural justice and willingness to submit to police authority. The variable was continuously scaled. Similarly, age is also continuously scaled.

Data were collected by way of a validated procedural justice instrument (Likert scale survey/questionnaire) utilizing SurveyMonkey to survey a nationally representative sample of AAM men between the ages of 18-35 years. Semantic responses to the Likert scale survey were quantified from 1-6 (*strongly disagree, disagree, slightly disagree, slightly agree, agree, strongly agree*) and descriptive statistics were used to report findings.

Approximately 200 AA men were targeted to test the three hypotheses with 69 completing all surveys; accordingly, response rate was 34.5%. The research design, methodology, and instruments chosen allowed me to obtain reasonable and valid responses to the research questions and gain insight into the phenomena, which is the rise

in the deaths of AA men during police interaction, and to support the critical race and procedural justice theories used to frame this study.

Summary of Key Findings

Sixty-nine participants responded to the request to complete the survey. Using SPSS 24.0, Hypothesis 1 was evaluated using simple linear regression analysis to determine if there was a significant relationship between AA millennial male's attitudes toward procedural justice and police authority. Results revealed a significant relationship was present where $p < .001$. In addition, SES and age were found to not affect the relationship between procedural justice and consent to police authority. That is, after controlling for the effects of age and SES, a significant relationship was still present between procedural justice and consent to police authority (Table 16).

Table 16

Summary of Findings Using Regression Analyses

Hypothesis	Criterion	Predictor	Control	R-Squared	R-Squared Change	<i>P</i>
H1	Procedural Justice	Consent to Police Authority	N/A	0.157	N/A	0.001
H2	Procedural Justice	Consent to Police Authority	SES	N/A	0.149	0.001
H3	Procedural Justice	Consent to Police Authority	Age Status	N/A	0.152	0.001

Interpretation of the Findings

The purpose of this quantitative study was to obtain a better understanding of AA males' perceptions of procedural justice and its relationship between police authority. Survey data gathered on the topic contributed to this understanding. Nix et al. (2014) recommended "exploring the consequences of trust, cooperation and compliance" during police interaction (pp. 632-33). Jackson et al. (2011) recommended "examining whether relationships of socially expected behaviors are more important than instrumental ones in shaping compliance with the law" (p. 11). This study was developed as a partial response to those recommendations.

Findings from this study confirm and disconfirm the literature presented in this paper. For example, MacDonald et al. (2007) conducted a quantitative correlational cross-sectional study examining procedural justice in the context of the relationship between race and perceptions of injustice by the police. Data were collected from 2002 respondents living within one of the 53 neighborhoods located within the city of Cincinnati, Ohio, via random digit dialing (MacDonald et al., 2007). A Likert scale survey was designed to measure perceived injustice by the police and perceived racially biased policing. Covariates included age and SES (education, employment and household income; MacDonald et al., 2007). The researchers concluded that Blacks differed significantly from Whites in their perceptions about injustice by police even after taking into account that both races lived in the same or similar neighborhoods (MacDonald et al., 2007). Blacks tended to believe that police treated them more

unfairly than Whites, and that they experienced higher levels of racially biased police practices compared to Whites (MacDonald et al., 2007). In addition, younger people were significantly more likely to complain of racial injustice by police than older participants in the study (MacDonald et al., 2007).

In contrast to MacDonald et al. (2007), this study did not find that age was a factor when examining the relationship between procedural justice and police authority. Age, in fact, did not change or influence the outcome. That is, across all ages of AA males, as attitudes toward procedural justice increases, attitudes toward police authority increases. This essentially means that when AA male's feel that their procedural justice rights were being adhered to then they were more likely to submit to police authority.

In the ongoing discussion of the consequences of negative interactions between AA males and police, the legitimacy of the police and their authority can become compromised. Gau and Brunson (2015) conducted a qualitative study using in-depth interviews to determine if perceived procedural injustice destroys police legitimacy and influences individuals to rely on self-help as a mode of protection, which could lead them to commit the very crimes for which they are being scrutinized. Results concluded that the majority of the respondents believed that police harassed them most of the time. Half stated the police were always rude and difficult to talk to. Roughly 78% had been stopped by the police once, with some admitting being stopped by the police as many as 100 times. A third admitted to being stopped by the police in the last six months for minor and status offenses, and more than 45% had been arrested at least once. Many

participants stated that police often stopped them even when they were not engaged in any wrong-doing, which lead to erosion of police legitimacy, thus causing the respondents to rely on their own friends for protection as opposed to calling the police when in need. Gau and Brunson's (2015) findings are supported by this research, meaning that erosion of police legitimacy (i.e., procedural justice) is directly related to attitudes toward police authority. AA males will seek to defend their perceived right via aggressive counter actions rather than being submissive.

Bell (1992) purported that White supremacy and White privilege are woven into the American fabric via the laws that this country was founded upon, including current laws in place. This has allowed the White race to dominate and marginalize people of color (Bell, 1992, 1995). In reference to the findings in this paper, I suggest that the current laws in place may indeed marginalize AA males and subsequently influence their action when it comes to submitting to police authority. Evidence from this study indicates that if AA males were treated with the same procedural deference as Caucasian males, their response to police authority may, in fact, be more amenable.

The second theory presented in this paper is PJT, which is attributed to Tom Tyler, author and professor, who introduced seminal literature on compliance with the law in 1990. According to Tyler (1990), individuals obey the law because they believe it to be fair and honest, not because they fear reprisal. In addition, PJT emphasizes the idea of treating individuals fairly and equally when resolving issues as it relates to citizen-police interactions. This is seemingly supported by this study given that reprisal from a

police officer due to non-compliance can mean severe injury or death. Accordingly, AA males who do not perceive fairness, ostensibly, will not arbitrarily submit to police authority. This sometimes results in beatings and death due to extemporaneous actions taken by police and the resisting AA male.

Limitations of the Study

Findings may have been affected by specific limitations associated with the study design. Sample size, instrument sensitivity, and data collection technique may have impacted outcomes of the data. Another limitation for this study is that the location of data collection was confined to metropolitan Atlanta, Georgia. For quantitative data analysis, it is imperative that type of participant is operationalized, and that the sample size is large enough to ensure detection of a relationship between variables. For this study, the number of participants needed for the study was assessed via a formal power analysis. When conducting a power analysis, it is best to refer to current research for a suitable effect size. Due to the lack of research, the effect size was determined utilizing Cohen's (1988) guidelines. Effect size was estimated to be .15 (Medium), but actual effect size was .14. This provides evidence that the sample size was mostly adequate to identify an effect between procedural justice and police authority. However, a non-significant finding was obtained when examining the effect the control variable had on the aforementioned relationship. This implies that there was no effect or the sample size was not large enough to detect an effect.

Further, participant data were obtained via self-report surveys, which can facilitate data collection, but reduce quality of data collected. That is, although the benefit is small and not directly related to participants, a confounding effect may be present. Self-report surveys may be overused where participants are very familiar with common response expectations. This issue could possibly affect the variation of responses and contribute to an effect called regression toward the mean (Galton, 1886). This theory, which is accredited to Galton, suggests that extremes do not survive.

If participants are excessively surveyed (as with many millennials) extreme scores are likely to migrate to the mean—whereas extreme scores do not survive. To reduce this affect, researchers should inquire as to whether or not participants have been excessively surveyed and if so ask them if they have been administered attitudinal surveys in the past. If so, the chance is great that the target population has been over surveyed.

This study incorporated a cross sectional correlational design which required participants to complete the procedural justice and police authority survey at a single point in time rather than across time. This strategy may have affected the likelihood of obtaining true attitudinal values. In other words, participants may not have been honest in reporting their true feelings due to factors beyond their control that were affecting their attitudes at the time of data collection.

Recommendations

Findings from this research generally supported the literature. Based on the strength of the relationship between procedural justice and police authority, three

recommendations should be considered when conducting additional research on the topic, these are: (a) obtain a larger sample size, (b) create a more sensitive survey, and (c) develop a longitudinal approach to the problem.

Sample size should be expanded to include more participants from a larger base. Sample size in this context means two things: physically more participants, and a larger geographic base. For example, regional samples could be obtained to include western, central, southern, and northeast sections of the United States. Larger samples from a larger base could be used to provide the means to discover if current findings remain consistent across the nation. The aim would be to determine if the effect size from this study of .14% could be replicated. Smaller effect size in any one region may mean that the strength of the relationship between procedural justice and police authority depends on a particular region of the United States. And, perhaps more importantly, a physically larger sample (perhaps 120 per region) would likely strengthen the mean score by reducing the standard deviation. This could help validate current findings and expand generalizability of the study.

Both surveys used in this study were based on self-report data. This means that emotionally-driven responses were likely part of the data collected. Given this, it might be important to develop an observational type survey where attitudes toward procedural justice and police authority could be observed or obtained from a different perspective. For example, a 360-type survey could be developed to obtain how participants behave in

certain situations from a third party. This might remove some of the deleterious feelings that some AA males may have developed.

Since news cycles and political affiliation may strongly drive individual feelings about procedural justice and police authority, it may be beneficial to develop a longitudinal design to assess AA male's attitudes toward these sensitive constructs. For example, millennials could be tracked for 10 years to determine how strong their feelings are toward procedural justice and police authority. This approach could serve to determine how volatile one's attitudes are given specific life or episodic events.

Implications

Findings from this study could serve individuals by allowing them to take an introspective look at how they may react in certain statutory situations. By reflecting on possible outcomes and personal actions, mitigation of confrontations and deaths may be achieved. In addition, findings may serve AA males by providing them an opportunity to consolidate their feelings on the topic and take positive, affirmative action rather than being reactive. Emotional control and introspection may be especially important when justice seems ill-served.

Families may also discuss the topic with their loved ones to plan for occurrences when justice is not rendered fairly. Often, knowledge and forethought can be used to gain the upper hand in situations where emotions evolve into rage and hatred. Further, these findings can be used to center the family and draw from their shared experiences to overcome emotional spikes that can lead to confrontation and incitement.

Communities must evolve and come together to solve these instantiated problems. Training of police officers and court officials must be linked directly with those that are experiencing the burden of low procedural justice. Shared experiences and common goals should be used to draw community groups together.

Practitioners should work with community groups to develop a plan to evolve beyond the confrontation stage when tactical interactions occur. Not only should police officers work to de-escalate situations, but community members should also train with police to understand best practices when behavioral reciprocation is mandated.

Practitioners should also work with community members and governmental stakeholders to map out judicial rules and procedures that undermine trust. Without uncovering these latent factors, that often percolate under the surface, recovery is not possible. Rather than short term solutions, practitioners should seek to develop a long-term plan with incremental steps with specific goals defined by temporal points. Long-term social change can be achieved provided buy-in is obtained from all stakeholders and specific goals are met.

Conclusion

More unarmed young men of color between the ages of 18-35 years are losing their lives during confrontation with police than any other age group or ethnic group in the United States (Swaine, Laughland & Lartey, 2015; Weitzer, 2015). Based on research, it was theorized that procedural justice may be one of the factors that lead to confrontation, which in turn may lead to an increase in AA male's death rate. Specific

research has not been found on millennial AA male's attitudes toward procedural justice and willingness to submit to police authority. Research on the topic did suggest that the answer and possible solution to this social crisis may lie within the affected community of individuals themselves. Therefore, it was necessary to conduct research on this group of millennial men to gather information on the topic.

This study used a quantitative approach to collect data from 69 AA males. The main research question asked: What is the relationship between the perception of procedural justice and consent to police authority, and does age or SES affect the outcome? Findings revealed a significant relationship did exist between the variables, and, after controlling for age and SES, procedural justice and police authority remained significantly related.

Findings from this study support current research on the topic. Empirical evidence from this study was inferred to mean that procedural justice drives AA male's willingness to obey police authority. These findings were used to infer that practitioners should develop programs that support individuals and communities to change systemic practices that foster procedural injustice.

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Appendix A: Permission to Use Procedural Justice Inventory

Annette Woods <nettie40@bellsouth.net>

To

dennizr@uic.edu

Jul 26 at 7:42 PM

Hello Dr. Rosenbaum,

My name is Annette W. Fields. I am a Ph.D. candidate at Walden University. On March 17, 2017, Jim Baxter, Ph.D., reached out to you on my behalf and asked permission for me to use your nine item PJI. for my research study and you granted him permission. However, I would personally like to request your permission to use your PJI. I would be happy to share results with you once I finish. The purpose of my study is to gain a better understanding of how African American millennials perceive procedural justice.

Thank you in advance for your assistance with this matter.

Annette W. Fields

Rosenbaum, Dennis P. <dennizr@uic.edu>

To

Annette Woods

CC

DennisRosenbaum3@gmail.com

Jul 31 at 2:41 PM

Hi Annette,

Not a problem. Good luck with your research.

Dennis

Dennis P. Rosenbaum, PhD
Professor Emeritus of Criminology, Law & Justice
University of Illinois at Chicago

Appendix B: Permission to Use Willingness to Submit to Police Authority

To
Phd
Jul 26 at 7:48 PM

Hello Dr. Baxter,

My name is Annette W. Fields and I am a doctoral student at Walden University. I would like to request your permission to use your WSPA Survey for my study. I will be happy to share results with you once I finish. The purpose of this study is to gain a better understanding of how African American millennials perceive procedural justice and how it correlates with consent to police officer authority.

Thank you in advance for your assistance with this matter.

Annette W. Fields

Reply to All Forward More

phd <phd@statassist.com> You have my permission to use the WSPA for your research. We request that data associated with the survey be made available for additional research and validation purposes. Warmly, Jim Baxter Ph.D.

To
Annette Woods
Today at 10:27 AM

You have my permission to use the WSPA for your research. We request that data associated with the survey be made available for additional research and validation purposes.

Warmly,

Jim Baxter Ph.D.

Appendix C: Procedural Justice Inventory

Procedural Justice Inventory						
Item	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree
Treatment						
Treat individuals with dignity and respect	1	2	3	4	5	6
Polite	1	2	3	4	5	6
Talk down to people	1	2	3	4	5	6
Communication/Emotional Control:						
Remains calm	1	2	3	4	5	6
Display a sense of humor	1	2	3	4	5	6
Interrupts	1	2	3	4	5	6
Task Competence						
Knows what they're doing	1	2	3	4	5	6
Clearly explains the reasons for their actions	1	2	3	4	5	6
Explains what happens next in the process	1	2	3	4	5	6
Empathy and Emotional Support						
Listens	1	2	3	4	5	6
Concerned about feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6
Believes what I say	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix D: Willingness to Submit to Police Authority Instrument

Item	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree
Instruction given by a police officer should be immediately obeyed	1	2	3	4	5	6
A person should always question police authority	1	2	3	4	5	6
Obeying a police officer's request should first be judged on its merits	1	2	3	4	5	6
A person should always follow a police officer's demands	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix E: Permission to Conduct Research



SurveyMonkey Inc.
www.surveymonkey.com

For questions, visit our Help Center
help.surveymonkey.com

Re: Permission to Conduct Research Using SurveyMonkey

To whom it may concern:

This letter is being produced in response to a request by a student at your institution who wishes to conduct a survey using SurveyMonkey in order to support their research. The student has indicated that they require a letter from SurveyMonkey granting them permission to do this. Please accept this letter as evidence of such permission. Students are permitted to conduct research via the SurveyMonkey platform provided that they abide by our Terms of Use, a copy of which is available on our website.

SurveyMonkey is a self-serve survey platform on which our users can, by themselves, create, deploy and analyze surveys through an online interface. We have users in many different industries who use surveys for many different purposes. One of our most common use cases is students and other types of researchers using our online tools to conduct academic research.

If you have any questions about this letter, please contact us through our Help Center at help.surveymonkey.com.

Sincerely,

SurveyMonkey Inc.



Appendix F: Procedural Justice and Willingness to Submit to Police Authority Survey

* 1. What is your gender

Female

Male

* 2. What ethnicity do you identify with?

African American

Other

* 3. What is your Age Group?

Less than 18

18-25

26-35

36-45

45+

* 4. What is the highest level of education obtained?

Less than high School

High School or equivalent

Some College

Bachelor's Degree

Master's Degree

Greater than a Master's Degree

* 5. Do you reside in the greater metro Atlanta Georgia area?

No

Yes

