

Walden University

COLLEGE OF SOCIAL AND BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES

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2011

Abstract

The Impact of Job-Related Stressors on Incidents of Excessive Force by Police Officers

by

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MS, Central Michigan University, 2004

BA, Saint Leo University, 2003

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

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Abstract

The present study addresses the relationship between job-related stressors and incidents of police misconduct, a concept that has largely been neglected in policing literature. Manzoni and Eisner's conceptualization of stress-strain theory provided the foundation for the research. Specifically, this study examines individual differences in the perception of how job-related stressors such as departmental leadership, departmental policies and regulations, and departmental climate are related to incidents of police misconduct expressed through the exercise of excessive force. The research question sought to determine if the link between occupational stress and excessive force was perceived differently across African-American and white police officers. This quantitative survey design employed the Police Survey of Job Related Stress (PSJRS) among a convenience sample of 94 active police officers (49 African American and 45 white) from a southern U.S. state. T-tests and the Mann-Whitney test were used to document statistically significant differences between white and African American officers across the perceived connection linking the core PSJRS dimensions of job-related stressors to excessive force misconduct. The results reinforced the need for ongoing training to prevent police misconduct and excessive use of force. Furthermore, results of the study suggest that having clear administrative policies and procedures to minimize job-related stress and offering diversity training further reduce the use of excessive force. Findings benefit police officers because they offer specific recommendations on improving training, which, in turn, creates opportunities for police to mend relationships with and better serve communities. These results promote positive social change by reinforcing social bonds between police and communities and creating safer places to live.

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my lovely mother, Willie Lue Ellis (March 15, 1919-November 3, 1992), and my beloved father, Phillip Reginald Neely Sr. (December 12, 1958-August 25, 2008).

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I extend my sincere gratitude to my committee chairperson, Dr. David Milen, and other members of the committee, Dr. Joyce Haines and Dr. Mark Stallo, who assisted me in the completion of my doctoral work. I would like to extend a special thanks to Dr. Walter McCollum and Dr. Matthew Collins for your support and listening ear in a time of need. This was a wonderful experience that has really changed my life and I will always be thankful for this opportunity.

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Table of Contents

List of Tables	v
Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
Problem Background	2
Problem Statement.....	7
Purpose of the Study.....	7
Theoretical Framework of the Study	8
The Kerner Commission.....	8
Inciardi's Review.....	9
Watchman Theory	10
Themes.....	11
Empirical Research.....	13
Social Significance of the Problem.....	14
Research Question	16
Definition of Terms	16
Assumptions	18
Scope.....	19
Delimitations.....	19
Limitations.....	20
Significance	21
Social Change.....	22
Summary.....	23
Chapter 2: Literature Review.....	25

Case Studies.....	25
Torture	26
Asphyxia.....	26
Peaceful Demonstration.....	27
Racial Profiling.....	27
Case Study Review: Patterns of Police Behavior.....	29
Literature Review	30
Stress Strain Theory.....	34
Introduction to Stress Theory	34
Stress and Strain Theory: Research Study and Review.....	41
Research Study Focus and Review of Situational Controls	46
Community Policing.....	48
Police Training and Misuse of Power.....	50
Diversity Training for Stress	54
Use Appropriate Training Approaches, Methods, and Materials.....	62
Provide Employees Advance Information About the Training.....	63
Conduct Training in a Supportive, Noncoercive Environment.....	64
Use Only Experienced, Fully Qualified, Instructors	64
Monitor Training Activity	65
Training Evaluation	65
Stress and Racial Disparity in the Criminal Justice System.....	68
Chapter 3: Methodology.....	72
Research Design and Approach.....	73

Design of the Study	74
Gaining Access	75
Researcher's Role	75
Sample and Population	76
Procedures.....	77
Instrumentation	77
The Pilot Study	77
Data Collection	78
Summary.....	79
Chapter 4: Results.....	81
Introduction.....	81
Research Instrument	81
Participant Scoring and Major Concepts	82
Adjustments or Instrument Revisions.....	82
Demographic Data	83
Age.....	84
Race	85
Rank.....	85
Data and Statistical Methods	87
Reliability Analysis	88
Analysis Based on Research Question	89
Response Summary	89
Hypothesis Testing	92

Chapter 5: Summary, Conclusion, and Recommendations	95
Introduction.....	95
Summary of Findings	96
Interpretation of Findings	99
Implications for Social Change	102
Improvements Within the Force	103
Improvements for Communities and Society	104
Recommendations for Future Research.....	104
Conclusion	106
References.....	108
Appendix: Police Survey of Job Related Stress	123
Curriculum Vitae	126

List of Tables

Table 1. Classification Based on Zone	84
Table 2. Classification Based on Age.....	85
Table 3. Classification Based on Race	85
Table 4. Classification Based on Rank	86
Table 5. Classification Based on Years of Experience.....	86
Table 6. Rank Summary of Mann-Whitney Test for Race Comparison	88
Table 7. Descriptive Statistics Summary for All Statements	91
Table 8. Response to Impact of Leadership.....	91
Table 9. Descriptive Statistics Summary for Factors on Use of Excessive Force.....	93
Table 10. Mann-Whitney Test Statistics Summary for Race Comparison.....	93

Chapter 1: Introduction

The current study was on the impact of job-related stressors on incidents of excessive force by police officers. The issue of police brutality continues to be a concern for both the public and the law enforcement profession (Juarez, 2004). Researchers have conducted research to determine the causal triggers for police brutality or the use of unnecessary force and its relationship to stress (Juarez, 2004). High-profile police brutality cases have resulted in victim distress or death in custody. Statistically, most brutality cases occur during the course of arrest, disputes, or other events in public places as a result of stress (Williams & James, 2007). Some also occur while the victim has already been constrained or is in police custody (McCardle & Erzen, 2001).

Manzoni and Eisner (2006) focused on the issue of stress and its effect on police brutality. Although Manzoni and Eisner's findings were not conclusive regarding the hypothesis that brutality is the direct result of stress, the influence of stress cannot be ignored and expanded research is needed. Police brutality is increasing among law enforcement officers and further brought to the fore by media attention. Commentaries documenting the growth and development of U.S. social structures and rising crime rates are testament to the growth and unwarranted use of force throughout the ranks of policing (Fitzgerald, 2006). Law enforcement records throughout the United States have shown documented cases of shoot-to-kill policies facilitated by attitudes of police officers (Nelson, 2001). The shoot-to-kill policy further highlights the beginnings of an entrenched police culture that facilitates police brutality, which continues to be evident in the 21st century (Williams & James, 2007).

Problem Background

In the early 1900s, magistrates commented on the brutal nature of the police force (Lavine, 1930). In the past, police brutality was considered to be a practice limited to cases attributed to an individual officer rather than being a problem that needed addressing at a management level (Williams & James, 2007). However, recent factors indicate the nature of the role of a police officer lends itself to incidents of excessive force and abuse of power due to the unrestricted right to use force in situations where police officers' evaluations of the circumstances demand its use (Reti, 2005). Two central occurrences caused the need for regulatory controls regarding the issue of police brutality (Williams & James, 2007): the criminal law revolution of the U.S. Supreme Court under Chief Justice Warren and the finding of the Kerner Commission (1967), which was the popular name given to the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (Roleff, 1998).

It could alternatively be suggested that the significant majority of officers using excessive force had a propensity toward such abuses of power and that the stress strains of the post exacerbated existing behavioral patterns (Garner, Maxwell, & Heraux, 2002). Incidents of brutality are further heightened by the area in which an officer operates, particularly in high crime-rate areas (Kappeler, Sluder, & Alpert, 1995). The findings that police brutality has rapidly increased cannot solely be attributed to the stress strain theory or the alternative watchman concept and further ignore wider socioeconomic factors (Hurrell, Nelson, & Simmons, 1998).

Levels of police brutality are often determined by the perceived success in achieving arrest rates and police targets and the resulting perks and potential promotional

opportunities available from performance, rather than the inherent “bullying mentality” (Kirkcaldy, Cooper, Furnham, & Brown, 1993, p. 102). The implication of the claim that stress strain causes police brutality is that changing the internal organizational and structural system within the force would remove the need to resort to excessive force (Kappeler et al., 1995).

Some researchers have indicated that the actual impact of such treatment initiatives on the practical reduction of police brutality is negligible and suggested that such initiatives have no effect on the reduction of police brutality (Terrill, Paoline, & Manning, 2003). Weipert (1979) demonstrated that this form of maintenance, counseling was not conclusive in supporting any real effect on the reduction in abuse by police forces in action. Violanti and Aron (1995) observed that the empirical research on combating stress triggers only demonstrated a reduction in police brutality, the significance of which is questionable, as opposed to “complete cessation” (p. 94).

Junger-Tas and Marshall (1999) noted that a major analytical challenge facing the efficacy of studies of different treatment models is the fact that the research samples are often comprised of “well motivated people who have reached a stage in their career where they want to improve or do not want repercussion” (p. 123). Accordingly, it is problematic to reliably attribute any resulting reduction in police brutality in light of the inherent motivation of the sample (Junger-Tas & Marshall, 1999).

Notwithstanding the consistent problem of the motivated sample and self-reporting methods, the results of the studies point to a trend that stress is one of many possible causal factors for police brutality.

Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolynstsky (2002) asserted model, behavior to organizational change is “at best only a partial explanation of the causation” (p. 44).

In the context of the debate regarding the correlation between stress and police brutality, the conclusiveness of the model as an encompassing explanation of police brutality can be refuted emphatically. The qualitative nature of the current research, which, similar to the Manzoni and Eisner (2006) study, was based on group interviews with a limited number of participants, slightly undermined the extent to which the findings could be generalized, which highlights the complex factors at play in the overall picture of police brutality.

Kop, Euwema, and Schaufeli (1999) conducted a quantitative analysis related to stress and the influence of burnout on the self-reported use of force among a sample of 358 Dutch police officers. Kop et al. indicated that burnout led to increased incidences of use of force. Moreover, officers demonstrating stronger symptoms of burnout demonstrated a positive attitude toward the use of violence, which further supported the findings of a Canadian police study linking stress with police brutality (Stearns & Moore, 1993).

A review of the self-report method to measure police use of excessive force demonstrated a wider range of situations in which force might have been used (Junger-Tas & Marshall, 1999). The approach also overcomes some of the limitations of previous strategies in criminological reports for measuring the use of force by police in the United States (Garner et al., 2002). For example, researchers often analyzed official sources such as police records and use-of-force complaints, which are inherently limited as they only relate to incidents that have been reported and do not represent the wider range of

incidents involving excessive police force (Brandl, Stroshine, & Frank, 2001; Lersch, 1998).

A study on police use of firearms and deadly force by Geller and Scot (1993) only related to a small range of events in which excessive force is used. Some researchers limited the scope to one type of situation in police work, such as arrests (Garner, Buchanan, Schade, & Hepburn, 1996; Garner et al., 2002; Kavanagh, 1997), which again excludes other incidents of excessive force. Although Adams (1999) purported that force is mainly used in arrests, force evidently occurs in other operational police situations such as identity and traffic checks and domestic violence.

A consistent theme in previous research was to ignore the victimization of police officers as a causal factor that might possibly be interdependent with the use of force, thereby ignoring an important consideration of both sides of violence (Alpert & Dunham, 1999; Garner et al., 1996; Terrill, 2000). By including a detailed measurement of the extent to which police officers are the targets of violence, Manzoni and Eisner (2006) were able to more adequately examine both the extent to which victimization and use of force are interrelated and the role of victimization as a stress source and noted this approach should be developed further in future research.

None of the existing researchers took into account an examination of the pattern of routine police officer activities as a crucial factor, thereby focusing on isolated incidents limited by reports and failing to compare other circumstances in which police officers utilize force, which were vital as part of the current study (Brandl et al., 2001). Manzoni and Eisner (2006) noted that “to limit a study to relatively homogenous groups of police officers is not sufficient, as there may still be intra-group variation regarding

frequency with which officers perform activities holding a potential for conflict, such as arrests or identity checks” (p. 78). These activities were defined as the police officers’ job profile. Officers’ job profiles and victimization were included as situational controls to avoid spurious relationships between stress-related variables and the use of force in carrying out the research. From a theoretical perspective, when analyzing police use of force, some researchers have distinguished between excessive force and the legitimate exercise of force as part of specific rights granted to the police (Skolnick & Fyfe, 1994; Worden, 1995).

Although a starting point is an evaluation of police brutality, “the distinction between legitimate and illegitimate use of force may not be analytically useful for several reasons” (Manzoni & Eisner, 2006, p. 132). First, a significant limitation of research in this area is the fact that very few police brutality cases are tried in courts or result in actual conviction (Terrill et al., 2003). Second, data such as narratives of complaints indicated that the definition of what constitutes excessive force is highly contested, fueling a polarized debate “with different participants telling different stories of the events leading to the use of force” (Manzoni & Eisner, 2006, p. 98). The debate renders it impossible to attempt to classify controversial cases of use of force on the basis of inherently incomplete information. Third, many pertinent cases are the result of a situational escalation resulting from an initial conflict that ends with the police officer using force that might be within the limits of legality and legitimacy, for example the arrest of a resisting suspect, highlighting the subjectivity of what constitutes excessive force (Terrill & Mastrofski, 2002).

The empirical research of the current research study Manzoni and Eisner (2006) indicated that it is worthwhile to consider how alternative means of handling the situation might have been helpful to determine whether patterns of behavior support the correlation between stress and police brutality.

Problem Statement

The research problem addressed in this study is law enforcement officers have struggled with the issue of use of force or, more specifically, with police brutality. Many citizens have made complaints about the misuse of force by law enforcement Juarez (2004). In the daily operation of police work, officers are called to use force Juarez (2004). Force is used to undertake an arrest, detain unruly inmates, or ensure individual compliance Juarez (2004). The majority of citizen complaints regarding police force have been that law officials misuse force. Police stress has generally been ignored or misrepresented, which has led to police misuse of force and police suicide Juarez (2004). According to Juarez (2004), police officer stress indicates that the occupation creates psychological and physical ailments resulting in a high incidence of the misuse of force and suicide. The current study contributes to the body of knowledge regarding the relationship between job stress and police brutality relating to the policies and procedures of officer by zones.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to determine if a correlation exists between job stress and police misuse of force by zones relating to policies and procedures of the department. Law enforcement officers must consider the job stressor to better their

relationship with the public, which will help to change the relationship between officers and the community they serve.

Theoretical Framework of the Study

The theoretical framework for the study was based on Manzoni and Eisner's (2006) study on stress strain theory. Stress has been cited as a significant causal trigger for excessive use of police force, but too few empirical studies exist to conclusively justify this link. This section particularly evaluates the cumulative influences of work-related stress, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and burnout on the use of police brutality by developing the arguments raised in earlier studies. The study of theory in this section utilizes an integrated approach, providing a comparative analysis between the results of Manzoni and Eisner, which provided the model for the current empirical research, and the evaluation of the problem for the current study. Similar to Manzoni and Eisner, I adopted an integrated approach by including the participating officers' routine activities (herein referred to as a job profile) and victimization experiences as two situational controls and by capturing a continuum of self-reported force used in typical operational studies.

The case studies indicated a further need to review categorization, and the development of Scriver's (1995) profiling. It is further evidenced that the job profile remains the only predictor of police use of force, whereas victimization is strongly correlated with the use of force (Manzoni, 2006).

The Kerner Commission

The Kerner Commission was specifically set up to investigate the causes of the 1967 race riots, and the commission noted that the riots were fueled by the frustration of

African Americans at the lack of opportunity available to them. *The Kerner Report* also highlighted issues of police culture and the disproportionate use of force against the African American community. As a result of the Supreme Court criminal revolution and the findings of the Kerner Commission, a greater national focus was given to the issue of police violence and the need for the use of force within legitimate boundaries (Roleff 1998).

The Supreme Court criminal revolution and the findings of the Kerner Commission provided the backdrop for the proliferation of numerous studies conducted concerning police use of force. The Supreme Court criminal revolution and the findings of the Kerner Commission involved asking officers in major departments the reasons for their use of force to ascertain any underlying patterns of behavior (Williams & James, 2007). The results indicated almost half of the police assaults occurred when citizens openly defied police authority (Williams & James, 2007), which further lends itself to the socioeconomic influence on police brutality, particularly in high crime-rate areas (Williams & James, 2007).

Inciardi's Review

Inciardi's (1990) review of earlier studies concerning police brutality demonstrated that one third of those questioned commented on the influence on drugs in encounters with the public. Inciardi further noted that the increasing drug and crime rates in national reports correlated directly with allegations of increased police brutality in large cities across the country, with the most commonly cited cities being New York, San Antonio, and Los Angeles. The drug and crime problem highlighted the nature of the problem and how the need for force must be utilized within the confines of legitimate

force (Inciardi, 1990, p. 164). The inherent problem is the concept of legitimate force has never been precisely defined or limited, which has been used to support the psychological watchman theory (Wilson, 1975).

Watchman Theory

The focus of the watchman theory is the role attached to the police officer position. Officers feel they act as maintainers of order and ignore other problems. Thus, when police officers are confronted with problems, they feel they must follow the path of least resistance and render their form of curbside justice (Wilson, 1975). The lack of adequate training, coupled with the consequences of the watchman style, further facilitates corruption, arrests, and police violence (Wilson, 1975).

The characteristics of the police working personality include the constant pressure to perform, authority over others, suspicion, hostility, insecurity, and cynicism (James, 2007). The working personality theory is an extended development of the watchman theory, with the recurrent underlying theme of the role and position of police officer symbolizing police brutality. While the working personality theory refers to circumstances of the police officer's job, further research should be undertaken into the interrelationship between the working personality theory, watchman theory, and stress (James, 2007).

Although police authority is essential to the officer's role in law enforcement, the problem of resistance and what constitutes excessive force further compound the issue regarding limits of police power (Fitzgerald, 2006). The decision-making role of a police officer requires quick decisions and many decisions are based on fragmented information and an inbuilt system of institutional protection for police excessive force within the

organizational structure (Juarez, 2004). The efficacy of official statistics regarding police brutality is inherently flawed because the organizational structure of the force may be covering mistakes in action (Fitzgerald, 2006).

According to an Amnesty International (2008) study, thousands of nationwide reports each year document damning statistics demonstrating the use of excessive force and the violation of the human rights of their victims (Quinn, 2004). The case studies in chapter 2 highlight how police officers have killed on the job. A significant problem in this area of excessive force is that such police behavior is an abuse of civilian rights yet justified on the grounds of being necessary and appropriate police procedure (Quinn, 2004). In many cases, police have gone too far when they excessively punch, kick, beat, and shoot people who pose no threat, undermining the notion of stress causing police brutality (Skolnik & Fyfe, 2001).

Themes

To understand the causes of brutality, the current study adopted an interdisciplinary approach through collaboration between the criminal justice system, police, and psychology professionals to identify possible causes of police brutality. An interdisciplinary approach was important, as a severe lack of coordination exists between the justice system and police organizations in pursuing police brutality cases (Skolnik & Fyfe, 2001). The police structure inherently encourages the excessive use of force, which undermines the justice system, and the police profession must acknowledge that brutality is a crime and all three professions must work together to discourage future acts (Skolnik & Fyfe, 2001).

Police brutality and the use of excessive force is an occupational crime defined by Friedrich (1980) as a “violation of the legal codes in the course of activity in a legitimate occupation” (p. 65). Police brutality is a direct violation of internal police force law and the regulatory framework. However, police brutality demonstrated to be a vicious cycle as the very framework protects abuses of power. The use of force is also a direct violation of the Fifth and 14th Amendments of the U.S. Constitution regarding cruelty and protection of the laws. The police are given trust and respectability by virtue of their position and social status, which is undermined by acts of brutality. Friedrich argued that police brutality breaches power, trust, and position, which are the three key elements of white-collar crime. Another central theme in recent policy debate on police brutality within the organizational structure of the police force has been the widespread notion that stress is a critical causal factor in the abuse of power and excessive force, with considerable concern about the link between police brutality and violent crime in the urban drug market (Williams & James, 2007).

From a social policy perspective, an understanding of the relationship between stress and police brutality is vital due to its resultant impact on both criminal justice and policy initiatives in police training. Variances in propounded conceptions of the correlation between stress and police brutality underlie the polarized debate regarding every aspect of police brutality (Williams & James, 2007). The nature of the link between stress and police brutality remains unclear from the empirical research available, and further evaluation of criminological theories is needed before further social policy initiatives are implemented within the force to combat the problem (Williams & James, 2007).

Lawrence (2000) explored broad areas of human and personality development, including societal violence in television, movies, and multimedia platforms. These areas of societal violence in television, movies, and multimedia platforms will be considered in the context of preexisting studies of police brutality utilizing Manzoni and Eisner's (2006) study as a model for empirical research. The focus of the literature review is literature from the United Kingdom and Europe, with a comparative analysis of international literature.

The short-term response from empirical research points to a direct link between stress and police. It "cannot be assumed that the correlation proves causation" (Muhammad, 1997, p. 101). The nature of the force used is a significant causal trigger that predisposes officers to an excessive use of force, further highlighting the need to examine the relationship between psychological triggers and criminological theories in determining the cause of police brutality.

Empirical Research

The trend in empirical research is to consider the stress–police brutality relationship within stereotypical models, which limits the outcome of research to the obvious answer that stress causes police brutality. Manzoni and Eisner (2006) raised the question whether stress actually causes abuse of power or whether police officers are attracted to excessive use of force, which in turn emphasizes the need to further consider the correlation between psychological theories and stress. The focus of the current analysis was to evaluate the complex causal factors within the stress–police brutality relationship and highlight the point at which distinctions need to be made between the fact that while a link exists between stress and the use of force Manzoni and Eisner

(2006), the separate issue of causality between the two needs to be examined from a criminological perspective. The concern regarding links between stress and police brutality has become a significant focus of the debate within the police brutality–stress model utilized as a basis to justify the implementation of training and policy objectives. In the training context, Manzoni and Eisner (2006) proposed key criminological questions concerning the police organizational approach to addressing the stress–police brutality link:

1. What kinds of initiatives are most effective in reducing police brutality?
2. Which circumstances are most susceptible to the use of excessive force?
3. What patterns if any have been determined regarding causal triggers for the use of excessive force in practice? (Manzoni & Eisner, 2006, p. 84)

The initial objective of the study was to amalgamate a current appreciation of the link between stress and police brutality by evaluating high-profile case studies, reviewing the literature, and further utilizing criminological theory to identify problem areas (Manzoni & Eisner, 2006). The study included a discussion of theoretical and methodological issues concerning causality and a discussion of practical examples to evaluate further the nature of the link between stress and brutality, which clearly affects policy recommendations.

Social Significance of the Problem

The Justice Department statistics showed federal prosecutors are pursuing more abuse cases in which law enforcement officers allegedly used excessive force, Adams (1999) Prosecutors filed 281 such cases from 2001 to 2007, up from 224 in the previous 7

years, Adams (1999). Complaints from citizens have alerted police administrations that officers are misusing force Adams, (1999).

Hickman (2006) cited the problem and wrote, “Police management has neglected to review officers who use force too much. Of the more than 400 officers who exceeded the department’s thresholds for using force from 1998 to December 2000, only 72 were called in for review” (p. 238). Large state and local law enforcement agencies with 100 or more sworn officers received more than 26,000 citizen complaints about officer use of force during 2002. This figure resulted in overall rates of 33 complaints per agency and 6.6 complaints per 100 full-time sworn officers (Hickman, 2006).

Law enforcement officials face several issues each day relating to use of force. The dependent variable, which is the probability of the use of force at a point in time, is explained in term of enduring an essential concern, which is operationalized as coming from domestic and personal environments (Ostrom & Job, 1986). The use of force by police officers is a topic the community and the media use to place police officers on trial before the community. According to Thomas (2006), community policing is an organization-wide philosophy and management approach that promotes community, government, and police partnerships; proactive problem solving; and community engagement to address other community issues. In order for the police to have a partnership with the public, the public must trust the police. One thing that must be established to gain the public trust is for people to take seriously their role as leading citizens of their community (Thomas, 2006).

Law enforcement has the responsibility of implementing a use-of-force policy that addresses the concerns of the community and business sectors. When an incident such as

a police shooting or a use-of-force situation occurs, the department's standard operating procedures for response must immediately be put into action (Georgia POST Council, 2009). It is best when a supervising officer is on the scene and available to listen to community or family concerns and assure them that the departmental policy will be enforced and an outside agency (Georgia POST Council, 2009). For example, the Georgia Bureau of Investigation will investigate the situation to ensure the community of a fair and impartial investigation, as required by Georgia Police Officers Standards and Training Council (Georgia POST Council, 2009).

The Police Officers Standards and Training Council monitors significant events and disciplinary actions by departments and against officers. In the state of Georgia, only the Peace Officer Standard and Training Council (POST) can revoke one's license to be a police officer. Police officers can be held liable for their actions both civilly and criminally, just as a citizen can be. Officers are held to a higher standard because of their training and will be prosecuted at a higher standard.

Research Question

The research question and research hypothesis for the study were as follows:

RQ1: Does the perception of the standard operating procedures among African American and European officers differ among zones as it relates to excessive force?

H₀1: There is no statistically significant difference between African American and European officers' perception of standard operating procedures and their impact on the use of excessive force.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions of terms were employed within the research study:

Acute stressor: Acute stress is experienced in response to an immediate perceived physical, emotional, or psychological threat. The threat can be real or imagined, as it is the perception of threat that triggers the response. During an acute stress response, the autonomic nervous system is activated and the body experiences increased hormone levels (Scott, 2007).

Chronic stressor: A state of ongoing physiological arousal that occurs when the body experiences so many stressors that the autonomic nervous system rarely has a chance to activate the relaxation response. Humans were built to handle acute stress, not chronic stress. The chronic stress response occurs frequently in the modern lifestyle, when everything from high-pressure jobs to loneliness to busy traffic can keep the body in a state of perceived threat and chronic stress (Scott, 2007).

Excessive force: Excessive force by law enforcement officers is a violation of a person's rights. Excessive force is not subject to a precise definition, but it is generally beyond the force a reasonable and prudent law enforcement officer would use under the circumstances (Us Legal, 2008).

Job stress: The harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when the requirements of a job do not match the capabilities, resources, or needs of a worker (Bowers, 2006).

Operationalized: The process of strictly defining variables into measurable factors. The process defines fuzzy concepts and allows them to be measured empirically and quantitatively. For experimental research that includes the use of interval or ratio measurements, scales are usually well defined and strict (Shuttleworth, 2008).

Peace Officer Standard and Training Council (POST): Provide the citizens of Georgia with qualified, professionally trained, ethical and competent peace officers and criminal justice professionals. (Georgia POST Council, 2009).

Police brutality: A civil rights violation that occurs when a police officer acts with excessive force by using an amount of force with a civilian, that is more than necessary (Us Legal, 2008).

Social stressors: Social stressors arise through interactions within one's community and can include dating, parties, and public speaking. As with emotional stressors, social stressors are very individualized (Burrows, 2007).

Standard operating procedure: Management processes that describe chronological steps to follow and decisions to make in carrying out a task or function (Georgia POST Council, 2009).

Assumptions

An assumption in the current study was that government and public organizations would come together by involving community leaders and developing a partnership with law enforcement to solve problems of police misuse of force that affect their community. According to Frazier (2002), community disturbances resulting from the police use of excessive or deadly force continue to plague many U.S. communities. Law enforcement is an important societal function, and its effectiveness is hampered when tensions exist between the police department and the public it serves. The media and advanced technology have helped law enforcement and the community to document the incidents that occur and have become an effective tool for both sectors in preventing this issue.

A healthy relationship between the police and the community diminishes the prospect of the police using excessive force at all. Frazier (2002) noted, “One thing we have learned is that good policing practices are essential to developing community support. Other elements include trust and confidence in the administration of justice” (p.113). With community policing, the prospect of successfully dealing with the potential for violent disturbances in the community is greatly enhanced.

Scope

This study applied to small and midsized police departments in combined urban and rural communities in the metropolitan area of Atlanta, Georgia. The participants in the research study were current law enforcement officers within a police department in the metropolitan Atlanta area. I am currently employed as a police officer with the Atlanta police department and is an instructor at a local college where law enforcement officers attend. The study included the use of a convenience sample that consisted of 110 active police officers (55 African American and 55 European) from a metropolitan Atlanta police department.

Delimitations

The contentious issue regarding what constitutes legitimate force is intrinsically subjective, rendering it highly susceptible to abuse, with numerous case studies and high-profile cases exposing shocking incidences of police brutality (Williams & James, 2007). Causal triggers of police brutality have been shaped by polarized theories ranging from the psychological watchman theory to the criminological stress strain theory as key contributory factors to rising police brutality. Criminological models review the socioeconomic circumstances of the area in which officers operate as a central factor

underpinning causality of police brutality, which is further supported by statistics indicating that resisting arrest and drug-fueled crime accounted for the highest proportion of police brutality incidents (Williams & James, 2007).

Limitations

The underlying weakness in asserting that stress causes excessive use of force under the economic cause and effect model is the ignorance of the root question of causality. The cause of police brutality remains inconclusive (Smith, 2008). Recent research into the causal triggers of police brutality was shaped by polarized theories ranging from the psychological watchman theory to the criminological stress strain theory as key contributory factors to rising police brutality (Smith, 2008). The sample size of 55 African Americans and 55 European American limited the ability to generalize the results to a larger population.

Other limitations might have inadvertently biased results. Shift work, overtime, and other factors might have played a role in officers' ability to participate. Survey data were collected from law enforcement officers about the relationship between job-related stressors (leadership, policies and regulations, and climate) and the alleged use of excessive force. Data were also collected about officers' race, age, rank, and years of experience.

Another potential limitation is the participants might not have fully comprehended the scope of the problem of police stressors since they have developed coping and adapting skills. The nature of police work inherently involves high-pressure and stressful situations that involve violent scenarios requiring the use of force in a controlled

environment. The police have strict guidelines regarding when to use force, and it should only be used proportionately to achieve a legitimate purpose (Nelson, 2001).

Significance

The findings from the study are important because they might help law enforcement officers perform their job better by reducing stressors and relating to the communities they serve. The use of force by police officers is a topic the community and the media use to place police officers on trial before the community (Thomas, 2006). Community policing is an organization-wide philosophy and management approach that promotes community, government, and police partnerships; proactive problem solving; and community engagement to address other community issues (Thomas, 2006). For this community policing to happen, the public must trust the police. One thing that must be established to gain the public trust is for people to take seriously their role as leading citizens of their community (Thomas, 2006).

The Justice Department statistics showed federal prosecutors are pursuing more abuse cases in which law enforcement officers allegedly used excessive force, Adams (1999) Prosecutors filed 281 such cases from 2001 to 2007, up from 224 in the previous 7 years, Adams (1999). Complaints from citizens have alerted police administrations that officers are misusing force Adams, (1999).

The purpose of the research was to determine the impact of job-related stressors on incidents of excessive force by police officers in metropolitan Atlanta, Georgia.

The study might also assist in changing how the stressors affect African American and European police officers.

In the day-to-day operation of police work, officers are called to use force to effect an arrest, to detain of an unruly inmate, or to gain compliance from a subject. Citizens, arrestees, or inmates often complain that law officials misuse force. According to (*Daugherty 2008*), “In two-thirds of more than 5,500 incidents reviewed, police used force against African-American citizens, who comprise about 43 percent of the city’s population” (*Cincinnati Enquirer*, p.204). Law enforcement officials are authorized by law to use force if necessary.

In local government, the Police, Corrections, and Juvenile Departments all play a critical role in the use of force. Law enforcement officials’ role in addressing the use of force begins with training and creating new policies. Training should include a use-of-force continuum and departmental use-of-force policies and procedures. A standardized use-of-force policy should be applicable to all peace officers, but with elements specific to the differences among adult prisons and youth correctional facilities. The function of the police department is to enforce the laws of the state and to serve and protect the community. Juvenile and correctional facilities have to maintain the care and custody of inmates. The goals of the Department of Corrections are to reduce the likelihood that juvenile and adult offenders will reoffend by providing evidence-based practices, programs, and services that hold the offenders accountable.

Social Change

Law enforcement power is essential and should be regarded with the highest ethics and morals possible. Skogan (2004) noted, “In a democracy in which complex social problems will always place heavy demands on the police, we have an obligation to strive constantly—not periodically—for a form of policing that is not only effective but

humane and civil” (p. 103). Law enforcement officers are vested with a great deal of authority under a system of government in which authority is reluctantly granted and when granted it is sharply curtailed. Social change is relevant in essentialism and without out the laws derived from laws of society, there would not be any control of the people.

Summary

The area of inquiry for the research study involved the impact that job-related stressors have on the ability of law enforcement officers to perform their occupational duties without committing police misconduct. According to the U.S. Department of Justice Civil Rights Division, “It is a crime for one or more persons acting under color of law willfully to deprive or conspire to deprive another person of any right protected by the Constitution or laws of the United States” (18 U.S.C. § 241, 242). The issue of police brutality continues to be a major concern for both the public and the law enforcement profession (Juarez, 2004). The current study considered the multiple causal factors involved in the lifelong learning process that might contribute to police brutality. There has been significant research to determine the causal triggers for police brutality or the use of unnecessary force (Juarez, 2004).

Reasons and recommendations have been offered that might answer some of the questions regarding what triggers police brutality, yet no conclusive determination has been made and police brutality continues (Juarez, 2004). In the current study, a survey was administered to municipal, county, and state law enforcement officers utilizing the model of the European study of Manzoni and Eisner (2006), which was undertaken to evaluate the correlation between stress and police brutality.

Chapter 2 includes a review of case study examples of highly publicized accounts of police brutality in the literature. The literature review contains an evaluation of current research regarding police misuse of force, stress, and the polarized theories propounded as explanations for police brutality with a comparative analysis of Manzoni and Eisner's (2006) study. Chapter 3 describes the research methodology and demonstrates that while empirical evidence clearly supports a link between the stress strain theory and crime, stress is only one part of a complex process contributing to abusive behavior and police brutality. Chapter 4 presents the results of the study. Chapter 5 summarizes the findings of the study and offers possible recommendations for social changes and solutions for law enforcement personnel who might have difficulty coping with stress.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The literature review includes technological and traditional sources. Electronic sources consisted of peer-reviewed articles obtained from EBSCO Host databases such as Academic Search Premier, Police Government Agencies, SocINDEX, and others. Other electronic sources came from sources such as the United States Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigations, and National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executives.

The literature review provides detailed case study examples of highly publicized accounts of police brutality. The examples are essential to provide a foundation for the detailed literature review. The literature review critically evaluates current research regarding police misuse of force, police stress, and polarized theories propounded as explanations for police brutality. The focus of the latter part of the literature review is the stress strain theory with a comparative analysis of the Manzoni and Eisner (2006) study.

Case Studies

The following case study examples are compiled accounts of high-profile police brutality cases that have resulted in victim distress or death in custody. Statistically, most brutality cases occur during the course of arrest, disputes, or other events in public places (Williams & James, 2007); others occur while the victim has already been constrained or is in police custody (McCardle & Erzen, 2001). The focused case studies will provide an essential highlight of various instances of police brutality as a prelude to the literature review examining causality, which facilitates the detailed review of the empirical research carried out in the current study. The case studies will also provide the basis for

an initial observation of behavioral patterns and trends relevant to the issue of what causes police brutality.

High-Profile Police Brutality Incidents

This analysis of high profile police brutality incidents will attempt to demonstrate if stress causes an excessive use of force through the stress strain theory.

These high-profile cases will show that further research is needed to develop and explore concepts of causality and the interrelationship between alternative theoretical models to understand the nature of the link between stress and police brutality.

Torture

An example of police brutality is the case of Officer Volpe, (August 1997). Officer Volpe mistakenly believed he had been knocked down by a man named Louima on a night out in a New York bar (McCardle & Erzen, 2001). The victim, Louima, was arrested and while handcuffed in the squad car, Officer Volpe struck Louima's face with his fists, inserted a wooden stick in his rectum, and held the stick in his face as a taunt. Louima was then tortured by Officer Volpe, who denied the incident and tried to cover up the excessive use of force. Officer Volpe was held to have violated police codes upon an investigation forced by the public outcry (McCardle & Erzen, 2001).

Asphyxia

Police brutality includes incidents of suspects who have died in custody from positional asphyxia, which is death caused by being in a position that restricts the airways (Stewart, 2005). The following are two examples of high-profile cases of asphyxia. First, Dwayne Nelson died in September 1998 from being held in a total appendage restraint procedure while being transported to jail. On the way to the hospital, Nelson lost

consciousness and died. Second, in January 1999, Danny Dunn was arrested for public drunkenness and placed in a padded cell. Three officers entered the cell, one sprayed him with pepper spray and one placed his foot on Dunn's chest and applied a choke hold. Dunn was then dragged into the hallway, where the choke hold was repeated and his stomach stamped on many times. He died within minutes, yet the police took him to the hospital 6 hours later. The autopsy found that Dunn had suffered from a torn liver, three rib fractures, and a skull fracture as a result of the torture; the official cause of death was given as accidental (Stewart, 2005).

Peaceful Demonstration

In 1997, students at the University of California engaged in the nonviolent occupation of a university building in Berkeley and were beaten by the police. The police struck the students with batons as they were lying on the ground and sprayed them in the face with pepper spray at close range. Two students suffered severe asthma attacks and many suffered injuries (Stewart, 2005).

Racial Profiling

On March 3, 1991, Rodney King was pursued by Los Angeles police officers for refusing to pull his car over and stop (Stewart, 2005). They had been chasing him 8 miles when he finally stopped. Sergeant Koon ordered four officers to jump on King and subdue him. King appeared intoxicated to the officers and was very strong; he escaped from the officers and began to fight with the police. The police said King gave the appearance of being on PCP. Koon fired two volleys of electronic darts into King, who got up to run in the direction of Officer Powell. The officers then began to attack King. King suffered numerous injuries during the attack. He was hit with batons between 53

and 56 times over a period of 3 to 4 minutes. The bones holding his eye in its socket were broken and he suffered 11 broken bones at the base of his skull. Police reports concerning the incident were falsely reported in an attempt to cover up the excessive use of force (Stewart, 2005).

The Los Angeles Police Department downplayed the injuries to King, and Sergeant Koon reported King felt no pain, whereas King's friend in the car said he could hear King screaming as officers detained him (Stewart, 2005). The California Highway Patrol was so shocked by the incident that they took note of the officers' names. The police argued that King resisted, but a videotape clearly demonstrated a different story. A lieutenant supported Sergeant Koon's information regarding other people in the car and a minimal use of force, highlighting a culture of police cover-ups and organizational sanctions of police brutality endemic in the police force (Stewart, 2005).

While the preceding four cases of police brutality occurred in four completely different sets of circumstances, the consistent thread of each scenario includes a lack of victim resistance, confounding academic presumptions regarding police brutality cases (Stewart, 2005). The Rodney King case is representative of Friedrich's (1980) three attributes of trust, respect, and power in white-collar crime. First, the officers of the Los Angeles Police Department had an obligation to perform their jobs with honor and integrity. The officers engaged in the beating violated the implied trust. In later statements made by King, he said "I fear the police, I fear them" (Berger, 1991, p. 111).

The Los Angeles police officers further abused their power as representatives of the law, because brutalizing the public in a free society is a clear example of abuse of power (Quinn, 2004). Police are given special powers and therefore, moral integrity was

compromised. While legitimate force is an implied power associated with the police role, the case study examples were excessive, which is further highlighted by the fact that the case studies demonstrate a trend whereby the suspects were restrained and did not pose a threat to officers (Smith, 2008).

In the King case, the Los Angeles Police Department officers involved violated Title 18 of the United States Code Section 242, Criminal Liability for Deprivation of Civil Rights (Geller, 2006). Officers Powell and Koon were heard on the police radio after the beating calmly joking about the beating as if it was normal. Officer Powell was further heard making a racial slur, stating, “It was right out of Gorillas in the Mist” (Berger, 1991, p. 74). Officer Powell then stated, “Oops, I haven’t beat anyone this bad in a long time” (Berger, 1991, p. 274). Officer Koon was heard stating, “Just had a big time use of force. . . . Tased and beat the suspect of CHP pursuit, big time” (Berger, 1991, p. 111).

Case Study Review: Patterns of Police Behavior

The preceding cases have a recurring theme of the victims being unarmed, and none of the victims were involved in any activity justifying the use of excessive force. A few of the victims had already surrendered or were in custody (Reti, 2005). Another similarity in the police brutality cases is that officers chose victims who did not fight back. Those with the least risk of detection indicated a propensity toward enjoyment of the abuse of position regardless of any stress strain involved, thereby further supporting the working personality and watchman theories. In the majority of cases, the police brutality has been directed toward minorities, the poor, political dissidents, and members

of the counterculture (Smith, 2008), highlighting a pattern of violent behavior unrelated to any stress or circumstance-related resistance.

Literature Review

The case studies provide an important starting point for the literature review. First, the consistent thread in the case studies indicated resisting arrest was not an operational factor (Irwin, 2005). It could be argued that these case studies were one-off incidents that attracted media attention and are not representative of any widespread problem (Lawrence, 2000). Such an argument would support the working personality theory propounded from the psychological perspective.

Accepting such a theory as conclusive would undermine the significant empirical data that demonstrate that stress triggers play a part. The relationship between polarized psychological and criminological perspectives must be considered in future research to determine the interrelationship between both propounded theories (Friedrich, 1980). According to the psychological watchman perspective, police brutality is committed by a few rogue officers (Friedrich, 1980). “Police work is likely to attract at least some individuals who enjoy bullying others or joined the force with the intention of exploiting special opportunities to enrich themselves” (Friedrich, 1980, p. 75). While a central theory exists for explaining police brutality, which is supported in part by the factual circumstances of the case studies above, the explanation is far too dogmatic as a conclusive explanation of police brutality and ignores cogent empirical evidence to the contrary.

Alternatively, the intrinsic flaw of finding an all-encompassing theory to explain police brutality might be the fact that a police force contains many personality types

(Smith, 2008). In addition to considering the interrelationship between stress strain theory and the watchman theory, consideration is given to categorizing police officer types as a starting point for the current empirical research.

Psychologists examined the physiological profiles of certain officers at risk of abuse of power in the use of excessive force and indicated the wide range of profiles discovered did not support Friedrich's bad apple stereotype (Manzoni, 2006). Some theories point toward a personality trait that makes some officers more susceptible than others to using excessive force, which highlights the broad range of circumstances covered by the subject. In one study, police psychologists surveyed officers who had used excessive force (Williams & James, 2007). The information obtained allowed researchers to develop five types of officers, and only one of the types was similar to the bad apple stereotype. The types included personality disorders, previous traumatic job-related experience, young and inexperienced or macho officers who learn inappropriate patrol systems, and officers with personal problems. The individual behavioral and personality differences are only part of the explanation, which also includes stress. Other reasons are the structural organizational practices of the police departments in which officers work (James, 2007).

The case studies demonstrated a consistent pattern of the police culture facilitating abuses of power (Smith, 2008). The organizational practices of the Los Angeles Police Department were partly to blame in the assault of Rodney King (More, 2008). At an organizational level, the literature review demonstrated that police brutality can be attributed to behavior learned by officers due to the department's policies (Smith, 2008).

The peer group of an officer has a direct effect on what an officer learns and how the officer will act. Young officers enter the force and experience a resocialization process (More, 2008). Through this process, some feel their police academy experiences were only rites of passage and that the training learned there is irrelevant to learning what they need to know in action (Smith, 2008).

According to (Smith, 2008), young officers in particular often learn from senior officers and from their field training officers (Smith, 2008). This perpetuates the entrenched cyclical culture of abuse of power. Therefore, more experienced officers teach the abuse of power to younger officers (Williams & James, 2007), which further highlights the interrelationship between Friedrich's (1980) watchman theory and organizational theory facilitating such working personality tendencies in practice.

The policy for the Los Angeles Police Department officers was that they were encouraged to hit suspects with their batons if suspects resist arrest (Smith, 2008). This policy then left it up to the subjective judgment of the officer to decide what level of force is needed to arrest a suspect. Most of the tactics used by the officers beating King were deemed to involve the proper use of force techniques (Fitzgerald, 2006). Civilian overseers of the Los Angeles Police Department had changed a policy to make the baton a tactic of first resort instead of the choke hold (Smith, 2008). The way the new policy was implemented made the baton a tool of aggression instead of self-defense. Chief Gates attempted to modify the policy, but was ignored, leaving a wide gap in police use of force concerning the baton (Smith, 2008).

Organizational influences play a large role in the effective implementation of administrative policies and human resource components. According to Scrivner's (1995)

five profiles, the police organization plays a key role in turning at-risk officers around or allowing them to become more deeply rooted in their bad habits. Another element that should be considered when searching for the causes of wide-ranging police brutality is the social disorganization theory. The social disorganization theory pertains to the police culture as a whole and its inability to address the excessive use of force as a crime adequately (Quinn, 2004).. Prosecution of abusive officers is uncommon, because officers will not testify against other officers who they knew utilized excessive force, demonstrated by the case studies (Quinn, 2004).

Officers are also likely to internalize powerful subcultural norms such as loyalty to other officers. Officer loyalty tends to discourage officers from cooperating with investigations of fellow officers (Friedrichs, 1996, pp. 142-143). This practice, called the code of silence, has impeded the proper prosecution of offenders and further hampers research into causality (Quinn, 2004). By not holding fellow officers accountable for their crimes, police organizations condone inadequate discipline (Quinn, 2004). There is also a distinct lack of procedure for handling excessive force complaints against officers (Quinn, 2004). Quinn observed the Los Angeles Police Department's lack of procedure resulted in (a) discouraging citizens from filing complaints, (b) filing complaints but not substantiating them due to a lack of inadequate resource investigative procedures, and (c) imposing inadequate sanctions on offending officers as a deterrent and as a message that their behavior was improper.

Officers have no fear of punishment because there is not an adequate system of procedure in place. If officers are punished, they have a multilayered appeal process through which punishment can be lessened (Quinn, 2004). The lack of complaints and lax

internal regulations further hinder the efficacy of empirical research into police brutality (Smith, 2008). While stricter internal penalties are clearly important, such a predictable reaction inherently relies on enforcement and compliance in practice, which in turn fails to address police culture and causality.

Stress Strain Theory

Introduction to Stress Theory

Stress has been cited as a significant causal trigger for the excessive use of police force, but too few empirical studies exist to conclusively justify the link. This section includes an evaluation of the cumulative influences of work-related stress, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and burnout on the use of police brutality by developing the arguments raised earlier. The study of theory in this section utilizes an integrated approach, providing a comparative analysis between the results of Manzoni and Eisner (2006), which was the model for the current empirical research, and the evaluation of the problem for the current study. First, similar to Manzoni and Eisner (2006), I adopted an integrated approach developed by including the participating officers' routine activities (hereafter referred to as job profile) and victimization experiences as two situational controls and by capturing a continuum of self-reported force used in typical operational studies.

Manzoni (2006) noted that no significant relationship exists between the use of force and work stress and used multivariate analyses equation models to demonstrate that no stress-related factors influenced the amount and level of force used by officers. This conclusion is further supported by the patterns demonstrated in the case studies, highlighting background factors to the stress strain theory in the context of the watchman

theory. The case studies indicated a need to review categorization and the development of Scrivner's (1995) profiling further. It was further evidenced that the job profile remains the only predictor of police use of force, and victimization is strongly correlated with the use of force (Manzoni, 2006).

The authors of a growing body of research have examined various sources, correlations, and consequences of police job stress (Anshell, 2000; Biggam, Power, MacDonald, Carcary, & Moodie, 1997; J. Brown & Campbell, 1990; G. Brown, Fielding, & Grover, 1999; Violanti & Aron, 1995). Researchers (Finn & Esselmann Tomz, 1996; Gershon, 2000) also indicated that police officers working in stressful conditions tend to suffer high blood pressure, increased smoking and drinking habits, and marital problems. Continued exposure to high stress might have negative effects on both a police organization and the quality of police work, as officers might have higher than normal rates of absenteeism or receive more frequent citizen complaints, thus jeopardizing community relations.

One possible correlate of the work-related stress of police officers is excessive aggression and the use of force (Gershon, Lin, & Li, 2002). The literature review demonstrated two polarized causal chains as an explanatory theory for police brutality based on the influence of stress (Gershon et al., 2002). First, experiences of violence, including both victimization and the use of force, might be conceived as sources of stress for police officers (J. Brown & Campbell, 1990, 1994). Second, stressed and burned out police officers are more likely to resort to the use of force to accomplish their duties (Kop & Euwema, 2001).

The bulk of pertinent empirical studies examined the use of force and suffering from force as stressors, and very little empirical research has addressed the issue of whether stress itself might be the influential causal factor on the extent of police use of force (Manzoni, 2006). The concept of stress being a causal factor is also in line with the criminological strain theory, which asserts that subjectively experienced strain is a consistent predictor of aggression among young men (Agnew, 1992; Mazerolle, Burton, Cullen, & Evans, 2000; Paternoster & Mazerolle, 1994).

Very few researchers directly addressed the specific issue of stress-induced police brutality. Bornewaser, Eckert, and Willems (1996) and Maibach (1996) examined the effects of police violence on foreigners in Germany by undertaking a qualitative analysis. The cumulative effect of their results indicated that police violence was associated with the extent of stress and frustration among officers based in primarily urban areas suffering from high crime rates, prostitution, and drugs (Maibach, 1996).

The case studies and Friedrich's (1980) theory taken in context of the watchman model undermine the proposition that the stress theory is a conclusive explanation of police brutality. Two possible conclusions lead to two different groups of police brutality offenders: those with increased stress levels and those who fall into the watchman category.

Manzoni and Eisner (2006) noted it is not entirely conclusive that the two groups discussed by Scrivner (1995) are actually different as the foundation utilized to determine brutality is the responses given, which are inherently limited due to the variances in motivation for answers given (Garner et al., 2002). Violanti and Aron (1995) observed that the empirical research on combating stress triggers demonstrates a reduction in

police brutality (the significance of which is questionable) as opposed to “complete cessation” (p. 94).

Junger-Tas and Marshall (1999) noted that a major analytical challenge facing the efficacy of studies of different treatment models is the fact that the research samples often comprise “well motivated people who have reached a stage in their career where they want to improve or do not want repercussion” (p. 123). Accordingly, it is problematic to reliably attribute any resulting reduction in police brutality in light of the inherent motivation of the sample (Junger-Tas & Marshall, 1999). Notwithstanding the consistent problem of the motivated sample and self-reporting methods, the results of the studies (motivated sample and self-reporting methods) indicate that stress is one of many possible causal factors for police brutality.

In the context of the debate regarding the correlation between stress and police brutality, the conclusiveness of the model as an encompassing explanation of police brutality can be refuted emphatically. Kop et al. (1999) conducted a quantitative analysis in relation to stress and the influence of burnout on police officers’ self-reported use of force among a sample of 358 Dutch police officers. The results of the study indicated that burnout led to increased incidences of use of force. Moreover, officers demonstrating stronger symptoms of burnout demonstrated a positive attitude toward the use of violence, which further supported the findings of a Canadian police study linking stress with police brutality (Stearns & Moore, 1993).

A review of the self-report method to measure police use of excessive force demonstrated a wider range of situations in which force may have been used (Junger-Tas & Marshall, 1999). The approach also overcomes some of the limitations of previous

strategies in criminological reports for measuring police use of force in the United States (Garner et al., 2002). For example, researchers often analyzed official sources such as police records and use-of-force complaints, which are inherently limited as they only relate to incidents that have been reported and do not represent the wider range of incidents involving excessive police force (Brandl et al., 2001; Lersch, 1998).

A study on police use of firearms and deadly force by Geller and Scot (1993) only related to a small range of events in which excessive force is used. Some researchers limited the scope to one type of situation in police work, such as arrests (Garner et al., 1996, 2002; Kavanagh, 1997), which again excludes other incidents of excessive force. Although Adams (1999) purported that force is mainly used in arrests, force evidently occurs in other operational police situations such as identity and traffic checks and domestic violence. A consistent theme in previous research was to ignore the victimization of police officers as a causal factor that might be interdependent with the use of force, thereby ignoring an important consideration of both sides of violence (Alpert & Dunham, 1999; Garner et al., 1996; Terrill, 2000). By including a detailed measurement of the extent to which police officers are the targets of violence, Manzoni and Eisner (2006) were able to more adequately examine both the extent to which victimization and use of force are interrelated and the role of victimization as a stress source and noted this approach should be developed further in future research.

None of the existing studies took into account an examination of the pattern of routine police officer activities as a crucial factor, thereby focusing on isolated incidents limited by reports and failing to compare other circumstances in which police officers utilize force as a vital part of the current study (Brandl et al., 2001). Manzoni and Eisner

(2006) noted, “To limit a study to relatively homogenous groups of police officers is not sufficient, as there may still be intra-group variation regarding frequency with which officers perform activities holding a potential for conflict, such as arrests or identity checks” (p. 78). These activities were defined as the police officers’ job profile. Officers’ job profiles and victimization were included as situational controls to avoid spurious relationships between stress-related variables and the use of force in carrying out the research. From a theoretical perspective, when analyzing police use of force some researchers have distinguished between excessive force and the legitimate exercise of force as part of specific rights granted to the police (Skolnick & Fyfe, 1993; Worden, 1995). “The distinction between legitimate and illegitimate use of force may not be analytically useful for several reasons” (Manzoni & Eisner, 2006, p. 132). First, the significant limitation of research in this area of illegitimate use of force is the fact that very few police brutality cases are tried in courts or result in conviction (Terrill et al., 2003).

Second, data such as narratives of complaints indicate that the definition of what constitutes excessive force is highly contested, fueling a polarized debate “with different participants telling different stories of the events leading to the use of force” (Manzoni & Eisner, 2006, p. 98). The debate renders it virtually impossible to attempt to classify controversial cases of use of force based on inherently incomplete information. Third, many pertinent cases are the result of a situational escalation resulting from an initial conflict that ends with the police officer using force that might be within the limits of legality and legitimacy, for example the arrest of a resisting suspect, which highlights the subjectivity of what constitutes excessive force (Terrill & Mastrofski, 2000).

The empirical research of the current research study and the Manzoni and Eisner (2006) study indicated that it might be worthwhile to consider how alternative means of handling the situation might have been helpful to determine whether patterns of behavior support the correlation between stress and police brutality. In focusing on whether a specific isolated incident of police force is excessive or disproportionate, the wrong question is being asked, which might limit the usefulness of any related study. It might be necessary to consider individual police officers, the factors influencing their use of force, and the interrelationship between the variances in use and the socioeconomic circumstances (Violanti & Aron, 1995).

The current study involved the premise that the extent to which force is used will invariably differ among individual factors, and it is precisely the interrelationship between these variances that must be considered. In utilizing the criminological approach as a starting point, there are two broad groups of factors.

The first factor, the situational factor, relates to variations in a contextual approach beyond the individual officer concerned. The external factor considerations include exposure to conflict-prone situations such as police patrols in inner-city areas, professional duties susceptible to the use of force such as arrest, and frequency of encounters with aggressive individuals (Binder & Scharf, 1980; Garner et al., 2002; Terrill & Mastrofski, 2002).

The focus of the second group of factors was on individual influences (Manzoni & Eisner, 2006). These factors consider variability in the manner in which police officers react when confronted with similar situations. Even under conditions of high professionalism and institutional guidelines, police officers will clearly vary in how they

react to situations and the variance can occur for a multitude of reasons, including different levels of stress, dissatisfaction, noncommitment, and burnout.

Stress and Strain Theory: Research Study and Review

The problem of the current study required an evaluation of the link between stress and police brutality. It was vital as a part of the conceptual framework to highlight the dichotomy between psychological theories and criminological theories. This section includes further development of the criminological stress strain theory introduced in the previous section through a review of the literature in this area. Situational controls pertaining to the stress theory were considered a causal trigger in police brutality. The section shall then be utilized as a basis from which to formulate findings in chapter 4.

The concept of violence caused by stress is the underlying foundation of the strain theory (Merton, 1957). Agnew's general strain theory "has been the most significant recent contribution to this perspective" (Manzoni & Eisner, 2006, p. 66). The general stress strain theory posits that an individual's affective reactions to strains foster deviant behavior (Agnew, 2001). The general strain theory argues that exposure to strains (or stressors) contributes to different deviant adaptations that result in negative feelings, including anger and frustration (Alexander, Walker, Innes, & Irving, 1993). As such, the general strain theory is propounded in criminological theories as the psychological explanation linking stress with deviance. The general strain theory is further rooted in presumptions of three broad categories of situations in which individuals might experience subjective strain (a) when they fail to achieve goals that they value, (b) material success, and (c) losing something to which they assign a positive value and they experience adverse events (Burton, Cullen, & Evans, 2000, p. 214).

Individuals exposed to strain will cope with it in different ways, including delinquency and crime. If reaction to strain entails negative feelings, in particular anger or frustration, a deviant adaptation is more likely (Agnew, 2001). Forms of deviant adaptation include retaliation, escapism, and instrumental adaptation (Agnew, 2001). The general strain theory conceives of violence as a form of deviant adaptation toward pressure created by negative emotions.

The conception of the research is based on similar assumptions from the psychological stress theory as developed in occupational health research (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Maslach, 1998). Lazarus and Folkman and Maslach analyzed characteristics of work and the working environment, workers reactions to the strains, and health outcomes related to long-term exposure to job stressors.

The first conceptual approach involved conceiving of occupational stress as a process in which a negative state emerges when workers perceive a stressor as taxing, exceeding, or otherwise threatening their resources to cope effectively with it (Lazarus, 1999). Depending on personality traits, the type of stress, and the individual's coping resources, perceived stress might evoke maladaptive health responses, including psychological depression and burnout or behavioral responses (Shirom, 2003).

Behavioral responses emphasize an individual's exposure to stress in terms of critical work events, such as being laid off, but also in terms of minor work events, such as reprimands. As with most occupational stress research, the first approach focuses on chronic stress, which entails enduring stressful demands of the work environment, whereas the second approach focuses on acute stress responses after extreme stimuli (Meyer et al., 2002).

Both kinds of stress have an impact on workers' psychological and physical health if not handled in an adaptive manner. Coping abilities and personality traits might influence the relationship between the various sources of stress and stress feelings as well as the relation between stress feelings and stress reactions. Although these mechanisms are certainly important for understanding the stress–violence connection, the focus of the current research study was evaluating empirical research into direct and indirect influences of perceived stress feelings on police use of force. In particular, reference is made to the Manzoni and Eisner (2006) study as a comparative model for consideration of the overall problem. It is important to focus on the direct effects of perceived stress on the use of force as well as on the indirect effects mediated by job dissatisfaction, noncommitment, and burnout.

Existing research on police work distinguishes between job-related stress and organization-related stress (Brown & Campbell, 1994). Job-related stress originates in the everyday running of police operations, including the risk of involvement in violence, time pressure, or the responsibility for actions. Organization-related stress stems from the organizational characteristics of the police organization, such as inadequate leadership, insufficient resources, lack of communication across the police hierarchy, or lack of career opportunities (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Organizational features are also associated with chronic stress as a result of their persistent occurrence, whereas job-related features may pertain more to acute stress (Shirom, 2003).

Organizational factors such as reprimands might also trigger acute stress, and most operational duties might cause chronic stress due to their routine occurrence (Shirom, 2003). Additionally, the literature review indicated many previous studies

concluded that organizational factors contribute more to the extent of perceived stress than job-related factors did (Alexander et al., 1993; Biggam et al., 1997; Brown & Campbell, 1990; Collins & Gibbs, 2003). With regard to the consequences of stress, work stress appeared to have both direct and indirect influences on use of force by the police. Increased perceived stress might directly affect the way a police officer handles difficult situations with civilians, possibly increasing the odds of using force (Shirom, 2003). A number of variables might mediate the relationship between perceived stress and use of force. If perceived stress is not dealt with positively for a long period, negative consequences on attitudes toward work in general could result (Anshell, 2000; Farber, 1983; Leiter, 1993).

The current empirical research might demonstrate a pattern of negative consequences such that stress causes excessive force and the misinterpretation of the standard operating procedure by officer from different zones is a problem and it is important in determining a cause to help officer and the community in their daily interaction. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are distinct but closely related dimensions of overall work-related attitudes whose influence on the use of force was examined (Manzoni & Eisner, 2006). Generally, job satisfaction refers to the extent to which an individual is content with a job and the cognitive evaluation of job characteristics, such as collaboration with workmates or supervisors, working conditions, or features of the workplace (Neberger & Allerbeck, 1978). Organizational commitment has been further defined by the degree of involvement in the police organization (Mowday et al., 1982). Regarding the use of force, Brandl et al. (2001) purported that officers who feel less satisfied with and committed to their work may be more inclined to

interact with citizens in a moody, short-tempered manner, provoking adverse reactions in the public, which in turn renders the use of force more likely.

Emotional exhaustion denotes the feeling of being emotionally depleted by contact with citizens (Burke & Richardson, 2000). Depersonalization refers to negative and cynical attitudes and feelings toward citizens. Depersonalization perpetuates negative evaluations of the self and work with citizens, which leads officers to perceive themselves as inefficient to work and facilitating practical negative consequences (Burke & Richardson, 2000).

Burnout feelings are of particular importance in the context of police work, as officers who have frequent contact with challenging citizens are more susceptible to being emotionally exhausted and developing cynical attitudes (Burke, 1989), which lends itself more easily to the use of force against persons perceived as impersonal objects. Officers who are emotionally exhausted and lacking energy are less likely to handle citizens' problems in a constructive manner (Kop et al., 1999). Accordingly, officers demonstrating higher levels of burnout are more likely to resort to violence as a means of conflict resolution and are less likely to solve a conflict situation through their verbal skills (Engel, Sobol, & Worden, 2000). The literature review demonstrated that perceived work stress, job dissatisfaction, noncommitment, and burnout are clearly interrelated (Brandl et al., 2000). Although job dissatisfaction and noncommitment represent a rather immediate stress consequence, burnout marks the end of a long process of a lack of coping with perceived stress and therefore represents a long-term consequence (Burke & Richardson, 2000; Shirom, 2003), which further underlines the different and complex

nature of the wide range of circumstances covered by the concept of stress as an operational factor in causing police brutality (Manzoni & Eisner, 2006).

A central hypothesis of research (Mazoni & Eisner, 2006) study showed increased levels of perceived stress result directly in an increased use of force (the direct stress effect), which supports the criminological strain theory. The stress strain theory might be a significant factor related to many other causal triggers contributing to police brutality.

Indirectly, job dissatisfaction, noncommitment, and burnout, which are all negative outcomes of stress and mediated stress effects, highlight the need for an integrated approach to the relationship between stress and police brutality.

For example, the aforementioned factors played a significant role in the Manzoni and Eisner (2006) study, which found that burnout, dissatisfaction, and noncommitment issues were a consistent theme in the development of the stress strain theory. However, when considering the alternative watchman theory, if a police officer is predisposed to a bullying working personality, then the stress triggers will arguably perpetuate the risk of police brutality (Gershon & Scott, 1992).

Research Study Focus and Review of Situational Controls

In considering the empirical research aspect of the problem, it was vital to take into account the routine activity argument, which states that individuals differ in the extent to which they are exposed to situations of aggression and violence (M. Felson & Cohen, 1980). It is important to examine the effects of perceived stress relating to excessive force, policies and procedures and zones in which the officers patrol. The aspects of the daily routines of police officers are being accounted for and that the research is inherently limited on these grounds. It was also be necessary to distinguish

between two important aspects of daily routines: the job profile and the responsibilities involved in taking account of situations such as where police officers are confronted with violence (making arrests and identity checks).

The second situational control referred to the extent of victimization of police officers. The threat of victimization or actual victimization might relate to the use and amount of force. Manzoni and Eisner (1996) noted, "The way in which police use of force or victimisation are related to each other is clearly complex" (p. 101).

In accordance with existing research addressing the issue, two types of violence exercise mutual influence on each other (Alpert & Dunham, 1999; Binder & Schard, 1980; R. Felson, 1984; Terrill, 2000). Victimization represents an important source of stress for police officers (Brown et al., 1999). In severe cases, police officers might even suffer from posttraumatic stress disorder with symptoms of intense fear, helplessness, or horror (Stratton, Parker, & Snibbe, 1984).

A theoretical model of the direct and indirect effects of stress on police use of force is representative of the first hypothetical theoretical model propounded in the Manzoni and Eisner (2006) study of police use of force in which officers who feel more job-related and organizational stress are less satisfied with their job and more likely to display symptoms of burnout, which are the situational controls. As such, burned-out officers are likely to use force more frequently (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). As job dissatisfaction and lack of commitment are more direct stress consequences than burnout, which is symptomatic, a direct correlation was found between the negative relation of job satisfaction and commitment and the three

subdimensions of burnout, which presumably takes longer to develop and is caused by chronic stress (Manzoni & Eisner, 2006).

As a control variable, officers' job profile was expected to have a positive effect on both the use of force and victimization (Bollen, 1989). As police officers more frequently perform activities that hold potential for conflict, they will become more likely to use force or be a victim. A conflict-prone job is also assumed to increase both kinds of perceived stress and to contribute to higher levels of burnout as burnout is related to intense interactions with citizens (Burke, 1989).

Community Policing

Community policing has improved law enforcement by bringing the community and the police together for a common goal. Community policing helps the community and businesses come together and share information about law enforcement to the community, while also giving the business and philanthropic sectors an opportunity to voice their opinion on ideas to improve the community. Community policing gives law enforcement and the community the opportunity to view each other from a different perspective, and also gives law enforcement the opportunity to implement information and gather reflective learning processes to generate insights that help other in the community (Skogan, 2004).

Through a decrease in crime, acceptance from the community, and good neighborhood watch programs, community policing will bring about social change, which reflects the business and philanthropic sectors in a positive manner. In order for the community policing program to become part of the organizational policy and be implemented, the city manager should be approached and asked to present the research to

the mayor and city council for consideration. The pragmatic steps needed to accomplish this goal would be the use of slides and PowerPoint presentations, a financial plan, and a detailed proposal describing why the program would be useful in the organization.

Community policing and the privatization of law enforcement services are the theoretical revolution that has changed the face of law enforcement. According to Skogan (2004), long before the turn of the 20th century, San Francisco had a posse of private police officers patrolling the streets. “Back in the 1870s, they were effectively vigilantes; by 1935, they had become a bit more controlled in their behavior and won official recognition in the City Charter, they’re called patrol specials” (Skogan, 2004, p. 100). Until the community policing program was adopted, San Francisco police had to deal with this situation as the business sector had chosen to use private officers to patrol their neighborhoods and businesses. The community believes this allows for a faster response to critical situations, and high visibility, having officers readily available all the time (Skogan, 2004). Community policing programs have been accepted by the community and local law enforcement in pushing the new framework into existence. Community policing gives law enforcement and the community the opportunity to view each other from a different perspective (Skogan, 2004).

Community policing gives law enforcement the opportunity to share information and gather reflective learning processes to generate insights that help others in the community. Privatization services through community policing have led to decreased crime and provided a proactive attitude toward deterring crime, as opposed to the traditional proactive response by local law enforcement. The privatization services also added high visibility to neighborhoods, increased visibility to the merchant areas, and

provided additional manpower, which aided local police without increasing the tax base pay for the increase in services (Skogan, 2004).

Most agencies in the United States use community policing. Community policing emphasizes proactive problem solving in a systematic and routine fashion. Rather than responding to crime only after it occurs, community policing encourages agencies to proactively develop solutions to the immediate underlying conditions contributing to public safety problems.

According to the U.S. Department of Justice (2008), to understand a problem, many problem solvers have found it useful to visualize links among the victim, offender, and location (the crime triangle) and those aspects that could have an impact on them, for example, capable guardians for victims, handlers for offenders, and managers for locations. Rather than addressing root causes of a problem, the police focus on the factors that are within their reach, such as limiting criminal opportunities and access to victims, increasing guardianship, and associating risk with unwanted behavior.

Police Training and Misuse of Power

Police training programs have come under fire in the face of proliferating statistics on casualties resulting from the misuse of power by police officers. The statistics on the misuse of power go against the positive trends noted in the decreasing statistics on crime in the United States. Regarding the downward trend in crime statistics, Stephens (1998) noted,

Many credit the return to community-oriented policing for the downward trend in street crime that began in 1994. This approach has worked well where it has been implemented, especially when combined with modern research techniques, such

as psychological profiling, and technologies, such as high-tech surveillance, to help anticipate and prevent crime. (p. 76)

Much credit has been given to the flexibility in policing approaches adopted by various policing systems. Stephens noted many policing systems have adopted the “problem-solving policing” (p. 63) styles that in various structures and policing paradigms have led to the dislodging of traditional rigid policing models that did not meet contemporary policing challenges. Stephens reported,

The twenty-first century has put policing into a whole new milieu—one in which the causes of crime and disorder often lie outside the immediate community, demanding new and innovative approaches from police. Most ordinary street crime involves perpetrators and victims from the same or nearby communities; thus, prevention involves closely watching and analyzing activity in the immediate area and taking action to head off problems (leading to what some call “problem-solving policing”). (p. 113)

Problem-solving policing development portends positive outcomes in organizational change in various police organizations, particularly when considering the community-based policing models are premised on and have been spurred by the shift in police training paradigms by certain police institutions from pedagogical to andragogical educational approaches.

Although much credit has been conferred regarding the adoption of the community-based policing approach of crime-fighting strategies, statistics on casualties of misuse of power by police present a grim picture for policing systems. This study component includes an examination of the disparities that might exist African American

and Caucasian officers working in different zones and their interpretation of the standard operating procedures.

The culture inculcated into police through various training matter and strategies has a significant bearing on the shaping of a police officer's self-concept, especially in relation to the rest of the society the police officer serves. Smith and Flanagan (2000) noted,

Police culture instills a sense of entitlement to power & authority over the rest of society. Training and attitudes influence individual & department response. Police training especially is designed to strip the individual's previous identity and "make" a police officer. (p. 77)

The stripping of a previous identity conveys new self-concepts for the new police officer, and without proper regulation and dissemination of policing concepts and the ideologies of human sanctity, the conceptualization and socialization processes largely articulated through the training process account for the creation of abusive police officers.

Abusiveness often results when police officers adopt misguided conceptions of power and control in the processes of internalizing the uniqueness and image given and imagined about what a police officer is. Klockers (1996) reported,

The abusive officer's entitlement to authority in society bolsters and reinforces his sense of entitlement within his personal relationships. His very presence is a symbol of authority. Officers learn to use gestures, body language, tone and volume of voice to exert their authority. The officer who batters demands respect and unquestioning obedience and deference from his intimate partner. (p. 100)

This sheds light on the vulnerability of ordinary citizens against the backdrop of manipulative police officers who misuse the powers conferred to them. The police uniform, badge, and gun are universal symbols of power and authority (King & Teo, 1997). When an individual puts on the uniform, he or she assumes the authority that goes with it. The officer expects and commands obedience and respect from the public (p. 89).

Commands obedience demonstrates the power of police training regarding how it endows bold self-conceptualization regards of oneself in the influence of conferred nuances on authority a police officer wields over the public. Such unchecked perceptions result in critical misconceptions that directly affect the way police officers will carry out their duties and also how police officers will view and relate to the members of the public, including the members in their family.

As the police personality carved in the minds of the police trainees purports to distinguish and somewhat insulate police officers from the rest of the society, Laudon and Laudon (2005) noted this often leads to the fostering of an “us versus them mentality” (p. 75). This misconception leads to an irrational and detrimental view by police trainees of themselves as the good guys, rendering the rest of society as bad.

The Police training model in the Atlanta area solely focused on the socialization of police trainees as police personalities in the conventional and traditional sense of the term. Such approaches in police training have overlooked the importance of using teaching models and ideologies that purport to enable police officers to regard fellow citizens as equals.

The Police training model in the Atlanta area has been criticized for its emphasis on procombat drilling educational frameworks that relegate the police officers' conceptions of the policing job as a service to citizens in the manner of protecting members of the societies the police officers serve.

The foregoing nuances illustrate the formidable behavioral and communicative power conferred to police officers through the training and drilling processes. Research conducted on police abuse of power indicated that many abusive officers leverage on these skills to instill fear and to intimidate and victimize members of society. There are various ways noted that point to the way in which police abuse of power stems from the kind and matter of education that police officers go through in training. The essence of this notion is that police training therefore becomes one central point from which police organizational change can be administered with regard to eliminating police brutality and abuse of power.

Diversity Training for Stress

A half a century ago, police departments began to shift from a structure in which officers were assigned to neighborhoods and grew intimately familiar with their beats to one that put officers in readily identifiable uniforms and into vehicle patrol. Police leadership instituted standards for ethical and legal conduct, moved to paramilitary command and control structures, and trained officers to appear as detached experts in interactions with citizens. However, beginning with the civil unrest of the 1960s, shortcomings in the structure became apparent, and police departments were seen as too removed from, and not racially representative of, the communities they served, and

officers were seen as being technically proficient but lacking in communications skills (Los Angeles Community Policing, 2004).

Any attempt to incorporate training within the law enforcement community must be carried out within the framework of an “adult learning environment” (Roth (2004, p. 96). Too often in the past, ethics training programs have consisted of little more than a lecture or sermon presented in a threatening and offensive tone. In such cases, officers often walk out of the classroom feeling they had wasted their time. The conscious decision should be made to treat police personnel attending diversity and ethics programs as adults, and to utilize the tenets of the adult learning process (Los Angeles Community Policing, 2004).

According to Roth (2004), the San Francisco Police Department, through its Law Enforcement Regional Training Facility, offers an array of POST-accredited courses. The philosophy is to recruit and hire instructors who are not only credible experts in their field but also have the skills to motivate and teach.

The staff at the Law Enforcement Regional Training Facility attempt to incorporate adult experiential learning into all of their programs. The training facility also adheres to the guidelines and curriculum for the POST Instructor Certification Program. The facility is also dedicated to providing practical and contemporary non-agency-specific courses that can benefit law enforcement agencies anywhere in the state. From the POST Basic Course to Continuing Professional Training and more skill specific courses, the San Francisco Police Department prides themselves on catering to the needs of the student. They have developed programs to address the safety and high-liability

issues common to all law enforcement agencies: Arrest and Control Techniques, Use of Force, and Emergency Vehicle Operations, (Skogan, 2004).

The training facility offers flexible and affordable Continuing Professional Training programs and welcomes the participation of any law enforcement agency. The San Francisco Police Department has several training facilities including Diamond Heights (classrooms and gymnasium), Lake Merced (police range), Hunter's Point Naval Shipyards, and the San Francisco Wharf (Emergency Vehicle Operations) that allow them to use a scenic and attractive environment to accomplish their learning objectives. Training is a key component in ensuring integrity and quality service from a law enforcement agency. The San Francisco Police Department remains dedicated to the highest standard of training for its own agency and other agencies that it serves (Skogan, 2004).

According to Cordner (2001), cultural diversity training is important because communities are constantly growing and changing. Police officers should be given a sizeable instruction block in cultural diversity training. New police officers should be given a certain amount of diversity training.

The training process has become a synthesized process in which diverse values, lifestyles, and even languages are melding into a police culture. Police trainers should capitalize on diverse environments when facilitating cultural diversity. Within the context of cultural diversity training, trainees should be placed in small groups with members others than their own race or ethnic background to discuss issues pertaining to race, (Birzmer, 1999).

According to Birzmer (1999), the literature review of police education, police use of force, search and seizure, arrest procedures, community policing, and diversity awareness has led to the development of the curriculum assessment instrument, and laid an important foundation for understanding the data collected at the Los Angeles Police Department. Together with the case studies, the literature reviewed established that valuable material exists in specific subject areas, but that there are two fundamental gaps in the knowledge base of the field. The first gap in knowledge is the failure to measure meaningful outcomes from police training. The behavioral outcomes and actions of officers in the field are ultimately of interest to police educators, yet work in this area is in its early stages. It cannot be said with certainty what kind of training works best for police

The second fundamental gap in knowledge in the field was highlighted by both the literature reviewed and case studies. These two tools were used to survey the state of the art in policing. Sources indicated that breaking the study's topic areas into isolated parts would produce unsatisfactory results.

The paradox of overly discrete versus overly holistic approaches seemed to demand an organizing principle. An organizing principle speaks not to a goal, for instance of crime control, but to how that goal will be achieved. The organizing principle provides operating rules. Small, seemingly insignificant decisions can be as readily guided by the principle as macro-level, comprehensive change initiatives are. The organizing principle also distills the essence of not what a police officer is, but who the officer is, both as part of an organization and on an individual level, thereby allowing for coherent decision making in any range of situations (Coderni, 2005).

The case study and literature review, personal knowledge of the researchers, provide the recommendation that there is further need for research. The Literature review showed that police agencies in 20 jurisdictions were evaluated for the applicability of their experience to the challenges confronting the Los Angeles Police Department. The 13 sites selected for in-depth review were metropolitan areas with particularly relevant lessons for use of force, search and seizure, arrest procedures, community policing, and diversity awareness. Similar to the early work of the literature reviews and case study interviews, the review showed their foray into the classrooms and written materials of the Los Angeles Police Department, which quickly corroborated the preliminary sense of a missing piece. Individual instructors and individual courses carefully described specific, technical matters (Coderni, 2005).

Some students were having difficulty understanding how each segment related to another, as well as how to apply the segments to a real-life situation. Some curricula and instructors deliberately interwove material and demanded synthesis and judgments from students. Yet, in general, there were important gaps between classroom learning and application in the field, as well as transfer of skills across subject areas, (Coderni, 2005).

Many instructors discussed their own philosophy or experiences rather than offering guides by which a Los Angeles Police Department officer should make a decision. Some form of ethos was certainly being transmitted, but it often varied among instructors and courses. These inconsistencies seemed to support a culture that could, at its crudest level, pose a liability problem for the department, (Coderni, 2002).

The corroborated findings from these departmental review and the policies and procedures gave rise to the overarching recommendation that the Los Angeles Police

Department should adopt a new concept of professionalism to provide a construct that lends coherency to its training. The Los Angeles Police Department should establish a basis for police officer standards of performance and conduct. The classroom observations and written curriculum review provided a rich source of data for more specific recommendations as well. The Los Angeles Police department review of written policies showed a need for further training in ethics, professionalism, and use of force. Reviews of material pertaining to continuing education training, also called in-service training, again included the five areas noted in the consent decree, as did their reviews of the Continuing Education Delivery Plan (CEDP), values, ethics, supervision, instructor development, and field training. Examination of roll-call training also focused on the five consent decree areas.

Birzmer (2006) reviewed the Los Angeles Police Department manual, department policies, management papers, training bulletins, and various review board reports and findings for relevant insights. Written material and classroom observation data were entered into a Microsoft Access database for purposes of analyzing summary statistics. Classroom observations were a critical source. The researcher Birzmer (2006) observed most of the courses for which police officers conducted written material reviews.

The classes observed were selected based on relevance to the topics of consent decree interest and snowball sample, question and insights from initial observations precipitated reviews of additional courses. The assessment instrument was again used to examine courses, and data were entered into the Microsoft Access database. The computer database allowed them officers to tally summary statistics about such items as

the types of teaching techniques used in a course. However, most of the data was qualitative, that is, things that cannot be counted (Birzmer, 2006).

Officers supplemented the brief statistical analysis with the in-depth process of theory building described above. The groundwork for the theory building was formulated through an intermediary analysis of our police officers course reviews, both written and observed. The policies are derived from the categories of inquiry in the assessment instrument. The categories common across topic areas included stated class objectives, instructional style, learning setting, written curriculum quality, and adequacy of resources (Lersch, 2007).

The reviews and observations enabled a deeper investigation into the following specific elements of course content: performance expectations, individual accountability and responsibility, integration of department values, context, policies, mandates, incorporation of a police professional ethics, use of the professional ethics to establish context during training, incorporation of community policing and diversity, use of community policing and diversity to establish context, tactical skills, legal standards and definitions, coverage of current topic-specific issues (like changes in demographics in Los Angeles), use of decision-making models appropriate to the topic (like the use-of-force continuum), and supervisor accountability and responsibility, (Lersch, 2007).

Police focus groups help to explore why people feel a certain way and provide insights into seemingly conflicting opinions, adding richness to other data collection efforts. The focus group stratified these groups by function and rank. The facilitators worked from customized scripts that were adapted from the individual interview instrument (Wentling, 2004). The focus group leader paired a note taker with a facilitator

in each session and attempted to safeguard participants by assuring them that comments made in the session would not be attributed to individuals, but only to groups. First, the focus group sample was small in comparison to the size of the department. Second, the focus group was not selected randomly, as a result of causes beyond the Wentling control. Wentling therefore cannot legitimately generalize findings from the focus group to the broader population of officers. Wentling instead limited themselves to drawing reasonable inferences and insights. Focus group discussions were used to gather data. Each group focused on a different aspect of the training process (Wentling, 2004).

The training coordinators discussed in-service instruction and the tension between demands for centralized and decentralized training. The senior lead officers described community policing training and its implementation within the department.

The training group sergeants and lieutenants provided insights on the adequacy and effectiveness of current training methods, curriculum development, and instructor delivery. Probation officers who graduated from the police academy less than 1 year before described their perceptions of classroom and field training, the effectiveness of instructors, and their level of preparation upon leaving the academy, (Wentling, 2004).

The field-training officers also discussed the distinctions between classroom and field training, the levels of effectiveness among field-training officers, and field-training officers' training needs. The final method of data collection was a series of individual interviews with police managers, elected officials, and community members. The interviews were semistructured. The interviewees were selected for their expert knowledge and opinion (Homes, 2005).

Cultural diversity training would have a great effect on police officers' ability to serve the community and relate to their colleagues. According to Kincaid and Horner (2007), there are seven ways to implement diversity training. The first is to establish clearly stated goals and learning objectives that relate to the mission and needs of the organization, as clearly stated goals and learning objectives are strongly recommended for all federally sponsored training, including diversity training. Do a thorough need analysis and link diversity training to needed improvements in organizational and/or individual performance, identify goals for training based on performance improvement needs, ensure training program design is consistent with top management direction and guidance, specify learning objectives in behavioral terms, and obtain employee and management support for the training goals and objectives.

Use Appropriate Training Approaches, Methods, and Materials

To be effective, training approaches, methods, and materials should consider the organization's culture, the intended audience for the training, and the nature of the diversity issues that the organization wishes to address. The specific approaches, methods, and materials should be thoroughly planned. The best practices of others should be used as benchmarks for diversity training. Police training officers should document, or have vendors document, all methodologies employed and how they support desired training outcomes. Diversity training may use a variety of methodologies including reading, lecture, discussion, case study, role-play, structured experience, or multimedia presentations (Kincaid & Horner, 2007).

Training approached should discuss individual experiences and work-related issues. If an employee needs to discuss personal issues or conflicts, he or she should seek

assistance from the agency's Employee Assistance Program. The course content and exercises should be reviewed by an experienced training official who is technically knowledgeable and skilled in identifying psychological issues that might arise during the training. Any risk concerns identified by persons in lines of authority and accountability should be addressed prior to conducting training. Pilot the diversity training first to human resource and diversity specialists and use participant feedback to modify the course. "Train the Trainer" programs can be used to facilitate consistency in agency training program delivery (Kincaid & Horner, 2007).

Provide Employees Advance Information About the Training

Consistent with an agency's authority to assign work, employees may be assigned to training on a voluntary or mandatory basis. In either case, agencies should provide advance information to employees on course content and instructional methods, attendance policy, and alternative training opportunities. Although diversity training is not required by statute or regulation, an agency may require employees to attend diversity training for the good of the service. Should an agency choose to make diversity training mandatory, the following procedures are recommended: have top management notify affected employees that the training is mandatory; tell employees the purpose of the training, what the specific course is about, and how it will be taught; have a policy for handling employee requests to be excused for workplace accommodation reasons (religious, medical, physical, etc.); and have available and tell excused employees about alternative opportunities for learning the required material (Kincaid & Horner, 2007).

Conduct Training in a Supportive, Noncoercive Environment

Law enforcement organizations must provide training in a supportive and noncoercive environment where participants may feel safe discussing workplace experiences and practicing appropriate interpersonal skills and expected behaviors. The training should incorporate the ground rules for class interaction early in the training activity, including agreement on what is permissible to discuss in class and what is not.

Ensure that training is done with proper regard for participants' privacy and constitutional rights. It is important to avoid using training methods that will induce unnecessary psychological stress. Some training programs might, out of necessity, have the potential for inducing psychological stress and yet be in the government's best interest.

The organization should provide courses that simulate stresses present in the employees' work environment, allow sufficient time for processing each learning exercise, continually monitor participant reaction, and take appropriate measures to address issues if they arise. The managers and line supervisors should attend training with the people they supervise. If employees attend training with their supervisors, both should be advised of any agency policy regarding disclosure of work-related diversity issues (Kincaid & Horner, 2007).

Use Only Experienced, Fully Qualified, Instructors

Instructors should have subject matter expertise, with demonstrated knowledge and understanding of diversity. They should also have demonstrated interpersonal skills and skills in managing group dynamics. Instructors should verify each instructor's expertise and experience with other professionals and management officials. Conduct a

prebriefing with all instructors, including substitute or subcontract instructors, to cover expected standards of service and delivery from every instructor (Kincaid & Horner, 2007). The briefing might cover course expectations, anticipated participant reactions, and the dynamics of the current workforce culture such as employment factors, outside influences, current and projected changes to on-board strength, dynamics of the changing federal workplace, reasonable accommodation issues, designation of key officials, and so forth (Kincaid & Horner, 2007).

Monitor Training Activity

Monitor training delivery to ensure proper classroom management and desired management results for the diversity training. Allow for immediate participant feedback in or outside of the classroom.

Inform participants where to direct complaints about the training program, including anonymous feedback. Respond quickly and appropriately to any complaint about the diversity-training program (Kincaid & Horner, 2007).

Training Evaluation

Agencies should evaluate the level of training success in terms of the extent to which it meets established goals and learning objectives. Specific areas of assessment include employee satisfaction, increased employee understanding of workforce diversity issues, demonstrated interpersonal skills, and appropriate workplace behaviors or improved organizational performance. The law enforcement agency should use written end-of-course evaluations to assess participant reaction, vendor and instructor performance, and the effectiveness of any participatory learning techniques (Kincaid & Horner, 2007).

The agency should revise training methods and materials, as warranted, in response to feedback from participants and instructors. Also, the law enforcement agency should consider using other evaluation methods to measure the attainment of learning outcomes, transfer of learning, and the extent to which the training contributed to improved individual and/or organizational performance (Kincaid & Horner, 2007).

The cultural diversity-training plan and program will also enhance and supplement good management practices, rather than isolate the problem. According to Homes (1998), higher contact rates combined with the negative attitudes of police and citizenry place residents of poor and minority neighborhoods at greater risk of harsh police sanctions, including extralegal abuse. Without such efforts, perception of racial bias among African Americans and other minority citizens might never disappear, even if the police officers do not harbor racial biases.

The goal of diversity training is to maximize the extent to which management's best practices are applied to all individuals, whether or not such individuals are perceived to be different by the manager or others. According to Coderni (2002), "Diversity is the differences in people that have been historically, or are currently, vowed as bases for differences in the manner in which people are treated, both in and out the workforce" (p.165). The effective implementation and sustained vitality of a diversity training program will rest substantially on appropriately trained employees at all levels. The training will need to be mandatory and multitiered, with separate modules developed for administrators, mid-level managers and supervisors, and line officers. Training methods might include in-class sessions, taped videos and other forms of media, the use of

relevant internal and external consultants, and access to other diversity resources (Kincaid & Horner, 2007).

Mid-level managers and supervisors are essential participants in the implementation of the plan. Their actions will be a significant improvement to the line officers as to whether the local police department is committed to the diversity values expressed in the plan and communicated in the training. The supervisors and managers must be able to monitor and evaluate compliance with the diversity training. There will also be a need for an evaluation of the impact of the diversity training and the department's diversity initiative on the department as a workplace and on the community as a whole.

The evaluation should measure and provide proper techniques to determine to what extent valuing diversity is incorporated into the department's plan for the community and the quality of the department's work environment (Birzer, 2003).

According to Birzer (2003), if policing is to meet the challenges of the continuing changes in technology, philosophy, communication, and social relationships, police departments cannot rest on the answers provided in the past but must seek out processes by which new problems are met dealing with diversity and race relations among the police and the community. Knowledge, methods, and skills in policing increasingly become obsolete over time. Methodologies will be sought to assist in rejuvenating learning, fostering change, and enhancing the way in which officers continually learn in the academy and throughout their careers.

Andragogy, with its emphasis on self-directed and continuous learning, the past experience of the learner and others, and the trainer as a facilitator of knowledge, is one

effective means to reengineer police training and align it with the changes required for the community policing philosophy. The central features of andragogy have the potential to meet organizational demands for cost effectiveness and value, as well as police officers' demands for relevance and autonomy (Birzer, 2003).

Stress and Racial Disparity in the Criminal Justice System

House Bill 5111 from the State of Connecticut House of Representatives (1999) created a Commission on Racial and Ethnic Disparity in the Criminal Justice System and established its duties. House Bill 5111 also requires the state police and the POST to include at least 18 hours in a basic training program and at least 4 hours in a review training program on issues concerning racial, ethnic, and cultural diversity training and classes of persons protected by state and federal antidiscrimination and hate crime laws. The California Commission on POST developed Learning Domain 42 as a training standard for the delivery of cultural diversity curriculum, which sets the standard for the current approaches used to train California law enforcement personnel in the areas of diversity and hate crimes. The following discussion contains a description of Learning Domain 42, instructional technology and design, and specific active learning strategies that help create learning environments that aid in a personal understanding of cultural diversity.

If the police service does not acknowledge the hearing-impaired, it will not train officers in sign language or obtain such experts to give a satisfactory service. If the police service does not acknowledge the physically impaired, it will not harness and use the overwhelming talent of those people and, consequently, will lose a significant proportion of the country's employment resource (Birzer, 2003).

If the police service does not acknowledge multiculturalism, it will not recruit interpreters for complaints that are not expressed in the country's main language. Differences in expression, custom, and nonverbal communication will find the police sadly ignorant and misguided. The danger is that the police service will suffer significant criticism from its own people because of its inability to celebrate diversity, challenge bad practice, and promote equitable service for all. It is natural for people to be proud of their heritage, but not to the exclusion of all others. That is nationalism, which could lead to racism or xenophobia. This is the era of diversity. Policing diversity is all about finding a happy medium for all and a harmonious way of living together respectfully and peacefully (Birzer, 2003).

Knirk and Gustafson (1986) noted that the technology of instruction uses hardware, learning theories, and procedures for structuring the learning environment to achieve desired outcomes. "Technology is a set of rational procedures. . . . [Technology is] not a collection of machines and devices, but is a way of thinking and acting" (Muffoletto, 1994, p. 25). Austin (as cited in Gardiner, 1994) proposed, "We should pay much more attention to the way the curriculum is presented and how students interact with it" (p. 41) if desired results are to be met. Much of the achievement of these desired results is the product of the technology of instructional design.

A governing board administers POST, and the board's responsibilities include the standardization of law enforcement training and the creation of minimum standards of service to the citizens of California. Funding from criminal and traffic fines provides the resources for POST to set hiring standards, officer training, leadership development, management counseling, financial assistance to support training, and statistical

information for law enforcement. An important responsibility of the commission is to set the minimum hours of training for recruits in basic police academies. Training hours in basic academies have increased to a minimum of 664, with some agency-affiliated academies requiring as many as 1,000. In addition to the pre-hiring requirement of basic POST certification, every sworn peace officer must complete 24 hours of advanced training every 2 years. California POST promotes the use of interactive approaches to train California law enforcement officers. Through the use of instructional system designs, multimedia resources, and skill training for trainers, POST has sponsored excellent training programs on a variety of topics.

Essentialism in Social Change

Laws are entities that humankind must have to maintain civil order. Rules keep society in line and provide a guide for all to follow. Laws are guided by the rules of life dating back to the biblical days. Law enforcement is given the authority to take a person's liberty for violating the laws of the land. That power is essential and should be regarded with the highest ethics and morals possible.

Law enforcement agencies are invested with a great deal of authority under a system of government in which authority is reluctantly granted and when granted sharply curtailed. The authority of police to arrest, to search, to detain, and to use force is awesome in the degree to which it can be disruptive of freedom, invasive of privacy, and sudden and direct in its impact upon the individual, and this awesome authority of necessity is delegated to individuals at the lowest level of the bureaucracy to be exercised in most instances without prior review and control (Roth, 2004).

Without laws or rules to follow, there would be chaos in society. Social change is relevant in essentialism and without the laws derived from laws of society, there would be no control of the people. When looking back on the riots of the 1990s and the civil unrest in the 1960s, order could not have been restored without guidelines to follow. Law is essential for the well-being of mankind for peace and order in everyday living.

Summary

The current study involved empirically testing whether above-average levels of force by police officers against citizens could be understood as a result of perceived work stress and related consequences while simultaneously controlling for an officer's job profile and the interdependent influence of victimization.

Officers with higher levels of victimization are expected to experience higher levels of stress (Manzoni, 2003). As victimization and use of force are expected to be mutually caused, an assumption of correlation exists and no attempt will be made to test bidirectional influences that might cause estimation problems.

A link between stress and police brutality clearly appears to exist, but it is important to empirically test whether the influences of stress triggers are above average (Manzoni & Eisner, 2006). The link between police stress and policies by zones will tie into the methodology section in chapter 3. Chapter 4 contains a discussion of the results of the study. Topics include an introduction, how data were collected, analysis of the research hypothesis, additional results, the identification of predictive measures, and a summary. Chapter 5 contains an explanation the conclusion and recommendation of this study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The area of inquiry for this research study involved the impact that job-related stressors might have on the ability of law enforcement officers to perform their occupational and daily lives without committing police misconduct. The focus of the study was on job-related stressors such as leadership, organizational policies and regulations, and departmental climate. A law enforcement officer acts “under color of law” (Juarez, 2004 p. 66), even if he or she is exceeding his or her rightful power. The types of law enforcement misconduct covered by these laws include excessive force, sexual assault, intentional false arrests, or the intentional fabrication of evidence resulting in a loss of liberty to another. Law enforcement officers have struggled with the issue of use of force or more specifically with police brutality Juarez (2004). Many citizens have made complaints about the misuse of force by law enforcement Juarez (2004). In the daily operation of police work, officers are called to use force to undertake an arrest, detain unruly inmates, or ensure individual compliance Juarez (2004). The majority of citizen complaints regarding police force have been that law officials misuse force Juarez (2004). Police stress has generally been ignored or misrepresented, which has led to police misuse of force and police suicide Juarez (2004). According to Juarez (2004), police officer stress indicates that the occupation creates psychological and physical ailments resulting in a high incidence of the misuse of force and suicide.

The nature of police work inherently involves high-pressure and stressful situations that will involve violent scenarios requiring the use of force in a controlled environment. While the police have strict guidelines when using force, force should nevertheless only be used proportionately to achieve a legitimate purpose (Nelson, 2001).

Current research into the causality of police brutality remains inconclusive (Smith, 2008). Recent research into the causal triggers of police brutality has been shaped by polarized theories ranging from the psychological watchman theory to the criminological stress strain theory as a key contributory factor to rising police brutality. Alternatively, some criminological models review the socioeconomic circumstances of the area in which officers operate as a central factor underpinning causality of police brutality; which is further supported by statistics demonstrating that resisting arrest and drug-fueled crime accounted for the highest proportion of police brutality incidents (Williams & James, 2007). It is apparent that there is a distinct lack of studies on the interrelationship between the psychological and criminological models (Smith, 2008).

Research Design and Approach

In considering a coherent and measured approach to the subject that covers a broad range of different sources relating to the topic, it was vital to adopt and implement a structured and multiple-stage strategy to produce the information needed to answer the research questions and provide a solution to the problem. This consideration was used as a starting point to formulate and develop an in-depth analysis of the complex relationship between stress and police brutality and as a basis for the empirical research. The research question and research hypothesis for the study were as follows:

RQ1: Does the perception of the standard operating procedures among African American and European officers differ among zones as it relates to excessive force?

H₀1: There is no statistically significant difference between African American and European officers' perception of standard operating procedures and their impact on the use of excessive force.

Design of the Study

The first stage was to identify the topic and clarify the parameters of the research question. The topic required consideration of whether there is a link between stress and police brutality that covers a broad range of empirical research. The research available pointed to a link between drugs and crime (Creswell, 2003). Accordingly, the research strategy was rephrased to consider the various models propounded to explain the link between stress and police brutality and further to consider the research study as a practical example of the current understanding of criminological and psychological theories. The link between the various research was vital to evaluate and formulate ideas going forward within the debate pertaining to the link between stress and police brutality.

The second stage included the use of spider diagrams to consider the relationship between the three central models pertaining to the causation of police brutality: (a) watchman theory, (b) working personality, and (c) stress strain. Mind mapping helped to develop areas of research that were followed going forward.

The research included a quantitative method. The research approach involved using a survey design method to collect data from African American and Caucasian law enforcement officers concerning job-related stressors. Following the survey design method, I collected survey data from the law enforcement officers concerning the relationship between job-related stress factors (leadership, policies and procedures, and climate) and the potential use of excessive force.

Ethical Protection of Participants

The researcher's job is to decide how to conduct research as ethically as possible (Coleman & Briggs, 2002). The current study included the following steps. First,

approval for the research project was secured from the Institutional Review Board at Walden University (02-18-10-0361376). Second, participants received a consent form detailing the purpose and reason for the study. Third, after consent forms were signed, the participants were assigned numbers to protect their identity. Fourth, to protect the rights of participants, the participants' identities, along with any personal identifiable information, were held confidential and will not be used for reason outside the scope of the research project. Upon completion of the research project, all participants received a thank-you letter. Finally, results were shared with participating individuals.

Gaining Access

It was essential to gain access to participants by “seeking approval of the gatekeeper” (Creswell, 2003, p. 184). After receiving approval from the Institutional Review Board at Walden University, participants received an introductory letter explaining in depth the reason and procedure for the study. Participants were asked to voluntarily sign a consent form indicating their willingness to participate.

Researcher's Role

As a law enforcement official in management, the researcher has participated in the preparation of the department use-of-force policy. My relationship with most of the supervisors who assist with developing policy for the agency is both social and professional. The law enforcement personnel at the department continue to seek learning experiences to increase the effectiveness of the policy for the agency. It is pivotal for a law enforcement agency to be equipped with good policy and procedures.

Law enforcement is equipped with all kinds of models and strategies for assisting society and for having good policy and procedures that help to stop officers' use of force

in the community. The principles and practices of providing good policy would provide law enforcement officials with insight on how to implement different approaches to stress, use of force, and quality policy for the agency that would improve societal impact. This experience provided the motivation for the current study.

During the research study, I served as the primary instrument for data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2003) by conducting surveys. Establishing a researcher-participant relationship is a crucial aspect in an investigation (Hatch, 2002). Although I was familiar with the setting and the people, several steps were taken to establish a researcher-participant relationship. To ensure that the research intentions were implemented effectively during the study, it was important to build trust, maintain a good relationship, respect the norms of reciprocity, and consider ethical issues (Marshall & Rossman, 2006).

The current research investigation involved establishing a researcher-participant relationship with the participating law enforcement officers by first educating the participants about the role of the researcher by fully describing the researcher's activities while in the research setting. I described what he was interested in learning about as well as the possible uses of the information that would be gathered (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). Additionally, a research-participant relationship was established by maintaining rapport and neutrality with participants throughout the study (Patton, 2002).

Sample and Population

The participants in the research study were current law enforcement officers within the College Park Police department (metropolitan Atlanta). I am currently employed as a police officer with an Atlanta police department and an instructor at a

local college where law enforcement officers attend. Therefore, the study used a convenience sample.

The convenience sample consisted of 110 active police officers (55 African American and 55 European American) from the College Park Police Department (metropolitan Atlanta). The law enforcement officers who participated in the research study represented various ranks from patrol officers to captains. Because of the researcher's relationship with the participants, the diversity of ranks added to the richness of the study.

Procedures

All subjects were given a packet of information that included a statement describing the purpose of the present study and directions for completing the demographic information and the survey. I directed the subjects to complete the form and to return their packets to the researcher.

Instrumentation

The instrument was the Police Stress Survey, located in Appendix A. This instrument is a 31-item survey that was used to investigate the importance of three choices of problem relating to police stress and excessive force. This measurement was used to investigate the extent of a variety of stressors that affected police officers.

The Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to examine job stress and excessive force among a sample of police officers who worked within a metropolitan police department in Georgia. The study was designed to examine level of stress among police officers as

stressors relate to variables of age, race, rank and gender. The results of this study did not reveal that these variables related to officer's stress level.

The pilot study was also used to establish validity of the instrument and to make any changes necessary before distributing the instrument to participants in the present study. The pilot study included 31 African American and European officers serving in various roles in a metropolitan police department in Georgia. Their cooperation was obtained through personal contact.

Data Collection

In the current study, I served as the human instrument and was involved in an "intensive experience with the participants" (Creswell, 1998, p. 184). Data were collected through surveys. The data helped to determine if stress was a trigger affecting police officer use of force and officer perception of the standard operating procedure by zones. The Police Survey of Job Related Stress survey was presented in two sections. Section A, Demographic Information, collected information from the law enforcement officers concerning their age, race, rank, and years of experience on the force. These variables were used to disaggregate the data collected. Section B, Job Related Stressors, collected information as it related to the factors of leadership, climate, and policies and regulations and the impact of these factors on the use of excessive force by law enforcement officers. The data for the impact of departmental policies and procedures on the use of excessive force were collected in Questions 5-12, the data for the impact of leadership on the use of excessive force were collected in Questions 13-23, and the data for the impact of climate on the use of excessive force were collected in Questions 24-31.

Creswell (1998) emphasized the importance of “establishing a rapport so that participants would provide good data” (p. 110), although Siedman (2006) warned that the rapport “needs to be controlled” (p. 97) to obtain good data. Siedman recommended that when researchers have a relationship with the participants, it is best to conduct interviews in a formal manner.

Data Analysis

Data analysis followed data collection. Data analysis entailed classifying, comparing, weighting, and combining material from quantitative data to extract the meaning and implications to reveal patterns (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 201).

Merriam (2002) explained that data collection and analysis in quantitative study should occur simultaneously and throughout the study. I used surveys to access information relating to job stress and police excessive force by African American and Caucasian officer by zones and their interpretation of the policies and procedures to answer the research question. Responses on the survey instrument were analyzed and the results were tabulated and categorized.

Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the methodology used in the current study. The rationale for choosing a case study tradition was presented to gain an understanding of the research method chosen and its significance in the study. One hundred and ten active police officers (55 African Americans and 55 European American) from the College Park Police Department (metropolitan Atlanta) were chosen to participate in the study.

This chapter also outlined the ethical manner in which the study was conducted to ensure the protection and confidentiality of all the participants. The procedure for conducting the study was described using recommendations by reputable authors in the field of social research. Chapter 4 will present the finding and analysis of the data for the current study. Chapter 5 contains an explanation the conclusion and recommendation of this study.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The current descriptive study involved determining how stressors manifested themselves within African American and European police officers, causing officers to use excessive force. The focus of the study was on job-related stressors such as departmental leadership, departmental policies and regulations, and departmental climate. Several demographic variables were used to understand the profile and this was guided by the research design, which included a quantitative in-depth analysis of the complex relationship between stress and police brutality by zones.

Research Instrument

The Police Stress Survey Form was used to measure the relationship between external stressors and police officer use of force. The Police Stress Survey Form has 31 questions and is used to assess the participant's agreement or disagreement with statements related to the use of excessive force in the areas of (a) impact of policies and procedures on the use of excessive force, (b) impact of leadership on the use of excessive force, and (c) impact of climate on the use of excessive force. Climate refers to the attitude and morale of the officers. The three concepts were measured using a varying number of questions of the ordinal concept as described below:

- Impact of policies and procedures on use of excessive force: eight questions using a 4-point Likert-type scale: *strongly agree*, *agree*, *disagree*, and *strongly disagree*.
- Impact of leadership on use of excessive force: eight questions using a 4-point Likert-type scale: *strongly agree*, *agree*, *disagree*, and *strongly disagree*.

- Impact of climate on use of excessive force: 10 questions using a 4-point Likert-type scale: *strongly agree*, *agree*, *disagree*, and *strongly disagree*.

Participant Scoring and Major Concepts

Scoring on the Police Stress Survey Form was completed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 14.0 computer program for Microsoft Windows. The scores for individual statements on a scale of *strongly agree*, *agree*, *disagree*, and *strongly disagree* were calculated to the participants' response score for each of the factors of job-related stressors. Effectively, the results were representative of the impact of policy and procedures, impact of leadership, and impact of climate from the survey results. These results were compared with race to see whether a significant difference exists between two races by zones the participants worked. The interval scale data generated by responses to different self-rated statements in the questionnaire were summarized using the mean, median, and standard deviation for all the variables. The scores for individual statements on a scale of *strongly agree* (SA) to *strongly disagree* (SD) were calculated to get a total score.

Adjustments or Instrument Revisions

The survey was administered according to the process outlined in the instrument manual published by Pearson Publishing Inc., the test publisher. All subjects received a packet of information that included a statement describing the purpose of the present study and directions for completing the demographic information and the survey. I provided the research participants with personal contact information.

Participants were informed of their right to not take the survey, to discontinue the survey after having started, and to not answer any questions that make them feel

uncomfortable. The informed consent statement also included contact information for the Walden IRB. I directed the subjects to complete the form and to return their packets to the researcher. All participants completed a number of demographic questions and then proceeded to the survey questions.

Participants were not required to complete the survey within a specific amount of time. At the conclusion of the survey process, I thanked all participants for their time and willingness to help. I made no revisions or adjustments to the Police Survey Form throughout the assessment administration process.

Demographic Data

The data for the study involved responses taken from 110 active police officers (55 African Americans and 55 European American). I solicited 110 participants at the police department. Although 110 local police officers agreed to participate, only 94 of the officers completed the assessment. The final sample size was 94 participants ($n = 94$).

The city is divided into four sectors for police coverage: Zones 1, 2, 3, and 4. Citizens living in Zone 1 on average are college educated with an average income of \$60,000 per year. Zones 3 and 4 are considered the low-income areas of the city. Citizens living in Zone 4 normally receive government assistance and have an average income of \$15,000 per year (US City Homes, 2010). See Table 1.

Table 1

Classification Based on Zone

Zone	(Times occurred)	%
1	47	50
4	47	50
Total	94	100

Participants completed demographic questions on the Police Stress Survey Form to develop profiles of police officers at the College Park Police Department. The demographic section on the Police Stress Survey Form included the following four independent variables: (a) age, (b) race, (c) rank, and (d) years in occupation.

Age

Ninety-four (100%) participants answered the age group section, 94 (100%) answered the rank section, 94 (100%) answered the race section, and 94 (100%) answered the years in occupation section. Age data were collected nominally. Nominal data were collected beginning with an age range of 18-25 and the last range available was 50-55. The frequency of participants falling within the 36-55 years old age category was the highest, with 31 participants (33%). The frequency of participants falling within the 50-55 years old age category was the lowest with one participant (1.1%). There is not a minimum age standard or required retirement age in the College Park Police Department, which meant the sample was representative of the target population. The frequency of age demographic data is listed in Table 2.

Table 2

Classification Based on Age

Age	Frequency	%
18 -25	20	21.3
26-35	31	33.0
36-45	31	33.0
46-55	11	11.7
Over 55 years	1	1.1
Total	94	100.0

Race

The frequency of race demographic data is listed in Table 3. Law enforcement is a male-dominated profession in the State of Georgia. Having the police department reflect the community is important for community relations and will help law enforcement agencies reduce civil disorders and racial tension in the community. The majority of the participants in this study were African American males ($n = 49$; 51.1%), European 45 participants (47.9%) were European males, making this sample representative of the target population.

Table 3

Classification Based on Race

Race	Frequency	%
African American	49	52.1
European	45	47.9
Total	94	100.0

Rank

The level of rank among officers ranged from Police Officer 1 to police sergeant. Thirteen (13.8%) participants indicated they were a Police Officer 1 (2 years or fewer in

law enforcement), 24 (25.5%) held the rank of Police Officer 2 (2–5 years in law enforcement), 55 (58.5%) had earned the rank of master officer (5 years or more in law enforcement), and two (2.1%) had been promoted to the rank of sergeant. There are more European officers with ranking positions in the department than African American where the community is majority African American. Statistical data indicated surrounding agencies in metropolitan Atlanta, Georgia, have the same problem. Rank-level demographic frequency information is listed in Table 4. Years of experience range from 1 to 20 years, with the average years of experience being 6 to 10 years listed in Table 5.

Table 4

Classification Based on Rank

Rank	Frequency	%
PO1	13	13.8
PO2	24	25.5
Master	55	58.5
Sergeant	2	2.1
Total	94	100.0

Table 5

Classification Based on Years of Experience

No. of years	Frequency	%
0-5	16	17.0
6 -10	42	44.7
11-15	32	34.0
16-20	3	3.2
Over 20	1	1.1
Total	94	100.0

Data and Statistical Methods

Participants in the research study were current law enforcement officers within the College Park Police Department (metropolitan Atlanta). A convenience sample consisted of 110 active police officers (55 African American and 55 European American) from the College Park Police Department. The law enforcement officers who participated in the research study represented various ranks from patrol officers to captains. The questionnaire was summarized using the mean, median, and standard deviation for all the variables.

The scores for individual statements on a scale of 1 to 5 were added to get a total score for each of the factors of stressors. The score was representative of the impact of policy and procedures, impact of leadership, and impact of climate from the survey results. These scores were compared with race to see whether a significant difference exists between the two races.

A small but positive correlation was identified for the independent variable of race and the participants' cumulative score on the Police Stress Survey Form, but a positive correlation indicated a relationship existed between race and excessive force within the police department. See Table 6.

A comparison between two independent groups was done using Student's *t* test for independent samples. The *t* test is a statistical method used to compare the mean of a sample to a known number, usually zero (Trochim, 2006). According to Trochim, participants are randomly drawn from a population and the distribution of the mean being tested is often considered the norm.

Table 6

Rank Summary of Mann-Whitney Test for Race Comparison

Factor and race	<i>N</i>	Mean rank	Sum of ranks
Impact of policy			
African American	49	63.66	3119.50
European	45	29.90	1345.50
Total	94		
Impact of leadership			
African American	49	26.44	1295.50
European	45	70.43	3169.50
Total	94		
Impact of climate			
African American	49	26.11	1279.50
European	45	70.79	3185.50
Total	94		

For the purposes of this study, the value of p was assumed to be .50 ($p = .50$). The number of test participants was used to calculate the value from the standard deviations and the correlations.

Reliability Analysis

It is important that the scale used to measure different concepts and constructs is reliable. There are different types of reliability, and the most commonly used measure is Cronbach's alpha, which gives a measure of internal consistency of the scale (Norman, 1989). The recommended cut-off value of Cronbach's alpha is .70. It is desirable that the Cronbach alpha is more than .70. The scale reliability or different components of the scale is computed. All the components (factors) affecting the use of excessive force have fairly adequate reliability (Norman, 1989).

For the policy and procedure factor, Cronbach's alpha was .58. For leadership, it was .68 and for climate it was .81. The overall scale reliability measure was .58. All these values are above the desired minimum value of .57 and hence the measurement scale was found to have satisfactory reliability (Norman, 1989).

Analysis Based on Research Question

The data for this study were analyzed at this point, with the responses to each survey item arranged categorically. Each set of responses per question are presented in tables to show the comparison in each set of questions on the survey. An explanation, an interpretation, and an analysis is included for each set of responses. One research question was answered in the study. The results provide a descriptive account of information generated from the Police Stress Survey Form (see Appendix) to answer the research question.

Research Question: Does the perception of the standard operating procedures among African American and European officers differ among zones as it relates to excessive force?

Response Summary

Table 7 contains the summary of the response to different scale items under impact of policies and procedures. The findings showed that there is a pattern in terms of perceived association with certain aspects of policies and procedures being associated with the use of excessive force. Focusing on three key areas of disagreeable departmental regulations are related to excessive force, job conflict (by-the-book vs. by-the-situation) is related to excessive force, and problematic administrative policies and procedures are related to excessive force, the results were unexpected based on my experience in law

enforcement. Officers responded on the survey with a very high agreement level for disagreeable departmental regulations; job conflict, problematic administrative policies are associated with use of excessive force.

The level of agreement was moderate or low when associating the use of excessive force with excessive paperwork, red tape in personnel complaint procedures, and directly bearing the wrath when complaints are made. The agreement was also low for overtime practices being associated with the use of excessive force. A mean score was used to measure central tendency by calculating the sum of all scores and dividing by the total number of scores. I analyzed the scores for the composite and five subcategories of the Police Stress Survey Form and then calculated the associated mean scores.

The cumulative mean score in this study was 1.7872. The standard deviation of scores is the average deviation from the mean. The standard deviation describes how a set of scores relates to the mean of a sample and represents a finding that is more precise than that found with a range of scores. The standard deviation for the cumulative score of disagreeable departmental regulation was .41146. The means and standard deviations of the cumulative and subtest scores are shown in Table 7.

The summary of the response to different scale items under impact of leadership style found that inadequate support by supervisor had a response of *agree* by 91.5% of police officers sampled. A similar high agreement percentage response was found for inadequate support affecting the excessive use of force. However, the responses provided were indifferent on an average for difficulty in getting along with the supervisor is affecting the use of excessive force. A very high level of agreement (97.8%) was found for inadequate supervision related to use of excessive force. Similarly, very high

agreement was also seen for use of excessive force related to being held accountable for bad decisions and self-centered and self-serving leadership. This is reflected in the mean scores (of agreement) reported in Table 7.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics Summary for All Statements

Statement	Mean		SD
	Statistic	Std. error statistic	
Disagreeable departmental regulations are related to excessive force	1.7872	.04244	.41146
Job conflict (by-the-book vs. by-the-situation) is related to excessive force	1.8936	.03537	.34292
Problematic administrative policies and procedures are related to excessive force	1.4787	.05180	.50223

Table 8 gives the response summary in terms of mean and standard deviation for different zones. In a descriptive sense, there did not appear to be much difference in the response for different zones. A similar pattern was found for age groups and number of years in service.

Table 8

Response to Impact of Leadership

Statement	SA		A		D		SD		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Inadequate support by supervisor is related to excessive force (Question 13)	6	6.4	86	91.5	2	2.1	0	0.0	94	100
Inadequate support by department are related to excessive force (Question 14)	8	8.5	85	90.4	1	1.1	0	0.0	94	100
Excessive or inappropriate discipline is related to excessive force (Question 17)	10	10.6	41	43.6	39	41.5	4	4.3	94	100
Being held accountable for bad decisions made under pressure are related to excessive force (Question 19)	13	13.8	80	85.1	1	1.1	0	0.0	94	100

Note. SA = strongly agree, A = agree, D = disagree, and SD = strongly disagree.

The summary of the distribution of response to impact of climate on the use of excessive force by police officers was found to be high to very high for fellow officers not doing their duties properly, insufficient manpower to adequately handle a job, work conflict with peers, and lack of training on handling stress. A moderate to low level of agreement was found for the use of excessive force being associated with transfers to new or unfamiliar duties, inadequate or poor quality equipment, demand for high moral standards, more work than can be done in a given time, poor working conditions, and lack of job security.

Hypothesis Testing

To test the study hypothesis, the researcher used a nonparametric test procedure, which gave the total representative response for each police officer respondent for each of the factors: impact of policies and procedures, impact of leadership, and impact of climate. The distribution of scores was tested for normality. Two widely used test procedures were used: Kolmogorov Smirnov and Shapiro Wilks. Table 9 gives the normality test results for individual items. Responses to all the distributions do not follow normal distribution as the p value for all the items in both Kolmogorov Smirnov and Shapiro Wilks tests is less than .05. Therefore, the researcher concluded that the distribution of response scores to statements does not follow normal distribution and hence the use of parametric test was not appropriate.

Parametric test is pictorially depicted in normal distribution q-q plots reported for all the items in the scale. Points are widely scattered around the line, which is an indication of deviation from normality. Table 9 gives the descriptive statistical summary for total response for three factors affecting the use of excessive force. Even for these

total scores, the normality test failed and the researcher appropriately used a nonparametric test for testing the significance of the difference in the impact of different factors in the use of excessive force.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics Summary for Factors on Use of Excessive Force

	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. error
Impact on policy	94	16.00	21.00	18.4574	.11781
Impact on leadership	94	14.00	21.00	17.4043	.15374
Impact on climate	94	20.00	29.00	24.8404	.27820

The Mann-Whitney test was used to test whether a significant difference existed in the impact of factors on the use of excessive force by police officers. Table 10 gives the summary of the Mann-Whitney test procedure and reports descriptive values. To apply the Mann-Whitney test, the data results were placed into SPSS version 14.0.

The dependent variables were inserted into the test variable's list. Then the independent variables were selected and inserted, grouping the variables. Table 11 gives the summary of the Mann-Whitney test results needed to take make a decision whether a significant difference exists in the impact of different factors on the use of excessive force.

Table 10

Mann-Whitney Test Statistics Summary for Race Comparison

	Impact of policy	Impact of leadership	Impact of climate
Mann-Whitney U	310.500	70.500	54.500
Wilcoxon W	1345.500	1295.500	1279.500
Z	-6.255	-7.961	-8.151
Asymp. sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000

For impact of policies and procedures on the use of excessive force, the Mann-Whitney test statistic value was 310.50, with an asymptotic Z statistic value of 6.255. This gave a p value of .00001 ($<.05$), which meant that a significant difference exists in the impact of policies and procedures on the use of excessive force between African American and European police officers.

For impact of leadership on the use of excessive force, the Mann-Whitney test statistic value was 70.50 with an asymptotic Z statistic value of 7.961. This gave a p value of .00001 ($<.05$), which meant that a significant difference exists in the impact of leadership on the use of excessive force between African American and European police officers.

For impact of climate on the use of excessive force, the Mann-Whitney test statistic value was 54.50 with an asymptotic Z statistic value of 8.151. This gave a p value of .00001 ($<.05$), which meant that a significant difference exists in the impact of climate on the use of excessive force between African American and European police officers.

The focus of chapter 5 is an interpretation of the results of the assessment. Beginning with an explanation of why the assessment was conducted, chapter 5 contains an exploration into the implications for social change, recommendations for action based upon assessment results, and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 5: Summary, Conclusion, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the impact of job-related stressors on incidents of excessive force by police officers in College Park (metropolitan Atlanta), Georgia. The focus of the study was job-related stressors such as departmental leadership, departmental policies and regulations, and departmental climate. The goal of the study was to determine if a difference existed between how these stressors affect African American and European police officers. The results of this study showed that there is a clear pattern in terms of perceived association with certain aspects of policies and procedures being associated with use of excessive force. The major areas of concern were disagreeable departmental regulations (not to the officers liking) are related to excessive force, job conflict (by-the-book vs. by-the-situation) is related to excessive force, and problematic administrative policies and procedures are related to excessive force. The results were unexpected, based on my experience in law enforcement. The survey results showed a very high agreement level for disagreeable departmental regulations (not to the officers liking), job conflict, and problematic administrative policies being associated with the use of excessive force.

Accordingly, a review and overhaul of internal policy and procedures would be an appropriate strategy to correct the issues provided by the officers on the Police Stress Survey Form. The policies highlighted the complexities of causality in police brutality cases and it is suggested “that greater attention to the enhancement of motivation and understanding the complexities of both stress and police brutality needs to focused upon

in future treatment initiatives” (Manzoni, & Eisner, 2006, p. 101) to combat excessive force.

The Police Stress Survey Form was used to measure the potential impact that job-related stressors might have on incidents of excessive force. The instrument was comprised of 31 questions used to assess the participants’ agreement or disagreement with the statement as it related to the use of excessive force in the areas of (a) impact of policies and procedures on the use of excessive force, (b) impact of leadership on the use of excessive force, and (c) impact of climate on the use of excessive force. Using the Police Stress Survey Form as the testing instrument, a total of 110 active police officers indicated an interest in participation, and 94 of the 110 officers completed the assessment. The final sample size was 94 participants ($n = 94$).

Summary of Findings

Scoring on the Police Stress Survey Form was completed using SPSS version 14.0. Raw data were extracted by the instrument publisher so that I could conduct a statistical analysis. The Police Stress Survey Form measured the participants’ scores on a scale of 1-4, where 1 = *strongly agree*, 2 = *agree*, 3 = *disagree*, and 4 = *strongly disagree*.

The mean scores were as follows: impact of policy and procedures = 3119.50, impact of leadership = 1295.50, and impact of climate = 1279.50. The cumulative mean score in this study was 1.7872. These results were compared with race to see whether a significant difference existed in the impact between the two races and by zones in which the participants worked. The majority of the participants in this study were African

American males ($n = 49$; 51.1%), and 45 (47.9%) participants were European males, which made the sample representative of the target population.

In College Park, Georgia, there are four patrol zones (more commonly known as zones) within the jurisdiction of the Field Operations Division of the College Park Police Department. These zones were created by the College Park Police Department to serve the city of College Park better by increasing the efficiency of police patrols. Zone 1 is in the western portion of the College Park jurisdiction in the area west of the I-285 connector. Zone 2 is located on the northwest and north side of College Park. Zone 3 is located on the south side and southeast side of College Park. Zone 4 East includes Atlanta in Fulton County neighborhoods. On average, the citizens living in Zone 1 are college educated with an average income of \$60,000 per year. Zones 3 and 4 are considered the low-income areas of the city. Citizens living in Zone 4 normally receive government assistance and have an average income of \$15,000 per year (US City Homes, 2010).

African American officers from Zones 1 and 4 identified specific stressors in each of the three categories that they believed lead to excessive force. Officer's that provided high responses showing stress related to excessive force were officer's that made responses of strongly agree relating to inadequate support by supervisors, problematic measures of efficiency and effectiveness, and assignments to new or unfamiliar duties provided by command staff. European officers from Zones 1 and 4 identified a specific stressor in each of the three categories that they believed lead to excessive force. Inadequate support by supervisor received a response of agree from 91.5% of police officers sampled.

A similar high agreement response was received for inadequate support affecting the excessive use of force. However, the participants seemed to be indifferent regarding difficulty in getting along with the supervisor affecting the use of excessive force. A very high level of agreement (97.8%) was found for inadequate supervision related to the use of excessive force. Similarly, very high agreement was also seen for the use of excessive force related to being held accountable for bad decisions and self-centred and self-serving leadership. Officer's showing a high level of stress from the survey results, responded that their stress was directed associated with problem administrative policies and procedures, self-centred and self-serving leadership, and lack of adequate training on handling stress from the administration.

African American officers in Zone 1 identified specific stressors in each of the three categories that they believed lead to excessive force. Job conflict (by-the-book vs. by-the-situation) had a response of 87.2% for the officers surveyed. The results showed that the level of agreement between use of excessive force and directly bearing the wrath when complaints are made against an officer was low, and the results showed that officers strongly disagreed on the survey form. Problematic administrative policies and procedures had very high responses from the officer's survey (70%) as a factor leading to excessive force in Zone 1 by African American officers.

European officer in Zones 1 and 4 identified two major job-related stressors leading to the use of excessive force relating to policy and procedures. Over 88% of officers agreed that insufficient manpower to adequately handle the job led to the use of excessive force. Forty-seven percent of officers in Zones 1 and 4 agreed that being assigned to disagreeable duties led to the use of excessive force, whereas 40% of African

American officers from Zones 1 and 4 disagreed that being assigned to disagreeable duties led to the use of excessive force. Over 91% of African American officers in Zones 1 and 4 agreed that inadequate support by the department led to the use of excessive force, whereas 51.5% strongly agreed that poor working condition was a factor in the use of excessive force.

Interpretation of Findings

The Police Stress Survey Form was used to measure the potential impact that job-related stressors might have on incidents of excessive force. The mean scores of officers from Zones 1, 2, 3, and 4 indicated the standard operating procedures among African American and European officers differ among zones as it related to excessive force. The literature supported the finding in this study that manager need to change policy relating to stress and brutality. Manzoni and Eisner (2006) revealed a “deterministic unidirectional cause-effect model that is conceptually inadequate for examining the stress/police brutality relationship” (p. 90). In contrast, the third criminological model that asserts that the link between stress and police is part of a “complex process in which a large number of factors operating at different levels are implicated” (Manzoni & Eisner, 2006, p. 81) has far more credibility. The articles reviewed supported the finding in this study that law enforcement administrators should conduct ethics and cultural diversity training as individual has free will regarding behavior that is inherently restricted by particular social, economic, and cultural circumstances (Seddon, 2000). According to Sayer (1992), “Qualitative research methods provide the best tools” (p. 210) for evaluating the complex machinations of the stress and police use of force.

The literature review provided the foundation for the current study. The findings showed that both African American and European officers from both zones identified similar critical stressors leading to excessive force as those noted in the literature, including inadequate or poor quality equipment, excessive or inadequate discipline, and job conflict (by-the-book vs. by-the-situation).

The findings showed that there is a pattern in terms of perceived association with certain aspects of policies and procedures being associated with the use of excessive force, focusing on three key areas: disagreeable departmental regulations (not to the officer's liking) are related to excessive force, job conflict (by-the-book vs. by-the-situation) is related to excessive force, and problematic administrative policies and procedures are related to excessive force. Scoring on the Police Stress Survey Form was completed automatically by the test publisher. Raw data were extracted by the publisher so that I could conduct a statistical analysis.

The Police Stress Survey Form measured the potential impact that job-related stressors might have on incidents of excessive force of participants in three potential areas (a) impact of policies and procedures on the use of excessive force, (b) impact of leadership on the use of excessive force, and (c) impact of climate on the use of excessive force. The mean scores of participants were as follows: impact of policies and procedures = 3119.50, impact of leadership = 3169.50, and impact of climate = 3185.50.7407.

With regard to the impact of policies and procedures, the results indicated that there is a significant difference in the impact of policies and procedures on the use of excessive force between African American and European police officers. Before the study was conducted, organization leaders did not believe there was a problem, but the

finding provided results to support its significance. The findings will help organization leaders to address issues regarding disagreeable departmental regulations, job conflict, and problematic administrative policies that are associated with use of excessive force. The majority of the participants in this study were African American males ($n = 49$; 51.1%), and 45 (47.9%) participants were European males, which meant the sample was representative of the target population.

With regard to the impact of leadership, the results indicated that there is a significant difference in the impact of leadership on the use of excessive force between African American and European police officers. Most of the managers and supervisors responded that there was not a problem with leadership, but the survey responses showed the opposite. The finding might help management and supervisors work better in the organization and prevent officers' using excessive force in the community. Key factors in getting along with the supervisor are affecting the use of excessive force. A very high level of agreement (97.8%) was found for inadequate supervision related to the use of excessive force. Similarly, a very high agreement was also noted by officers on the survey for the use of excessive force related to being held accountable for bad decisions and self-centred and self-serving leadership.

With regard to the impact of climate, the results revealed that there is a significant difference in the impact of climate on the use of excessive force between African American and European police officers. The findings were significant to help improve the climate and make a safe, harassment-free working environment. Key factors from the finding were that officers surveyed responded very high regarding an association between the use of excessive force and fellow officers not doing their duties properly, insufficient

manpower to adequately handle a job, work conflict with peers, and lack of training on handling stress.

Implications for Social Change

Walden University's goal of promoting positive social change was a desired outcome of this study. In the significance section of chapter 1, police brutality is increasing among law enforcement officers further brought to the fore by media attention and commentaries documenting the growth and development of U.S. social structures, and rising crime rates are testament to the growth and unwarranted use of force throughout the local community (Fitzgerald, 2006). The citizens of the City of College Park, Georgia, and police agencies in metropolitan Atlanta, Georgia, will be affected by this social change. Communication between the community and law enforcement might lead to a better understanding of what is expected of each other. People need to understand what the role of law enforcement is in their community, and law enforcement needs to understand the community it is working for. Law enforcement works for the public and should take the time to know the community, because different communities have different personalities. Because the role of the police is to protect and serve, law enforcement needs to understand who and what it is protecting and serving. If the police understand the community they are serving, they would not be so quick to use deadly force and people would quickly help if they knew and understood each other.

The results in chapter 4 clearly showed that there is a pattern in terms of a perceived association with certain aspects of policies and procedures being associated with the use of excessive force. The police department must train officers at the initiation of hire in the use of force and the legal means to use force. The police academy builds a

basis for when, where, and what level of force is necessary to gain compliance from a suspect.

Improvements Within the Force

Law enforcement officers must understand that they must only use the amount of force necessary to gain compliance. In-service training should be used to advise officers that using force improperly will bring lawsuits against the department and the officer for abuse of powers. A police officer is the only public servant that has a license to use deadly force if needed to make another person comply Barrett, Austin, and McCarthy (2000). Law enforcement officers at the College Park Police Department have training in the use of force and policy and procedures on an ongoing basis. Law enforcement and the community have to come together and act as a partnership to mend the organizations. Using cross-sector collaboration and alliances, both organizations are evolving from arm's length relationships into strategic partnerships.

Advocacy helps negotiate a resolution to solve the conflict and continues to argue on behalf of a particular issue for organizations and governments. According to Barrett, Austin, and McCarthy (2000), interactions built with understanding and trust, which are important building blocks for strategic alliances, are used to help bridge the gap between cross-sector collaboration. Ongoing management of an effective alliance or collaborative venture requires a mind-set and a set of attitudes that allows officers to function in an environment characterized by risk, instability, and the unknown. Much collaboration evolves in a rather unpredictable ways depending to a great extent on trust and confidence.

Improvements for Communities and Society

Skogan (2004) noted, “In a democracy in which complex social problems will always place heavy demands on the police, we have an obligation to strive constantly—not periodically—for a form of policing that is not only effective but humane and civil” (p. 103). Law enforcement power is essential and should be regarded with the highest ethics and morals possible. Law enforcement officers are vested with a great deal of authority under a system of government in which authority is reluctantly granted and when granted it is sharply curtailed. Social change is relevant in essentialism and without the laws derived from laws of society, there would not be any control of the people.

The research findings demonstrated that officers are less likely to use force when stress is eliminated by the administration. Police brutality continues to be a major concern for both the public and the law enforcement profession (Juarez, 2004). Ongoing training and educating officers on the proper use of force techniques and procedures will minimize or remove the misuse of force issues in society.

Recommendations for Future Research

As noted in chapter 4, the results showed a slight difference between African American and Caucasian officers relating to stress and the use of force.

- Devise methods and procedures for training that consider the organization's culture.
- Include a variety of methodologies in training, such as reading, lecture, discussion, case study, role-play, structured experience, or multimedia presentations relating to stress and the use of force.

- Devise programs that help officers with stress such as counseling, peer mentors, or access to the employee assistance program without penalty.
- Use focus groups to help management and supervisors understand the departmental policies and procedures and how they will be enforced.
- Use focus groups to discuss information and seek solutions to the problems presented.

Training and education are needed to bring the community and law enforcement to a peaceful medium. According to Frazier (2002), community disturbances resulting from the use of excessive or deadly force by police continue to plague many American communities. Law enforcement is an important societal function and its effectiveness is hampered when tensions exist between the police department and the public it serves (Frazier, 2002, p. 1).

The media and advanced technology have helped law enforcement and communities to document the incidents that occur and have become a good tool for both sectors to use in preventing the excessive use of force. Frazier (2002) noted, "One thing we have learned, is that good policing practices are essential to developing community support. Other elements include trust and confidence in the administration of justice" (p. 63). With this foundation, the prospect of successfully dealing with the potential for violent disturbances in the community is greatly enhanced. A healthy relationship between the police and the community diminishes the prospect of the police using excessive force at all (Frazier, 2002, p. 1).

Further studies are needed that include African American and Caucasians officers using a qualitative method of interviews and collecting archival data of stress and the use

of force. Further studies are also needed in the area of alcohol use among active police officer. Include items to address issues directly related to deadly force an obvious omission on the instrument used in this study. The recommendation to improve training quality is supported by classroom observation, more role-play to understand how it feels to be on the receiving end, more professionalism classes, and focus groups responses to help officers help other officers learn what is right. High quality should be introduced and maintained consistently throughout every aspect of training. Community-oriented policing and diversity awareness training should be implemented. Finally, training on the use of force, search and seizure, and arrest procedures that earns the respect of the community should be developed.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to determine the impact of job-related stressors on incidents of excessive force by police officers in College Park, Georgia. The primary focus of this study was to determine if there was a difference between how these stressors impact African American and Caucasian police officers. In the day-to-day operation of police work, officers are called to use force. This force is used to affect an arrest, to detain an unruly inmate, or to gain compliance from a subject. There are often complaints from citizens, arrestees, or inmates that law officials misuse force. According to Fitzgerald, “In two-thirds of more than 5,500 incidents reviewed, police used force against African-American citizens, who comprise about 43 percent of the city's population” (Fitzgerald, 2006,, p.71). Law enforcement officials are authorized by law to use force if necessary. In local government, the police, corrections, and juvenile

departments all play a critical role in the use of force. The law enforcement official's role in addressing this issue begins with training and creating new policies.

The current research revealed police authority is essential to the officer's role in law enforcement; the problem of resistance and what constitutes excessive force further compounds the issue regarding limits of police power (Fitzgerald, 2006). The results of this study provided valuable information on an officer's decision-making role, ability to use good judgement, and ways to eliminate job-related stressors. Manzoni (2006) demonstrated that qualitative data research has often not been prioritized due to the drive for statistics and data to justify politically motivated legislative initiatives or knee-jerk reactions from the police force in response to high-profile brutality cases. As such, the qualitative data available is inherently limited in value to the short term.

The findings of this research indicate positive social change can occur when law enforcement administrators work with line officers to help change the relationship between the community and law enforcement and to stop the misuse of force. In developing a plan to rectify the issue, there need to be several goals set. Setting goals will give both law enforcement and community leaders something to reach for and standards to be met. People need to understand what the role of law enforcement is in their community, and the effectiveness of this method needs to be evaluated by a "prolonged understanding of police officer experiences" (Walton 2007, p. 62).

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Appendix: Police Survey of Job Related Stress

The purpose of this survey is to collect data on the potential impact that job related stressors may have on incidents of excessive force. Please do not include any type of identifiable information on the survey such as your name or badge number. All surveys will be secured in a locked cabinet and will be kept in strict confidence.

Section A: Demographic Information

1. What is your age?
 A. 18-25 B. 26-35 C. 36-45 D. 46-55 E. Over 55
2. What is your race?
 A. African-American B. Caucasian C. Other
3. What is your rank?
 A. PO1 B. PO2 C. Master D. Sergeant
 E. Lieutenant F. Captain G. Major H. Other
4. How many years of experience do you have?
 A. 0-5 B. 6-10 C. 11-15 D. 16-20 E. Over 20

Section B: Job Related Stressors

Please read each statement and use the following Likert Scale: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD). Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the statement as it relates to the use of excessive force. For this study excessive force will be described as any situation that violate the use of force policy for this police department.

Impact of Policies & Procedures on use of excessive force Likert Scale

5. Disagreeable departmental regulations are related to excessive force
 SA A D SD
6. Job conflict (by-the-book vs by-the-situation) is related to excessive force
 SA A D SD
7. Problematic administrative policies and procedures are related to excessive force
 SA A D SD
8. Excessive paperwork /red tape in personnel complaint procedures are related to excessive force
 SA A D SD
9. Directly bearing the wrath when complaints are made are related to excessive force
 SA A D SD
10. Overtime pay practices are related to excessive force
 SA A D SD

11. Problematic measures of efficiency and effectiveness are related to excessive force

SA A D SD

12. Transfers without any prior consultation are related to excessive force

SA A D SD

Impact of Leadership on use of excessive force

13. Inadequate support by supervisor is related to excessive force

SA A D SD

14. Inadequate support by department are related to excessive force

SA A D SD

15. Difficulty getting along with supervisor is related to excessive force

SA A D SD

16. Lack of recognition for good work is related to excessive force

SA A D SD

17. Excessive or inappropriate discipline is related to excessive force

SA A D SD

18. Poor or inadequate supervision is related to excessive force

SA A D SD

19. Being held accountable for bad decisions made under pressure are related to excessive force

SA A D SD

20. Self-centered, self serving leadership is related to excessive force

SA A D SD

Impact of Climate on use of excessive force

21. Assignment to new or unfamiliar duties are related to excessive force

SA A D SD

22. Fellow officers not doing their job are related to excessive force

SA A D SD

23. Insufficient manpower to adequately handle a job is related to excessive force

SA A D SD

24. Inadequate or poor quality equipment is related to excessive force

SA A D SD

25. Demands for high moral standards are related to excessive force

SA A D SD

26. More work than can be done in a given period of time is related to excessive force

SA A D SD

27. Lack of input into the decision making process is related to excessive force

SA A D SD

28. Work conflict with peers are related to excessive force

SA A D SD

29. Lack of adequate training on handling stress is related to excessive force

SA A D SD

30. Poor working conditions are related to excessive force

SA A D SD

31. Lack of job security is related to excessive force

SA A D SD

Curriculum Vitae

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Conley, Georgia 30288

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Education

(In-Progress) A.B.D-Ph.D, Public Policy and Administration, Walden University -2010

Masters of Science, with a concentration in Public Administration, Central Michigan University - 2004

Bachelor of Arts, Criminology, Saint Leo University - 2003

Professional Positions

City of Walthourville Police Department, Walthourville, Ga, --June 2009 to Present (Part time). Major, assigned to training and Internal Investigations. Develop and implement short and long range goals for the department; establishes priorities for the improvement of law enforcement services. Conduct internal investigation and provide training to the officers as needed following Georgia Peace Officer Standard and Training (POST) guidelines.

Faculty, ITT Technical Institute, Criminal Justice Department, Atlanta, Ga- March 2010 to Present- Teach material from approved curriculum and develops daily lesson plans to include instructional aids. Participates in school retention initiatives by providing regular, accurate, and timely feedback to students and the school concerning aspects academics, behavior, attendance etc. Complete professional development and in-service activities in accordance with college standards. Maintain expertise in subject area and recommend improvements in curriculum design.

Adjunct Faculty, Saint Leo University, Criminal Justice Department, Atlanta, Ga— October 2007 to Present - Adjunct Professor of Criminal Justice. Teaching classes in Criminal Justice and Public administration. Perform Academic Advising to new and returning students; Register students in Datatel system; Maintain/update student files; Track student graduation status; Complete graduation clearance; Coordinate student field replacements; Complete/assist in student paperwork .

Adjunct Faculty, General Education, Axia College of the University of Phoenix. On-Line Instructor –April 2009 to present- Facilitate online classes in Criminal Justice and Critical Thinking and Critical and Creative Thinking. Help students increase their understanding of particular subjects and philosophies. Keep up to date with current advances in both research and pedagogy, choosing an appropriate textbook and preparing lectures.

Clayton County Sheriff Office, Jonesboro, Ga. –October 2007 – January 2009-(Major/ Interim Chief). Major assigned to the operations and administration section. Daily duties include; implementation of plans, policies, and activities. Directs and supervises the work of personnel; delegates duties to administrative personnel. Administers employment actions, including the hiring, evaluation, discipline of personnel. Establishes controls to insure that departmental activities are implemented according to plans and operating procedures. Develops and implements overall departmental policies and standards of operations, programs, procedures, and regulations. Develops and implements short- and long-range goals for the department; establishes priorities for the improvement of law enforcement services. Develops the annual budget for the department based on an analysis of projected needs and resources; monitors expenditures under the current budget. Directs the maintenance and security of all records and materials associated with departmental activities.

City of Riverdale Police Department, Riverdale, Ga—January 1998- August 2007-As Police captain I was considered as a commander and I managed and supervised other supervisors. Duties included conducting criminal investigations and preparing criminal cases for court; responding to emergency calls and routine complaints and taking appropriate action; and filling in for or assisting the Police chief.

Dekalb County Police Department, Decatur, Ga—March 1992 –October 1998-I worked in the field division as a Patrol Officer and Field Training Officer. After being awarded the title of Master Police Officer, I was promoted to the rank of Police Detective and worked in the criminal and special investigation division.

Georgia Department of Corrections, Atlanta, Ga—June 1990- March 1992-I was assigned to Phillips State Prison with the responsibility of providing care & custody of inmates and providing security of the intuition. This training is mandated by Georgia Post Council (POST) for jail/security training. (160hrs).

University Training

WebCT Training for Online Internet Teaching 2008

I attended several semester of training at Saint Leo University for online teaching and web course development.

- A. Instructional design 2008
- B. Lecture Skills 2008
- C. Effective writing 2008
- D. Active learning 2008

- E. Using Electronic Resources
- F. Collaborative learning 2009

Blackboard Instructor Training course for online Teaching 2010

I attended training at Saint Leo University for online teaching course development.

Blackboard Instructor Training V 1.0

University of Phoenix (Axia College) Ongoing Faculty Development Training.

I attended several semesters of training at Axia College of the University of Phoenix for online teaching course development. 2009-2010

- a. Online Faculty Refresher
- b. Using Time Effectively
- c. Implementing Classroom Assessment
- d. Academic Integrity
- e. Copyright
- f. Learning Teams
- g. Engaged Learning in the classroom through Metacognition
- h. Evaluating Student Performance
- i. Faculty Support
- j. Evaluating Student Writing
- k. Dynamic Discussion in the Classroom
- l. Difficult Student
- m. Classroom Assessment Techniques
- n. Faculty Certification-Axia College
- o. Faculty Tone
- p. Faculty Certification-Core

Police Certifications

A05080005S	EXECUTIVE CERTIFICATE	10/29/2008
PA04010013S	MANAGERIAL CERTIFICATE	11/27/2001
PA03000031S	SUPERVISORY CERTIFICATE	09/25/2000
PS08000013S	FIELD TRAINING OFFICER	02/21/2000
PA02990068S	ADVANCED CERTIFICATE	11/02/1999
PA01970028S	INTERMEDIATE CERTIFICATE	02/10/1997
PBLE921323S	BASIC LAW ENFORCEMENT	10/23/1992
PBCO901116S	CORRECTIONS OFFICER	09/20/1990

Research

A. Research

Journal Articles in Progress

Prepared for: Journal of Public Administration Research and theory “Alleviating Problems in Policing Agencies” A Case Study of the Law enforcement misuse of force policies and practices of local law enforcement agencies will provide individuals freedom and civil liberties and asses other potential law enforcement.

First Arthur: Phillip R, Neely, Jr.

Prepared for: public Administration quarterly

“Leadership and Organizational change”. Administration training received by law enforcement officials as a way of describing the relationship between inadequate police training and misuse of force.

First Arthur: Phillip R. Neely, Jr.

Doctoral Dissertation

The Impact of Job Related Stressors on Incidents of Excessive Force by Police Officers

B. Current Memberships

American society of Public Administrators (ASPA)

Georgia Association of Chiefs of Police

National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executives (NOBLE)

Pi Alpha Alpha

Omega Psi Phi Fraternity

Teaching and Student Advising

A. Courses Taught

Undergraduate Criminal Justice

(Saint Leo University)

Criminal Justice Ethics (3)

Violent Crimes (3)

Law Enforcement Systems (3)

Terrorism (3)

Criminal Investigation (3)

Juveniles Justice (3)

Senior Seminar in Criminology (3)

Criminology Examination (3)

Laws of Criminal Procedure (3)

Theories of Criminal Behavior (3)

Survey of the Criminal Justice System (3)

Police Organization and Administration (3)

ITT Technical Institute

Policing Techniques: Interviewing and Interrogation (3)

Correctional: Probation and Parole (3)

Correctional System (3)

Introduction to the criminal Justice System (3)

Law Enforcement Reporting and Recording (3)

State and Local Government (3)

Criminal Investigation (3)

On-Line University of Phoenix (Axia College)

Critical thinking (3)

Critical and Creative thinking (3)

B. Student Advising

Academic advising, Saint Leo University, 2009-2010. Assisted Arthur King with student advising and course selection. ITT Technical Institute, advising student 2010-present

HONORS AND AWARDS

Pi Alpha Alpha 2007