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African-American Perceptions of Community-Oriented Policing Programs

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The University of Southern Mississippi

African-American Perceptions of Community-Oriented Policing Programs

by

Adrian Griggs

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May 2017

African-American Perceptions of Community-Oriented Policing Programs

African-American Perceptions of Community-Oriented Policing Programs

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Abstract

Reports of police killings of unarmed African-American men have been commonly featured on the news in recent months. Protests in response to those incidents have occasionally turned into riots, and the tension between the minority community and police remains unchanged. There is always a racial variable implicit whenever the African-American community policing debate arises. Researchers have conducted studies on this challenge and have examined differences in perceptions of police officers between African Americans and other racial groups. Studies have been conducted that examine why there might be less satisfaction with police among African Americans but have not considered *how* these opinions can be changed. Community policing remains one of the most popular and common ways police departments try to build relationships and solve problems in their jurisdictions. This study provides a framework for understanding and explaining the African-American perception problem of the police in terms of community policing. It further identifies differences in perceptions between racial communities regarding specific community oriented policing practices.

Key Words: community policing, perceptions, African Americans, police officers

African-American Perceptions of Community-Oriented Policing Programs

Dedication

I dedicate this to my grandpa, great-grandma, and cousin, may they rest in peace.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank my Honors adviser, Dr. Joshua Hill, for helping me complete my thesis. His time spent mentoring and assisting me in this project not only allowed me to finish this project but also encouraged me to go beyond what I thought I was capable of. I really appreciate the faculty and great staff at USM who have been encouraging me and seeing the potential in me to do great things. Thank you to my grandma, mom, family, and friends who have supported me in every capacity and given me emotional support through tough times.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Trayvon Martin was seventeen when he died, Tamir Rice was twelve, Michael Brown was eighteen, and Eric Garner was forty-three. These are only a few of the recent instances of unarmed black men who were killed by police officers (or others engaged in a policing function), and each circumstance brought a strong reaction from many African Americans. Situations like those mentioned above arise because, according to Johnson, Farrell, and Warden (2015), there is an assumption that “black males are inherently unpredictable and dangerous” (p. 8). They argue that this assumption has an effect on police scrutiny when it comes to African Americans (Johnson, Farrell, & Warden, 2015). Feelings of distrust and miscommunication between African-Americans and police officers are problems that must be addressed if there is ever hope for more police support from minority communities.

There has been entrenched tension between African Americans and police officers since well before the civil rights era. Brunson and Gau (2015, p. 214) and (Ferrandino, 2014) argue that these relationships are rooted in a history of animosity and distrust. The actions of police officers can impact the perceptions of citizens and impede relations between citizens and officers. In this context, police officers shooting unarmed black men causes minority communities to have a negative image of the police. Perceptions of police officers vary between minorities and Whites in general, and the reasons can be complex (Tyler, 2005, p. 324). The focus of this study is to examine African-American perceptions towards police practices, and asks to what extent community-oriented policing programs might affect those perceptions.

African-American Perceptions of Community-Oriented Policing Programs

This study addresses the above-mentioned focus by sampling African-American students and students of other racial groups to compare their perceptions of different types of community policing programs/practices. Understanding this topic is essential for many law enforcement agencies if they wish to bridge the gap between themselves and the communities they serve – especially underrepresented groups. Minorities, compared to Whites, tend to be less satisfied with many methods of policing based on crime control, media perception, misconduct, and personal experiences (Weitzer, 2005, p. 2; Horowitz, 2007). Community policing is thought to be a gateway to building better relations between police officers and the neighborhoods, cities, and other jurisdictions they serve, so it is important that minority groups' perceptions be examined in the context of community oriented policing practices.

The literature suggests that community policing programs can be aimed towards more community involvement with police functions, thereby securing a higher level of trust and communication between the police and the communities in which they operate. However, community policing programs are not the only elements that affect community perceptions of policing. Weitzer (2008) explained that in some ways the amount and quality of policing in neighborhoods are different and these differences shape residents' perceptions of the police. The killings of Eric Garner and others are consistent with what many African Americans perceived to be “traditional” police aggression. Historical racial discrimination has created unequal educational and employment opportunities, creating “pockets of impoverished blacks nationwide, particularly in urban areas” (Johnson, Warren, & Farrel, 2015, p. 9). These areas are where crime flourishes (Johnson et al., 2015) and with higher crime rates can come higher rates of fear of crime. This fear can

cause distrust among residents (fear) and decrease their support of police officers' efforts in preventing crime. Thus, this study also examines other variables in tandem with race to ascertain what elements affect participant views on community policing programs.

For this study to evaluate any change in perceptions towards police officers, some key concepts must be introduced and defined. In the sections that follow, the main components of what community policing is will be discussed and will be connected to their relationship with African-American perceptions. Other constructions, such as perceptions of police use of force, will also be examined as variables potentially impacting participant perception of community policing. All of these elements will be analyzed in the context of how race plays a role in determining perceptions of community policing programs.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

African Americans' perceptions of police practices are better understood after identifying the discrepancies between their perceptions and those of other racial/ethnic groups. If the duties of police officers are to protect people from crime, that must also include making them feel safer about crime in their communities. However, despite this obligation, "fear of crime has been one of the most important factors driving residents to the suburbs, [and] encouraging race and class segregation..." (Cordner, 2010, p. 1). Moreover, even though African Americans report higher fear of crime and rates of crime victimization, they are more "likely to be the target of disrespect, humiliation, and physical violence by the police" (Tyler, 2005, p. 324). Chapter Two will cover some of the main points of community oriented policing (often called community policing) and

use of force and how, in combination with racial identity, these variables can influence African Americans' perceptions of police practices, especially community oriented policing programs.

Community Policing

There is no simple definition of community policing and the term has been described as “loaded with ideological, political, philosophical, cultural, and occupational baggage” (Cordner, 2014, p. 148). There is agreement that the end goal is to improve satisfaction among residents and increase their feelings of safety, but much else remains up for discussion (Stein & Griffith, 2015, p. 2; Rosenbaum, 2005). Before community policing was incorporated into modern-day police operations – many police historians call our current era the “community oriented policing era” – there were the political and professional eras.

Starting in the early 1800s politics and policing were intertwined, but reforms in the 1960s and 70s spawned the era of professional policing which emphasized training, technology, and efficiency (Cordner, 2010, p. 16; 2014, p. 150). The professional approach to policing was very popular until the late 1970s but ended up being a failure in both crime prevention and law enforcement (Cordner, 2010). Ultimately, the various methods of patrolling and rapid response did not affect either crime itself or public perceptions of crime (Cordner, p. 16). Indeed, “it became clear that the professional model was not the complete solution to all policing problems and issues” that many believed it was (Cordner, 2014, p. 150).

The concept of community policing, which started with community-related programs and increased police contact (e.g. foot patrol), was supposed to address the

failure of the professional policing approach (Cordner, 2014; 2010). The main objective in community-oriented policing is to impact communities' and residents' perception of crime and police performance. This form of policing became popular because it helped the police "shed their image of an occupying army" (Cordner, 2014, p.150).

Community-oriented policing can be help in a second way compared with traditional policing, which "can alienate minority members in poor neighborhoods" (Zhao, 2015, p. 355). In a minority neighborhood, the idea of African Americans and police officers working together to make their communities safer seems ideal. Some research, however, says it is ineffective because of police officers' intrusiveness or lack of commitment to community oriented policing (Weitzer, Tuch, & Skogan, 2007). Other studies, however, point to more positive findings with foot-and-bike patrols, community meetings and other types of community policing projects (Weitzer et al., 2007). Another approach to community policing is Quality-of-life policing (QOL), which uses problem-solving strategies and focuses on "positive interactions between police and local residents, particularly minority residents" (Zhao, 2015, p. 355).

Stein and Griffith (2015) mention that there is sometimes significant opposition to community oriented policing from residents, particularly in high-crime neighborhoods. They also found that residents often distrust the police, believe the community programs to be ineffective, or do not agree with police officers' implementation effective programming. This demonstrates a potential flaw in community policing: police departments might use programs they believe are going to work despite the fact that residents say that they do not. This makes it essential to examine individual perceptions of community policing programs. Stein and Griffith (2015) point to the uncertainty of

residents in knowing crime prevention strategies, lack of aid from police due to resources, and overall lack of confidence in police officers as potential reasons individuals do not support community policing.

Depending on the citizen-police relationship, African Americans may consider these types of programs and police practices to be beneficial, negligent, or even harmful. Researchers emphasize the viability of community policing only with the support of the public, pointing out the rising interest in studying citizen's perceptions of different kinds of policing to assist in this effort (Schafer et al., 2003; Schuck and Rosenbaum, 2005). One problem in studying the public's perceptions of police officers was that "early research was criticized for viewing this phenomenon as a one-dimensional construct" (Schafer et al., 2003, p. 442; Schuck and Rosenbaum, 2005). Despite the need indicated by Stein and Griffith's (2015) study, there has not been much research regarding how specific community oriented policing programs are perceived by African Americans, the question this research directly addresses.

Police Use of Force

In addition to the style of policing (e.g. professional or community oriented), how police exercise their authority can also impact their image and citizens' perceptions of them. This includes when police use force. Given this study's focus, when talking about police use of force, this literature review focuses primarily on the variable of race in terms of perceptions of police use of force.

When it comes to police behavior, some African-American communities perceive police officers as too authoritative as a result of the "strained relationships that existed between the police and the public in many communities" (Schafer et al., p. 441; Kahn et.

al, 2016). It has been argued that the feasibility of police goals is determined by the public's support and cooperation with those goals (Huebner & Bynum, 2003; Schuck & Rosenbaum, 2005). If this is correct, then the "cure" for more cooperation among African Americans and police officers is support – essentially teamwork. While the public generally favors the police (2003), "variations have been found based on variables of race/ethnicity, gender, age, etc., the contexts and cultures of their neighborhoods, and their experiences with the police" (Schafer, Huebner, & Bynum, 2003, p. 442).

The use of force during police officers' interactions with African Americans is one of the main issues troubling minority communities. Geoffrey and Dunham (2014) argue that force is always a possibility in police-civilian encounters, but is unlikely in most cases. Despite this, encounters that involve force can be racially motivated and are correlated to the racial and ethnic makeup of communities in which they occur (Smith and Holmes, 2014, p. 84). Race is a common demographic characteristic associated with how police officers perceive minorities. (Schafer et al., p. 444). This fact, the regular association of race with police use of force, is not without explanation. In their research, Smith and Holmes (2014) found evidence that the use of force is a coercion method to control rising minority populations, which may threaten the interests of the majority racial group.

The relationship described by Smith and Holmes (2014), called the Minority Threat hypothesis, suggests that the use of force is a means of social control for the majority racial community (Smith and Holmes, 2014). Their findings support the conflict approach to legal theory and lead to the conclusion that "police violence aims to control minority populations perceived as menacing" (Smith and Holmes, 2014, p. 100). This is

an important step in determining the factors of police shootings and understanding the perceptions of minorities when it comes to police in general. Terrill and Reisig (2003) and Kahn et al. (2016) further support this position with their own theory, stating the level of punitiveness from police officers is influenced by a suspect's economic/cultural group, “such as the poor, minorities, and the young” (2003, p. 292).

Taken in this context, cities with a largely segregated population should have more deadly encounters between African Americans and police officers because of the in-group/out-group dynamic. In short, the literature suggests that the racial makeup of the environment influences the officer’s level of force. Importantly, this context also affects the behaviors of residents towards police behavior, especially in impoverished, concentrated African-American neighborhoods (McNeeley and Grothoff, 2015; Kahn et al., 2016). This means that if officers are more likely to use force in poorer, minority communities these citizens will have even more negative perceptions of how police officers act.

Terrill and Reisig (2003) mention other paradigms in understanding police use of force but conclude that there are limits to studying them. They highlight that each of the perspectives “fail to take into account the possibility that police use of force varies according to the broader context concerning when the encounter takes place” (Terrill and Reisig, 2003, p. 293). Figuring out African Americans’ perceptions of police use of force may yield different results depending on the area - urban cities are more segregated and therefore police officers are more in contact with African Americans. Terrill and Reisig (2003, p. 295) presented a study by Slovak (1986) which showed that “police

aggressiveness is generally similar across the neighborhoods of a given city” based on data from three medium-sized cities.

The Minority Threat hypothesis presents a plausible explanation of why officers are more willing to use force on minority communities, which would affect the experiences those residents would have with police officers. Individuals who have negative interactions with police officers are more likely to view them less favorably (Schafer, Huebner, & Bynum, 2003). They mentioned that, “Certain groups that express less favorable perceptions of the police, such as minorities or youth, report having more contact with the police” (Schafer et al., 2003, p. 445). Some African Americans could then have negative perceptions of police officers because they are targeted more and they are targeted more because officers might perceive them to be a threat to a given area or neighborhood. Thus, capturing variables accounting for participants’ community type, in terms of racial makeup, is important for understanding how they may perceive community oriented-policing programs.

Racial Identity

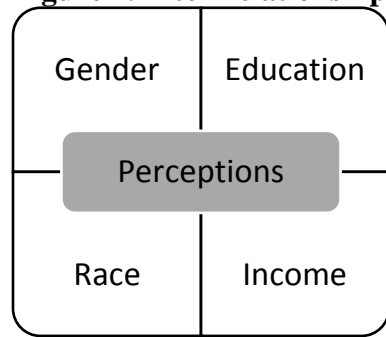
In addition to policing practices and use of force, individual racial identity has been suggested as a possible factor in perceptions of the police (Schafer et al., 2003) but there is no consensus on its impact. Zhao (2015) references a national study that reported, “race is one of the strongest predictors of public attitudes toward the police” (p.354) and he mentions other studies that reach the same conclusion. It is fundamental to consider the worldview of minorities and within that framework an explanation for a perceived distrust of the police can be identified. Neill, Yusuf, and Morris (2014) bring up a racial explanation for the results of mass incarceration of young black males and argue that

crime is based on public perception. This perception views the black male as the standard for the criminal type as portrayed in the media and “the minds of many citizens” (Neill, Yusuf, & Morris, 2014, p. 6). In relation to the Minority Threat hypothesis, the police often perceive African Americans as more suspicious if they believe the minority population to be threatening the majority.

Going back to the concept of racial identity, one can begin to see the roots of how people perceive their experiences and experiences of those in the same group. Mclean (2015) explains what an ethnic/racial identity can be in a social context, calling it an “aspect of an individual’s broader social identity gained from their self-concept, feelings of value, and emotional significance derived from the individual’s ethnicity or race” (p. 2). Phinney (1992) also related ethnic identity to an individual’s own identification with other members within the same social group (p. 156). Race plays an important role in how one identifies with a group and it can be also applied to the paradigm of being a minority in a majority-dominate population.

In terms of policing, race has been found to be a contributing factor in “shaping perceptions of the police and police services” (Schafer et al., 2003, p. 444). Class was also found to be correlated to perceptions with some suggesting that middle-class blacks and middle-class whites have more in common than lower-class blacks and middle-class blacks, although these results are mixed. (Schafer et al., 2003). Cao, Frank, and Cullen (1996) reveal that race in itself may not influence an individual’s attitudes toward police, but rather “the social context in which the person is situated” (p. 13). These contextual variables are identified as gender, age, income, education, fear of crime, etc. (Cao et al., 1996), see Figure 1.

Figure 1. Inter-relationship between variables of perception.



It is most likely a combination of various sociological variables that determine how citizens respond to police officers. The African Americans – Garner, Brown, and others – mentioned in the introduction shared similar backgrounds; they were middle/lower class, young to middle-aged, and are all male. Cao, Frank, and Cullen (1996) state that citizen’s experiences with the police impact how they evaluate police performance. Negative interactions, like traffic stops and other types of citizen-police encounters, influence African Americans’ view, as policing that is perceived as racially biased may have an effect on their perceptions of police behavior (Ferrandino, 2014). Schafer et al. (2003) also bring up the citizen’s neighborhood background in terms of perception, and this “neighborhood culture” allows an individual to evaluate the police instead of their own experiences. High-crime rates, for example, cause residents to have a negative attitude towards police officers and the effectiveness of policing (Schafer et al., 2003). Similarly, police shootings could have the same effect in this context and are perceived by residents as only stimulating more violence in their communities.

For example, two separate studies performed by Dr. Kochel (2015), show the fluctuations of opinions citizens have of police officers before and after the shooting of Michael Brown in Ferguson. Dr. Kochel wanted to assess how residents felt, among black and nonblack members, by asking them questions about the police officers in their

neighborhood (2015). Before and after the shooting took place, she analyzed residents' feelings of certain police practices and found that there was no significant change for nonblack residents, however, there was a 20% increase of perceived aggressive police tactics and 25% decrease in trust and perception of procedural justice among black residents (Kochel, 2015). Interestingly, after the indictment and acquittal of Officer Wilson of Michael Brown's shooting the feelings among black residents gradually became more positive (Kochel, 2015). Even though they were still lower than nonblack residents, Kochel (2015) indicated that the positive changes in police assessment were good because, "in democratic contexts like the U.S., police rely on citizens' voluntary cooperation with police and the law that derives from a sense of legitimacy and trust in police" (p. 2). This underlies another aspect of community policing that could change how African Americans feel about police practices.

There are three important factors in determining African-American perceptions toward police practices: police contact, neighborhoods, and individual characteristics. How much crime is in the proximity of the individual and the extent in which an officer applies punitive measures on the individual or his/her neighbors correlate to high/low satisfaction with the police. Police perceptions play a role in this as well, as Terrill and Reisig (2003) found that, "officers tend to associate neighborhoods with the degree to which they encountered suspicious person" (p. 294). What they found was a concept called "ecological contamination", which negatively portrays the suspect, "independent of the suspect's personal characteristics or behavioral manifestations." (Terrill & Reisig, 2003, p. 295). Werthman and Piliavin (1967) argue that neighborhoods influence the police officer's expectation of certain behavior, which influences police conduct (as cited

in Legewie, 2016). This is also supported by a study (Terrill & Reisig, 2003) that shows higher use of force being used in more disadvantaged neighborhoods.

Assuming it is the context in which the officer finds the suspect that influences officer behavior, there should be more incidences of police use of force in inner cities and poorer urban areas. A group-position hypothesis was formulated to explain “why racial differences [exist] in citizens’ judgement of the police” (Zhao, 2015, p. 353). Much like the Minority Threat hypothesis, it explains that the dominant group views the police as preserving their interests, privileges and resources, in a geographic area (Zhao, 2015). This was tested by polling whites and blacks on the issue of traffic stops. The findings indicated that, “African-Americans were less likely than Whites to view that traffic stops were legitimate and police acted properly” (Zhao, 2011, p. 354). This type of racial profiling can be adopted from a police officer’s past experiences and in urban cities they are more likely to encounter minorities like African Americans and associate them within the domain of danger. Given the discretionary nature of the job this might make the officer believe that he is reducing risk and it is explained by Herbert (1988) that officers change their perspective to define certain areas as dangerous.

The environment itself is the main element in citizen’s perceptions of police are based upon; poorer minority communities would then hold less positive views about police. Police use of excessive force only agitates the problem and causes a wider gap between officers and minority citizens. In the eyes of some African-American citizens the police are not protecting them but killing them, which increases their fears not only about crime in their communities but from the police as well. Also, an analysis of data Terrill and Reisig (2003, p. 309) supported that “...officers are more likely to use higher levels

of police force on male, young, and lower class suspects irrespective of neighborhood context...” and this is what is found in the recent police shootings. They conclude that more research should be done on the context of neighborhoods and police use of force, as well as the impact they have on an officer’s judgement.

There is less trust and less support when these types of occurrences happen, stifling the quality of performance police officers can give. First, police departments need to reduce fear by both using traditional law enforcement to subdue high crime violence and also by being more cooperative in the community. Minority citizens will not help the police if they perceive the same officers to be power abusers and unengaging in their neighborhoods. Building relationships can “increase the feelings of safety, which decreases the perceptions of crime and increases the level of collective efficacy” (Stein & Griffith, 2015, p. 11) – collective efficacy meaning cooperation among neighbors to help reduce crime in their neighborhoods.

A study by Stein and Griffith (2015) also suggests that race may place a role in neighborhood cohesion by comparing three high-crime rate neighborhoods: Shoreline, Saints Village and Mountain Top. Shoreline is primarily White with the other two being mostly Black; Shoreline is the only one with a federally funded crime prevention program. By comparing these three data points, Stein and Griffith (2015) indicated that police and resident perceptions are more positive in Shoreline than other two, mostly black, neighborhoods. They reference a report by Weitzer, Tuch, and Skogan (2008) stating that in neighborhoods with mostly white residents there is more police support and mutual respect between them (Stein & Griffith, 2015). Predominately black neighborhoods like Saints Village and Mountain Top have negative perceptions of crime

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in their neighborhood and usually have less than satisfactory relationships among themselves and with the police.

Perceptions of police practices rest on the citizens' own feelings of trust and safety whenever police officers patrol their neighborhoods and communities. By analyzing the variables: gender, race, home-community homogeneity, and socioeconomic status, for example, studies found correlations between levels of satisfaction and certain racial or other social groups. Utilizing community-policing programs to analyze the responses each of these groups will have can show what effect these programs might have on perceptions. To consider the implications of how well African Americans and other races respond to community-oriented policing a survey will be conducted of students at a medium-sized southern university. This is essential to determining how race and other variables (age, community make-up, racial identity, etc.) impact the perceptions of different racial groups regarding community oriented policing programs.

This research is relevant for helping to change some African Americans' perceptions about police because it may identify types of programs that are particularly well-perceived by that community. Moreover, some characteristics of the community environment might have an impact on how police behave in different areas of a city, and therefore police training sessions should go over culture of certain neighborhoods to get a better understanding of people they might encounter. All this can pertain to, and be a motivating factor for, specific community policing programs. In short, this study examines whether community-oriented policing actually works as some police agencies believe and can help us understand which community policing programs can help police officers build a stronger relationship with African-American communities.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Overview of Methodological Approach

The purpose of this research is to investigate the differences in the perceptions of community police practices between African Americans and other racial/ethnic groups. The respondents for this study are the students at a medium-sized, southern university. There are a number of variables that play a role in the perceptions of police practices, identified from the literature review above, which suggested a survey methodology as the primary method of data collection.

The survey was administered online using the Qualtrics® survey platform. It consisted of over 40 questions developed from the literature mentioned above, and focused on a variety of demographic and police-perception measures. The total number of responses was 82, whose demographic information can be found in Table 1, below.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics (N=82)

Variable	Mean	SD
Age	22	4.837
Variable	%	Frequency
Sex		
Male	26.5	22
Female	73.5	61
Criminal Justice Major		
Yes	53.7	38
No	46.3	44
Criminal Justice Minor		
Yes	9.6	8
No	90.4	75
Race		
Black	45.8	38
White	50.6	42
Asian	3.6	3
City Size		
Small	34.9	29
Medium	53	44
Large	12	10

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Neighborhood		
Rural	30.1	25
Suburban	48.2	40
Urban	21.7	18
Negative Police Encounter		
Yes	18.1	15
No	81.9	68
Total	100	1
<i>N</i>	82	1

There was a lot of variation among respondents despite the relatively small sample size. The minimum age of the respondent was 18 while the maximum was 43; the mean age was 22 for all respondents. Among the two sex groups (males and females), 26.5% were males and 73.5% were females. Most of the respondents were not receiving degrees in Criminal Justice (CJ) as 53.7% and 90.4% did not have CJ as either their major or minor, respectively. The race demographic showed a close split between blacks and whites, 45.8% for blacks and 50.6% for whites. Asians were the smallest racial group with a decent amount of 3.6%. The two geographical variables that included the city size and actual neighborhood characteristic of the respondent show that most respondents are from suburban areas in cities which they would describe as medium. Seemingly, very few of the respondents had previous negative encounters with police.

Dependent Variables

The overall question this study examines is what the perceptions of individuals are regarding different types of community oriented policing programs in terms of the respondent's race. In order to ascertain this, two dependent variables were developed from questions regarding different, specific community oriented policing programs. Specifically, a factor analysis was completed on questions regarding perceptions of

community oriented policing programs, identifying two sets of programs, one focused on community outreach, the other on police community collaboration. This process is discussed more fully in the analytical approach section, below.

Independent Variables

Among the independent variables associated with perceptions of the police are race, age, sex, community-type, perception of the police, and major. A similar study done by Schafer, Huebner & Bynum (2003) hypothesized and tested the effects of other variables, including police contact and neighborhood context controlling the racial predictor of police satisfaction. Prior studies indicate that certain demographic and context variables are shared more between certain racial groups, and collectively these influence perceptions of community oriented policing practices.

Community-type is a term that refers to the environment in which people live. It focuses on whether a community is urban, suburban, or rural. This variable was found to be very significant in studies related to minority perceptions because of the racial differences in inner-cities, and is also relevant in terms of the minority threat hypothesis. Studies have found that lower satisfaction and overall lower trust is found among minorities urban cities and neighborhoods (Stein and Griffith, 2015; Terrill and Reisig, 2003; McNeeley and Grothoff, 2015).

In addition to the demographic variables mentioned above, a set of scales dealing with different aspects of respondent perceptions of police will also be developed (this process is described below in the analytical approach section). Specifically, a set of Likert-type items has been developed focused on three areas of perception: value of police-community involvement, general police perception, and neighborhood safety and

satisfaction. The items within these sections focus on themes developed from the literature review above and each includes a diverse range of questions. A complete list of survey questions can be found in Appendix A.

Analytical Approach

The overall analytical approach to this thesis is in three parts. First, identification of different underlying factors was conducted using an exploratory factor analysis (EFA). This allows for a more comprehensive understanding of the elements of perceptions of the police, community context of the participants, and how much individuals value police-community involvement. An EFA was also completed examining the different community oriented policing programs to ascertain whether there were underlying “types” of programs. This is helpful both in terms of understanding how respondents see community oriented policing and reducing the number of overall models required to address this study’s primary question.

Second, using the underlying factors identified from the EFAs, scale construction was done in order to provide independent variables focused on the different sub-factors of the perception areas mentioned above. The types of scales constructed were simple, additive scales, which were not centered. A reliability analysis was conducted on these to make sure they were adequate for the analysis.

Finally, in order to directly answer the question regarding the importance of race on perceptions of community oriented policing programs, two Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression models were constructed using the demographic variables mentioned above, as well as the scales developed in the earlier analytical steps. This modeling strategy is appropriate, as OLS provides a robust statistical analysis that takes variables

independent impacts on the dependent variable into account, while controlling for the effects of the other variables. It is also robust to violations of its assumptions, and with the small sample size of 82, this is an important characteristic.

Chapter Four: Results

The total number of respondents was 83, but as one respondent did not complete the survey the total number of usable cases was 82. The sample size was small but was sufficiently large to allow for statistical analysis in both the EFAs as well as the OLS regression models. The following sections will present the description and explanation of the results, following the same order as the analytical strategy describes in the methodology chapter.

Factor Analysis

The first step in the analytical process was to identify underlying structures in the areas of police-community involvement, general perceptions of police, and types of community oriented police programs. The results of these first of these analyses, on police community involvement, along with the factor loadings, can be seen in Table 2, below.

Table 2. Component Loadings

Police-Community Involvement

	Loading
Component 1: Police Outreach	
School Speaker	.871
Youth Crime Education	.795
School-Police Collaboration	.789
Community Service	.776
Diversity Training	.700
Community Openness	.639
Panel Meetings	.541

Component 2: Trust Building

Body Cameras	.738
Citizen Awareness	.724
Citizen Input	.702
Modes of Transportation	.692

Component 3: Police Impact

Foot Patrols	.736
Marketing Strategy	-.475

Component 4: Race

Public Trust	-.713
Racial Profiling	.549
Race Relations	.487

The EFA using varimax rotation matrix performed a principal components analysis, which extracted four components. The components identified were: police outreach, trust building, police impact, and race. Within Table 2, the different elements under each factor represent the items that loaded directly on that factor. There are two negative loadings attributed to marketing strategy and public trust, indicating that those items had a negative relationship with the factor.

The results of the second EFA, focused on examining the underlying constructs of respondent perceptions of police, can be found in Table 3, below.

Table 3. Component Loadings

Perceptions of Police

	Loading
Component 1: Police Bias	
Bad Apples	.845
Racism	.842
Public Corruption	.827
Negative Stereotypes	.760
Media Reliability	.558
Police-Civilian Conflict Proximity	.551
Negative Media Exposure	.545

Component 2: Racial Issues

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Police Harassment	.826
Excessive Force	.784
Police Shootings	.491
Component 3: Community Quality of Life	
Police Image	.907
Civilian Satisfaction	.885
Safety	.770
Component 4: Media Impact	
News	.839
Social Media	.549

The EFA using varimax rotation matrix performed a principal components analysis, which extracted four components, similar to the first EFA. The components identified in the second construct were: police bias, racial issues, quality of life, and media impact. There were no negative factor loadings among the items in the EFA, suggesting that all items had a positive relationship with their constituent factors.

Finally, an EFA was conducted on the perceived importance of different community oriented policing programs, identifying two different types of programs. The results from this EFA can be seen in Table 4, below.

Table 4. Component Loadings
Community-Policing Programs

	Loading
Component 1: Community-Police Collaboration	
D.A.R.E.	.853
G.R.E.A.T.	.835
Explorers Program	.723
H.O.P.E.	.706
Component 2: School-Related Programs	
Neighborhood Watch	.842
Police Athletic League	.677
C.L.U.E.S.	.647

T.A.P.S.	.609
School Resource Officers	.498

The factor analysis for community-policing programs explored the factors of nine total items: the D.A.R.E program for schools, the G.R.E.A.T. program for children, the Explorers program, the H.O.P.E. program for the homeless, Neighborhood Watch, Police Athletic Leagues, the C.L.U.E.S. program for college students, the T.A.P.S. program, and school resource officers. The varimax rotation matrix performed a principal components analysis, which extracted two components: Community-police collaboration programs, and school-related programs. Each component had positive loadings from the variables tested, indicating a positive relationship with the factor.

Reliability Statistics

The next step within the analytical process outlined in the methodology was to examine the reliability of the factors that were identified. Cronbach’s Alpha is the appropriate measure when examining scale reliability, and it was used to examine the reliability of all the previously identified factors. All of the identified scales scored higher than .600, with most of the scales having a Cronbach’s Alpha of over .08. This indicates that the scales are, in general, very reliable. The reliability for each of the scales identified can be seen in Table 5, below.

Table 5. Cronbach’s Scale

Scale	Cronbach’s Alpha	Cronbach’s Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
Perceptions of Police			
Police Bias	.889	.889	7
Race	.796	.802	4
Community QOL	.833	.836	3
Media Impact	.689	.692	2

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Value of Police-Community Involvement			
Police Outreach	.870	.874	6
Trust Building	.744	.746	4
Police Impact	.113	.113	2
Community-Policing Programs			
Community Police Collaboration	.842	.860	4
School-Based Programs	.788	.803	5

Additive Scales

After checking to make sure the reliability of the scales was acceptable, additive scales were created for each of the variables. These scales were simply the scores for each of the items included in the reliability analysis added together. The scales ranged from 37-259, depending on the number of items included in the scale.

Regression

For the last set of data analysis, regression modeling was used to find a predictive relationship between the independent and dependent variables. As the question requires the examination of perceptions of *community-policing programs*, the two dependent variables are police collaborations and police outreach programs. The independent variables were those derived from the literature review, above: importance of racial issues, media influence, quality of life perception, bias scale, sex, city size, Criminal Justice major, race, and negative police experiences were included for a model summary and coefficients table. Table 6 below illustrates the computation of all the independent variables and their relationship to police collaboration programs and examines the coefficient of determination (R^2).

Table 6. Model Summary

Model	R Squared	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.372	.274	3.02474

R-squared shows the amount of variance explained by the model is 37.2%. Also, adjusted R-squared actually decreases to .274 or 27.4%, as it takes the number of variables in the model into account, and shows that these variables account for about a quarter of the variance in the dependent variable. In Table 7, the beta coefficients, t-value, and significance level, or p-value, are the main results are considered. Among the independent variables, age and media influence have the highest beta values when all variable units are standardized. Age has the highest beta coefficient (.414) with a statistical significance value of .001.

As presented in the table below, age appears to have the largest effect on how well police-community collaboration programs are perceived. The t-value of age is 3.337, which is higher than all other t-values in the table. A higher t-value with a lower p-value (sig.) indicates that age is a statistically significant predictor of positive perceptions of *police collaboration programs*. Media influence also fairs well when looking at the beta coefficient (.326) and t-value (2.874). The variables are significant as well, $p < .005$, which shows that this variable has a positive predictive effect on the dependent variable. The other variables in the model, including sex, criminal justice as a major, city size, negative experiences with police, quality of life, and bias are not significant within the model.

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Table 7. Coefficients

	B	Coefficients Std. Error	β	t	Sig.
Race	1.998	.917	.282	2.179	.033
Sex	.826	.853	.102	.968	.337
Criminal Justice major	-.785	.743	-.111	-1.056	.295
Age	.314	.094	.414	3.337	.001
City size	-.290	.560	-.053	-.517	.607
NegExp	-1.991	1.099	-.220	-1.812	.075
Racial issues	.413	.166	.278	2.479	.016
Media influence	.381	.133	.326	2.874	.005
Quality of Life	-.116	.104	-.136	-1.117	.268
Bias scale	-.072	.045	-.215	-1.590	.117

A second model was developed to see if there was a determinant effect on the dependent variable *police outreach programs*. Table 8 examines the same set of variables as the above model. The adjusted R squared in this model is lower than the first model seen in Table 6. The adjusted R squared is .212. This indicates that these covariates account for about 21% of the explained variance in the dependent variable measured as a whole. The coefficients table indicates a statistically significant relationship when looking at the significance level of some variables including age, importance of racial issues, and media influence. (See Table 9)

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Table 8. Model Summary

Model	R Squared	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.318	.212	2.69231

Age ($p < .001$), racial issues ($p < .025$), and media influence ($p < .051$) are all statistically significant predictors of how well police outreach programs are perceived. Interestingly enough, age is also the best predictor of perceptions of police outreach programs. Age has a beta coefficient of .450; importance of racial issues is the next significant predictor ($\beta = .267$) and media influence as well ($\beta = .234$). The remainder of the variables in this model were statistically insignificant, including race, sex, major, city size, negative experiences with law enforcement, media influence, quality of life, and bias.

Table 9. Coefficients

	B	Coefficients Std. Error	β	t	Sig.
Race	1.443	.807	.238	1.789	.078
Sex	-.475	.759	-.069	-.626	.534
Criminal Justice major	-.701	.663	-.115	-1.057	.295
Age	.291	.084	.450	3.472	.001
City size	.184	.500	.040	.368	.714
NegExp	-1.398	.978	-.181	-1.430	.158
Racial issues	.339	.148	.267	2.290	.025
Media influence	.243	.122	.234	1.989	.051
Quality of Life	-.090	.090	-.125	-.994	.324

Bias scale	-.063	.041	-.215	-1.547	.127
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All told, the models present a somewhat consistent view of the variables examined. Age seems to be the most important factor when examining perceptions of community oriented policing programs, while race, the variable most important to this analysis, was somewhat inconsistent across models. Other variables, excepting media influence, did not seem to have an impact on perceptions of police, contrary to the literature examined above.

Chapter 5: Discussion

In the context of the criminal justice literature, there were many factors discussed that could contribute to how different racial groups perceive police officers and community policing. In summary, demographic variables such as age, sex, income, and neighborhood homogeneity were described as being the most common predictors for perceptions of community policing programs (Zhao, 2015; Schafer et al, 2003; Cao, Frank, & Cullen, 1996). Other predictors included negative encounters with law enforcement and police use of force. Since this research was limited to only a small section of a population (college campus), not all possible variables were exhausted. However, several of the predictors mentioned above were among the chosen predictors examined in the context of this thesis. Most importantly, this study was an analysis of different racial groups and their perceptions of community policing programs; in other words, race was the main factor to consider.

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Studies referenced in the research cited mention that African Americans, on average, view the police less favorably than other races, especially whites (Gau, 2015, p. 214; Ferrandino, 2014; Weitzer, 2005, p. 2; Horowitz, 2007). Some research has even suggested that race is one of the most common predictors of perceptions of police. If that is true, the factor analysis and regression models would show that race is a strong predictor of how community programs are perceived. Indeed, the regression analysis for police collaboration programs shows that race is significant as a predictor for perceptions of those types of programs – with blacks more likely to support them than non-African Americans. Likewise, the importance of racial issues was considered to have a strong relationship with certain types of policing programs. What this means is that the importance of race and racial issues matters, at least with police collaboration programs and community outreach programs. Unexpectedly, age, however, has been found to be the strongest predictor when it comes to perceptions of community oriented programs.

According to these results, it can be inferred that race and age are variables that correlate to better perceptions of police collaborative programs. Now, examining the factor analysis of policing programs, community-police collaboration had four programs that loaded positively in this group. D.A.R.E., G.R.E.A.T., the Explorers Program, and H.O.P.E. are examples of programs that could have a positive impact on perceptions. What these programs emphasize is the inclusiveness that law enforcement brings when it works with the community to share in crime control, crime awareness, and public service. It might be surmised that more focus on working with the community on common goals for public safety and increased well-being serves as an effective way of increasing perceptions of community policing programs.

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Next, when looking at police outreach programs, race had less influence than with community collaborations. Age was still important while racial issues and media influence are also considerably predictable in how much influence they have on perceptions of police outreach programs. Component 2 for community-policing programs was school-related and could be considered examples of outreach programs. This component had five variables that loaded positively – neighborhood watch and the police athletic league had the highest scores. Importance of racial issues was the most significant predictor of perceptions of these types of programs outside of age.

The question is why race played a smaller part in being a predictor of perceptions in the second model. While police collaborations require more of a cooperative effort on part of the citizens involved, these police outreach initiatives are more related to extra-curricular activities that children can participate in. In fact, only school resource officers can be considered an effort to improve safety, and this only pertains to schools. When looking back at the literature, the whole point of community policing was for law enforcement to be more involved in the community they serve (Cordner, 2014; 2010). These results might indicate that people, especially African Americans, see more importance in how well law enforcement gets to know the people in their jurisdiction compared to simply assisting students in extra-curricular activities.

These are remedies that might “fix” how African Americans view policing and community policing programs. What impacts these perceptions can be found in the component matrix of perceptions of police. Under component 1 [police bias] corrupt police officers, racist police officers, public corruption and negative stereotypes of officers all contributed significantly to how people perceived officers. Harassment of

minorities, excessive use of force, and civilian satisfaction of police performance are other factors that account for variations in perceptions. The public image of the police was the most important for this group. Comparing the two analyses, we can see that proactive policing in the communities raises law enforcement's public image and increases public perceptions. Media has a big influence in how people respond and interpret events and sometimes these reports are different from the actual occurrence.

If minorities with low perceptions of police officers *see* that their police department is more involved in helping and working with them, the media's influence of certain incidents may have a limited effect. It is true that African-American males are disproportionately targeted more by police and this leaves a bad impression in the communities in which these situations occurred (Terrill & Reisig, 2003, p. 309; Tyler, 2005, p. 324). However, if law enforcement not only focused on crime control but community cooperation and establishing friendly relationships, that might change the prevailing image. This idea of community support can be found in Kochel's study of residents, which stated that citizen cooperation was necessary for police to perform their job (2015, p. 2). This is also true when looking at the relationship dynamic of law enforcement and citizens. A better relationship can increase public perception of safety which, in turn, could reduce skepticism of teamwork between police and the community (Stein & Griffith, 2015, p. 11).

When looking through the paradigm of police-community partnerships, age plays a notable role in this achievement. The people who are most involved in their community are the ones who work, own businesses, and are aware of the local problems and issues. Police departments need to reach the leaders of certain communities to work on efforts to

solve local crime and safety issues. One of these goals can be how to work on race relations and focus on issues that might be harmful to perceptions, such as use of force, police corruption, and other issues creating negative perceptions. This requires extensive effort on part of the police department to shape their image to better reflect their mission.

While arresting suspects and engaging in crime control are central components of law enforcement, even more important is how they carry out their methods of policing. News reports of police shootings or incidents of supposed police harassment of minorities signals to those communities affected that the police are not operating legitimately. It is in this situation that whenever such incidents occur there should be a public relations team ready to answer questions and give statements addressed to the community. Racial issues were very important for both types of programs so if this is a concern for minority residents, police departments should take note of that. This lets the minority residents know that the police are aware of their concerns and will work with them to communicate everything they know.

Transparency is essential for any police department if their goal is to build trust and legitimacy in their cities. While transparency was not considered an indicator of perceptions of policing programs, media influence and body cameras were. This could mean that people are still perceiving the police not from them directly, but indirectly from the news they view daily. It may not be the programs themselves that matter but rather the positive police presence in the communities. If people hear about the police from other sources they are left with forming their opinions about how well the police are doing their job. If all they see is negative media but rarely see their officers in neighborhoods, then the police are not really making a noticeable impact. Likewise,

African-Americans might want to see more accountability for the police and body cameras could let them know how they are being held accountable.

Additional positive and helpful contacts with police officers via foot patrols and panel meetings can change negative perceptions. In suburban and urban cities, minorities tend to have more negative contact with police (Schafer et al., 2003, p. 455). What the current study did not examine was how urban, suburban, and rural environments factored into these perceptions in the analysis. It could be that in certain areas where most minorities are, police officers tend to perform more aggressive enforcement and stops. This was called the “ecological contamination” and is defined as being associated with the environment they reside, regardless of personal characteristics or behaviors. (Terrill and Reisig, 2003, p. 294-295). Police officers need to change their own bias of certain neighborhoods and communities to overcome these encounters.

Police officer’s own perceptions were not tested in the analysis but were often referenced in the literature. There have been studies that argue that these few encounters with police officers can have a residual effect on what people think of them (Ferrandino, 2014). It is not just the individual stops that matter but how each negative individual experience can accumulate to high levels of dissatisfaction with the police (Cao, Frank, Cullen 1996; Schafer et al., 2003). A solution to this would be for the police department to implement policies that could mitigate accusations of racial bias. For one, officers could only use lethal force if they are able to prove, with probable cause, that this person was an *immediate* threat or danger to the officer or someone else. This requires the officer to point to specific facts and circumstances that would make a reasonable person believe that this unarmed person was dangerous.

Working together has been shown to be effective across many issues that deal with race, crime, and safety. Law enforcement agencies need input from the community to make sound judgements about what works when it comes to community-oriented programs. Within the context of this study age was found to be an important factor for perceptions and might indicate that young people (ages below 25) do not consider policing programs as important. They might not care about the programs *per se* but rather support more effort from law enforcement to treat people of color more fairly. Older adults (ages 25+) on the other hand are already involved in their communities and would like to see police officers engage the citizens more. What is interesting to note, however, is that race might not be the most important predictor of perception.

Race does play a role in how minorities and whites perceive policing and shootings of unarmed individuals. However, it is the importance of race that really makes a difference to what raises or lowers perceptions. Some whites might not understand or care about racial issues in law enforcement because they are not disproportionately affected by certain policing practices. It could also be reasoned that some blacks do not see the point in addressing racial problems in policing because they see it as a condition of a larger, dominate culture that systemically keeps blacks disenfranchised. It might be why many African Americans support body cameras, because that is the only way to monitor police misconduct. There are many things that this study did not cover and this leaves open the possibility of further research in this area.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

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While this study was limited in the sample size and analysis, the findings proved to be significant. Now that there is some data on how perceptions differ across racial groups, other studies can be executed to see if the same variables are found to be of importance. While the sample size of 82 was small, the variation within it was generally high. However, there could be important differences in how other universities, like historically black universities (HBCUs) perhaps, or private, northern colleges might differ in terms of perceptions of community policing programs. Different questions could be asked that might capture other dimensions of some of the factors examined within this study. Most importantly however, the analyses that were performed would be improved with a larger sample size.

The importance of protecting police officers and civilians is always a priority; chiefs and public officials are the leaders for this agenda and they need to carefully weigh their options, so additional study is warranted. Passing so-called “Blue Lives Matters” laws might not be well received by African-American communities but body cameras are also not favored by many police officers because of their intrusiveness. It will not be easy to resolve disputes like this, but the key factor in finding solutions is to work with the community that feels disfranchised and talk to them about how they feel. That is the essence of community policing: establishing relationships that can foster improvement and progress in the police department’s mission. There still is a lot more research that must be done and it will be interesting to see what other factors are found in different regions of the country.

As mentioned above, there were important limitations to this study but the results in the methodology still produced significant and interesting findings. Some variables,

like social media, were not well measured and should be considered in future analyses. There are additional important considerations regarding law enforcement perception as well. Community policing programs continue to be one of the ways law enforcement are able to reach out to the public and work together. What was not asked in the context of this study was how *police officers* feel about community policing programs. Analyzing two different perspectives of community policing could show what policing programs are actually considered important in a more comprehensive way.

Now that a few predictors of perceptions have been identified, this leaves open room for expansion on the study of these variables. One could ask to what extent the media has an effect on certain groups' perceptions of community-oriented policing or other policing initiatives aimed at improving race relations. An entire independent study could be done to test the variance of those perceptions based on different news sources and types of media coverage of racialized police events.

In the years to come it remains to be seen how much racial tensions will continue to escalate. There have not been signs of administrative agencies re-evaluating the effects of policing on minority communities and how to address them. More research can and should be done which could assist in reforming unequal implementation of some policing policies. Researchers should be encouraged to go to those communities that have been affected and ask them what they think of community policing and their police department. Questions can be asked of local law enforcement regarding what they think of those communities and what they think of community policing as well. Trust is a two-way street that requires knowledge, patience, and acceptance of different principles.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Survey Questions

Q26

7. Participant's Assurance:

This project has been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board, which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow federal regulations.

Any questions or concerns about rights as a research participant should be directed to the Chair of the IRE 601-266-5997. Participation in this project is completely voluntary, and participants may withdraw from this study at any time without penalty, prejudice, or loss of benefits.

Any questions about the research should be directed to the Principal Investigator using the contact information provided in Project Information Section above.

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Consent is hereby given to participate in this research project. All procedures and/or investigations to be follow and their purpose, including any experimental procedures, were explained to me. Information was given about benefits, risks, inconveniences, or discomforts that might be expected.

The opportunity to ask questions regarding the research and procedures was given. Participation in the project is completely voluntary, and participants may withdraw at any time without penalty, prejudice, or loss of benefits. All personal information is strictly confidential, and no names will be disclosed. Any new information that develops during the project will be provided if that information may affect the willingness to continue participation in the project.

Questions concerning the research, at any time during or after the project, should be directed to the Principal Investigator with the contact information provided above. This project and this consent form have been review by the Institutional Review Board, which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow federal regulations. Any questions or concerns about rights as a research participant should be directed to the Chair of the Institutional Review Board, The University of Southern Mississippi, 118 College Drive #5147, Hattiesburg, 39406-0001, (601) 266-5997.

Q27 Do you understand and agree to all the information presented above?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Q1 Are you an international student?

- Yes (1)
- No (0)

Q2 Which racial group do you most closely identify with?

- Black (1)
- White (2)
- Asian (3)
- Other (4)

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Q3 Which ethnic group do you most closely identify with?

(Mark all that apply)

- Hispanic (1)
- Latino/Latina (2)
- Other (3)
- N/A (4)

Q4 Sex:

- Male (0)
- Female (1)

Q5 Are you a Criminal Justice major?

- Yes (1)
- No (0)

Q6 Are you a Criminal Justice minor?

- Yes (1)
- No (0)

Q7 Age:

Q8 What size is the city of your permanent residence?

- Large (ex. Dallas, Jackson, etc.) (3)
- Medium (ex. Hattiesburg) (2)
- Small (ex. Collins, Petal, etc.) (1)

Q9 How would you describe your neighborhood from your city?

- Urban (3)
- Suburban (2)
- Rural (1)

Q10 Have you ever been convicted of a felony?

- Yes (1)
- No (0)

Q11 Have you ever had any negative experiences with law enforcement?

- Yes (1)
- No (0)

Display This Question:

If Have you ever had any negative experiences with law enforcement? Yes Is Selected

Q13 Explain in brief detail:

Q15 Indicate the Value of Police-Community involvement

Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Somewhat Agree Strongly

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Q15 Indicate the Value of Police-Community involvement

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat disagree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly agree (7)
Police officers cannot perform their job without the public's support and trust. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Police departments need to let their community know that they are participating in community policing programs. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Body cameras will help improve trust between me and police officers. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Community policing programs can be more effective if civilians had more say in how they are designed and implemented. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Having representatives of the local community and police department meet and discuss local law enforcement problems is an effective problem-solving strategy. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Race relations is an important issue for police departments to address. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The idea of profiling a possible suspect along the basis of race/ethnic background is unjustified. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Diversity training in the police academy will give recruits more awareness when working in special communities (religious, ethnic, etc.) (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

African-American Perceptions of Community-Oriented Policing Programs

Diversity training in the police academy will give recruits more awareness when working in special communities (religious, ethnic, etc.) (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Police departments that utilize foot patrols will have more impact in their communities. (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Citizens need to be more open about their problems and what they expect from their police departments. (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Police departments that utilize more personal modes of transportation such as bikes, horses, Segways, etc. will allow more friendly encounters with civilians. (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Seeing police officers volunteer at nonprofit events, such as a soup kitchen or marathon will have a positive impact on those communities. (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Police departments need to market their objectives and who they are via social media and other electronic mediums. (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is essential for police officers to reach out to at-risk youth and educate them on the dangers of crime. (14)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Police departments will have better relationships with younger kids if they	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

African-American Perceptions of Community-Oriented Policing Programs

Police departments will have better relationships with younger kids if they come to local schools to speak about what they do and why. (15)

School districts should network with police departments to host programs dealing with domestic violence, drug safety and other important issues for youths in school. (16)

Q20 Community-Policing Programs

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat disagree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly agree (7)
The D.A.R.E. program is needed in schools for better drug and gang control. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The program called G.R.E.A.T. (Gang Resistance And Education Training) which teaches students about the dangers of gang violence is needed in high-crime areas. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A H.O.P.E (Homeless Outreach Proactive Enforcement) unit for police departments that work with nonprofit agencies to aid mentally ill and the homeless will be very beneficial to communities. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The Explorers Program, which educates ages 14-21 on the daily duties of law enforcement and gives them the opportunity to volunteer in the community, is needed for police-community relations. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The Police Athletic							

African-American Perceptions of Community-Oriented Policing Programs

(4)
 The Police Athletic League initiative, which allows small children to play sports hosted by local police, is needed in community relations.

(5)
 The Night Watch/Neighborhood Watch is a helpful initiative in maintaining safety in neighborhoods and improving citizen cooperation with police.

(6)
 T.A.P.S. (Teen And Police Service Academy) which trains police officers how to build trust with at-risk youth should be recommended to police departments.

(7)
 Police departments should use C.L.U.E.S. (Campus-Leadership Utilizing Education and Students), an outreach initiative that allows students to volunteer with police groups in various activities such as ride-alongs, domestic violence awareness presentations, etc.

(8)
 Schools should use School Resource Officers (SRO) to improve safety among students

(9)

Q21 Perceptions of Police:

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat disagree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly agree (7)
There is a disproportionate number of minorities, especially African-American males, that are confronted and arrested by police officers. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Police officers disproportionately use excessive force against unarmed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

African-American Perceptions of Community-Oriented Policing Programs

Q21 Perceptions of Police:

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat disagree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly agree (7)
There is a disproportionate number of minorities, especially African-American males, that are confronted and arrested by police officers. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Police officers disproportionately use excessive force against unarmed African-American men. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Officers are never justified in shooting unarmed suspects. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I always feel safe around police officers. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Police officers have a good relationship with the people in my city. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The police department in my city does a very good job at representing the communities and their values. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Most police officers are racist. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Overall, a few police officers could be racist. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The media is very trustworthy when it comes to controversial police-related incidents (shootings, use of force...) (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Most of what I read or learn about police-related shootings come from news or social media (CNN, FOX, MSNBC...) (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Most of what I read or learn about police-related shootings come from social media feeds (Twitter, Facebook, etc.) (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
News reports on controversial							

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(11)
News reports on controversial police-related events negatively affect my views of law enforcement.

(12)
Negative images come to my mind when I think about police officers.

(13)
I believe police corruption is a product of a system that can never be improved. (14)
There are too many bad cops.

(15)
There are frequent incidents of police-civilian conflicts gone wrong where I live. (16)

Q22 Neighborhood Safety and Satisfaction

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat disagree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly agree (7)
I feel safe in my home and places I go because the police give me a sense of security. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I personally have had minimal complaints about the police department in my city. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Among my neighbors there is a consensus of mutual trust and respect for the local police department. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There are many crimes that are committed near my home. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I share most of the same values with neighbors and others that live in my part of town (political beliefs, religious...) (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The neighborhood I live in is very diverse racially/ethnically/culturally. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Police officers are welcomed where I live. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The area in which I live is inhabited by mostly low-income residents. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I live in a quiet neighborhood with few, if	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

African-American Perceptions of Community-Oriented Policing Programs

any, police calls. (9)

Q23 Conformity

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat disagree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly agree (7)
I usually surround myself with people that share the same beliefs and interests as me. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I grew up in a conservative household when it came to political and religious beliefs/values. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My race/ethnicity plays a large role in how I identify myself and what I believe. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I was raised to always have an open-mind and to respect other people's opinions/beliefs. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I was taught to always respect law enforcement. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My opinions of police officers have not changed much since I was a small child. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am friends with or have family members who are vocally active in the (insert) lives matter debate. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix B: IRB Approval



INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

118 College Drive #5147 | Hattiesburg, MS 39406-0001

Phone: 601.266.5997 | Fax: 601.266.4377 | www.usm.edu/research/institutional.review.board

NOTICE OF COMMITTEE ACTION

The project has been reviewed by The University of Southern Mississippi Institutional Review Board in accordance with Federal Drug Administration regulations (21 CFR 26, 111), Department of Health and Human Services (45 CFR Part 46), and university guidelines to ensure adherence to the following criteria:

- The risks to subjects are minimized.
- The risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
- The selection of subjects is equitable.
- Informed consent is adequate and appropriately documented.
- Where appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of the subjects.
- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered regarding risks to subjects must be reported immediately, but not later than 10 days following the event. This should be reported to the IRB Office via the "Adverse Effect Report Form".
- If approved, the maximum period of approval is limited to twelve months. Projects that exceed this period must submit an application for renewal or continuation.

PROTOCOL NUMBER: 16112201

PROJECT TITLE: African-American Perceptions of Community-Policing Programs

PROJECT TYPE: New Project

RESEARCHER(S): Adrian Griggs

COLLEGE/DIVISION: College of Science and Technology

DEPARTMENT: Criminal Justice

FUNDING AGENCY/SPONSOR: N/A

IRB COMMITTEE ACTION: Expedited Review Approval

PERIOD OF APPROVAL: 12/12/2016 to 12/11/2017

Lawrence A. Hosman, Ph.D.

Institutional Review Board

Appendix C: Consent Form

Griggs Thesis

Q25



INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
LONG FORM CONSENT

LONG FORM CONSENT PROCEDURES
<p>This completed document must be signed by each consenting research participant.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Project Information and Research Description sections of this form should be completed by the Principal Investigator before submitting this form for IRB approval. • Signed copies of the long form consent should be provided to all participants. <p style="text-align: right; font-size: small;">Last Edited August 28th, 2014</p>

Today's date: 10/31/2016

PROJECT INFORMATION		
Project Title: African-American Perceptions of Community-Policing Programs		
Principal Investigator: Adrian Griggs	Phone: 601-966-0475	Email: adrian.griggs@usm.edu
College: Science and Technology	Department: Criminal Justice	
RESEARCH DESCRIPTION		

1. Purpose:

The purpose of this research is to understand the implications of racial identity on perceptions of police officers and what variables factor into these perceptions. Within this paradigm, respondents will be asked questions pertaining to community policing and its subsequent programs to find different levels of change that have on their perceptions. If the results are proven to be fruitful, similar research models can be tested in other areas primarily affected by race relation problems between police departments and communities.

2. Description of Study:

The study will consist of a survey that student respondents will answer, if they choose to do so. The number of these respondents will range between 265-320 and take less than 10 minutes.

3. Benefits:

There are no benefits with the exception of contributing to scientific research.

4. Risks:

There are no risks when taking this survey.

5. Confidentiality:

The survey is voluntary and anonymous; there is no way the survey information can link back to who answered the questions.

6. Alternative Procedures:

N/A

Q26

7. Participant's Assurance:

This project has been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board, which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow federal regulations.

Any questions or concerns about rights as a research participant should be directed to the Chair of the IRB at 601-266-5997. Participation in this project is completely voluntary, and participants may withdraw from this study at any time without penalty, prejudice, or loss of benefits.

Any questions about the research should be directed to the Principal Investigator using the contact information provided in Project Information Section above.

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Participant's Name: _____

Consent is hereby given to participate in this research project. All procedures and/or investigations to be followed and their purpose, including any experimental procedures, were explained to me. Information was given about all benefits, risks, inconveniences, or discomforts that might be expected.

The opportunity to ask questions regarding the research and procedures was given. Participation in the project is completely voluntary, and participants may withdraw at any time without penalty, prejudice, or loss of benefits. All personal information is strictly confidential, and no names will be disclosed. Any new information that develops during the project will be provided if that information may affect the willingness to continue participation in the project.

Questions concerning the research, at any time during or after the project, should be directed to the Principal Investigator with the contact information provided above. This project and this consent form have been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board, which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow federal regulations. Any questions or concerns about rights as a research participant should be directed to the Chair of the Institutional Review Board, The University of Southern Mississippi, 118 College Drive #5147, Hattiesburg, MS 39406-0001, (601) 266-5997.

Research Participant

Person Explaining the Study

Date

Date