UNLV | University Libraries
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

UNLV Theses, Dissertations, Professional Papers, and Capstones

May 2018

Police Interventions, Public Perceptions, and The RDFC Interaction Model

Stacey L. Clouse
stacey.clouse@unlv.edu

Follow this and additional works at: https://digitalscholarship.unlv.edu/thesesdissertations

 Part of the Criminology Commons, and the Criminology and Criminal Justice Commons

Repository Citation

Clouse, Stacey L., "Police Interventions, Public Perceptions, and The RDFC Interaction Model" (2018). *UNLV Theses, Dissertations, Professional Papers, and Capstones*. 3233.
https://digitalscholarship.unlv.edu/thesesdissertations/3233

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by Digital Scholarship@UNLV. It has been accepted for inclusion in UNLV Theses, Dissertations, Professional Papers, and Capstones by an authorized administrator of Digital Scholarship@UNLV. For more information, please contact digitalscholarship@unlv.edu.

POLICE INTERVENTIONS, PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS,

AND THE RDFC INTERACTION MODEL

By

Stacey L. Clouse

Bachelor of Arts-Criminal Justice
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
2015

A thesis submission in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the

Master of Arts-Criminal Justice

Department of Criminal Justice
Greenspun College of Urban Affairs
The Graduate College

University of Nevada, Las Vegas
May 2018

Copyright 2018 by Stacey L. Clouse

All Rights Reserved

UNLV | GRADUATE COLLEGE

Thesis Approval

The Graduate College
The University of Nevada, Las Vegas

April 10, 2018

This thesis prepared by

Stacey L. Clouse

entitled

Police Interventions, Public Perceptions, and the RDFC Interaction Model

is approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts - Criminal Justice
Department of Criminal Justice

Tamara Madensen-Herold, Ph.D.
Examination Committee Chair

Kathryn Hausbeck Korgan, Ph.D.
Graduate College Interim Dean

William H. Sousa, Ph.D.
Examination Committee Member

Joel Lieberman, Ph.D.
Examination Committee Member

Jaewon Lim, Ph.D.
Graduate College Faculty Representative

ABSTRACT

Police Interventions, Public Perceptions, and The RDFC Interaction Model

by

Stacey L. Clouse

Procedural justice and police legitimacy research suggests that perceptions of legitimacy are based on the credibility of police (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). However, highly publicized incidents of police use of force serve to threaten that credibility. High profile incidents between police and citizens in Black communities have contributed to national protests and, as some data suggest, increased violence toward the police (FBI.gov, 2016). Extensive media coverage of these incidents has contributed to an increased sensitivity toward police- citizen interactions leading to incidents of civil unrest (Weitzer, 2002). The incidents of civil unrest suggest that we should more closely examine factors that influence public perceptions of police interventions.

This study uses the RDFC Interaction Model (Madensen et al., 2012) to structure an examination of citizen reactions toward specific police interventions. The RDFC Interaction Model suggests that four dimensions of police-citizen encounters will affect the degree to which the public will find police actions as acceptable and voluntarily comply with officer directives. Those dimensions include being reasonable, disarming, focused, and consistent. This study measures public support of specific police interactions using the RDFC Interaction Model and examines reported differences across each of the model's dimensions. In addition, this study attempts to identify individual characteristics that may account for variation in reported perceptions of police interventions. The policy objective of the study is to assist police departments in community outreach efforts when highly publicized use of force incidents occur.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would first like to express my deep gratitude to my advisor and committee chair Dr. Tamara Madensen-Herold for the constant support, unlimited patience, and guidance through this amazing research process. Thank you for sharing in this excitement with me and always leading me in the right direction. I would also like to offer my special thanks to my committee members Dr. William Sousa, Dr. Joel Lieberman, and Dr. Jaewon Lim for their advice, assistance, and many laughs. I also wish to acknowledge the help provided by Dr. Terance Miethe. Thank you for not closing your door every time you saw me heading to your office. I would also like to thank my family and friends for their endless encouragement every time I faced uncertainty. Lastly, I would like to acknowledge Mr. Michael Banez for being my fiercest supporter whether near or far and believing that I might one day change the world.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT iii

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS iv

LIST OF TABLES vii

LIST OF FIGURES ix

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION 1

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW 3
RDFC Interaction Model 3
Reasonableness 3
Disarming 6
Focus 8
Consistency 10
Individual Characteristics and Reactions to Police Behavior 11
Purpose of the Current Study 13
Research Questions 13

CHAPTER 3: METHODS 16
Participants 16
Materials and Procedure 17
Inclusion Criteria 17
Online Questionnaire 18
Analysis Strategy 21
Independent Variables 22
Dependent Variables 22
CACC Presentation and Interpretations 23

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS 24
Video Descriptions and Variation in Perceptions 26
Video 1 26
Video 2 27
Video 3` 29
Video 4 30
Public Perceptions and Individual Demographics 33
Ticketed 36
Stopped and Frisked 42
Arrested 46
Conjunctive Analysis of Case Configuration 51
Ticketed 52
Stopped and Frisked 53

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION 56
Summary of Findings 56
Implications of the Current Study 58
Limitations 59
Conclusion 61

APPENDIX A: Perceptions of Police Interventions Survey 62

APPENDIX B: Video Coding Sheet 68

APPENDIX C: Coding of RDFC Principles 69

APPENDIX D: Elements of Videos 70

REFRENCES 72

CURRICULUM VIATE 80

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics 25

Table 2: Responses to General Legitimacy Question- "The police generally treat people fairly and try to do the right thing" 25

Table 3: ANCOVA – General Perceptions of Legitimacy 34

Table 4: Difference in Means for ANCOVA General Perceptions of Police 34

Table 5: ANCOVA Video 1 Reasonable Item Response 35

Table 6: Difference in Means for ANCOVA Video 1Reasonable Item Response 35

Table 7: ANOVA General Perceptions of Police 36

Table 8: Difference in Means for ANOVA General Perceptions of Police Legitimacy 37

Table 9: ANOVA Video 1 Reasonable Item Response 37

Table 10: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 1 Reasonable Item Response 38

Table 11: ANOVA Video 1 Focus Item Response 38

Table 12: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 1 Focus Item Response 39

Table 13: ANOVA Video 2 Disarming Item Response 39

Table 14: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 2 Disarming Item Response 40

Table 15: ANOVA Video 3 Disarming Item Response 40

Table 16: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 3 Disarming Item Response 41

Table 17: ANOVA Video 4 Disarming Item Response 41

Table 18: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 4 Disarming Item Response 42

Table 19: ANOVA Video 1 Focus Item Response 43

Table 20: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 1- Focus Item Response 43

Table 21: ANOVA Video 2 Focus Item Response 44

Table 22: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 1 Focus Item Response 44

Table 23: ANOVA Video 4 Focus Item Response 45

Table 24: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 4 Focus Item Response (Race-Education) 45

Table 25: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 4 Focus Item Response (Male-Stopped and Frisked) 45

Table 26: ANOVA Video 3 Consistency Item Response 46

Table 27: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 3 Consistency Item Response 46

Table 28: ANOVA Video 4 Disarming Item Response 47

Table 29: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 4 Disarming Item Response 47

Table 30: ANOVA Video 4 Focus Item Response 48

Table 31: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 4 Focus Item Response 49

Table 32: ANOVA Video 4 Consistency Item Response 50

Table 33: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 4 Consistency Item Response (Arrested) .50

Table 34: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 4-Consistency Item Response (Race-Arrested) 50

Table 35: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 4 Consistency Item Response (Race-Gender-Education) 51

Table 36: CCAC Demographics and Ticketed for Legitimacy Perceptions 53

Table 37: CCAC Demographics and Stopped and Frisked for Legitimacy Perceptions 55

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: RDFC Interaction Model Frequencies For Video 1.....27

Figure 2: RDFC Interaction Model Frequencies For Video 2 28

Figure 3: RDFC Interaction Model Frequencies For Video 3 30

Figure 4: RDFC Interaction Model Frequencies For Video 4 31

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Currently, the United States is experiencing incidents of civil unrest prompted, in part, by police actions toward Black citizens. High profile incidents - including the deaths of Freddy Grey in Baltimore, Michael Brown in Ferguson, and Eric Garner in Staten Island - have re-sparked conversations regarding police practices and interventions. These high-profile deaths have contributed to national protests and, as some have argued, increased violence toward police (FBI.gov, 2016). Additionally, media coverage of these and other high-profile incidents has affected public perceptions of the police and heightened sensitivity to police interventions (Weitzer, 2002).

However, high profile incidents between police and citizens resulting in civil unrest are not a new phenomenon. For example, roughly fifty years ago, in July of 1964, a White police officer shot and killed a Black teenager in New York City resulting in riots that ensued for two days. As a result, one hundred people were injured and five hundred people were arrested (Uchida, 2015). Additionally, in 1992 Rodney King was stopped by Los Angeles police officers. The encounter ended in a physical altercation. The altercation between King and the Los Angeles police department was captured on video and released to the public, resulting in the Los Angeles riots. At that time, the Los Angeles riot was one of the most violent and destructive events incited by police practices. The riots resulted in 52 deaths, 2500 injuries, and substantial financial impacts from the damages (DiPasquale & Glaeser, 1998).

More recently, the civil unrest in Baltimore, Maryland was a response to Freddie Gray's death while in police custody. Freddy Grey fled from police and after his apprehension he

suffered severe spinal cord injuries that ultimately lead to his death. What began as a protest later developed into a riot. The riot resulted in the governor declaring a state of emergency and produced almost $9 million in damages. In addition, the Ferguson, Missouri riots were prompted by the fatal shooting of Michael Brown by officer Darren Wilson. Wilson encountered Brown after he robbed a liquor store. The encounter lead to nine shots being fired at Michael Brown, resulting in his death. The riots that ensued resulted in over eighty arrests, the loss of twenty-five businesses due to arson, and the loss of over a dozen vehicles, including a police car. The total financial damages were estimated to be well over $5 million (Chasmar, 2015). The aforementioned incidents suggest that it would be useful to closely examine factors that influence public perceptions of police interventions.

The purpose of this study is to explore citizen perceptions of police interventions by using the RDFC Interaction Model. The RDFC Interaction Model suggests that citizen acceptance of police intervention is based on four dimensions: the *reasonableness* of the intervention, how *disarming* the intervention is, the *focus* of the intervention, and the *consistency* of the intervention (Madensen et al., 2012). Although there is a plethora of existing literature on perceptions of police practices, the literature has yet to fully examine the four RDFC factors hypothesized to influence citizen acceptance of police interventions. This examination of police interventions using the RDFC Interaction Model will contribute to our understanding of public perceptions of police action. More specifically, this study uses the RDFC Interaction Model to measure support of specific police interactions. It attempts to identify specific combinations of individual characteristics that may account for variation in perceptions with the aim of assisting police departments in community outreach efforts when highly publicized use of force incidents occur.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

RDFC Interaction Model

The RDFC Interaction model was developed by Madensen and colleagues (2012). The framework is grounded in several theories including reactance theory, procedural justice and police legitimacy, defiance theory, the Elaborated Social Identity Model (ESIM), differential coercion theory, and situational crime prevention (Sousa & Madensen, 2016). The diverse theories that contribute to the RDFC model form the four dimensions that aim to explain factors that lead to citizen support for police interventions. The RDFC Interaction Model published by Sousa and Madensen (2016) suggests that in order to gain citizen acceptance of police interventions, four criteria must be met.

Reasonableness

The first dimension of the RDFC Interaction Model is how *reasonable* the intervention appears to be from the citizen's perspective. As Sousa and Madensen (2016) highlight, being reasonable applies to discretionary decisions made by the police officer. Those discretionary decisions refer to the extent to which an officer's actions protected citizens' rights and freedoms, as well as the degree to which the actions were taken to prevent harm, rather than strictly enforcing the laws. This applies to discretionary decisions such as questioning an individual, making an arrest, or issuing a warning (Sousa & Madensen, 2016). When police discretionary decisions are perceived to be strictly legalistic in nature, without considering the context of those decisions, citizens will not feel that the officer is there to protect their freedom. Legalistic policing refers to following the letter of the law. An example Sousa and Madensen use (2016) is

loitering. If an officer does not apply discretion and consider the protections of freedom and whether the person is engaged in other harmful activity when dealing with this type of event, he could invoke a negative response and not be seen as reasonable.

Additionally, Eck and Madensen (2017) further explain *reasonable* as a police officer having to ask themselves "why" they are asking an individual to do something. In order to evaluate why they are asking for compliance, first, police should ask themselves if the intervention is necessary. Second, they should ask themselves if they are protecting citizens' rights in doing so. Moreover, police should also ask themselves if the "intervention serves to prevent a greater and tangible harm" (Eck & Madensen, 2017). If the objective of the intervention is perceived as unreasonable, the police intervention can lead to damaged police-community relations. Furthermore, if the intervention's objective threatens the protection of citizen rights, police are less likely to be perceived as being reasonable.

The theories that form the basis of being *reasonable* are grounded in reactance theory, procedural justice and police legitimacy. Reactance theory was first developed by Brehm in 1966 and further developed throughout the years. Reactance theory argues that when an individual's freedoms are threatened, the individual will react in a negative way (Steindl, Jonas, Sittenthaler, Traut-Mattausch, & Greenberg, 2015). Reactance is psychological in nature and creates feelings of arousal. The level of arousal an individual will feel when their freedoms are threatened will determine how much anger and aggression will be directed at the sanctioning agent. Furthermore, an individual's level of reactance will be based on the value placed on the threatened freedom. The higher the value that is placed on the freedom, the more resistance a police officer will encounter. Those emotions are the foundation for the driving force to act out against the sanctioning agent who threatens their freedom. For the purposes of this study the

sanctioning agent is a police officer or group of police officers. The theory lends support to the RDFC Interaction Models claim. If the police (or group of police officers) are not perceived as being reasonable in their actions, people will react in a negative, aggressive manner.

From a procedural perspective, procedural justice and police legitimacy literature examines how police can be perceived in a more positive manner within the communities they serve. Sunshine and Tyler (2003) examine issues relating to police legitimacy and how legitimate police action gains citizen support. Their research examines legitimacy through public compliance with police, public cooperation, and the publics willingness to support police. They argue that perceptions of legitimacy will be based on the credibility of the sanctioning threats, effectiveness of the sanctions in relation to crime control, and fairness in which sanctions are distributed (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003).

The fairness of police sanctions is suggested to directly influence perceptions of police legitimacy and, subsequently, police interventions, even if the interventions are punitive in nature. Research regarding police interventions in minority communities report that minorities are less likely to view police interventions fairly and favorably (Weitzer & Tuch, 1999; Wentz, 2012). Police interventions in minority communities commonly include reports of police profiling and the use of unnecessary force (Weitzer & Tuch, 2004). It is argued that this causes a lack of support for police interventions and lower perceptions of legitimacy. When perceptions of police legitimacy decrease, citizens are less likely to report crime (Kane, 2005). This in turn increases crime due to the lack of reporting to police and the lack of trust in the police (Kane, 2005). However, if individuals in minority communities felt that police were treating citizens in a fair manner, police interventions might be more widely accepted, people might have greater trust in police, and citizens might become more engaged in helping to prevent crime. The dimensions

of the RDFC Interaction Model can be used to gain a better understanding of the factors that influence citizens' perceptions of police legitimacy, beyond opinions of general fairness.

Furthermore, police interventions that are not requested by an individual are less likely to receive citizen support (Schafer, Hubner, & Bynum, 2003). Schafer et al. (2003) explained that the British idea of "policing by consent" is a more effective way to gain citizen support of police interventions. When police have consent from an individual to follow through with an intervention, they are more likely to be seen in a favorable manner and potentially seen as fair. Policing by consent is the notion that police can only reach their goals when they have public support for police intervention (Carter, 2002; Schafer et al., 2003). Therefore, determining the factors that increase or decrease citizen acceptance of police interventions could help to inform police practices.

Disarming

The second dimension of the RDFC Interaction Model includes how *disarming* the intervention is. Sousa and Madensen (2016) describe disarming as the degree to which the officer is able to deescalate a situation, with actions ranging from non-intrusive to very intrusive. Non-intrusive actions pertain to police behaving in a nonaggressive manner. This could be speaking in a normal tone or asking for citizen compliance in a nonthreatening way. Very intrusive actions involve police displaying aggressive tactics and force. This could be police shouting directives or drawing a weapon. Police have the authority to use highly coercive force, but that force is not necessary in all situations (Sousa & Madensen, 2016). Using de-escalation tactics at appropriate times could lead to greater public support. Additionally, Eck and Madensen (2017) explain *disarming* as limiting the use of force, intrusive tactics, and other

coercive measures whenever possible. This involves "how" a police officer is asking others to do something. Avoiding overly aggressive police action can increase positive public reactions.

The theories that form the basis of being *disarming* are grounded in all six theories but draw heaviest from defiance theory and situational crime prevention. Defiance theory helps to explain why people might resist police directives or interventions. Sherman (1993) argues that defiance, or resistance, will occur under four conditions: when the offender sees the sanction as unfair; when the offender lacks bonds to the sanctioning agent (e.g., police); when the sanction is stigmatizing; and when the offender does not feel any shame. The current U.S. political protests illustrate the principles of defiance theory. Based on this theory, we might expect that news reports of high profile police shootings are influencing perceptions of fairness and bonds with police among members of minority communities, resulting in retaliatory actions against police. Protests could be attributed to the lack of perceived police legitimacy, or perceptions of reasonable behavior on the part of police (as outlined in the RDFC Interaction Model) resulting in defiant behavior.

In his theory of situational crime prevention, Clarke (1980) argues that everyone has the potential to engage in criminal behavior. The theory asserts that the likelihood of any specific criminal act depends on situational factors that influence perceptions of opportunity. Cornish and Clarke (2003) suggests the best way to minimize opportunity for criminal behavior is to manipulate situational factors. The key characteristics of situational factors are divided into five categories: (1) effort, (2) risk, (3) reward, (4) provocations, and (5) excuses. Cornish and Clarke's theory suggests that police can reduce negative public reactions by engaging in behaviors that do not provoke frustration and stress. The RDFC Interaction Model proposes that provocations can be limited and positive public perceptions of police interventions can be

enhanced if police engage with citizens in a disarming manner. Further, the Model suggests that police can eliminate excuses for unlawful resistance by limiting their use of unnecessary coercive or intrusive tactics.

Focus

The third dimension of the RDFC Interaction Model refers to the *focus* of the intervention. This dimension is described as the degree of precision of an intervention (Sousa & Madensen, 2016). More specifically, this dimension refers to police only targeting behaviors or conditions that are causing harm. Additionally, the intervention is aimed to target specific individuals or places based on the appropriateness of the situation (Sousa & Madensen, 2016). In sum, when police engage in a focused action they target only behaviors or conditions that cause harm, and refrain from targeting entire groups of people, even if many within the group are engaged in harmful behavior (Eck & Madensen, 2017). For example, the tactics utilized by the Las Vegas Metropolitan Police Department on New Year's Eve show great precision. When an individual in the crowd becomes problematic they focus on going into the crowd and extracting the individual(s). This is a very focused action that does not disrupt the rest of the partygoers. If their efforts were unfocused there could be damage to public relations (Sousa & Madensen, 2016; Sousa & Madensen, 2011).

The theory that forms the basis of being *focused* is grounded in the elaborated social identity model. Social identity is how an individual perceives themselves and to which groups they identify with**.** An individual's place within their social circle will help define who the individual is and what values they will adopt. This is based on self-identification and identification with specific groups (Drury & Reichter, 1999; Tajfel & Turner, 1978).

The elaborated social identity model (ESIM) describes a social identity an individual develops when in the presence of others and the feelings of power associated with that experience (Drury & Reicher, 1999). An individual identity is dynamic in nature and can take many forms, particularly in a crowd or just a small social circle (Drury, Reicher, & Scott; 2003). According to LeBon (1895), when an individual enters a crowd the individual adopts the crowds' irrational, destructive forces, and they become filled with negative emotion. This is a process LeBon (1895) refers to as de-individuation. Reicher, Spears, and Postmes (1995) later refuted the idea of de-individuation by explaining that individuals maintain their own identity and moral compass when they participate in with others during any type of collective action.

When an individual takes part in collective action (e.g., enters a crowd), identities can be influenced by individuals within the group, but they do not lose their individual identity. For example, citizens can peacefully assemble to exercise their democratic rights and view themselves as peaceful protesters standing in solidarity with other members of the community. Whereas other individuals in the group may see themselves as legitimate antagonists and begin to act aggressively acting out against something. Peaceful protesters will see the others as antagonists and will not identify with that part of the group but police may only see the whole group as antagonistic (Drury et al., 2000). If police target the whole crowd, the crowd will perceive this to be a provocation.

According to ESIM, provocations will cause individuals to form a collective, or shared identify in a crowd. This makes individuals within the group more likely to retaliate against police. However, according to the RDFC Interaction Model, citizens are less likely to form hostile shared identities if police employ focused tactics and target only individuals who are engaged in harmful activities. This follows previous research which suggests that positive police-

citizen interactions with an individual could have the potential to affect a whole group (Schafer, J. A., Huebner, B. M., & Bynum, T. S., 2003).

Consistency

The fourth dimension of the RDFC Interaction model is the *consistency* of the intervention. Madensen and colleagues (2012) have explained consistency as "relating to the dependability of an official action across similar situations and over time" and how behavior elicits a response from authorities (Sousa & Madensen, 2016; p. 44). Consistency is also explained as requiring police to establish predictability to reduce tensions. The more dependable police action is across similar situations over time, the more consistent we can claim their behavior to be (Eck & Madensen, 2017). Erratic, unpredictable police behavior does little to create feelings of security for citizens of a community. When citizens within a community no longer feel that the police are consistent in their behavior, police lose support and cooperation from the citizens within that community (Goldsmith, 2005; Benedict & Brown, 2000). Without police consistency, it is suggested that all of the other effects previously mentioned in the Interaction model are mitigated (Sousa & Madensen, 2016; Eck & Madensen, 2017). Consistency requires police to evaluate "where and when they treat others similarly" (Eck & Madensen, 2017).

The theory that forms the basis and support of being *consistent* is grounded in differential coercion theory. Differential coercion theory suggests that different forms of power and control on the part of authorities are associated with destructive behaviors**.** Colvin (2000) explains that there are two dimensions of authority intervention that lead to different outcomes: the level of consistency and the level of coerciveness. If those in authority use consistent/non-coercive

control, people are more likely to develop strong bonds with those in power and are less likely to engage in harmful behavior. Alternatively, if those in authority attempt to control people or situations using coercive/erratic tactics, people become alienated from those in power and are more likely to commit harmful acts. In relation to institutions such as law enforcement, this theory suggests that consistent, non-coercive behaviors on the part of police will produce the most compliance from members of the community and allow the community to develop strong social bonds with sanctioning agents (i.e., police). Similarly, the RDFC Interaction Model suggests that consistent police practices will lead to citizen support. Erratic, unpredictable police behavior does little to create feelings of security for citizens of a community.

Existing theory and supporting empirical research demonstrate a direct connection between the specific characteristics of police behavior and citizen approval of police behavior. As previously mentioned, several dimensions of police actions influence public perceptions. There is a large body of research suggesting that fair and positive police behavior will lead to police legitimacy and citizen compliance, as well as acceptance (Mazerolle, Antrobus, Bennett & Tyler, 2013; Mazerolle et al., 2013). However, the literature has not yet examined citizen reaction to police intervention based on the four specific dimensions of the RDFC Interaction Model.

Individual Characteristics and Reactions to Police Behavior

Research suggests that individual level characteristics have an effect on perceptions of police interventions. In particular, race and gender have been found to play a role in perceptions. Race has historically been associated with negative perceptions of police in African American communities; however, some studies show that the gap in perceptions of police is not as wide as

some might expect (Bayley & Mendelsohn, 1969; Campbell & Schuman, 1972; Garofalo, 1977; Hindelang, 1974; Jacob, 1971; Scaglion & Condon, 1980; Smith & Hawkins, 1973; Smith, Steadman, Minton, & Townsend 1999). The relationship between gender and perceptions of police has been proven to be inconsistent (Schafer et al., 2003). The findings in this study may be able to add clarity to past research.

Additionally, previous research suggests levels of education contribute to perceptions of the police. Less educated males with more frequent encounters with the police hold stronger negative opinions (Huebner, Schafer, & Bynum, 2004). In relation to race, Wortley et al.'s (1997) research discovered that black respondents with higher education levels were more critical of highly publicized use of force incidents than less educated black respondents (Schuck, Rosenbaum, & Hawkins, 2008). In line with education affecting perceptions, victimization experiences have also show a connection to perceptions of police. Research suggests that victimization experiences increase negative perceptions of the police (Apple & O'Brien, 1983; Homant et al., 1984; Smith & Hawkins 1973; Parks, 1984; Cao, Frank, & Cullen, 1996).

Furthermore, literature assessing positive and negative interactions with the police have shown that an individual's perceptions of police interventions are influenced more by their personal contact with law enforcement than any other factor (Schafer et al., 2003; Scaglion & Condon, 1980). Personal contact with police has been shown to play a more significant role in an individual's perception of police intervention than the role race plays in perceptions of the police. The current study adds to previous research by asking questions related to positive and negative experiences with police (i.e. receiving a ticket versus getting a warning) and experiences with victimization (i.e. victim of a crime or never been the victim of a crime). In

addition, the current study contributes to current research by asking questions related to more intrusive interactions with police, including being stopped and frisked and arrested.

Purpose of the Current Study

The current study explores public perceptions of police interventions. This exploratory study had two primary goals. The first goal is to examine variation across the four dimensions of the RDFC Interaction Model used to measure support (or lack thereof) of specific police-citizen interactions. If the model predicts general public acceptance or rejection of police intervention, then we might expect some level of consistency across respondents' assessments of the same police interventions. Further, if all four dimensions of the model are critical to understanding levels of support for particular police actions, then we would expect to find some variation between items that attempt to measure each of the proposed dimensions: being reasonable, disarming, focused, and consistent. If there is no variation between measures of specific dimensions, then the RDFC framework may be misspecified and should be revisited. Second, this study attempts to determine whether individual respondent characteristics might account for variation in perceptions of specific police interventions. In particular, this study examines associations between individuals reported levels of support for police actions, their demographics, and their experiences with crime and the legal system.

Research Questions

This study measures public perceptions of police interventions using the RDFC Interaction Model. Three main research questions were explored.

Research Question 1: Is there variation in individuals' reactions to different police interventions?

Since the RDFC Interaction Model suggests that public acceptance is influenced by four qualities of any police intervention, it is important to determine the degree to which members of the public differ, or are consistent, in their assessments of specific police actions.

Research Question 2: Is there variation in responses to questions that measure different dimensions of the RDFC Interaction Model?

If each dimension of the model is measuring a different construct and all four are critical to understanding public acceptance or rejection of police actions, then we would expect respondents to differ in their assessments of any specific intervention across the four dimensions of the model.

Research Question 3: Do individual characteristics help to explain differences in perceptions of police intervention?

To what degree are individual demographics and experiences – race, gender, level of education, victimization, and interactions with the police – associated with acceptance of police intervention? Previous research reports a connection between public perceptions of the police and individual-level demographics (e.g., Brown & Benedict, 2002), but the association between personal characteristics and perceptions of police interventions has not been explored using the RDFC framework. In line with previous research (e.g., Tyler, 2004), we also might expect prior exposure to the police and legal system to influence perceptions of police conduct.

In addition to contributing to existing literature, the findings in the study will contribute to information on de-escalation tactics, law enforcement training, and aid in understanding the contextual factors that determine citizen acceptance of police interventions. Such information

could assist police departments in community outreach efforts when highly publicized use of force incidents occur. The purpose of this research is to examine how citizens view the appropriateness of police action, using the RDFC Interaction Model, and determine whether personal characteristics are associated with variation among citizen perceptions.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

Data used to examine perceptions of police interventions was obtained using a national online survey. The survey presented respondents with a series of videos depicting police-citizen encounters. Participants were asked to answer questions about their perceptions of the encounters and to provide general background and demographic information to learn more about factors that influence public assessments of police actions.

Participants

The survey was developed using the Qualtrics survey platform. The study was administered to 716 U.S. adults on-line through the Amazon's Mechanical Turk national survey administration service[1]. Participants were able to access the online survey through a computer or a cellular device and compensated $0.75 for their participation. In addition to the adults recruited from Mechanical Turk, participants were recruited through social media. The survey remained open for three weeks.

One hundred and thirty-two participants were dropped due to incomplete demographic information. In an attempt to measure only public perceptions, one hundred and thirty respondents who confirmed working as a police officer, working in the criminal justice field, and military personnel were also removed. Police, individuals working in the criminal justice field, and military personnel go through specialized training to help them prepare for specific citizen

[1] Amazons Mechanical Turk is an online labor market. The software application is used to outsource surveys and retrieve answers from respondents (www.mechanicalturk.com). Developed in 2005, the service allows a "worker" to register with the website and receive "HIT's" based on individual qualifications (www.mturk.com/mturk). A "HIT" is a "single, self-contained task that a worker can work on, submit an answer, and collect a reward for completing" (www.mturk.com). Access to the site is gained through Amazon.com where a profile is completed and workers are assigned an ID number. The ID number is used to complete a survey in which the worker is compensated for. The compensation ranges from $0.01 to over $10.00, depending on the task (Heen, 2014; Paolacci & Chandler, 2014; Paolacci et al., 2010; Goodman et al., 2013).

encounters. This training might give them a different perspective than the general public on why specific tactics are deployed. Removing these respondents was done in an attempt to examine only the general public's perceptions of police-citizen encounters. After removing incomplete surveys and those working in the criminal justice system or military, the total number of participants included 454 adults. Participation in this study was voluntary and included participants eighteen years of age or older.

Materials and Procedure

Participants were presented with an introduction to the study and a consent form. After agreeing to participate in the survey, respondents were directed to answer a general question about their belief that "police generally treat people fairly and try to do the right thing." Participants responded to this question using a four-point Likert scale with [1] representing strongly agree to [4] strongly disagree. Respondents were then instructed to watch a series of four videos. Following each video, respondents answered questions measuring each of the RDFC Interaction Model dimensions to measure individual perceptions of police-citizen encounters, and personal demographic and experience questions (see Appendix A for full survey and consent form). The videos were obtained by searching the Internet for videos of police interventions. An attempt was made to select videos that depicted diverse scenarios and also met specific inclusion criteria.

Inclusion Criteria

To locate videos appropriate for this analysis, an extensive search of online videos of police-citizen encounters was conducted. The search was conducted by a team of six undergraduate students, over a time span of one week. Using general Internet search engines, (e.g., Google, YouTube), the team of students located twenty-eight videos that met two specific

criteria: the video must (1) depict police-citizen interactions and (2) be no longer than two and a half minutes in length.

The four videos used in this study were selected from the larger pool of 28 based on the quality of footage – each video had to provide clear footage of a continuous encounter between police and citizen(s) – and after considering differences among the scenarios captured in the footage. The goal was to maximize variation in the situational contexts depicted in the footage. In an attempt to select the most diverse set of videos possible, a coding sheet based loosely on the RDFC Interaction Model principles was developed (see Appendix B and C). Although strict inclusion criteria were not applied at this stage, variation among scenarios was assessed based on six questions: 1) Does the officers' actions appear to be legal? 2) Does the officer answer questions posed by the subject? 3) Does the officer use aggressive body movements or raised voice commands? 4) Does the officer use inappropriate (foul) language? 5) Is force used against any subject who appears to be complying with officer demands? 6) Is force used against any subject who does not appear to be causing any harm? Videos that varied the most along these criteria were selected for the survey.

Online Questionnaire

The survey consisted of multiple-choice responses. It took participants approximately sixteen minutes to watch the videos and answer the survey questions. The respondents were asked to watch the four police-citizen encounter videos, answer questions about each video, and answer a series of demographic questions. The sequence of videos was randomized to control for any influence that presentation order may have on respondent's perceptions. Descriptions of each video are included in chapter 4.

Before respondents watched the videos, they were instructed to respond to the statement: "to what degree do you agree with this statement: Police generally treat people fairly and try to do the right thing." Following each video, participants responded to questions or statements designed to measure perceptions based on the four RDFC Interaction Model dimensions. The first question measured perceived levels of *reasonableness*. Respondents assessed the degree to which they believe the police officers' actions protect citizens' rights and freedoms, as well as preventing harm. Specifically, they were asked: "How necessary or unnecessary were the officer(s) actions to prevent others on the scene from committing harm?" The second question measured the degree to which people perceive the officer(s) actions as being *disarming*, by asking participants to rate the officers' attempts or ability to calm or deescalate a situation. This was accomplished by asking respondents: "Did the officer(s) appear to try escalate (provoke) or de-escalate (calm) the situation before physically intervening?" The third item measured perceptions of the *focus* of police action. To do this, respondents were instructed to respond to the statement: "The officers intervened or used force against people who did not threaten others or were not engaged in harmful behavior." The fourth item measured perceptions of *consistency*. According to the RDFC Interaction Model, consistency refers to how dependable and predictable behavior serves to reinforce behavioral expectations (Sousa & Madensen, 2016). As such, respondents were asked to rate the degree to which the police behavior resembles that of the police in their own community. Specifically, they responded to the statement: "The behavior of the officers in this video is the type of behavior I expect from the police." Participants responded to each question using a 4-point Likert scale (e.g., [1] very appropriate to [4] very inappropriate; [1] strongly escalate to [4] strongly de-escalate; and [1] strongly agree to [4] strongly disagree).

A series of demographic and experience questions followed at the end of the survey. These questions asked respondents to report their race, gender, level of education, victimization, positive and negative interactions with law enforcement, military affiliation and law enforcement affiliation. Answers given to the demographic questions were used to determine which personal characteristics and experiences are associated with various perceptions of police interventions to build upon the findings of previous literature.

As noted in the literature review, previous research has identified relationships between personal characteristics (e.g., race, gender, interactions with the police) and perceptions. Previous research has shown that race and gender play a role in perceptions. Race has historically been associated with negative perceptions of police in African American communities. However, some studies suggest that the gap in perceptions between Black and White respondents is not as substantial as previously suggested (Bayley & Mendelsohn, 1969; Campbell & Schuman, 1972; Garofalo, 1977; Hindelang, 1974; Jacob, 1971; Scaglion & Condon, 1980; Smith & Hawkins, 1973; Smith, Steadman, Minton & Townsend 1999). Accounting for race in the study serves to contribute to current literature.

The relationship between gender and perceptions of police has proven to be inconsistent (Schafer et al., 2003; Brown & Benedict, 2002). The findings in this study may be able to add clarity to past research. Literature assessing positive and negative interactions with the police has shown that an individual's perceptions of police interventions are influenced more by their personal contact with law enforcement than any other factor (Schafer et al., 2003; Scaglion & Condon, 1980; Brown & Benedict, 2002). Personal contact with police has been shown to play a more significant role in an individual's perception of police intervention than the role race plays in perceptions of the police. The current study will attempt to determine if these findings can be

replicated. Furthermore, previous research suggests levels of education contribute to perceptions of the police. Less educated males with more frequent encounters with the police have reported stronger negative opinions of police (Huebner, Schafer, & Bynum, 2004).

Moreover, research suggest that the effects of victimization are mixed. Some reports suggest that the effects of victimization contribute to negative perceptions of the police while other reports show no effect (Block, 1971; Carter, 1985; Homant et al., 1984; Kusow et al., 19977; Priest & Carter, 1999; Smith et al., 1991; Thurman and Reisig, 1996; Smith & Hawkins, 1973). Accounting for levels of gender, race, education, victimization, and interactions with the police offer the opportunity to explore a relationship between the aforementioned variables and the types of police action that the public perceives as reasonable, disarming, focused, and consistent.

Analysis Strategy

First, basic descriptive statistics (e.g. frequencies) are used to answer (1) how many people report similar perceptions of specific police actions; and (2) to assess the degree to which people vary or do not vary in their perceptions of specific police actions across the various dimensions of the RDFC interaction model. Second, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is used to determine if personal characteristics, and interactions between these characteristics, effect respondent's perceptions. To compliment the ANOVA, Case Configurations (CACC) are utilized for the purposes of further analyzing the survey data. CACC is a technique that allows for the understanding of complex relationships between different combinations of variables (Miethe, Hart, & Regoeczi, 2008). CACC allows for the exploration of patterns in data that may be overlooked when using traditional statistical methods. In particular, specific combinations of variables are considered simultaneously to determine the most common profile of individuals

that are more or less likely to support police intervention. This helps determine if there are relationships among multiple personal characteristics associated with high or low levels of support for particular types of police action. Each variable is coded dichotomously for inclusion in the CCAC analysis.

Independent Variables

The personal characteristic survey questions serve as the independent variables. A dummy dichotomous variable for race (black [1], other [0]), gender (male [1], female [0], education (lower education [1], higher education [0] [2]), previous positive and negative interactions with law enforcement (warning/ticketed/arrested/stopped and frisked – all yes [1], no [0]), and victimization experiences (previous crime victim – yes [1], no [0]) were created to analyze personal characteristics. These measures are used to assess any potential relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variables, which measure perceptions of police and police interventions.

Dependent Variables

For the purposes of this study the dependent variables include survey items measuring (1) respondents' general view of police and (2) individuals' perceptions of police action as defined by the dimensions of the RDFC model. As noted previously, the RDFC dimensions examined in this study include: how *reasonable* a police officers' actions are perceived to be; how *disarming* the police officers' actions are perceived to be; how *focused* the police officers' interventions are perceived to be; and perceptions of the *consistency* of the officers' interventions. The ANOVA analyses use all four categories of the Likert scale measuring responses to the survey items. To

[2] The education variable was collapsed into this binary measure to create the most variation possible in the measure. In the analyses those coded as [1] reported no more education than completing some college, and those coded as [0] reported completing a 2-year degree or higher level of education.

facilitate the CCAC analyses, the Likert-scale survey measures are collapsed into dummy coded binary variables to indicate overall agreement/disagreement of police legitimacy. For example, all "agree" and "strongly agree" responses are combined into one category to compare to all other responses, while all "disagree" and "strongly disagree" responses are combined into one category to compare to all other responses.

CCAC Presentation and Interpretation

Given the number of variables measured in the current survey, a CCAC model that includes all potential binary independent variables would produce a very large number of "profiles" - too many to draw meaningful conclusions. For example, including a binary measure for each combination of respondent characteristics/experiences would produce over nine million profiles. To facilitate the goal of better understanding who is more likely to support (and who is less likely to support) police action during and after a potentially controversial intervention, three demographic variables – race, gender, and level of education – and a single individual experience variable (e.g., receiving a ticket) are included in models to examine differences among general "community" profiles. Only those experiential variables found to be significant in the ANOVA analyses are used in the CCAC analyses. Further, only general perceptions of police are explored using the CCAC analysis. The purpose of conducting the CCAC analysis is to determine whether this type of model can further enhance our understanding of the dynamics between individual characteristics and perceptions of the police, beyond traditional statistical models (e.g., ANOVA). These additional findings can be used to inform future research into public perceptions of police intervention.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The final sample consisted of 454 respondents. Among the participants, 84% of the respondents were White, 8.6% were Black. A majority of the respondents were female (57.4%). Just over half (62.5%) of the respondents had a two-year degree or greater[3] and had never been the victim of a crime (50.7%). However, 84 (18.5%) respondent reported being the victim of a violent crime and 178 (39.2%) respondent reported being a victim of property crime. Additionally, over half (66.1%) of the respondents received a ticket, over half (61%) had been given a warning instead of a ticket, and 30% had been arrested or stopped and frisked. See Table 1 for a complete summary of the descriptive statistics associated with the independent variables.

[3] The education variable was collapsed into this binary measure to create the most variation possible in the measure. In the analyses those coded as [1] reported having less education completed and some college, but not an advanced degree.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics

Variables and Descriptive Statistics	
Gender	*n=451*
Male	192 (42.3%)
Female	258 (56.8%)
Race	*n=452*
White	382 (84.4%)
Black	39 (8.6%)
Other	35 (7.7%)
Education	*n=450*
Less Education (high school, GED, and some college)	166 (36.6%)
More Education (two-year degree or greater)	284 (62.5%)
Victimization	*n=454*
Never been the victim of a crime	230 (50.7%)
Violent crime	84 (18.5%)
Property crime	178 (39.2%)
Interaction with Police	*n=454*
Ticketed	300 (66.1%)
Given warning (no ticket or arrest)	277 (61%)
Arrested	79 (17.4%)
Stopped and Frisked	61 (13.4%)

Note: (n) varies among variables, only valid cases are included. Total sample size is 454.

In order to assess general opinions of the police, respondents were asked if they thought the police generally treat people fairly and try to do the right thing. As shown in Table 2, a vast majority (79.1%) of the respondents "agreed" or "strongly agreed" with the statement. To the contrary, respondents seldom (18.8%) "disagreed" or "strongly disagreed." Respondents reactions to the specific videos are described in the section that follows.

Table 2: Responses to General Legitimacy Question - "The police generally treat people fairly and try to do the right thing."

Variable	Descriptive Statistics
Strongly Agree	83 (18.3%)
Agree	276 (60.8%)
Disagree	62 (13.7%)
Strongly Disagree	23 (5.1%)
Don't Know	10 (2.2%)

Note: n= 454.

Video Descriptions and Variation in Perceptions

The RDFC Interaction Model suggests that public acceptance is influenced by four qualities of any police intervention. In order to answer the first two research questions, descriptive statistics are examined to determine the degree to which members of the public differ, or are consistent, in their assessment of specific police interactions. In addition to determining the degree in which respondents differ in their assessments, an examination of how those perceptions vary across all four dimensions of the RDFC model is also conducted. A brief description of each video and variation in responses follow. More detailed descriptions of each video can be found in Appendix D.

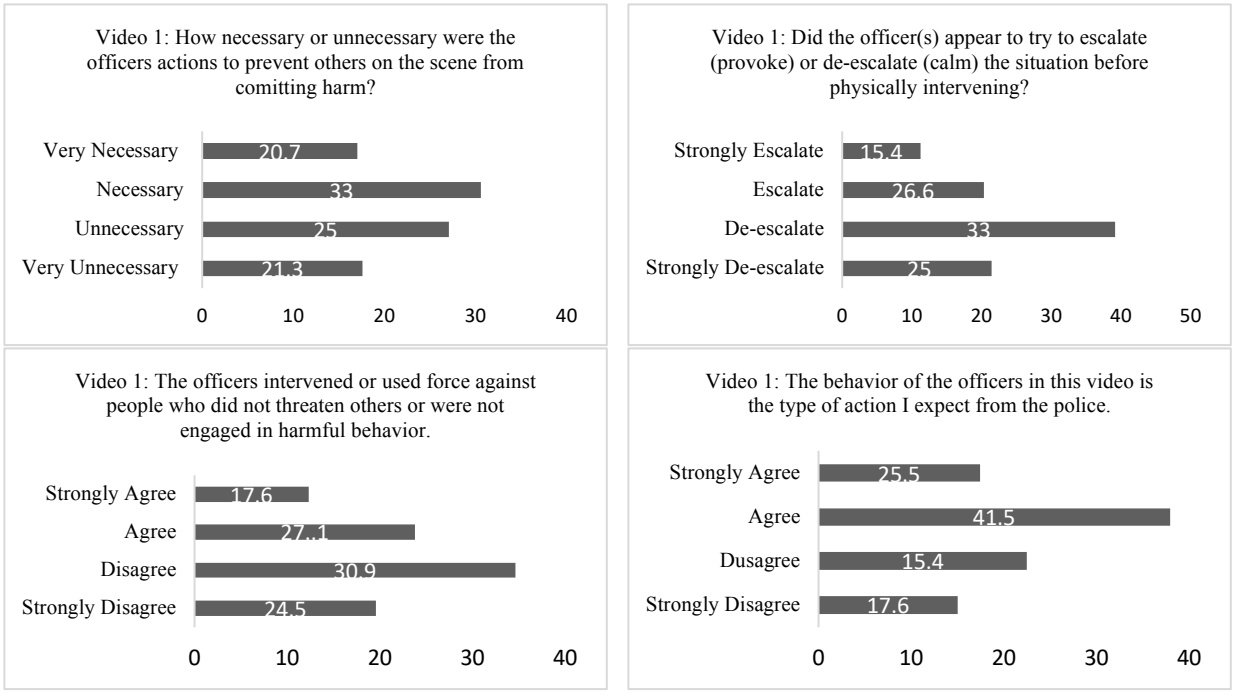
Video 1:

Video 1 was filmed from a citizen's perspective. A large group of police are observed talking with a citizen on a residential sidewalk. The citizen is becoming verbally aggressive with the police over the topic of a moped. After a period of time (just under two minutes), the police can be seen pulling the citizen to the ground in an attempt to arrest him.

In reference to video 1, 50.7% of the respondents perceived the officers' actions as necessary or very necessary to prevent others on the scene from committing harm while 46.3% found the officers' behavior to be unnecessary or very unnecessary. This demonstrates that a small majority of the respondents found the officers' behaviors to be reasonable, although there is notable variation in respondents' perceptions. Greater consistency across responses was found for the rest of the survey items. In measuring whether or not the respondents perceived the officers' actions to be disarming, 58% suggested that the officers tried to de-escalate the situation before physically intervening whereas 42.1% of the respondents reported that the officers escalated the situation. In response to the item measuring the degree of focus, 55.4% of the

respondents perceived the interaction to be focused on those causing harm whereas 44% of the respondents believed that the officers used force against people who did not threaten others or engage in harmful behavior. In reaction to the question measuring consistency, 33.9% of the respondents reported that they expect this behavior from the police while 60.1% of the respondents reported they do not expect this type of behavior from the police (see Figure 1).

Figure 1: RDFC Interaction Model Respondent Frequencies For Video 1



Note: (n) 188.

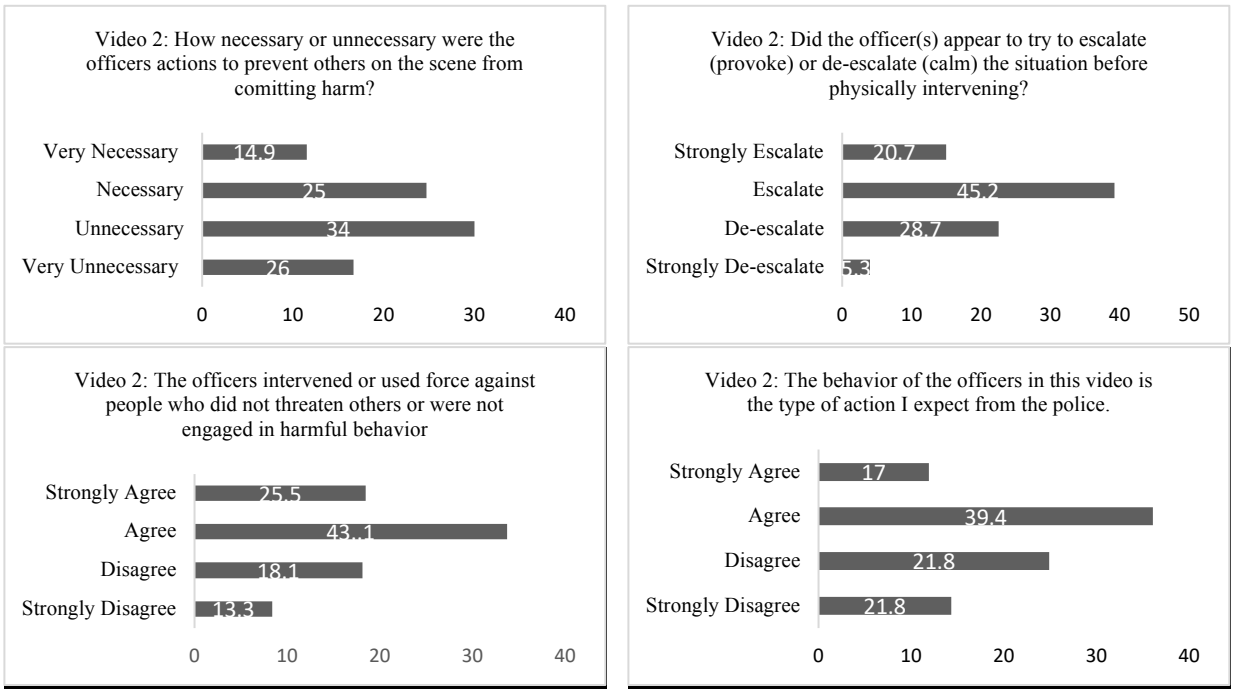
Video 2:

Video two is filmed from the angle of a citizen. During the start of a protest, the individual is trying to pass police to join a larger crowd. The police attempt to block the individual by using force and foul language.

For video two, 60.1% of the respondents perceived the officers' actions as unnecessary or very unnecessary to prevent others on the scene from committing harm while 39.9% found the

behavior to be necessary or very necessary. In measuring whether or not the respondents perceived the officers' actions as disarming, 65.9% of the respondents reported the officers as escalating the situation before physically intervening whereas 30.4% found the behavior to be de-escalating. In response to the item measuring the degree of focus, 31.4% of the respondents perceived the interaction to be focused on those causing harm whereas 68.6% of the respondents believed that the officers used force against people who did not threaten others or engage in harmful behavior. In reaction to the question measuring consistency, 56.4% of the respondents reported that they expect this type behavior from the police and 43.6% disagreed (see Figure 2).

Figure 2: RDFC Interaction Model Respondent Frequencies For Video 2



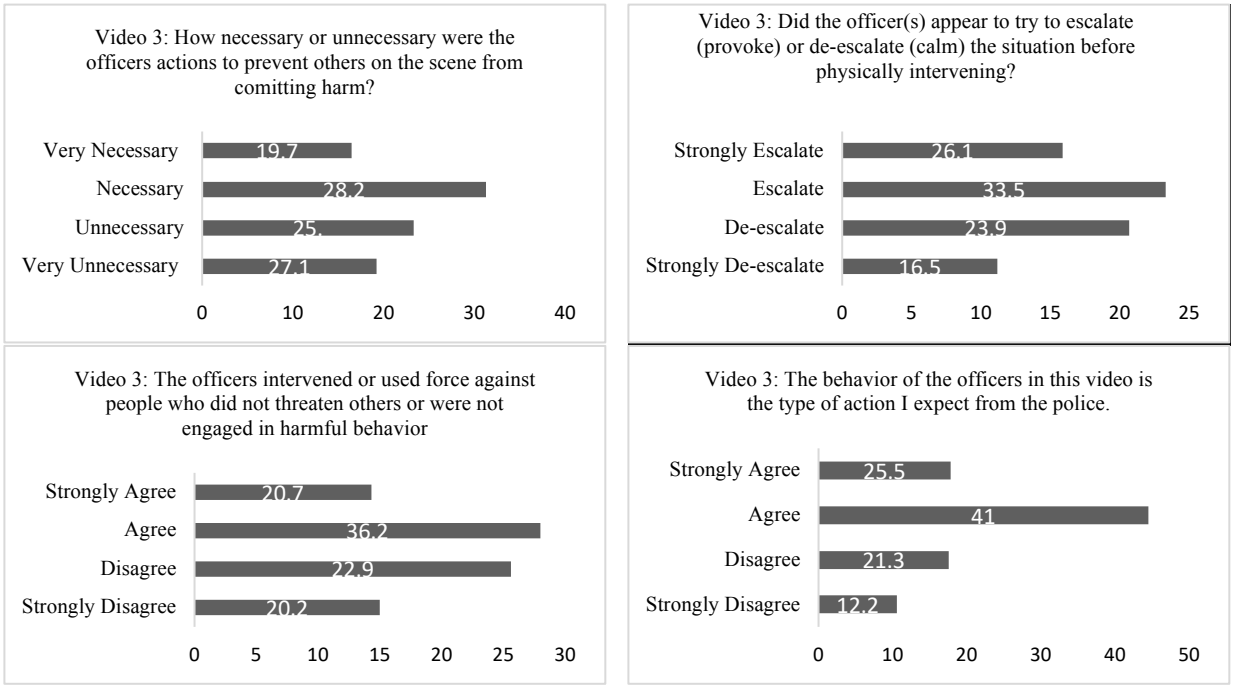
Note: (n) 188

Video 3:

Video three is filmed from a citizen's phone. Police are seen grouped together in riot gear heading toward citizens blocking traffic during a protest. Riot police use force to remove the citizens out of the street.

For this video, 47.9% of the respondents perceived the officers' actions as necessary to prevent others on the scene from committing harm whereas 52.1% find the actions to be unnecessary. The second question following video three addressed the disarming dimension of the model. In response, 59.6% of the respondents perceived the officers as escalating the situation before physically intervening and 40.3% perceived it to be de-escalating or calming. In response to the item measuring the degree of focus, 43.1% of the respondents perceived the interaction to be focused on those causing harm whereas 56.9% of the respondents believed that the officers used force against people who did not threaten others or engage in harmful behavior. The fourth question following video three addressed the consistent dimension of the model. In response, 66.5% of the respondents reported expecting this behavior from the police and 33.5% disagreed suggesting that this is not the type of behavior they expect from the police (see Figure 3).

Figure 3: RDFC Interaction Model Respondent Frequencies For Video 3



Note: (n) 188.

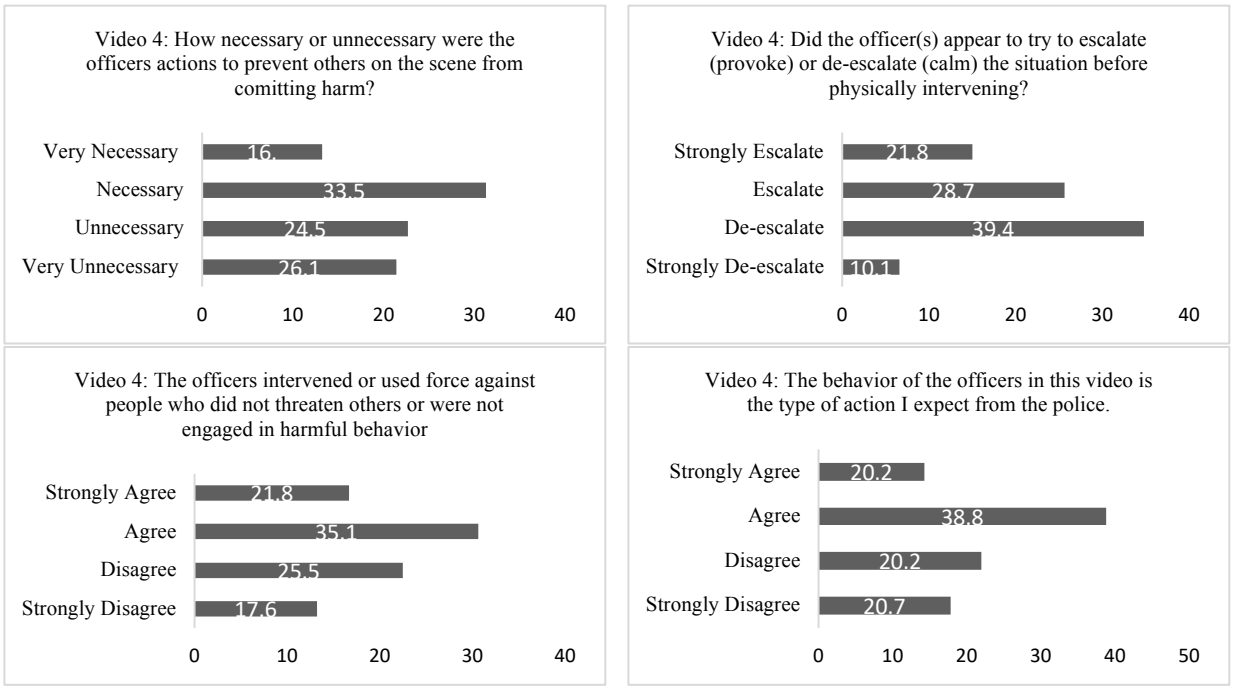
Video 4:

Video four shows footage from an officer's patrol car that pulls up behind an SUV. Simultaneously, a patrol car pulls in front of the SUV. The two patrol cars block the SUV and order the occupants to exit the vehicle. As the individuals begin to exit the vehicle with their hands up, officers use force to gain compliance.

In response to video four, 49.5% of the respondents perceived the officers' actions as necessary or very necessary to prevent others on the scene from committing harm, whereas 50.6% perceived it to be unnecessary or very unnecessary. In response the disarming survey item, 49.5% of the respondents perceived the officers as de-escalating the situation before physically intervening and 50.5% as escalating. In response to the item measuring the degree of focus, 43.1% of the respondents perceived the interaction to be focused on those causing harm whereas 56.9% of the respondents believed that the officers used force against people who did not threaten others

or engage in harmful behavior. In response to the consistent dimension, 56.9% of the respondents reported expecting this behavior from the police and 43.1% do not (see Figure 4).

Figure 4: RDFC Interaction Model Respondent FrequenciesFor Video 4



Note: (n) 188.

In sum, the reasonable dimension of the interaction model involves officer actions that are focused on protecting citizens' rights and freedoms, as well as preventing harm. Throughout the video assessments, the majority of respondents reported officer actions as unreasonable only for the videos where citizens were not being aggressive toward police (video 2, 3, and 4). The disarming dimension of the interaction model involves officers limiting the use of force and other intrusive tactics or coercive measures, whenever this is possible. Respondents opinions of the videos show that in three of the four videos, the majority of respondents found officer behavior as escalating the situation before the officers used force (video 2, 3, and 4). The focus dimension of

the model refers to using force against others only when others are causing harm and refrain from targeting whole groups. Again, respondent's opinions demonstrate that in three of the four videos respondents perceived officers as using force against others who were not a threat to them (video 2, 3, and 4). The consistency dimension of the model refers to the level of predictability of police actions. For the consistency dimension, the majority of respondents reported expecting this type of behavior across all four videos.

The findings across videos show the general patterns described above, yet there is notable variation in perceptions of police action across respondents. While the RDFC Interaction Model is intended to predict general levels of support for police interventions, not all individuals view police action in the same way. Thus, in response to the first research question, this survey confirms that there is variation in individuals' reactions to different police interventions.

The second research question asked whether individuals would vary in their responses to questions that measure different dimensions of the RDFC Interaction Model. Differences across responses to survey items measuring reactions to each video show at least partial support for the claim that each of the model's dimension captures different dynamics of any given encounter. As shown in graphs 1 through 4, the percentage of those responding to each category of the Likert scales differs across the items measuring each of the four dimensions of the model, even when respondents are assessing the same video. This suggests that all four dimensions may be useful to understanding how individuals perceive specific police interventions. It may then be necessary to assess each dimension individually, rather than using a general composite measure of support, to fully understand public reactions to police actions.

Public Perceptions and Individual Demographics

Participants were asked to report their race, gender, level of education, victimization experiences, and interactions with the police to assess the degree to which demographics and experiences affect perceptions. The main dependent measures in this study included a general measure of police legitimacy, as well as the four questions respondents replied to following each of the videos assessing perceptions of being *reasonable, disarming, focused* and *consistent.* In line with previous literature, the first set of analyses used race (Black), gender (male), education (less educated), positive or negative interactions with the police (i.e., having been given a warning or having received a ticket) and victimization (i.e., victim versus never been a victim) to see if there were significant main or interaction effects.[4] To gain a better understanding of interactions between these characteristics, a 2 (race; black vs. other) x2 (gender; male vs. females) x2 (education; low vs high) Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was performed on each of the videos and subsequent questions. Victimization and interaction with the police were added as covariates in the initial model to determine if these experiences influence individual perceptions.

For question 1: "to what degree do you agree with the following statement – police generally treat people fairly and try to do the right thing?" – a significant effect was only found for receiving a ticket [F (1, 429) = 7.108], ($p < .05$) and race [F (1, 429) = 7.842] (see Table 3).

Table 3 and 4 shows that Black respondents who received a ticket were less likely to agree (M= 2.576) than White respondents (M= 2.104). However, the average response for the

[4]A model which assessed white versus minorities found no main effect or significant interactions.

overall model suggests that more respondents agreed the police generally treat people fairly and try to do the right thing (M=2.341).

Table 3: ANCOVA – General Perceptions of Legitimacy.

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Victimization (Yes)	.267	1	.267	.386	.535
Ticket (Yes)	4.921	1	4.921	7.108	.008
Given a warning (Yes)	.101	1	.101	.146	.703
Race (Black)	5.428	1	5.428	7.842	.005
Gender (Male)	2.033	1	2.033	2.937	.087
Education (Less Education)	.023	1	.023	.033	.857
Race * Gender	.200	1	.200	.289	.591
Race * Education	.066	1	.066	.095	.758
Gender * Education	.018	1	.018	.026	.872
Race * Gender * Education	.593	1	.593	.857	.355
Error	296.978	429	.692		
Total	2309.000	440			
Corrected Total	313.616	439			

a R Squared = .053 (Adjusted R Squared = .031)

*Table 4***:** *Difference in Means for ANCOVA General Perceptions of Police.*

			95% Confidence Interval	
Race	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 Other	2.104a	.043	2.019	2.189
1.00 Black	2.576a	.163	2.256	2.895

a Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Victimization = .4864, Received a Ticket = .6705, Warning, No Ticket and No Arrest = .6159.

An ANCOVA was performed for the rest of the dependent measures. Only one other model resulted in significant findings. For video one, question one: "how necessary or unnecessary were the officer(s) actions to prevent others on the scene from committing harm?" A significant effect was found for race [F (1, 429) = 4.095], ($p <. 05$) (see Table 5). Table 6 shows that the overall model finds that the Black respondents more likely (M=3.114) to find the behavior of the officers to be unnecessary to prevent harm than White respondents (M= 2.693).

Significant findings were not found in any of the other models analyzing race, gender, and education as fixed factors, with victimization, ticketed, and given a warning as covariates. This suggests that victimization experiences and given a warning by police did not play a significant role in respondent's perceptions, but race and receiving a ticket did have an effect.

Table 5: ANCOVA Video 1 Reasonable Item Response

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Victimization (Yes)	.005	1	.005	.004	.951
Ticket (Yes)	.344	1	.344	.256	.613
Given a warning (Yes)	1.946	1	1.946	1.447	.230
Race (Black)	5.508	1	5.508	4.095	.044
Gender (Male)	.881	1	.881	.655	.419
Education (Less Education)	.158	1	.158	.118	.732
Race * Gender	.016	1	.016	.012	.914
Race * Education	1.476	1	1.476	1.098	.295
Gender * Education	.362	1	.362	.269	.604
Race * Gender * Education	3.108	1	3.108	2.311	.129
Error	576.928	429	1.345		
Total	3746.000	440			
Corrected Total	602.873	439			

a R Squared = .043 (Adjusted R Squared = .021)

Table 6: Difference in Means for ANCOVA Video 1Reasonable Item Response

			95% Confidence Interval	
Race	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 Other	2.639a	.060	2.520	2.758
1.00 Black	3.114a	.227	2.668	3.559

a Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Victimization = .4864, Ticket, Received a Ticket = .6705, Warning, No Ticket and No Arrest = .6159.

After finding a significant effect for being ticketed, which represents one potentially negative interaction with police, a second set of analyses were conducted to examine if there was a relationship between personal demographics and other negative experiences with the police (i.e. ticketed, stopped and frisked, and arrested). The second set of analyses were a series of factorial Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests to examine the mean differences between the dependent measures (i.e., police legitimacy and the dimensions of the RDFC Interaction Model:

reasonable, disarming, focused, and *consistent*) and independent variables (i.e., race, gender, level of education, and negative interactions with the police). The significant results are summarized below.

Ticketed

An examination of the mean differences between race, gender, education and receiving a *ticket* showed significant differences on the dependent variable across all four videos. There was a significant difference between race [F (1, 433) = 7.794], ($p < .01$) and perceptions of police legitimacy (question one). White respondents were more likely (M=2.151) to agree that the police treat people fairly and try to do the right thing than Black respondents (M=2.615). Tables 7 and 8 summarize these findings.

Table 7: ANOVA General Perceptions of Police

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Race (Black)	5.281	1	5.281	7.794	.005
Gender (Male)	2.056	1	2.056	3.035	.082
Education (Less Education)	.158	1	.158	.233	.630
Ticket (Yes)	1.616	1	1.616	2.386	.123
Race * Gender	.099	1	.099	.146	.703
Race * Education	.015	1	.015	.023	.880
Race * Ticket	.030	1	.030	.044	.835
Gender * Education	.030	1	.030	.045	.832
Gender * Ticket	.442	1	.442	.653	.420
Education * Ticket	.323	1	.323	.476	.490
Race * Gender * Education	1.229	1	1.229	1.814	.179
Race * Gender * Ticket	.089	1	.089	.132	.717
Race * Education * Ticket	.250	1	.250	.369	.544
Gender * Education * Ticket	.371	1	.371	.548	.460
Race * Gender * Education * Ticket	.070	1	.070	.103	.748
Error	293.382	433	.678		
Total	2352.000	449			
Corrected Total	316.508	448			

a R Squared = .073 (Adjusted R Squared = .041)

Table 8: Difference in Means for ANOVA General Perceptions of Police Legitimacy

			95% Confidence Interval	
Race	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 Other	2.151	.046	2.061	2.241
1.00 Black	2.615	.160	2.301	2.929

Similar results were observed for the reasonable dimension in video one. As previously explained, video one shows a large group of police talking with a citizen that is becoming verbally aggressive with the police over the topic of a moped resulting in an arrest. Results show a significant difference between race [F (1, 433) = 6.184], ($p < .05$) and respondents perceptions of officers' actions to prevent harm (see Table 9). Table 10 shows that black respondents were more likely (M= 3.110) to perceive the officers' behaviors as unnecessary to prevent others on the scene from committing harm than White respondents (M= 2.607).

Table 9: ANOVA Video 1 Reasonable Item Response

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Race (Black)	6.184	1	6.184	4.626	.032
Gender (Male)	1.377	1	1.377	1.030	.311
Education (Less Education)	.570	1	.570	.427	.514
Ticket (Yes)	1.432	1	1.432	1.071	.301
Race * Gender	.106	1	.106	.079	.779
Race * Education	1.937	1	1.937	1.449	.229
Race * Ticket	4.662	1	4.662	3.487	.063
Gender * Education	.374	1	.374	.279	.597
Gender * Ticket	1.175	1	1.175	.879	.349
Education * Ticket	1.599	1	1.599	1.196	.275
Race * Gender * Education	3.174	1	3.174	2.374	.124
Race * Gender * Ticket	.857	1	.857	.641	.424
Race * Education * Ticket	3.053	1	3.053	2.284	.131
Gender * Education * Ticket	.795	1	.795	.594	.441
Race * Gender * Education * Ticket	.405	1	.405	.303	.582
Error	578.898	433	1.337		
Total	3842.000	449			
Corrected Total	613.457	448			

a R Squared = .056 (Adjusted R Squared = .024)

Table 10: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 1 Reasonable Item Response

			95% Confidence Interval	
Race	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 Other	2.607	.064	2.481	2.734
1.00 Black	3.110	.224	2.668	3.551

In addition, respondent's perceptions of police actions in video one, focus dimension, showed Black respondents who received a ticket [F (1, 432) = 5.929] were more likely to agree (M= 2.5) that the officers intervened or used force against people who did not threaten others or were not engaged in harmful behavior than White respondents (M=2.971). These results are summarized in Tables 11 and 12.

Table 11: ANOVA Video 1 Focus Item Response

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Race (Black)	.198	1	.198	.152	.697
Gender (Male)	.770	1	.770	.593	.442
Education (Less Education)	3.568	1	3.568	2.748	.098
Ticket (Yes)	4.040	1	4.040	3.112	.078
Race * Gender	.278	1	.278	.214	.644
Race * Education	1.227	1	1.227	.945	.332
Race * Ticket	7.698	1	7.698	5.929	.015
Gender * Education	.282	1	.282	.218	.641
Gender * Ticket	.186	1	.186	.144	.705
Education * Ticket	.498	1	.498	.383	.536
Race * Gender * Education	.034	1	.034	.027	.871
Race * Gender * Ticket	.947	1	.947	.729	.394
Race * Education * Ticket	1.562	1	1.562	1.203	.273
Gender * Education * Ticket	.280	1	.280	.215	.643
Race * Gender * Education * Ticket	.036	1	.036	.027	.869
Error	560.881	432	1.298		
Total	4354.000	448			
Corrected Total	581.679	447			

a R Squared = .036 (Adjusted R Squared = .002)

Table 12: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 1 Focus Item Response

				95% Confidence Interval	
Race	Ticket	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 Other	.00 No	2.816	.105	2.610	3.022
	1.00 Yes	2.971	.071	2.830	3.111
1.00 Black	.00 No	3.466	.319	2.839	4.093
	1.00 Yes	2.500	.307	1.897	3.103

In video two, an individual is trying to pass police to join a larger crowd but the police attempt to block the individual by using force and foul language. As shown in tables 13 and 14, in response to the disarming dimension in video two, black respondents who had received a ticket [F (1, 431) = 4.112] were more likely (M= 1.96) to perceived the officers' behavior as escalating the situation before they physically intervened than White respondents (M= 2.822).

Table 13: ANOVA Video 2 Disarming Item Response

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Race (Black)	2.629	1	2.629	1.545	.215
Gender (Male)	.628	1	.628	.369	.544
Education (Less Education)	.012	1	.012	.007	.934
Ticket (Yes)	1.119	1	1.119	.658	.418
Race * Gender	.137	1	.137	.080	.777
Race * Education	.000	1	.000	.000	.991
Black * Ticket	6.997	1	6.997	4.112	.043
Gender * Education	.113	1	.113	.067	.797
Gender * Ticket	.149	1	.149	.088	.768
Education * Ticket	.120	1	.120	.071	.790
Race * Gender * Education	.431	1	.431	.253	.615
Race * Gender * Ticket	1.492	1	1.492	.877	.350
Race * Education * Ticket	.025	1	.025	.015	.903
Gender * Education * Ticket	1.392	1	1.392	.818	.366
Race * Gender * Education * Ticket	1.928	1	1.928	1.133	.288
Error	733.304	431	1.701		
Total	4059.000	447			
Corrected Total	767.347	446			

a R Squared = .044 (Adjusted R Squared = .011)

Table 14: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 2 Disarming Item Response

				95% Confidence Interval	
Race	Received a Ticket	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 Other	.00 No	2.502	.120	2.266	2.737
	1.00 Yes	2.822	.082	2.661	2.983
1.00 Black	.00 No	2.708	.365	1.991	3.426
	1.00 Yes	1.960	.351	1.271	2.650

In response to the disarming dimension in video three, where riot police are seen approaching a crowd of demonstrators, Black respondents who received a ticket [F (1, 428) = 3.935] again were more likely to perceive the officers' actions as escalating (M= 2.177) the situation before intervening than White respondents (M= 3.123). These findings are presented in Tables 15 and 16.

Table 15: ANOVA Video 3 Disarming Item Response

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Race (Black)	3.111	1	3.111	1.484	.224
Gender (Male)	.336	1	.336	.161	.689
Education (Less Education)	1.221	1	1.221	.582	.446
Ticket (Yes)	6.922	1	6.922	3.303	.070
Race * Gender	.082	1	.082	.039	.844
Race * Education	.777	1	.777	.371	.543
Race * Ticket	8.245	1	8.245	3.935	.048
Gender * Education	6.032	1	6.032	2.879	.090
Gender * Ticket	.002	1	.002	.001	.974
Education * Ticket	5.685	1	5.685	2.713	.100
Race * Gender * Education	5.711	1	5.711	2.726	.099
Race * Gender * Ticket	.057	1	.057	.027	.869
Race * Education * Ticket	5.140	1	5.140	2.453	.118
Gender * Education * Ticket	.415	1	.415	.198	.657
Race * Gender * Education * Ticket	.643	1	.643	.307	.580
Error	896.883	428	2.096		
Total	5224.000	444			
Corrected Total	934.811	443			

a R Squared = .041 (Adjusted R Squared = .007)

Table 16: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 3 Disarming Item Response

Race	Received a Ticket	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 Other	.00 No	3.074	.135	2.809	3.338
	1.00 Yes	3.123	.091	2.944	3.301
1.00 Black	.00 No	3.300	.405	2.503	4.096
	1.00 Yes	2.177	.398	1.395	2.959

The same effect of receiving a ticket was found for responses to the disarming dimension in video four; however, race was not significant. In video four officers can be seen making a traffic stop and kicking a man in the head. As shown in tables 17 and 18, gender and education appeared to influence perceptions. Less educated male respondents [F (1, 433) = 4.580] were more likely to perceive the actions of the officers as de-escalating (M=2.984) before physically intervening than less educated females (M= 2.590).

Table 17: ANOVA Video 4 Disarming Item Response

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Race (Black)	2.450	1	2.450	1.519	.218
Gender (Male)	.585	1	.585	.363	.547
Education (Less Education)	1.083	1	1.083	.671	.413
Ticket (Yes)	1.542	1	1.542	.956	.329
Race * Male	.506	1	.506	.313	.576
Race * Education	.971	1	.971	.602	.438
Race * Ticket	4.907	1	4.907	3.042	.082
Gender * Education	7.388	1	7.388	4.580	.033
Gender * Ticket	2.726	1	2.726	1.690	.194
Education * Ticket	.241	1	.241	.149	.699
Race * Gender * Education	2.092	1	2.092	1.297	.255
Race * Gender * Ticket	1.172	1	1.172	.727	.394
Race * Education * Ticket	.039	1	.039	.024	.876
Gender * Education * Ticket	8.284E-5	1	8.284E-5	.000	.994
Race * Gender * Education * Ticket	2.316	1	2.316	1.436	.231
Error	698.454	433	1.613		
Total	4407.000	449			
Corrected Total	729.439	448			

a R Squared = .042 (Adjusted R Squared = .009)

Table 18: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 4 Disarming Item Response

Gender	Education	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 Female	.00 More Education	2.929	.164	2.606	3.251
	1.00 Less Education	2.590	.199	2.198	2.982
1.00 Male	.00 More Education	2.225	.297	1.641	2.810
	1.00 Less Education	2.984	.329	2.338	3.630

Stopped and Frisked

Significant effects were also found for interactions between race, gender, education, and being *stopped and frisked*. In an examination of the focus dimension in video one, a significant difference was found between respondent's level of education and perceptions of police action. As stated above, video one shows a large group of police talking with a citizen that is becoming verbally aggressive with the police over the topic of a moped resulting in an arrest. As shown in tables 19 and 20, those with less education [$F (1, 433) = 5.264$], ($p < .05$) were more likely to disagree ($M = 3.149$) that officers intervened or used force against people who did not threaten others or were not engaged in harmful behavior than respondents with more education ($M= 2.678$).

Table 19: ANOVA Video 1 Focus Item Response.

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Race (Black)	.678	1	.678	.517	.472
Gender (Male)	.701	1	.701	.535	.465
Education (Less Education)	6.905	1	6.905	5.264	.022
Stopped & Frisked (Yes)	.142	1	.142	.108	.742
Race * Gender	.807	1	.807	.615	.433
Race * Education	2.883	1	2.883	2.198	.139
Race * Stopped & Frisked	.013	1	.013	.010	.921
Gender * Education	.297	1	.297	.226	.634
Gender * Stopped & Frisked	1.437	1	1.437	1.096	.296
Education * Stopped & Frisked	.457	1	.457	.349	.555
Race * Gender * Education	.034	1	.034	.026	.872
Race * Gender * Stopped & Frisked	3.971	1	3.971	3.027	.083
Race * Education * Stopped & Frisked	.055	1	.055	.042	.838
Gender * Education * Stopped & Frisked	4.192	1	4.192	3.196	.075
Race * Gender * Education * Stopped & Frisked	.000	0	.	.	.
Error	567.967	433	1.312		
Total	4354.000	448			
Corrected Total	581.679	447			

a R Squared = .024 (Adjusted R Squared = -.008)

Table 20: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 1- Focus Item Response.

			95% Confidence Interval	
Education	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 More Education	2.678a	.176	2.331	3.024
1.00 Less Education	3.149	.196	2.764	3.535

a Based on modified population marginal mean.

For responses to the consistency dimension in video two, a significant relationship was found between gender and police interactions. Again, in video two, an individual is trying to pass police to join a larger crowd but the police attempt to block the individual by using force and foul language. As shown in Tables 21 and 22, men who had been stopped and frisked [F (1, 434) = 5.304] were more likely to disagree (M= 3.008) that officers intervened or used force against people who did not threaten others or were not engaged in harmful behavior than women (M= 1.767).

Table 21: *ANOVA Video 2 Focus Item Response*

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Race (Black)	1.286	1	1.286	.658	.418
Gender (Male)	4.347	1	4.347	2.225	.137
Education (Less Education)	.066	1	.066	.034	.854
Stopped & Frisked (Yes)	.898	1	.898	.460	.498
Race * Gender	1.858	1	1.858	.951	.330
Race * Education	.788	1	.788	.403	.526
Race * Stopped & Frisked	.378	1	.378	.194	.660
Gender * Education	.875	1	.875	.448	.504
Gender * Stopped & Frisked	10.363	1	10.363	5.304	.022
Education * Stopped & Frisked	.668	1	.668	.342	.559
Race * Gender * Education	.568	1	.568	.291	.590
Race * Gender * Stopped & Frisked	1.427	1	1.427	.730	.393
Race * Education * Stopped & Frisked	.864	1	.864	.442	.506
Gender * Education * Stopped & Frisked	.865	1	.865	.443	.506
Race * Gender * Education * Stopped & Frisked	.000	0	.	.	.
Error	847.975	434	1.954		
Total	4391.000	449			
Corrected Total	883.149	448			

a R Squared = .040 (Adjusted R Squared = .009)

Table 22: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 1 Focus Item Response

Male	Stopped and Frisked	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 Female	.00 No	2.687	.148	2.397	2.978
	1.00 Yes	1.767a	.442	.898	2.635
1.00 Male	.00 No	2.443	.355	1.745	3.141
	1.00 Yes	3.008	.337	2.346	3.669

a Based on modified population marginal mean.

For the consistency dimension in video four, a relationship was found between race and education, as well as gender and police interaction (see Tables 23, 24, and 25). As noted earlier, video four shows officers making a traffic stop and kicking a man in the head. Less educated Black respondents [F (1, 431) = 4.373] were more likely to disagree (M = 3.075) that police intervened or used force against people who did not threaten others or were not engaged in harmful behavior than black respondents with more education M= 2.458).

Table 23: ANOVA Video 4 Focus Item Response

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Race (Black)	.133	1	.133	.078	.780
Gender (Male)	3.159	1	3.159	1.853	.174
Education (Less Education)	1.122	1	1.122	.658	.418
Stopped & Frisked (Yes)	.202	1	.202	.118	.731
Race * Gender	.071	1	.071	.041	.839
Race * Education	7.454	1	7.454	4.373	.037
Race * Stopped & Frisked	1.032	1	1.032	.606	.437
Gender * Education	.323	1	.323	.190	.664
Gender * Stopped & Frisked	10.968	1	10.968	6.435	.012
Education * Stopped & Frisked	.020	1	.020	.012	.913
Race * Gender * Education	.205	1	.205	.120	.729
Race * Gender * Stopped & Frisked	2.763	1	2.763	1.621	.204
Race * Education * Stopped & Frisked	2.511	1	2.511	1.473	.226
Gender * Education * Stopped & Frisked	.089	1	.089	.052	.820
Race * Gender * Education * Stopped & Frisked	.000	0	.	.	.
Error	734.641	431	1.705		
Total	4256.000	446			
Corrected Total	763.839	445			

a R Squared = .038 (Adjusted R Squared = .007)

Table 24: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 4 Focus Item Response (Race-Education)

				95% Confidence Interval	
Race	Education	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 Other	.00 More Education	2.821	.170	2.488	3.155
	1.00 Less Education	2.432	.172	2.094	2.770
1.00 Black	.00 More Education	2.458a	.411	1.650	3.265
	1.00 Less Education	3.075	.413	2.264	3.886

a Based on modified population marginal mean.

Table 25: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 4 Focus Item Response (Male-Stopped and Frisked)

				95% Confidence Interval	
Male	Stopped and Frisked	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 Female	.00 No	2.921	.138	2.650	3.192
	1.00 Yes	2.000a	.413	1.189	2.811
1.00 Male	.00 No	2.524	.332	1.872	3.176
	1.00 Yes	3.227	.314	2.609	3.845

a Based on modified population marginal mean.

Arrested

Significant findings were also observed when examining the effects of being *arrested*. Video three depicts riot police approaching a crowd of demonstrators and using forceful measures to remove them. Black respondents that had been arrested [F (1, 431) = 4.519], ($p < .05$) were less likely to agree (M=3.946) that this was the type of behavior they expected from the police than White respondents (M= 2.574) in response to this video (see tables 26 and 27).

Table 26: ANOVA Video 3 Consistency Item Response.

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Race (Black)	2.583	1	2.583	.742	.390
Gender (Male)	3.948	1	3.948	1.134	.288
Education (Less Education)	1.879	1	1.879	.540	.463
Arrested (Yes)	7.324	1	7.324	2.103	.148
Race * Gender	.002	1	.002	.001	.981
Race * Education	2.671	1	2.671	.767	.382
Race * Arrested	15.736	1	15.736	4.519	.034
Gender * Education	1.676	1	1.676	.481	.488
Race * Arrested	12.508	1	12.508	3.592	.059
Education* Arrested	3.756	1	3.756	1.078	.300
Race * Gender * Education	2.111	1	2.111	.606	.437
Race * Gender * Arrested	.917	1	.917	.263	.608
Race * Education * Arrested	2.507	1	2.507	.720	.397
Gender * Education * Arrested	9.197	1	9.197	2.641	.105
Race * Gender * Education* Arrested	3.634	1	3.634	1.043	.308
Error	1500.975	431	3.483		
Total	5231.000	447			
Corrected Total	1571.400	446			

a R Squared = .045 (Adjusted R Squared = .012)

Table 27: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 3 Consistency Item Response

				95% Confidence Interval	
Race	Arrested	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 Other	.00 No	2.884	.108	2.672	3.096
	1.00 Yes	2.574	.236	2.110	3.037
1.00 Black	.00 No	2.303	.450	1.419	3.187
	1.00 Yes	3.946	.758	2.456	5.437

For video four, race and education influenced perceptions of escalation/de-escalation when arrest was added to the model (see Tables 28 and 29). Again, video four depicts officers in a traffic stop kicking a man in the head. Less educated Black respondents [F (1, 433) = 4.036] were more likely to perceive the officers' actions as de-escalating (M= 2.967) the situation before physically intervening than Black respondents with more education (M= 1.750).

Table 28: ANOVA Video 4 Disarming Item Response

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Race (Black)	3.352	1	3.352	2.076	.150
Gender (Male)	.002	1	.002	.001	.972
Education (Less Education)	5.702	1	5.702	3.531	.061
Arrested (Yes)	3.545	1	3.545	2.195	.139
Race * Gender	.184	1	.184	.114	.736
Race * Education	6.517	1	6.517	4.036	.045
Race * Arrested	1.056	1	1.056	.654	.419
Gender * Education	1.510	1	1.510	.935	.334
Gender * Arrested	2.143	1	2.143	1.327	.250
Education* Arrested	2.415	1	2.415	1.496	.222
Race * Gender * Education	1.627	1	1.627	1.007	.316
Race * Gender * Arrested	4.509	1	4.509	2.792	.095
Race * Education * Arrested	2.647	1	2.647	1.639	.201
Gender * Education * Arrested	.065	1	.065	.041	.840
Race * Gender * Education * Arrested	1.692	1	1.692	1.048	.307
Error	699.170	433	1.615		
Total	4407.000	449			
Corrected Total	729.439	448			

a R Squared = .041 (Adjusted R Squared = .008)

Table 29: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 4 Disarming Item Response

				95% Confidence Interval	
Race	Education	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 Other	.00 More Education	2.830	.124	2.586	3.074
	1.00 Less Education	2.789	.126	2.542	3.036
1.00 Black	.00 More Education	1.750	.437	.890	2.610
	1.00 Less Education	2.967	.411	2.158	3.775

For video four, Less educated male respondents who had been arrested [F (1, 430) = 6.151] hold more negative opinions concerning the focus of police action than those with more education. As shown in tables 30 and 31, less educated men were more likely to agree (M= 1.676) that officers intervened or used force against people that did not threaten others or were not engaged in harmful behavior then men with more education (M= 3.065). Less educated women hold opinions close to those of men with more education (M= 2.71) than women with more education (M= 2.050).

Table 30: ANOVA Video 4 Focus Item Response

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Race (Black)	1.026	1	1.026	.601	.439
Gender (Male)	.000	1	.000	.000	.987
Education (Less Education)	.785	1	.785	.460	.498
Arrested (Yes)	5.614	1	5.614	3.289	.070
Race * Gender	.061	1	.061	.035	.851
Race * Education	3.729	1	3.729	2.185	.140
Race * Arrested	5.688	1	5.688	3.332	.069
Gender * Education	.956	1	.956	.560	.455
Gender * Arrested	.015	1	.015	.009	.926
Education* Arrested	5.293	1	5.293	3.101	.079
Race * Gender * Education	1.353	1	1.353	.793	.374
Race * Gender * Arrested	.021	1	.021	.012	.912
Race * Education * Arrested	.649	1	.649	.380	.538
Gender * Education * Arrested	10.499	1	10.499	6.151	.014
Race * Gender * Education * Arrested	5.959	1	5.959	3.491	.062
Error	733.996	430	1.707		
Total	4256.000	446			
Corrected Total	763.839	445			

a R Squared = .039 (Adjusted R Squared = .006)

Table 31: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 4 Focus Item Response.

Gender	Education	Arrested	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 Female	.00 More Education	.00 No	2.836	.173	2.496	3.175
		1.00 Yes	2.050	.685	.703	3.397
	1.00 Less Education	.00 No	3.064	.303	2.468	3.659
		1.00 Yes	2.741	.296	2.159	3.323
1.00 Male	.00 More Education	.00 No	2.313	.383	1.560	3.067
		1.00 Yes	3.065	.482	2.119	4.012
	1.00 Less Education	.00 No	3.657	.388	2.893	4.420
		1.00 Yes	1.676	.672	.355	2.998

Additionally, for the consistency dimension in video four, respondents that had been arrested [F (1, 432) = 4.970], Black respondents that had been arrested [F (1, 432) = 4.722]; and Black, male respondents less education that had been arrested [F (1, 432) = 4.264] all showed a significant relationship (see tables 32 through 35). Overall, respondents that had been arrested were less likely to agree (M=3.082) that this is the type of behavior they expect from the police than White respondents (2.460). More specifically, Black respondents that had been arrested were more likely to disagree (M= 3.518) that this is the type of behavior they expect from the police than White respondents (M= 2.646). Less educated Black, male respondents who had been arrested were also more likely to disagree (M= 3.286) than those who had not been arrested (M = 1.333). In addition, Black men with more education that had been arrested were also more likely to disagree (M= 3.500) than those who have never been arrested (M= 2.667) that this is the type of behavior they expect from police in their community.

Table 32: ANOVA Video 4 Consistency Item Response

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Race (Black)	1.171	1	1.171	.914	.340
Gender (Male)	.019	1	.019	.015	.903
Education (Less Education)	.954	1	.954	.744	.389
Arrested (Yes)	6.369	1	6.369	4.970	.026
Race * Gender	.010	1	.010	.008	.930
Race * Education	1.643	1	1.643	1.282	.258
Race * Arrested	6.051	1	6.051	4.722	.030
Gender * Education	.010	1	.010	.008	.929
Gender * Arrested	1.124	1	1.124	.877	.349
Education * Arrested	.023	1	.023	.018	.893
Race * Gender * Less Education	.446	1	.446	.348	.556
Race * Gender * Arrested	1.129	1	1.129	.881	.348
Race * Education * Arrested	.049	1	.049	.038	.845
Gender * Education * Arrested	1.024	1	1.024	.799	.372
Race * Gender * Education * Arrested	5.464	1	5.464	4.264	.040
Error	553.623	432	1.282		
Total	3668.000	448			
Corrected Total	570.491	447			

a R Squared = .030 (Adjusted R Squared = -.004)

Table 33: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 4 Consistency Item Response (Arrested)

			95% Confidence Interval	
Arrested	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 No	2.460	.140	2.185	2.736
1.00 Yes	3.082	.241	2.608	3.555

Table 34: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 4-Consistency Item Response (Race-Arrested)

				95% Confidence Interval	
Race	Arrested	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 Other	.00 No	2.630	.065	2.502	2.758
	1.00 Yes	2.646	.143	2.364	2.927
1.00 Black	.00 No	2.291	.273	1.754	2.827
	1.00 Yes	3.518	.460	2.614	4.422

Table 35: Difference in Means for ANOVA Video 4 Consistency Item Response (Race-Gender-Education)

Race	Gender	Education	Arrested	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
.00 Other	.00 Female	.00 More Education	.00 No	2.657	.098	2.465	2.849
			1.00 Yes	2.364	.341	1.693	3.035
		1.00 Less Education	.00 No	2.612	.138	2.340	2.884
			1.00 Yes	2.938	.283	2.381	3.494
	1.00 Male	.00 More Education	.00 No	2.511	.118	2.279	2.743
			1.00 Yes	2.870	.236	2.406	3.334
		1.00 Less Education	.00 No	2.740	.160	2.425	3.055
			1.00 Yes	2.412	.275	1.872	2.951
1.00 Black	.00 Female	.00 More Education	.00 No	2.563	.283	2.006	3.119
			1.00 Yes	4.000	1.132	1.775	6.225
		1.00 Less Education	.00 No	2.600	.506	1.605	3.595
			1.00 Yes	2.571	.428	1.730	3.412
	1.00 Male	.00 More Education	.00 No	2.667	.654	1.382	3.951
			1.00 Yes	3.500	.800	1.927	5.073
		1.00 Less Education	.00 No	1.333	.654	.049	2.618
			1.00 Yes	4.000	1.132	1.775	6.225

Conjunctive Analysis of Case Configuration

The ANOVA analysis demonstrates that previous negative interactions with police (i.e., being arrested, ticketed, or stopped and frisked) are important explanatory variables in understanding differences in perceptions of police actions among respondents. A further examination of significant relationships was conducted to explore the utility of using Conjunctive Analysis (CACC) to better understand the complexities of these relationships. CACC allows us to examine the effects of specific combinations of characteristics that might account for the variation in perceptions that traditional statistical models might not identify. In order to run CACC, variables were recoded into dichotomized dummy variables. For example, the question addressing police legitimacy was dichotomized into binary values of "agree" and "strongly agree" versus "disagree" and "strongly disagree." In the analysis, a [1] represents the presence of an attribute and a [0] represents the absence of an attribute.

To compliment the ANOVA analysis, CACC was conducted to further explore general perceptions of police legitimacy (i.e. police treat people fairly and try to do the right thing). Negative experiences with police (ticketed and stopped and frisked[5]) were combined with basic demographics (race, gender, and education) to identify specific profiles of respondents who were most likely or least likely to have positive perceptions of the police.

Ticketed

The first CCAC analysis examined the influence of race, gender, education, and receiving a ticket on perceptions of general police legitimacy (i.e., that police treat people fairly and try to do the right thing). The data shows that the most common profile in the dataset is that of a White female with lower levels of education (n = 98). The least common profiles, with only two respondents representing each, were black/male/high education/ticketed, black/male/high education/not ticketed, and black/male/low education/not ticketed.

The race effects found in the ANOVAs are also found in the CACC analysis. Those most likely to agree that police try to do the right thing tend to be White, while those least likely tend to be black (see Table 36). The profile of the individual who is most likely to agree with this statement is a White female with a high level of education who has been ticketed (see profile #1). Among those with this profile, 88% agree with this statement. The profile with the least positive opinions of the police are black males with higher levels of education who have received a ticket (see profile #16). The data show that only 33% (one of three respondents) agrees with this statement.

At least three interesting findings are reported in Table 36. First, while Whites generally have more positive views of police, at least one White profile – White, educated, male who has

[5] The arrested variable was eliminated for this analysis because it was not found to have a statistically significant relationship with the perceptions of police legitimacy in the initial ANOVA models.

not been ticketed – shows relatively low levels of perceptions of police legitimacy (see profile #13). Second, while black respondents were generally more critical of police, there is wide variation in the proportion of those who report that they agree that police generally do the right thing (profile #7 = 78%; profile 16 = 33%). Third, the experience of being ticketed appears to affect specific profiles in different ways, drawing attention to the complexity of trying to predict support for police based on personal demographics and experiences.

Table 36: CCAC Demographics and Ticketed for Legitimacy Perceptions

Profile #	Black	Male	Less Education	Ticketed	Legitimacy Agree and Strongly Agree	n
1	0	0	1	1	.88	52
2	0	1	1	1	.87	47
3	0	0	1	0	.84	31
4	0	1	0	0	.84	32
5	0	0	0	1	.82	98
6	0	1	0	1	.81	83
7	1	0	0	0	.78	9
8	1	0	0	1	.75	8
9	0	0	0	0	.75	48
10	1	1	1	1	.50	2
11	1	1	1	0	.50	2
12	1	1	0	0	.50	2
13	0	1	1	0	.45	20
14	1	0	1	0	.43	7
15	1	0	1	1	.40	5
16	1	1	0	1	.33	3

Stopped and Frisked

The second CCAC analysis examined the influence of race, gender, education, and being stopped and frisked on perceptions of general police legitimacy (i.e., that police treat people fairly and try to do the right thing). The data show that the most common profile in the dataset is that of a White female with lower levels of education that has not been stopped and frisked (n =

141). The least common profiles, with only two respondents representing each, were Black/ female/low education/stopped and frisked, Black/male/low education/stopped and frisked, Black/male/low education/not stopped and frisked, and Black/male/high education/not stopped and frisked.

Again, the race effects found in the ANOVAs are also found in the CACC analysis. Those most likely to agree that police try to do the right thing tend to be White, while those least likely tend to be black (see Table 37). But in this instance, the profile of the individual who is most likely to agree with this statement is a Black female with less education that has been stopped and frisked (see profile #1). Among those with this profile, although there are only two, 100% agree with this statement. The profile with the least positive opinions of the police are Black males with higher levels of education who have never been stopped and frisked (see profile #16). The data show that 0% (0 out of 2) agree with this statement.

At least three interesting findings are reported in Table 37. First, while Whites generally have more positive views of police, there are some profiles for example, at least one White profile – White, educated, female who was stopped and frisked – the show relatively low levels of perceptions of police legitimacy (see profile #11). Second, while black respondents were generally more critical of police, again there is extreme variation in the proportion of those who report that they agree that police generally do the right thing (profile #1 = 100%; profile 15 = 0%). Third, like the experience of being ticketed, the experience of being stopped and frisked appears to affect specific profiles in different ways. It is interesting to note, the two profiles with the lowest levels of perceive legitimacy (profile #14 and #15) report having never been stopped and frisked.

Table 37: CCAC Demographics and Stopped and Frisked for Legitimacy Perceptions

Profile #	Black	Male	Less Education	Stopped and Frisked	Legitimacy Agree and Strongly Agree	n
1	1	0	1	1	1.00	2
2	0	0	1	0	.87	78
3	0	1	0	0	.82	96
4	0	0	0	0	.80	141
5	0	0	1	1	.80	5
6	0	1	1	1	.79	24
7	0	1	0	1	.79	19
8	1	0	0	0	.76	17
9	0	1	1	0	.72	43
10	1	1	0	1	.67	3
11	0	0	0	1	.60	5
12	1	1	1	1	.50	2
13	1	1	1	0	.50	2
14	1	0	1	0	.30	10
15	1	1	0	0	.00	2

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Summary of Findings

There have been many studies of police legitimacy and police use of force. However, more recent media attention directed toward the shootings of unarmed black men have redirected the attention of academic scholars back to issues of police legitimacy and use of force. Utilizing the RDFC Interaction Model and videos of police citizen interactions, this study set out to answer three research questions: 1) Is there variation in individuals' reactions to different police interventions? 2) Is there variation in responses to questions that measure different dimensions of the RDFC Interaction Model? And 3) Do individual characteristics help to explain differences in perceptions of police intervention? Findings are discussed below.

Research Question 1: Is there variation in individuals' reactions to different police interventions?

First, the study examined the differences in respondent's perceptions of police- citizen interactions based on the RDFC Interaction Model. It was hypothesized that since the RDFC Interaction Model suggests that public acceptance is influenced by four qualities of any police intervention then it is important to determine if members of the public differ, or are consistent, in their assessments of specific police actions. The findings show that the majority of respondents found officer actions to be unreasonable in circumstances when citizens are not being aggressive toward the police. For instance, in videos two, three, and four, citizens in the videos clips did not display aggression toward the police and respondents found police action as unnecessary to protect citizen rights and freedoms. Furthermore, in the same videos, respondents found officer actions as escalating the circumstances and using force against others who were not engaged in

harmful behavior. Yet, Black and White respondents reported this behavior as the type of behavior they expect from the police. This is important because in order for police to gain compliance from the community, they have to establish trust by behaving in predictable ways. If respondents are suggesting that forceful behavior is the type of action they expect from the police then, while predictable, trust could be diminished and threaten legitimacy in both communities (Tyler, 2004; Trahan & Russell, 2017).

To the contrary, in video one, the citizen became loud and aggressive before police stepped in to interject. This is the only video that the majority of respondents found aggressive police action to be necessary. Additionally, video one is the only police-citizen interaction that the majority of respondents found the officers to be reasonable, disarming, focused, and consistent.

Research question 2: Is there variation in responses to questions that measure different dimensions of the RDFC Interaction Model?

Second, it appears that respondents differed in their opinion of police action across all four dimensions of the Interaction Model (e.g., strongly agreeing to one item did not mean that the respondent strongly agreed with all others). Thus, it appears that each dimension of the model is measuring a different construct. This provides support for the hypothesis that all four dimensions are critical to understanding public acceptance or rejection of police actions.

Research question 3: Do individual characteristics help to explain differences in perceptions of police intervention?

Finally, the study examined individual demographics – race, gender, level of education, victimization experiences, interactions with the police – to determine if they are associated with acceptance of police intervention. Overall, a majority of the respondents felt that police generally

treat people fairly and try to do the right thing, but there was notable variation among respondents. Similarly, there was notable variation among reactions to specific videos. Studies have been conducted over the years in an attempt to tease out the relationship between citizen perceptions of police, personal demographics, personal experiences, and situational contexts. Adding to that literature, personal characteristics and perceptions of police interventions using measures based on the RDFC Interaction Model confirms that race, gender, education, receiving a ticket, being stopped and frisked, and being arrested significantly influence perceptions of police conduct. Further, it is often the interaction between these variables that best help to explain differences among respondents' reported perceptions. The complexities of the relationship between these variables makes it difficult to predict, with a high level of accuracy, individual perceptions based on personal characteristics and experiences alone.

Implications of the Current Study

The results of the study identify specific characteristics that may account for individual differences in perceptions of police action. In some cases, a race effect was evident, whereas in other cases gender appeared to matter more; and confounding the effects of these individual characteristics were personal experiences with the police. Variation in the significance of specific variables between videos suggest that there is not just one personal characteristic or experience that accounts for variation in perceptions. The findings highlight many complex relationships. After conducting the CACC to examine more specific profiles, the overall results suggest that White men and women are more likely than Black men and women to agree that police treat people fairly and try to do the right thing- even after they were ticketed and stopped and frisked. However, there were a few exceptions to the rule. For instance, White male respondents with higher levels of education were seen to be more critical of police even though

they did not receive a ticket. As such, past research has demonstrated that traditionally Black respondents are more critical of the police, but this data suggests that there is a wide variation in those respondents.

In addition, it was demonstrated that White females with less education, who have been stopped and frisked, still hold favorable opinions of the police. The exception to the rule were the two Black female respondents who had been stopped and frisked. After an intrusive police encounter they still held favorable opinions of the police. Furthermore, Black men, regardless of their level of education and police interaction, held more critical opinions of the police then everyone else. It was demonstrated that Black men with higher levels of education, and Black women with less education, were extremely critical of the police even if they have never experienced a stop and frisk. Ironically, White men and women demonstrated more support for the police even after they experienced being stopped and frisked. This suggests that respondents who hold negative opinions of the police may do so due to vicarious experiences and not necessarily through their own experiences. Those opinions could also be shaped by the recent highly publicized use of force incidents. To the contrary, those who have had interactions with law enforcement and still hold favorable opinions may have been treated fairly and respectfully. The present research contributes to past findings of a complicated relationship.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study. First, the videos provided truncated and unidimensional views of specific encounters. They did not contain information about the conditions leading up to the events in the videos. Respondents were instructed to approach the incident in the video as if they just walked upon it. This was done in an attempt to mimic issues

bystanders face in real life situations. Most often, when citizens encounter police as a bystander, they approach a scene not having any information that led to the event unfolding in front of them. In turn, respondents may have made up their own story based on facts of their own lives. While this could be seen as a strength of the current study, the use of video limits the respondents field of view and other sensory experiences that could influence perceptions.

Second, characteristics of the events within the videos were not systematically manipulated (e.g., one officer versus many, race of officers or subjects, gender of the officers or subjects), which would have allowed for an examination of how these factors influence individual perceptions.

Third, generalizability is limited. The survey methodology used a convenience sample. The demographics of the sample were not representative of the United States population. Furthermore, online surveys are limited to a pool of people who have the time and are willing and able to take a survey. As such, we cannot ascertain how these issues affected the outcome of the current study. Moreover, the sample size was relatively small, given the number of individual characteristics and experiences examined. As demonstrated in the CACC tables, when analyzing the interaction effects, there were small numbers of people with specific characteristics (e.g., Black respondents). This makes it difficult for statistical models to achieve significance and to draw meaningful conclusions.

Conclusion

As recent as March 22, 2018 another black man was shot by police resulting in his death. The officers misidentified his cell phone as a gun and fired twenty rounds, killing the individual. The resulting media attention to this incident has contributed to more protesting of police

actions. There is no doubt that these types of incidents will continue to pose challenges for police-community relations, particularly in black communities.

There is a need for more research on perceptions of police use of force to assist police with community outreach efforts following highly publicized police use of force incidents. However, evidence from this research suggests that there is not convincing evidence that one community or individual profile views specific types of police action in a consistent manner. In sum, there is still much to learn regarding factors that influence individual's perceptions of police action. Use of force incidents involve complex dynamics and people's perceptions appear to be influenced by a wide range of personal characteristics and life experiences.

.

APPENDIX A

Perceptions of Police Interventions

INT Thank you for participating in this study on perceptions of police interventions. Researchers at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas, are conducting this study.

You will be asked to answer a series of questions after watching four short videos that show police interacting with citizens. The survey should take about 10 minutes to complete. By responding to this survey, you will be contributing to our knowledge about situational factors that influence perceptions of police interventions.

You will be presented with four videos, one at a time. Following each video, you will be asked to answer seven questions. Note that you will not have any background information about the incident- you should pretend to be a bystander who simply walked onto the scene. Please answer the questions as if you saw the incident unfold before you. After watching each video, think about the officers' actions that you witnessed. Then, on the scales that appear below each video, mark the point that best represents your answer. You will see a scale that ranges from strongly disagree to strongly agree. There are no right or wrong answers to the questions.

We appreciate your cooperation in completing the survey. This survey is anonymous- in other words, you do not need to provide your name and there will be no way to link your responses to you. Your answers will remain anonymous and you are allowed to leave the survey at any time. By moving on to the next page you are voluntarily agreeing to participate in this survey and acknowledge that you have received sufficient information about the research to make the decision to participate.

If you have any questions or concerns about the study, you may contact Stacey Clouse (information given below). For questions regarding the rights of research subjects, any complaints or comments regarding the manner in which the study is being conducted you may contact the UNLV Office for the Protection of Research Subjects at (702) 895-2794.

Investigator: Stacey Clouse at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas (stacey.clouse@unlv.edu).

By clicking NEXT below, I affirm that I have read the above information and agree to participate in this study. I am at least 18 years of age.

Q1 To what degree do you agree with the following statement: Police generally treat people fairly and try to do the right thing.

- Strongly agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Disagree (3)
- Strongly disagree (4)
- Don't know (99)

V1 After watching the video, please respond to the following statements about the officers' behaviors.

V1-1 How necessary or unnecessary were the officer(s) actions to prevent others on the scene from committing harm?

- Very necessary (1)
- Necessary (2)
- Unnecessary (3)
- Very unnecessary (4)
- Don't know (5)

V1-2 Did the officer(s) appear to try to escalate (provoke) or de-escalate (calm) the situation before physically intervening?

- Strongly escalate (1)
- Escalate (2)
- De-escalate (3)
- Strongly de-escalate (4)
- Unsure (5)

V1-3 The officer(s) intervened or used force against people who did not threatened others or were not engaged in harmful behavior.

- Strongly agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Disagree (3)
- Strongly disagree (4)
- Don't know (5)

V1-4 The behavior of the officer(s) in the video is the type of action that I expect from the police.

- Strongly agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Disagree (3)
- Strongly disagree (4)
- Don't know (5)

(The four video questions are repeated for each video)

V2 After watching the video, please respond to the following statements about the officers' behaviors.
(Brief description of the video: The video is coming from the angle of the citizen. During a protest, the individual is trying to pass police to join the crowd. The police attempt to block the individual by using force and foul language. The link to the video is provided.)

V2 How necessary or unnecessary were the officer(s) actions to prevent others on the scene from committing harm?

- Very necessary (1)
- Necessary (2)
- Unnecessary (3)
- Very unnecessary (4)
- Don't know (5)

V2 Did the officer(s) appeared to try to escalate (provoke) or deescalate (calm) the situation before physically intervening?

- Strongly escalate (1)
- Escalate (2)
- De-escalate (3)
- Strongly de-escalate (4)
- Unsure (5)

V2 The officer(s) intervened or used force against people who did not threatened others or were not engaged in harmful behavior.

- Strongly agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Disagree (3)
- Strongly disagree (4)
- Don't know (5)

V2 The behavior of the officer(s) in the video is the type of action that I expect from the police.

- Strongly agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Disagree (3)
- Strongly disagree (4)
- Don't know (5)

V3 After watching the video, please respond to the following statements about the officers' behaviors.

V3 How necessary or unnecessary were the officer(s) actions to prevent others on the scene from committing harm?

- Very necessary (1)
- Necessary (2)
- Unnecessary (3)
- Very unnecessary (4)
- Don't know (5)

V3 Did the officer(s) appeared to try to escalate (provoke) or de-escalate (calm) the situation before physically intervening?

- Strongly escalate (1)
- Escalate (2)
- De-escalate (3)
- Strongly deescalate (4)
- Unsure (5)

V3 The officer(s) intervened or used force against people who did not threatened others or were not engaged in harmful behavior.

- Strongly agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Disagree (3)
- Strongly disagree (4)
- Don't know (5)

V3 The behavior of the officer(s) in the video is the type of action that I expect from the police.

- Strongly agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Disagree (3)
- Strongly disagree (4)
- Don't know (5)

V4 After watching the video, please respond to the following statements about the officers' behaviors.

V4 How necessary or unnecessary were the officer(s) actions to prevent others on the scene from committing harm?

- Very necessary (1)
- Necessary (2)
- Unnecessary (3)
- Very unnecessary (4)
- Don't know (5)

V4 Did the officer(s) appear to try to escalate (provoke) or de-escalate (calm) the situation before physically intervening?

- o Strongly escalate (1)
- o Escalate (2)
- o De-escalate (3)
- o Strongly de-escalate (4)
- o Unsure (5)

V4 The officer(s) intervened or used force against people who did not threatened others or were not engaged in harmful behavior.

- o Strongly agree (1)
- o Agree (2)
- o Disagree (3)
- o Strongly disagree (4)
- o Don't know (5)

V4 The behavior of the officer(s) in this video is the type of action that I expect from the police.

- o Strongly agree (1)
- o Agree (2)
- o Disagree (3)
- o Strongly disagree (4)
- o Don't know (5)

Demographics

D2 What is your gender?

- o Male (1)
- o Female (2)
- o Other (3)
- o Don't want to disclose (4)

D3 What is your ethnic origin or race? (check all that apply)

- o Non-Hispanic white/Caucasian (1)
- o Hispanic/ Latino (2)
- o Black/ African American (3)
- o Native American/ Indian (4)
- o Asian (5)
- o Pacific Islander (6)
- o Other (please specify) (7) _____

D8 What is your level of education?

- o Less than high school (1)

- o High school graduate or the equivalent (e.g., GED) (2)
- o Some college (no degree) (3)
- o Associate degree (2 year) (4)
- o College graduate (4 year degree) (5)
- o Masters degree or higher (e.g., MA, MS, JD, MBA, MD, PhD) (6)

D9 Do you or have you in the past:

- o Worked as a police officer (1)
- o Worked in the criminal justice field but not as a police officer (2)
- o Never worked as a police officer or in the criminal justice field (3)

D11 Have you ever served in the military?

- o Yes (1)
- o No (2)

D12 Have you ever been a victim of a crime? (Check all that apply)

- o Never been a victim of a crime (1)
- o Violent crime (assault, robbery, sexual assault) (2)
- o Property crime (car theft, burglary, ID theft, arson) (3)
- o Other (please specify) (4) _____

D13 Have you ever been (check all that apply)

- o Arrested (1)
- o Stopped and frisked (2)
- o Ticketed (3)
- o Given a warning instead of a ticket or arrest (4)

APPENDIX B

Video Link or File name:

_____

Video Content

Describe the general exchange captured on video (traffic stop, protest, field interrogation, etc.)		
How long is the video (in mins)?		
Does it provide a continuous feed of the interaction (no breaks – stops/starts)?	Yes	No
List the number of officers and the number of subjects involved in the interaction.	#Officers:	#Subjects:
What is the race/gender of the officers/suspects?	Officers:	Subjects:
Where did the video appear to originate (police body cam, subject cell phone, patrol car dash cam, etc.)?		
What police department is represented?		

Clarity of Video Feed

	Yes	No
Can facial expressions and body movements of both the officer(s) and the subject(s) be seen?		
If not, what is the angle of the feed?		
Is the audio clear enough so that a transcript of the interaction can be made?		

APENDIX C

Coding of RDFC Principles

	Yes	No
Reasonable		
Do the officer's actions appear to be legal?		
Does the officer answer questions posed by the subject?		
Disarming		
Does the officer use aggressive body movements or raised voice commands?		
Does the officer use inappropriate (foul) language?		
Focused		
Is force used against any subject who appears to be complying with officer demands?		
Is force used against any subject who does not appear to be causing harm?		
Consistent		
Does the officer appear to treat all subjects in the video similarly?		
Does the officer's message or request of the subject remain consistent throughout the interaction?		

Additional Comments:

APPENDIX D

Elements of Video 1	
Number of Officers	9
Number of Subjects	1
Race of Subject	Hispanic/Latino
Location	Residential
Type of Interaction…	
Traffic Stop	Unknown
Protest	No
Crowd Control	No
Foul Language on Film	Yes
Physical Encounter on Film	Yes
Dressed in Riot Gear	No
Weapons Drawn	No
Elements of Video 2	
Number of Officers	4
Number of Subjects	1
Race of Subject	Unobservable
Location	Public Space
Type of Interaction…	
Traffic Stop	No
Protest	No
Crowd Control	Yes
Foul Language on Film	Yes
Physical Encounter on Film	Unobservable
Dressed in Riot Gear	No
Weapons Drawn	No
Elements of Video 3	
Number of Officers	16
Number of Subjects	4
Race of Subject	Unobservable
Location	Public Space
Type of Interaction…	
Traffic Stop	No
Protest	Yes
Crowd Control	Yes
Foul Language on Film	No
Physical Encounter on Film	Yes
Dressed in Riot Gear	Yes
Weapons Drawn	Yes (clubs)
Elements of Video 4	
Number of Officers	7
Number of Subjects	4
Race of Subject	Unobservable
Location	Residential

Type of Interaction…	
Traffic Stop	Yes
Protest	No
Crowd Control	No
Foul Language on Film	No
Physical Encounter on Film	Yes
Dressed in Riot Gear	No
Weapons Drawn	Yes (gun)

REFERENCES

Apple, N., & O'Brien, D. (1983). Neighborhood racial composition and residents' evaluation of police performance. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, *11*(1), 76-84.

Bayley, D. H., & Mendelsohn, H. (1969). Minorities and the police: Confrontation in America (p. 91). New York: Free Press.

Block, R. L. (1971). Fear of Crime and Fear of the Police. *Social Problems*, *19*(1), 91–101. https://doi.org/10.1525/sp.1971.19.1.03a00070

Brown, B., & Reed Benedict, W. (2002). Perceptions of the police: Past findings, methodological issues, conceptual issues and policy implications. *Policing: An international journal of police strategies & management,* 25(3), 543-580.

Benedict, W. R., Brown, B., & Bower, D. J. (2000). Perceptions of the Police and Fear of Crime in a Rural Setting: Utility of a Geographically Focused Survey for Police Services, Planning, and Assessment. *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, *11*(4), 275–298. Retrieved from http://cjp.sagepub.com/content/11/4/275.abstract

Campbell, A., & Schuman, H. (1972). A comparison of black and white attitudes and experiences in the city. *The end of innocence: A suburban reader*, 97-110.

Cao, L., Frank, J., & Cullen, F. T. (1996). Race, Community Context and Confidence in the Police. *American Journal of Police*, *XV*(1). https://doi.org/10.1108/MBE-09-2016-0047

Carter, D. L., & Radelet, L.A. (2002). *The police and the community.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: prentice hall.

Chasmar, J. (2014, October 20). Ferguson unrest costs taxpayers $5.7M and counting: Report Retrieved May 28, 2017, from http://www.washingtontimes.com/news/2014/oct/20/ferguson-unrest-costs-taxpayers-57m-and-counting-r/

Clarke, R.V. (1980). "Situational" crime prevention: Theory and practice. *The British journal of criminology,* 20(2). 136-147.

Colvin, M. (2000). Emergence of a differential coercion theory of criminality. In crime and coercion (pp. 9-52). Palgrave Macmillan US.

Cornish, D. B., & Clarke, R. V. (2003). Opportunities, precipitators and criminal decisions: A reply to Wortley's critique of situational crime prevention. *Crime Prevention Studies*, *16*(2003), 41–96. Retrieved from http://www.popcenter.org/Responses/crime_prevention/PDFs/Cornish&Clarke.pdf

Crime in the U.S. 2015. (2016, May 03). Retrieved May 28, 2017 from https://ucr.fbi.gov/crime-in-the-u.s-2015

DiPasquale, D., & Glaeser, E. L. (1998). The L.A. Riot and the Economics of Urban Unrest. *Journal of Urban Economics*, *43*, 52–78. https://doi.org/10.1006/juec.1996.2035

Drury, J., & Reicher, S. (2000). Collective action and psychological change: The emergence of new social identities. *The British Journal of Social Psychology*, *39*, 579–604. https://doi.org/10.1348/014466600164642

Drury, J., & Reicher, S. (1999). The intergroup dynamics of collective empowerment: Substantiating the social identity model of crowd behavior. *Group processes & intergroup relations,* 2(4), 381-402. doi:10.1177/1368430299024005

Drury, J., Reicher, S., & Stott, C. (2003). Transforming the boundaries of collective identity: from the "local" anti-road campaign to "global" resistance? *Social Movement Studies*, *2*(2), 191–212. https://doi.org/10.1080/1474283032000139779

Eck, J. E., & Madensen, T. D. (2017). Police and Offender Choices. In *The Oxford Handbook of Offender Decision Making*.

Garofalo, J. (1977). Public opinion about crime: The attitudes of victims and nonvictims in selected cities (Vol. 1). US Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service.

Goldsmith, A. (2005). Police reform and the problem of trust. *Theoretical Criminology*, *9*(4), 443–470. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362480605057727

Goodman, J. K., Cryder, C. E., & Cheema, A. (2013). Data Collection in a Flat World: The Strengths and Weaknesses of Mechanical Turk Samples. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, *26*(3), 213–224. https://doi.org/10.1002/bdm.1753

Heen, M. S. (2014). Putting the microscope on crime labs: The effects of evidence complexity and laboratory type on jurors' perceptions of forensic evidence.

Hindelang, M. J. (1974). Public opinion regarding crime, criminal justice, and related topics. Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 11(2), 101-116.

Huebner, B. M., Schafer, J. A., & Bynum, T. S. (2004). African American and White perceptions of police services: Within- and between-group variation. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, *32*(2), 123–135. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2003.12.003

Homant, R. J., Kennedy, D. B., & Fleming, R. M. (1984). The effect of victimization and the police response on citizens' attitudes toward police. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, *12*(3), 323-332.

Jacob, H. (1971). Black and white perceptions of justice in the city. Law & Soc'y Rev., 6, 69.

Kane, R. J. (2005). Compromised police legitimacy as a predictor of violent crime in structurally disadvantaged communities. *Criminology,* 43(2), 469-498. doi: 10.1111/j.0011-1348.2005.00014.x

Kusow, A. M., Wilson, L. C., & Martin, D. E. (1997). Determinants of citizen satisfaction with the police: The effects of residential location. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, *20*(4), 655-664.

Lebon, G. (1895). The Crowd. London: F.Mazerolle, L., Antrobus, E., Bennett, S., & Tyler, T. R. (2013). Shaping citizen perceptions of police legitimacy: A randomized field trial of procedural justice. *Criminology,* 51(1), 33- 63.

Mazerolle, L., Bennett, S., Davis, J., Sargeant, E., & Manning, M. (2013). Procedural justice and police legitimacy: a systematic review of the research evidence, 245–274. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11292-013-9175-2

Madensen, T. D., C. L. Heskett, and J. D. Lieberman. (2012). "Predicting Crowd Behavior: A Response-Reaction Matrix." Paper presented at the International Seminar on Environmental Criminology and Crime Analysis (ECCA) 21st International Symposium, Stavern, Norway.

Miethe, T. D., Hart, T. C., & Regoeczi, W. C. (2008). The Conjunctive Analysis of Case Configurations: An Exploratory Method for Discrete Multivariate Analyses of Crime Data. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, *24*(2), 227–241. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10940-008-9044-8

Paolacci, G., & Chandler, J. (2014). Inside the Turk. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *23*(3), 184–188. https://doi.org/10.1177/0963721414531598

Paolacci, G., Chandler, J., & Ipeirotis, P. (2010). Running experiments on amazon mechanical turk. *Judgment and Decision Making*, *5*(5), 411–419. https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.1626226

Priest, T. B., & Carter, D. B. (1999). Evaluations of police performance in an African American sample. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, *27*(5), 457-465.

Reicher, S. D., Spears, R., & Postmes, T. (1995). A Social Identity Model of Deindividuation Phenomena. *European Review of Social Psychology*, *6*(1), 161–198. https://doi.org/10.1080/14792779443000049

Scaglion, R., & Condon, R. G. (1980). Determinants of attitudes toward city police. Criminology, 17(4), 485-494.

Schafer, J.A., Huebner, B. M., & Bynum, T. S. (2003). Citizen perceptions of police services: Race, neighborhood context, and community policing. *Police quarterly,* 6(4), 440-468.

Schuck, A. M., Rosenbaum, D. P., & Hawkins, D. F. (2008). The Influence of Race / Ethnicity , Social Class , and Neighborhood Context on Residents ' Attitudes Toward the Police. *Police Quarterly*, *11*(4), 496–519. https://doi.org/10.1177/1098611108318115

Sherman, L. W. (1993). Defiance, deterrence, and irrelevance: A theory of the criminal sanction. *Journal of research in crime and delinquency,* 30(4), 445-473.

Smith, L. N., & Hill, G. D. (1991). Victimization and fear of crime. *Criminal justice and behavior*, *18*(2), 217-239.

Smith, P. E., & Hawkins, R. O. (1973). Victimization, types of citizen-police contacts, and attitudes toward the police. Law & Society Review, 8(1), 135-152.

Smith, S. K., Steadman, G. W., Minton, T. D., & Townsend, M. (1999). Criminal victimization and perceptions of community safety in 12 cities, 1998. NCJ, 173940.

Sousa, W.H., & Madensen, T. D. (2016). Citizen acceptance of police interventions: An example of CCTV surveillance in Las Vegas, Nevada. Criminal Justice Studies, 29(1), 40-56.

Sousa, W.H., & Madensen, T. D. (2001). The Police and Major Event Planning: A Case Study in Las Vegas, Nevada. *Preventing Crowd Violence* (26) pp. 131-158. Boulder, Colorado: Lynne Reinner, Inc.

Steindl, C., Jonas, E., Sittenthaler, S., Traut-Mattausch, E., & Greenberg, J. (2015). Understanding psychological reactance. *Zeitschrift fur Psychologie*, 223(4), 205-214.

Stott, C., & Drury, J. (2000). Crowds, context and identity: Dynamic categorization processes in the "poll tax riot." *Human Relations*, *53*(2), 247–273. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726708098223

Sullivan, P. S., Dunham, R. G., & Alpert, G. P. (1987). Attitude structures of different ethnic and age groups concerning police. J. Crim. L. & Criminology, 78, 177.

Sunshine, J., & Tyler, T.R. (2003). The role of procedural justice and legitimacy in shaping public support for policing. *Law and society review,* 37(3), 513-548.

Thurman, Q. C., & Reisig, M. D. (1996). Community-oriented research in an era of community-oriented policing. *American Behavioral Scientist*, *39*(5), 570-586.

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J.C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. *The social psychology of intergroup relations,* 33(47), 74.

Tyler, T. R. (2006). Why people obey the law. Princeton university press.

Tyler, T. R. (2004). Enhancing Police Legitimacy. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, *593*(1), 84–99. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002716203262627

Uchada, C.D., (2015). The development of the American police: An historical overview. In Alpert, G.P., Dunham, R.G., (7THed.). *Critical Issues In Policing (*pp. 11-30). Long Grove, IL: Waveland Press Inc.

Weitzer, R. (2002). Incidents of police misconduct and public opinion. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, *30*(5), 397–408. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0047-2352(02)00150-2

Weitzer, R., & Tuch, S. A. (1999). Race, class and perceptions of discrimination by the police. *Crime and delinquency,* 45(4). 494-507.

Weitzer, R., & Tuch, S. a. (2004). Race and Perceptions of Police Misconduct. *Social Problems*, *51*(3), 305–325. https://doi.org/10.1525/sp.2004.51.3.305

Wentz, E. a., & Schlimgen, K. a. (2012). Citizens' perceptions of police service and police response to community concerns. *Journal of Crime and Justice*, *35*(1), 114–133. https://doi.org/10.1080/0735648X.2011.631412

Wortley, S., Hagan, J., & Macmillan, R. (2010). Just Des (s) erts ? The Racial Polarization of Perceptions of Criminal Injustice Published by : Blackwell Publishing on behalf of the Law and Society Association Stable URL : http://www.jstor.org/stable/3053983 Just Des (s) erts ? The Racial Polarizat, *31*(4), 637–676.

CURRICULUM VITAE

Stacey L. Clouse
Email: stacey.clouse@unlv.edu

EDUCATION

2018 **M.A. Criminal Justice**
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
(Forthcoming, spring 2018)

2015 **B.A. (Hon) Criminal Justice,**
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
Minor in Psychology, *Cum Laude*

2013 **A.A., Criminal Justice.**
College of Southern Nevada
High Honors

WORK EXPERIENCE

2013 **Internship with the Department of Homeland Security**
Immigration and Customs Enforcement, Las Vegas.

2016-2018 **Graduate Research/ Teaching Assistant**
Work for Dr. Tamara Madensen- Herold and Dr. Terrance Miethe

HONORS, AWARDS, AND SCHOLARSHIPS

2018 **GPSA- Conference travel funding**
$450.00 to cover the cost of travel for the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences conference.

2017 **GPSA- Conference travel funding**
$850.00 to cover the cost of travel for the American Society of Criminology conference.

2016 **Kriss Drass Undergraduate Student Research Award**
$500.00. Conducting an outstanding research project under faculty supervision. Crowd Management Research Council lab. University of Nevada, Las Vegas.

2015 **Dan Riley Endowment Scholarship**
$3500.00. Award for outstanding undergraduate student dedicated to major in criminal justice. University of Nevada, Las Vegas.

2014, 2015 **Dean's Honor List**
Greenspun College of Urban Affairs. University of Nevada, Las Vegas.

2013 **Dean's List**
College of Southern Nevada- fall and spring term.

2013 **Presidents List**
College of Southern Nevada- fall term.

2012 **New Hope Foundation $1000**
Academic scholarship for women returning to school, College of Southern Nevada

ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL SOCIETIES

Phi Theta Kappa
College of Southern Nevada

Alpha Phi Sigma- Theta Tau
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
Public Relations Officer 8/2015-12/2015

The National Society of Collegiate Scholars
Scholarship, Leadership and Service
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

American Society of Criminology
Member since 2016

Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences
Member since 2017

INDEPENDENT STUDY

Michel Foucault, Discipline and Punish: The Birth of the Prison System. Guided by Dr. Emily Troshynski

Michel Foucault, The History of Sexuality: Vol. 1. Guided by Dr. Emily Troshynski.

Implicit bias research guided by Dr. Joel Lieberman.

POSTER PRESENTATIONS

2017 **Clouse, S**. **L**., Kennedy, L. P., & Madensen, Tamara D.
From Verbal Judo to Physical Restraints: A Multi-disciplinary Content Analysis of De-escalation Techniques. American Society of Criminology (ASC), Philadelphia.

ORAL PRESENTATIONS

2017 Clouse, Stacey L. (November, 2017). Police Interventions, Public Perceptions, and The RDFC Interaction Model. 3MT (3 Minute Thesis Competition) Rebel Grad Slam.

2018 Clouse, Stacey L. (February, 2018). Police Interventions, Public Perceptions, and The RDFC Interaction Model. Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences (ACJS), New Orleans.

2019 **Clouse, Stacey L.** & Madensen- Herold, Tamara D. (2019). Public perceptions of police interventions (Forthcoming, November 2019).

2019 Madensen-Herold, Tamara D., Sousa, William H., **Clouse, Stacey L.,** & Donnelly, Joshua W. (2019). Crime Place Networks: Eliminating Infrastructures for Criminal Activity. (Forthcoming, November 2019).

RESEARCH

2018 **Center for Crime and Justice Policy- Research Associate for the Tourism Security &Crowd Science Lab**
Graduate research associate and lead investigator for the continued project of: Tactical Medical response to mass casualty incidents.

2018 **Research Associate National Science Foundation Grant #1625808**
Principle investigators: Dr.'s Terrance D. Miethe and Joel D. Lieberman
Active role in conducting interviews within the community, coding data, and organizing teams.

2017 **Research Associate National Science Foundation Grant #1625808**
Principle investigators: Dr.'s Terrance D. Miethe and Joel D. Lieberman
Active role in conducting interviews within the community, coding data, and organizing teams.

2017 **Hope for Prisoners, Train the Trainer Manual**
Assisted Dr. Alexis Kennedy and Dr. Emily Troshynski by contributing two chapters to a training manual. One chapter was regarding the development of parenting skills and the other chapter was regarding the development of professionalism and interviewing skills.

2017 **Center for Crime and Justice Policy- Crowd Management Research Counsel**
Graduate research assistant and lead researcher for the project of: Tactical Medical Response to Mass Casualty Incidents.
Developed a working relationship with the United States Marshal tactical medics and search and rescue operators, and the Las Vegas Convention Visitors Authority.

2016 **Center for Crime and Justice Policy- Crowd Management Research Counsel**
Graduate research assistant and team lead. Systematic literature review for the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) guided by Dr. Tamara Madensen

2015 **Center for Crime and Justice Policy- Crowd Management Research Counsel**
De-escalation strategies for law enforcement, guided by Dr. Tamara Madensen.

VOLUNTEER WORK

Project 150
Packaging Thanksgiving meals for homeless teenagers and their families
Packaging Christmas meals for homeless teenagers and their families
Organization of contents in the warehouse

Angel Tree
Anonymous Christmas gifts for the children in Child Haven

St. Judes Ranch (Boulder City, Nevada)
Donated hair services to severely abused, neglected, and abandoned children

*(Numerous other hair services have been given out for the purpose of charity events, galas, and fundraisers over the past twenty years.)

Research Interests

Environmental Criminology
Situational Crime Prevention
Policing Strategies
De-escalation Strategies
Social Disorganization
Crime and Public Policy
Critical criminology
Surveillance