BETWIXT AND BETWEEN: THE PERCEIVED

LEGITIMACY OF CAMPUS POLICE

By

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To the Faculty of Washington State University:

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Chair

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BETWIXT AND BETWEEN: THE PERCEIVED

LEGITIMACY OF CAMPUS POLICE

Abstract

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Historically, campus police (CP) have evolved similar to "mainstream" police. However, the identity of CP has been unclear. First, CP may not be accepted by university administration because they are "cops," not part of academia. Second, students and other law enforcement agencies may not perceive CP as "cops" because they are based in a university system.

The legitimacy of police officers is crucial for public support and cooperation; without it, a police officer's effort to combat crime and maintain order is jeopardized. Although CP marginalization has been discussed in the literature, there are no empirical studies of CP legitimacy.

To explore the legitimacy of CP, CP officers from a doctoral extensive land grant institution were interviewed. The analysis of interviews reflected three salient perceptions of CP: (1) In many instances the community did not regard CP as sworn police officers; (2) the public stereotypes CP; and (3) CP have to "sell" their profession to the public. Overall, the interviews indicated that CP perceive some level of marginalization by the public.

To confirm the perceptions of CP, a convenience sample of 593 undergraduate students were surveyed. The surveys were used to compare student perceptions of legitimacy between CP and municipal police (MP) at the department and individual officer levels. Results of the surveys indicated that students have lower perceived levels of legitimacy for CP officers compared to MP officers ($p=.01$). Similarly, students have lower perceived levels of legitimacy for the CP department compared to the MP department ($p=.05$). Consequently, it appears that the perceptions of CP were justified. Survey results indicated that students do, indeed, perceive CP as a less legitimate law enforcement authority compared to their "mainstream" counterpart.

Victor Turner's theory of *liminality* was used to explain CP marginalization. Turner describes *liminality* as a transitional period between two social standings. However, in some instances, a person or group may never transition out of that *liminal* period. These unfortunate few are consider "permanently" *liminal.* The analysis of CP interviews and student surveys indicated that CP appear to be "permanently" *liminal,* trapped in an ambiguous state, "betwixt and between" two social standings.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Communities have always attempted to control crime through a variety of responses. Historically, criminality was handled through an informal system. However, as society became more complex, more formal measures of social control were created. It appears that, historically, social control was handled through community predictability. In other words, social control was, in part, a result of the predictability or the homogeneity of the community. As society became more complex, informal social control could no longer regulate this predictability. Thus, a formal system of social control (policing) had to be developed.

It appears that formal structures of policing have been in existence since the 1300s. These structures of policing have evolved juxtaposed to the culture of the state and its citizenry. The early premise of police was to create an agency that would maintain the general security of the state and individuals (Manning, 1997). Consequently, policing has evolved to fit the general needs of the state and community.

Many scholars have argued that the university campus is just a microcosm of the "real" or "outside" world (Bennett-Johnson, 1997). In fact the university campus has been considered to be its own city in many respects. Therefore, many universities have incorporated their own policing system onto their campus. In other words, campus police have evolved to fit the general needs of the university environment.

The role of campus police has evolved in a similar fashion to "mainstream" policing (Paoline & Sloan, 2003). However, even though both mainstream policing and university policing have evolved similarly, Smith (1988) argues that campus police

officer's identity has been obscured. First, Smith argues (1988) that campus police

officers are not accepted by university administration because they are "cops," and not

part of academia. Conversely, students and other law enforcement agencies do not

perceive campus police officers as "cops" because they are based in a university system.

The obscured identity has placed campus police officers in an uncertain role. The

uncertain identity of campus police officers reflects the perceptions others have of them

as police. Based on the ambiguity of their identity, in many instances, CP do not appear

to be perceived as "real" cops by the public and, thus, their legitimacy is questioned.

The legitimacy of a police officer is crucial for public support and public

cooperation. According to Tyler (2004), without public support and/or public

cooperation, a police officer's effort to combat crime and maintain order is jeopardized.

Consequently, when legitimacy is diluted, police/citizen contacts become strained. As

police/citizen contacts become strained, police effectiveness is destabilized.

Consequently, for campus police officers to gain legitimacy or be recognized as "real"

cops, their *marginalization* as police officers first needs to be understood.

From an anthropological perspective, it appears that the marginalization or the

lack of legitimacy for campus police officers is related to *liminal*ity. As posited by Turner

(1987), *liminality* is a separation between one's previous social position and a new social

position that has yet to be confirmed. *Liminality* is, therefore, a transitional period

between two social standings. In one instance, campus police officers have separated

themselves from their civilian lives. However, according to Wensyel (1987) and Nichols

(1987), their full inculcation into policing is not fully accepted. Consequently, campus

police officers are neither perceived as civilians nor police. Campus police are

somewhere in-between or in a transitional state. This transitional state, as described by Turner (1969, p.95), is "betwixt and between."

Purpose of the Study

There are many studies that discuss the perceptions people have of mainstream police (Brown & Benedict, 2002; Hennigan, Maxson, Sloane, & Ranney, 2002; Sims, Hooper & Peterson, 2002; Smith, 2005; Reisig & Giacomazzi, 1998; Reisig & Stroshine-Chandek, 2001; Weitzer & Tuch, 2005). There are also studies that compare and contrast "mainstream" police and campus police (Bromley & Reaves 1998; Heinsler, Kleinman, & Stenross, 1990; Hummer, Austin, & Bumphus, 1998; Paoline & Sloan, 2003). Furthermore, there are studies on community perceptions of campus police (Pan & Miller, 1987; Shipman, 1994). However, these studies are relegated to discerning the favorability of campus police in terms of their technical proficiency. What appears to be lacking in the literature is the perceptions of campus police based on their legitimacy. In other words, there are no empirical studies that indicate that campus police officers are not perceived as "real cops" (in terms of legitimacy) as suggested by Smith (1988), Hinkle & Jones (1991), and Heinsler, Kleiman, & Stenross (1990).

Furthermore, there are no studies that compare the levels of legitimacy between "mainstream" police and campus police. Consequently, there are no studies that determine if a campus police officer and a "mainstream" police officer's perceived legitimacy levels are different. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to fill a major gap in the campus policing literature. The gap in the literature is the perceived legitimacy gap between "mainstream" police and campus police.   There appear to be many studies of

perceptions of police, crime on campus, and, to a lesser extent campus police. However, the legitimacy perceptions citizens have between "mainstream' police and campus police appear to be non-existent.

Anecdotally, scholars in campus policing maintain that campus police are not identified, under many circumstances, as "real cops" (Heinsler, Kleiman, & Stenross, 1990; Hinkle & Jones, 1991; Smith, 1988). However, it does not appear that this identification of campus police has been empirically studied. The identification of campus police officers, in terms of scholarship, as not "real cops" appears to be more of an intuitively based idea. Consequently, citizen perceptions of campus police legitimacy will be investigated.

Need for the Study

Crime and criminal activity are far less prevalent on college campuses than the outside world (Hensen & Stone, 1999). However, just because crime and criminality are less prevalent on college campuses than the outside world should not minimize its significance. According to Smith and Fossey (1995), universities have been described as "dangerous places." The Virginia Tech shooting in Blacksburg, Virginia, April 16, of 2007 is a recent example of the dangerous nature of a university. In the Virginia Tech shootings, student Seung Hui Cho shot and killed 31 students and 1 professor (Johnson, 2007). The Virginia Tech incident is considered the deadliest shooting spree in U.S. history (NBC-2.com, n.d). Although, the Virginia Tech mass shooting may seem like an isolated incident, university shootings have a historical occurrence in higher education. Mass shootings at universities have occurred as far back as 1966, when at the University

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of Texas, Charles Whitman shot and killed 16 people and wounded 31 (MSNBC, n.d). In 1970, four students were killed and nine were wounded by National Guard troops at Kent State University (MSNBC, n.d.). In fact, a major impetus to develop modern campus policing was based on the tragic incidents of Kent State and the University of Texas (Esposito & Stormer, 1989).

Griffith, Hueston, Wilson, Moyers, and Hart (2004) and Michals and Higgins (1997) argue that large universities have crime problems commensurate with small cities. Bennett-Johnson (1997) asserts that criminal activity that was once endemic to the outside world has now overflowed onto college campuses. Since crime appears to be endemic of our "outside" population, it seems logical that as college matriculation grows, so will the criminal problems that the outside world houses (Gehrand, 2000; Hummer, Austin, & Bumphus, 1998).

Bennett-Johnson (1997) argues that crime affects the environment in which students learn. In other words, as Keel (2004) suggests, a student's sense of safety and security affects their academic performance. Thus, according to Bordner and Peterson (1983) and Nichols (1987), the university, under many circumstances, has an obligation for the safety of its students. A student cannot grow intellectually, without the proper environment that supports his or her growth. Or simply put, students must feel safe in order to increase their levels of learning. Therefore, as Janosik (2001) and Evans (2001) argue, a university must provide a safe and secure environment for students.

Universities have used campus police to help provide safe and secure environments for students since 1894, when Yale University hired New Haven police officers as full time campus police officers (Bordner & Peterson, 1983; Ianarelli, 1968;

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Powell, Pander, & Nielson, 1994; Paoline & Sloan, 2003; Smith, 1988; Sloan, 1992). In other words, campus police have existed in the university setting to help provide safe and secure environments since the turn of the century. However, as Sloan (1992) and Bromely (2000) assert, academic studies of campus police have largely been disregarded by researchers. Moreover, according to Sloan (1992), what literature does exist on campus police focuses on "practical observations" (p.85). Thus, it could also be argued that the need for this study is to add an academic perspective to the campus policing literature.

Furthermore, according to Tyler (2004), without public support and/or public cooperation, a police officer's effort to combat crime and maintain order will be compromised. As Sunshine and Tyler (2003) argue, police legitimacy is the key factor in maintaining positive public support and cooperation. Consequently, if the goal of the university is to promote a safe and secure environment, it seems essential that the university is aware of the factors that could lead to higher levels of safety and security. Therefore, it could be argued that the primary need for this study is to examine the legitimacy levels of campus police. Once the legitimacy levels of campus police are understood, university administrators would have a better understanding of creating a safe and secure environment, which in turn could facilitate a healthier environment to support student development.

Research Questions

The following questions were designed to investigate Washington State University Campus Police (CP) Officers' perceptions as well as WSU students'

perceptions of CP officers and how the respondent's age, gender, ethnicity, environment, and police experience contribute to those perceptions.

1. To what extent do CP officers' feel that they are not perceived as "real" police?

2. To what extent is there a perceived legitimacy difference between a CP department and municipal police department?

3. To what extent is there a perceived legitimacy difference between CP officers and "mainstream" police officers?

4. What selected independent variables returned significant perceived legitimacy levels (for municipal department/officer and CP department/officer)?

Design of the Study

The study incorporated a mixed-method, two-phase design. Consequently, the study incorporated qualitative and quantitative data as well as phases of data collection. The first phase consisted of qualitative data collection. The qualitative phase of the study was field interviews with CP officers at WSU. The CP officer interviews were used to develop the hypothesis. Asking questions concerning how CP officers felt the public perceives them, uncovered a primary question. In other words, did campus police officers feel that they were perceived as "real cops?"

After the interviews of CP officers were conducted, surveys were distributed to a convenience sample of WSU students. The two surveys were equally distributed among the sample of students. One survey measured student perceptions of PP officers, while the other survey measured students' perceptions of CP officers. The student surveys provided the quantitative data to test the hypothesis that was developed in the qualitative phase

Theoretical Framework

Liminality, the Rites of Passage, and Campus Police

Victor Turner's theory of *liminality* will be used as the theoretical framework for the study. In the 1960s, anthropologist Victor Turner expanded on the theory of *liminality* based on the work of Gennep (Alexander, 1991). Gennep (1960) a German ethnographer and folklorist developed a schema based on a person's passage from one social standing to another. Gennep (1960) described this movement as the *rites of passage*. Furthermore, Gennep argued that *rites of passage* could be reduced into three subgroups. These subgroups are: *rites of separation, transition rites,* and *rites of incorporation*. The *rites of separation* suggest that as a person attempts to move to a new social standing, that person must separate himself or herself from his or her original standing. A person's separation from his or her original standing transitions him or her into a subgroup within the *rites of passage* that Gennep classified as the *liminal* phase. In the *liminal* phase a person is neither in his or her old standing nor his or her new standing. The word *limen* in Latin denotes "threshold" (Turner, 1969, 1987). In other words, *liminality* connotes a point, in the *rites of passage,* where the person is on the cusp of change. The final stage of Gennep's *rites of passage* is *rites of incorporation*. This passage identifies a point where the person moves out of the *liminal* stage and reenters the social community with his or her new standing (Gennep, 1960).

While Gennep (1960) argued that after the *liminal* phase a person reenters the social community with his or her new standing, Turner (1974) argued that in some instances a person may never move out of the *liminal* phase. In other words, some people may permanently remain in a state of ambiguity they are neither here nor there. Turner

identified these people as *permanent liminals*. Furthermore, Turner posited two types of *permanent liminals, marginals*, and *liminars.*

According to Turner (1974) *marginals* and *liminars* are somewhat similar. Both *marginals* and *liminars* are both "betwixt and between" two social standings. However, *liminars* may voluntarily set themselves apart from the community. However, the *liminars* will still lose their ambiguity after reintegration.

Marginals, unlike the *liminars*, may remain in an ambiguous state. In other words, *marginals* may never be placed in a final social standing. However, *marginals* will always aspire to become part of that social standing they originally sought.

The work of Turner (1969, 1974, and 1987) will be applied to CP officers and Pullman Police (PP) officers. It will be shown that both groups (PP and CP) left their original community. Therefore, these recruits separated themselves from their original social standing (a civilian) to become a police officer. The initial phase of separating a person from his or her community has been described as the *rites of separation* by Gennep (1960).

The recruits entered the police academy with the intention of changing their social standing from a civilian to police officer. The police academy, through the *transition rites,* placed these recruits into a position where they were neither a civilian nor a police officer. This position is considered a *liminal stage* or a transitionary period where the recruits are "betwixt and between" (Turner, 1969, 1974, 1987). As the recruits departed from the academy they were be reintegrated back into the community as police officers. This is what Gennep (1960) described as the *rites of incorporation*.

It appears that Gennep's work on *rites of passage* can be applied to policing. Furthermore, it appears that Gennep's work on *liminatliy* can be directly applied to CP officers' legitimacy perception. After the police academy PP officer recruits reenter the community with a new social standing. In other words, newly integrated PP officers lose their civilian status, reenter the community, and are perceived as a legitimate law enforcement authority. Conversely, campus police recruits are reintegrated back into the community with a new social standing, but are not perceived as legitimate as their "mainstream" counterparts. In other words, CP officers exist in a permanent *liminal* state, where they are neither civilians nor fully accepted as "real cops." They are "betwixt and between."

Delimitations and Limitations

Delimitations

The study is limited to making legitimacy comparisons between CP officers and PP officers. Secondly, legitimacy comparisons between CP officers and PP officers only were identified by a convenience sample of undergraduate students at WSU. Finally, only campus police from WSU were interviewed to identify how campus police feel they are perceived by the public.

Limitations

CP officers were interviewed concerning what they believe are the perceptions of students. Consequently, the findings in the interviews may only be *generalizable* to Washington State University Campus Police.

Secondly, a convenience sampling technique of students was used. The student samples were limited to accessible undergraduate classes. Thus, the *generalizability* of the student responses may not be indicative of all Washington State University Students. However, as Goodwin (2002) has argued, perceptual studies of undergraduate students are highly generalizable. Thus, although, the convenience sampling technique is a less rigorous sampling method than a random sample, based on the subjects and methodology, the responses should be generalizable to a larger population.

Lastly, Washington State University students were surveyed on their perceptions of only CP officers and PP officers. Because the Washington State University Department of Public Safety (WSUDPS) has a relatively small number of officers (DPS, n.d) and is housed within a rural community (see U.S. Census Bureau, n.d.), it is difficult to determine if those two factors effect WSU students' perceptions of CP officers. Furthermore, because Pullman Police Department is similar in scope to WSUDPS (see PPD, n.d. and U.S. Census Bureau, n.d.) the survey findings may only be *generalizable* between the two police departments under study. Or put another way, because of the size and location of WSUDPS, perceptions of legitimacy may be different from students at universities with larger campus police departments in urban cities. For example, the University of Washington Police Department employs forty-five sworn officers (Franklin, n.d.) and is housed within the city of Seattle, which is an urban city with a population of over a half million persons (U.S. Census Bureau, n.d.). Consequently, the perceptions of students may be based on other factors that are outside the scope of this study (i.e. university population, city population, crime rates, etc.).

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

It appears that as society became more complex, so did the need for professional law enforcement. Similarly as the university campus became more complex, so did the need for professional campus police officers. Consequently, it appears that campus policing has evolved parallel to "mainstream" policing.

Currently, sworn campus police have the same training and, in most instances, attend the same police academy as any other sworn police officer. However, it appears that in many instances campus police are not recognized as "real" cops. In other words, although all sworn police officers are trained exactly to the same standards, CP officers appear to be perceived as less legitimate than their "mainstream" colleagues.

It appears that *liminality* can help explain the perceptual dilemma facing campus police. According to Turner (1979) some people or groups that move out of their original social standing never move into the social standing that they once sought. These people or groups are considered somewhere "betwixt and between."

History of American Policing

The history of policing in American can be divided into two major categories. The two major categories can be considered pre-modern and modern policing. Reiner (2000) describes these categories as a communal to a state dominated form of policing. It appears that these two evolutions of policing can be attributed to the complexity of society and the values of the community. Although a complete examination of the history

of American policing is outside the scope of this study, a brief understanding is necessary in order to understand and juxtapose with campus policing.

Pre-modern Policing

Policing came to the United States with the first settlers (Bayley, 1985). Policing at this time was based on close social relationships. In other words, policing at this time was informal in nature. In other words, people could police themselves without a formal structure of enforcement. What can be identified in the pre-modern time period are the many different forms of informal policing.

It appears that the different forms of informal policing could be attributed to the values of the particular community. In other words, informal policing systems were differentiated by their geographical location and culture they supported (Fosdick, 1921). In the south, the first forms of policing were slave patrols. The Center for Research on Criminal Justice (CRCJ) (1974) reveal that in the early 1700s southern legislative state codes allowed for the formation of slave patrols. The slave patrols were commissioned with the duty to provide slave owners with human property control. The slave patrols could also charge slaves with misdemeanors and felonies. In other words, slave patrols protected slave owner property rights by controlling slaves.

Slave patrols were a group of men on horseback who enforced a specific geographical area. According to the CRCJ (1974), legislatively, all white males were obligated for service in the slave patrols. It was not until the end of the Civil War that slave patrols were disbanded.

In rural areas in the North and West, it is suggested by the CRCJ (1974) that colonist would police their own by initiating the *posse commitatus*. The *posse commitatus* can be literally translated in the "power of the community" (p. 21). The *posse commitatus* was an armed group of civilians who could be summoned into action by the magistrate.

However, in larger cities, as far back as 1636 night watchmen were incorporated into early colonial policing. Night watchmen were composed of ordinary citizenry who took turns on duty. The duty of a night watchmen was to "watch and guard" (p.59) the city. During the 1800s the night watchmen's duties had expanded to limited patrol or walking a beat. In this time period, the duty of a night watchmen had become a paying job. However, for the most part, most men who undertook the duty of a night watchmen had a primary job in the daytime and worked as night watchmen in the evening. Thus, the duty was not a full time position.

During the 19th century, the complexity of the cities became too difficult for night watchmen alone. One of the primary problems with night watchmen was that their duties were reserved only to night functions. Thus, city problems during the day were largely un-addressed. Consequently, larger cities began to institute a day watch. The first day watch was officially established in Boston in 1838 (Fosdick, 1921). The day watch was intended to add another policing layer to the city. Originally, the day watch was designed to be totally independent of the night watch. Thus, the city's watchmen system was highly fragmented. As can be imagined, two separate policing systems, independent of one another in the same town, were problematic.

During the mid 19th century many riots broke out in larger cities. What was gleaned from the riots was that the fragmented night and day watch systems could not adequately handle the problems. The lack of organization between night and day watchmen, illustrated the inadequacy of the system. To combat the inadequacy of the day and night watch system, New York, in 1844, passed legislation to combine the day and night watches into one formal unit. This legislation eliminated the night watch and day watch system and created one policing system (Fosdick, 1921). The New York legislation was the framework for modern policing in America. Consequently, it is argued that modern policing grew out of the watch system (Walker, 1977).

What can be identified by the different pre-modern policing systems is a communal form of policing. Slave patrols, the *posse commitatus*, and night watchmen were volunteers commissioned by their community to help police their own. In other words, a very informal system of policing could be used based on the uncomplicated nature of the society that was being policed. However, as cities became more complex the informal system of policing became strained. Consequently, a formal policing structure was developed.

Modern Policing

Modern policing can be divided into three general eras: the political era of policing; the professional era; and the community era. The three general eras of policing appear to be based on New York legislation in 1844 that created a formalized full time policing structure. According to Fosdick (1921), the New York legislation is the framework for modern U.S. policing. However, like pre-modern police, modern policing

cannot be regarded in a univariate sense. Modern policing has also varied based upon the complexity of society and the values of the community. These three variations of modern policing will be discussed.

Political Era of Modern Policing

The first era of modern policing is largely considered 1840-1920. Many scholars consider this era the *political era* of policing. In this time period, police agencies were formed through local political offices. Moreover, police officers were appointees of the political party. Consequently, policing was based on political patronage. Policing, therefore, was controlled by separate political entities. The political control, which led to a fragmented system of policing, led to inconsistent police practices (Johnson, 1981). Since the police departments answered to politicians, most police agencies were utilized as the "strong arm" of the political party it represented. Thus, the political era of policing was a time that was satiated with graft and corruption (Vila & Morris, 2001; Peak, 1993).

Although the political era was satiated with graft and corruption, the police still filled a vital community role. Because police were appointed from their local political districts, they often policed their own neighborhoods. Because they policed their own neighborhoods, they often took care of community problems that no other city agencies would. Thus, policing, at that time, was utilized as a social service activity filling needed community gaps.

The political influences in policing continued until the early 20th century (Sparrow, Moore, & Kennedy, 1990). However, social reform movements became

indicative in the early 1900s. Policing was an area that social reform focused upon, which led to the next era of modern policing.

Professional Era of Modern Policing

The second era of poling is considered the *professional era*. The professional era had a two-fold purpose (Thurman, Zhao, & Giacomazzi, 2002). First, reformers wanted to establish policing integrity. Secondly, reformers wanted to professionalize the police.

As discussed earlier, policing in the political era was controlled through the local political machine (Vila & Morris, 1999). Because police were controlled through the local political machine, corruption and graft were high. Because of the corruption and graft, the public did not view the policing as a legitimate organization.

Reformers, in an effort to combat corruption attempted to remove the influence of politics from the police. As previously discussed, in the political era of policing, police were appointees. Thus, police matriculation was based on political patronage. Consequently, police matriculation was based solely on their ties to the political party. One of the changes to remove political patronage from policing was the creation of the Civil Service Commission (Fosdick, 1921). Civil service commissions were entities separate from the police agencies. The commissions were responsible for hiring, promoting, disciplining, and firing police officer within their administrative district. Thus, a separate entity had the oversight and control of police human resources. Consequently, the control of police was outside the influence of politics. The Civil Service Commission helped foster police organizational integrity.

As discussed earlier, the professional era of policing had a two-fold purpose. First, was the removal of politics from police, which would foster organizational integrity. The second purpose of the professional era was to develop professional police. According to Peak (1993) during the professional era of policing, reformers attempted to make the job of policing legitimate through professionalism. Police, in the political era, were appointees. Consequently, a police officer's matriculation was based on party membership. In other words, police matriculation was based solely on party membership rather than policing skills. The professional era of policing supplanted professionalism in policing through a number of policy and paradigm changes.

First, police were given conditions to their private lives. Officers could no longer work in the community they lived; have ordinary conversations with the public; etc. These private life conditions were imposed to create a separation between the police and the public. The separation between the police and the public was used to lower the levels of outside influence and corruption (Vila & Morris, 1999).

Secondly, police training, technology and standards were implemented. The Civil Service Commissions created standards for police (i.e. physical, educational, etc.). Police became trained in police practices. Technology was supplanted on the profession. For example cars and car radios were being implemented in police departments. The use of science was being applied in criminal investigations (i.e. polygraphs, fingerprints, etc.) (Villa & Morris, 1999; Peak, 1993).

Lastly and arguably most importantly the professional era of modern policing marked the police as a crime fighter. Historically, in the political era, police had multiple roles and duties. According to Fosdick (1921) and Fogelson (1977), in many instances

police performed a variety of tasks that were not related to crime control. Many of these tasks were service oriented and under the rubric of social work. Crime control, therefore, was only part of their duties as a police officer. Consequently, based on their multiple duties, police were largely inefficient in fighting crime. The professional era of policing focused the role of police from multiple service-oriented tasks to a strict crime control orthodoxy. In other words, a police officer's sole role, in the professional era, became crime control. Police officers focused on responding to calls and catching criminals (Walker, 1992). Thus, the main duty of a police officer became catching the "bad" guy.

By the mid 1940s patronage had been virtually eliminated from policing. Thus, police were outside the control of local political entities, which fostered organizational integrity. Furthermore, police professionalism had been achieved through a strict crime control methodology. Based on the removal of patronage system and crime control efficiency, policing became legitimized. The professional era of policing continued to be the hegemonic model of policing until the 1960s.

Community Era of Modern Policing

The legitimacy of the police was reexamined in the 1960s. There appear to be two general factors in the 1960s that changed the public's view of the police as a legitimate organization. First, in the 1960s, the crime rates became a national problem (Coles & Kelling, 1999). This elucidated that the strict crime control methodology was not working. Secondly, in the 1960s, there was a general distrust of the government. The professional era had exacerbated this idea by separating the police from the community.

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These two factors were, arguably, the impetus for the current evolution in American policing, the community era.

The role of crime-fighter, in the professional era, had separated the police from the community. The crime-fighter role had placed a chasm between the police and the community. There became a distinct division between the public and the police. This division resulted in a strained relationship between the police and the public. Scholars (Wilson & Kelling, 1982; Skolnick & Bayley, 1986) purported that the police could not control crime without the cooperation of the public. Therefore, public relations became a primary concern for police administrators. In other words, reintroducing police back into the community.

Furthermore, in the professional era, police were focusing on crime that had already occurred. Or put another way, police were reactive in their approach to reducing crime (e.g. responding to calls). Goldstein (1999) argued that police would be more efficient if they were proactive in their attempt to control crime rather than reactive. The concept of public cooperation and proactive policing has been termed community-oriented police (COP).

COP is a very elusive term. In other words, there is not an exact definition. However, in general, COP's primary principle is that police cannot fight crime alone. Crime is a community problem. Thus, the police and the community must become partners to solve problems. According to Goldstein (1990) when the community is involved in problem solving, the police have more reliable access to information that can readily identify problematic variables in the community. Once these community problems are identified, the police can proactively develop solutions to curtail the threat.

What can be identified in the history of policing are era and evolutions. These era and evolutions appear to be based on the complexity of society and the perceived perceptions of the public. The historical transitions have taken the police from a simple watchmen to a more complex community-oriented police officer.

Campus policing evolutions appear to have followed a similar pathway as "mainstream" policing. As the complexity of society and the perceived perceptions of the public changed, so did the role and nature of campus police.

History of Campus Policing

According to Brubacher & Ruby (2004) the period from the colonial college to the civil war were times of "rowdies, riots, and rebellions" (p. 50). Harvard University, the College of New Jersey, the University of Virginia, and, Yale University in the 1700s and 1800s all experienced student rebellions and rioting (Esposito & Stormer, 1989). In other words, anti-social behaviors have always been present in American universities.

Informal Control of the Student Body

However, during the times of the colonial colleges, it was university administrators and professors who were given the primary responsibility for detection, apprehension, and punishment of anti-social behavior (Brubacher & Ruby, 2004; Gelber, 1972). Neil (1980, p. 28) indicates that legal authority to punish students for misdemeanors was given to the administration and faculty in 1965 by the Massachusetts General Court.   The university administration and faculty could sanction students with fines or whippings.

Universities, in this time period, were highly homogenous. The population consisted of young white males. Thus, the control of the student body could be, in general, handled through informal means, such as professors and student review boards (Barr & Desler, 2000). However, as the informal means became ineffective to manage the student body more formal control structures had to be initiated.

Yale University Campus Police

In 1894 a major change in campus control was established. Yale University and the town of New Haven, Connecticut were having mass confrontations between the students of Yale and the townspeople. Many of the confrontations ended up with rioting that the New Haven Police had to control. The city administration and Yale University administrators decided to have New Haven Police Officers assigned to the campus. Since, these were city police officers, students became untrusting of their rationale for policing the university. Because students distrusted city police officers, Yale University hired the New Haven Police Officers as full time Yale University Campus Police Officers. Consequently, in 1894, it was Yale University that created the first university police department (Powell, Pander, & Nielson, 1994; Paoline & Sloan, 2003; Sloan, Lanier, & Beer, 2000; Ianarelli, 1968; Smith, 1988; Powell, 1971; Bordner & Peterson, 1983; Esposito & Stormer, 1989; Gelber, 1972; Neal, 1980; Powell, 1994; Bromley & Reaves, 1998; Powell, 1971a). This formalization of campus police, at Yale, appears to be an exception rather than the rule in that time period (Nichols, 1987). It does not appear that the wide spread use of modern campus policing was expressed until the later part of the 1960s (Smith, 1988).

What can be identified pre-1960s modern campus police and post-Yale campus is a watchmen-janitor style campus security to a watchmen-guard style of campus security (Gelber, 1972). Esposito and Stormer (1989) explain that the first type of formalized policing (watchmen-janitor) on university campuses were custodian and maintenance men. It was in the 1920s that watchmen-janitors were drafted from the maintenance and physical plant departments of the university to perform campus security duties (Nichols, 1987). The watchmen-janitors were given no formal training in law enforcement. In fact their duties were not law enforcement duties per se.' Their duties appeared to be more of preventative duties (i.e. checking locks, closing windows, etc.) or basically keeping an "eye" on things (Nichols, 1987). The custodial and maintenance duties were the primary functions of this staff with policing duties as their tertiary responsibility. The security duties of the custodians and maintenance men were primarily property protection. In other words, the policing duties entailed physical plant security. It should be no surprise that, historically, most university security departments were organized under the Office of the Physical Plant.

The next evolution in campus policing is the watchmen-guard era. According to Gelber (1972), it was shortly after World War II that the old style of watchmen-janitor security began to transform. According to Powell et al. (1994) and Sloan (1992) the watchmen-janitor duties later were expanded from protecting college property to enforcing campus rules. Esposito and Stormer (1989) argue that a watchmen-guard style of campus policing was added to campus security when a differentiation was adopted between custodial/maintenance duties and security duties. Moreover, the watchmen-

guard style of security also focused on student behaviors as well as protecting college property, whereas the watchmen-janitor only focused on property protection. However, the enforcement duties of the watchmen-guard were still rather unsophisticated (i.e. curfew, drinking, parietals, etc).

According to Geller (1972) there is really no singular event that caused the evolution from watchmen-janitor to watchmen-guard campus security. The change appears to be based on multiple events. Gelber (1972) suggested that the multiple events that may have been responsible for the change from a watchmen-janitor to a watchmen-guard were based on: larger numbers of student enrollment; more buildings on campus; traffic issues; changes in the nature of crime; university reorganization; and inadequate services provided by outside security contractors. Thus, it appears the there was no single event that changed the watchmen-janitor style of campus security to a watchmen-guard style of campus security. However, the multiple events could be considered changes in complexity of the university. Consequently, it could be argued that as the complexity of the university changed, the need for a more complex type of campus security officer was needed.

Campus Pseudo-Police Era

According to Smith (1988) with inclusion of the G.I Bill, the "baby boomers," and the specialization of academics led to an unprecedented growth in higher education. As the population of the university increased, it became more parallel to the population of the outside world. The new population began to create new problems on campuses. These problems were more complex than the informal system of watchmen-guard style

security could manage. It was during the 1950s that many universities began to use retired police officers as campus security in order to deal with the problems associated with university growth. In other words, universities began to see the need for trained law enforcement officers on university campuses. According to Sloan (1992) many campus security agencies moved out of the Physical Plant Department and worked under a different university administration. The move away from physical plant authority was to create a separate identity. The separate identity was to promote security enforcement legitimacy as well as autonomy. Similarly to promote legitimacy, campus security began to organization professional associations. The first professional associations was created in 1953 and known as the Campus Security Associations. This organization was created as a regional agency and later changed its name to the Northeast College and University Security Association. Later in 1958, eleven directors of security in the southwest created the National Association of College and University Traffic and Security Directors. After a name change in 1968, the organization was changed to the International Association of College and University Security Directors (Powell, 1971). However, currently the organization that grew out of the eleven security directors in 1958, is the International Association of Campus Law enforcement administrators (IACLEA, n.d.)

Regardless, of pseudo-police changes at this time, a campus security officer's authority was still limited. Campus police did not have the same official power as "sworn" police officers (Nichols, 1987). Campus police, at this time, were no more than security guards. Their duties of campus security were still custodial. In other words, their policing powers only included: detection, apprehension, and reporting. They had no official power of arrest (Sloan, 1992).

Modern Campus Police Era

The 1960s and 1970s is regarded as the era that changed the role of campus security into the modern campus police (Paoline & Sloan, 1993). The modern campus police can be marked as a time when the university recognized the need for their own "sworn" police officers or campus police officers that had the power of arrest; but were still part of the university culture.

Out of the 1960s and 1970s, brought widespread intentional law breaking in the form of protest. The traditional role of campus security that had been developed in the 1950s was unable to deal with this disorder. Kent State and Jackson State are examples of campus disorder that could not be handled by campus security at that time (Esposito & Stormer, 1989). Outside policing agencies were brought in to these universities to handle the disorder. In both instances, student protestors were shot by the outside policing agencies.

Many university administrators, at that time, were frustrated with the way in which outside law enforcement was handling disorder on university property. University administrators, at this time, felt that they must take care of their own campus problems or the outside world would do it for them. This was the beginning of the end of the watchmen-guard style of security.

Consequently, with the ineffectiveness of 1950s watchmen-guard style of security and the dissatisfaction of external police, university administrators saw the need for a professional campus police department. As conceptualized by university administrators, a professional campus police unit would have a two-pronged identity. First, campus

police would consist of highly trained law enforcement officers. Secondly, these officers would be aware and responsive to the needs of the university (Nichols, 1987).

The Devolution of In Loco Parentis

Furthermore, according to Esposito and Stormer (1989) an impetus for the change in campus security to campus policing occurred when court ruling of *Gott v. Berea College* 1913 ended based on D*ixon v. Alabama Board of Education* in 1961. Esposito and Stormer (1989) and Reaves and Goldberg (1995) argue that the adjustment in court rulings moved a student's status from a ward of the state to a student citizen.

According to Melear (2003), in the case *Gott v. Berea College* 1913, students of Berea College were frequenting a restaurant owned by Gott. The university mandated that Berea Students could not frequent establishments that were off-campus. Furthermore, the university administration warned any Berea College students that they would be expelled if they frequented an off-campus establishment.   Some Berea College students in disobedience went to Gott's restaurant and were eventually dismissed from the university. Gott, the restaurant owner, filed suit claiming that the college's mandate was unjust.

The court ruled that the college was acting *in loco parentis* of the students. In other words, the university functioned as the parent of the student. Thus, the college had the authority to issue rules and the students were obligated to follow those rules.

As discussed earlier D*ixon v. Alabama Board of Education* 1961 appears to have ended the Gott decision, which changed the definition of the student. In *Gott v. Berea College* 1913, the courts determined that the college was acting *in loco parentis*.

Therefore, the college administration was acting in the best interest of the student and could circumvent a student's ability to make his or her own decisions. However, in D*ixon v. Alabama Board of Education* 1961, the courts ruled that state supported institutions must provide students with *due process* rights when they are being expelled for misconduct (Kaplan & Lee, 1995).

According to La Roche (2005), in *Dixon v. Alabama Board of Education* 1961, six Alabama State College students were expelled from the college based on two incidents the university administration found disruptive to the orderly function of the institution. First, African American students tried to be served at an all white lunch counter and a sit in occurred. Secondly, some of the students who tried to be served at the all white lunch counter participated in demonstrations and rallies in different cities. Based on these two incidences, the president of the college found the students' behavior to be disruptive to the university and consequently six Alabama State College students were expelled.

While the lower court upheld the expulsion of the students, the Appeals Court overturned the decision. The Appeals Court ruled that students must be afforded notice and the right to be heard (Kaplan & Lee, 1995). The Dixon case provided the general standards of student due process.

The Gott and Dixon cases are important to campus policing because it changed the nature of the student and their relationship with police. Based on Gott, a student was considered a ward of the university. Thus, the university administration could impose rules and punishments based on arbitrary measures. The Dixon case gave students the right to due process, which in turn defined the student as a citizen. Because the student

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was now defined as a citizen, the administration had to provide the student with the same rights that were afforded to regular citizens. Therefore, the administration could no longer impose arbitrary rules and punishments. A university's rules and punishments had to be legally appropriate. In other words, rules and punishments became legally formalized. The formalization of rules and punishments created a need for a formalized entity that had the legal power to enforce those rules.

Professional "Modern" Campus Police

Consequently, it was in the later half of the 1970s that campus policing began to emerge as a professional agency. Professional campus policing involved many changes to the identified roles of antiquated campus security and campus security administrations. Primarily, campus police were granted full police powers in many jurisdictions. As Paoline and Sloan (2003) assert that when campus police were granted full police powers, they received "official legitimacy." (p. 615). In other words, campus police had the same power as "regular" police (Reaves & Goldberg, 1995). Consequently, they became more autonomous agencies. They no longer had to rely on outside police entities with arrest powers.

Campus police training also became comparable to "mainstream" police. Campus police attended professional training in the form of the police academy (Sloan, Lanier, & Beer, 2000). Furthermore, campus police agencies began to create policies and programs that would raise their levels of efficiency and effectiveness (Paoline & Sloan 2003).

Community Oriented Policing and Modern Campus Police

However, because of the nature of the university, campus police are based on prevention and service rather than control or arrest (Bordner & Peterson, 1983; Nichols, 1987; Esposito & Stormer, 1989). In other words, campus police must promote an environment that fits the mission of the university -- a conducive place for scholarly learning. As purported by Smith (1988), a campus reputation for safety and security is more valuable than how efficient it is in catching and prosecuting criminal behavior (Smith, 1988). Therefore, according to Bromley (1990) a university's campus police should be more service oriented and less reactive. The policing framework for service orientation and proactive policing, as discussed earlier, is a policing model referred to as community oriented policing (COP). It appears that COP is the current evolution in campus policing.

As discussed earlier, campus policing has largely paralleled "mainstream" policing (Sloan, Lanier, Beer, 2000). Mainstream policing in the last fifteen years has ideological moved from a traditional policing strategy to a COP strategy. Since COP is a policing strategy that is proactive and community-oriented rather than a traditional reactive form of policing, scholars (Griffith et al., 2004; Sloan et al., 2000) have argued that COP is complementary to the mission of the university. In other words, COP helps create a conducive place for scholarly learning. As purported by Smith (1988), a campus reputation for safety and security is more valuable than how efficient it is in catching and prosecuting criminal behavior (Smith, 1988). Thus, it should be no surprise that COP is rapidly becoming the current trend in contemporary campus policing.

As suggested by the history of American police, the evolutions of police have been, in general, determined by society and its level of complexity. It, therefore, should not be surprising that campus police have evolved, in part, by the same standards. In other words, campus police have evolved, in part, based on the campus culture and the level of campus complexity.

As discussed in both the history of American policing and history of campus policing sections of this study, as the role of police and campus police evolved, the need for professional training was conceptualized. The professional police training (police academy) would prepare the recruit with the technical knowledge to capably perform his or her duty on the street. While the academy was to prepare a recruit to have the technical skills to prepare them for the street, the academy also appears to have an additional purpose. Scholars (Hopper, 1977; Prokos & Padovic, 2000; Fielding, 1988; Beck & Wilson, 1998) argue that the academy is a socializing institution that also creates the character of a police officer. Thus, it could be argued that the academy has a two-fold purpose: to teach the technical knowledge of policing; and to create the character of a police officer. Moreover, the academy is a place where the recruit is no longer a citizen, but has not yet learned the skills and character to be a police officer. Therefore, the recruit is somewhere "betwixt and between."

The Rites of Passage and the Police Academy

Hopper (1977, p. 149) suggests, "On entering the police academy, young men begin one of the most complicated rites of passage in our society. This rite of passage

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consists of the series of instruction, ceremonies, and tests through which their status

changes from that of ordinary citizen to that of policeman."

Furthermore, Hopper (1977) argues that a cadet, in the academy, is not a

policeman. Hopper, posits that the a cadet is in an ambiguous state. Hopper likens a

cadet between a child and an adult. Thus, for a cadet to move into the role of the police

officer, he or she must move out of this ambiguous state. Consequently, to move out of

this ambiguous state, recruits must learn to become police officers through academy

training.

For a person to become a police officer, according to Prokos and Padavic (2000),

he or she must become certified as a police officer by the state sanctioning body[1]. The

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[1] For example, the Revised Code of Washington (RCW) and Washington Administrative Code (WAC) are presented here:

RCW 43.101.200 Law enforcement personnel -- Basic law enforcement training required -- Commission to provide.
(1) All law enforcement personnel, except volunteers, and reserve officers whether paid or unpaid, initially employed on or after January 1, 1978, shall engage in basic law enforcement training which complies with standards adopted by the commission pursuant to RCW 43.101.080. For personnel initially employed before January 1, 1990, such training shall be successfully completed during the first fifteen months of employment of such personnel unless otherwise extended or waived by the commission and shall be requisite to the continuation of such employment. Personnel initially employed on or after January 1, 1990, shall commence basic training during the first six months of employment unless the basic training requirement is otherwise waived or extended by the commission. Successful completion of basic training is requisite to the continuation of employment of such personnel initially employed on or after January 1, 1990.
(2) Except as otherwise provided in this chapter, the commission shall provide the aforementioned training together with necessary facilities, supplies, materials, and the board and room of noncommuting attendees for seven days per week. Additionally, to the extent funds are provided for this purpose, the commission shall reimburse to participating law enforcement agencies with ten or less full-time commissioned patrol officers the cost of temporary replacement of each officer who is enrolled in basic law enforcement training: PROVIDED, That such reimbursement shall include only the actual cost of temporary replacement not to exceed the total amount of salary and benefits received by the replaced officer during his or her training period.
[1997 c 351 § 13. Prior: 1993 sp.s. c 24 § 920; 1993 sp.s. c 21 § 5; 1989 c 299 § 2; 1977 ex.s. c 212 § 2.]

WAC 139-05-200   Requirement of basic law enforcement training.
(1) All fully commissioned law enforcement officers of a city, county, or political subdivision of the state of Washington, except volunteers and reserve officers, whether paid or unpaid, and officers of the Washington state patrol, unless otherwise exempted by the commission must, as a condition of continued employment, successfully complete a basic law enforcement academy or an equivalent basic academy sponsored or conducted by the commission. Basic law enforcement training must be commenced within the

state sanctioning body provides the training for police certification in the form of a police

academy. The police academy provides the trainee with a state designed curriculum for

police certification. The police academy curriculum, in general, covers three main

themes: procedure, policies, and practices (Prokos & Padavic, 2000; Fielding, 1988).[2]

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initial six-month period of law enforcement employment, unless otherwise extended by the commission.
(2) Law enforcement personnel exempted from the requirement of subsection (1) of this section include:
    (a) Individuals holding the office of sheriff of any county on September 1, 1979; and
    (b) Commissioned personnel:
       (i) Whose initial date of full-time, regular and commissioned law enforcement employment within
         the state of Washington precedes January 1, 1978; or
      (ii) Who have received a certificate of completion in accordance with the requirement of subsection
        of this section, and thereafter have engaged in regular and commissioned law enforcement
      employment without break or interruption in excess of twenty-four months duration.
(3) Each law enforcement agency of the state of Washington, or any political subdivision thereof, must
    immediately notify the commission by approved form of each instance where a commissioned officer
    begins continuing and regular employment with that agency.
(4) Failure to comply with any of the above requirements of basic law enforcement training will result in
    notification of noncompliance by the commission to:
    (a) The individual in noncompliance;
    (b) The head of his/her agency; and
    (c) Any other agency or individual, as determined by the commission.

WAC 139-05-240   Requirements of basic law enforcement academy. Each recruit in a basic law
enforcement academy will receive a certificate of completion only upon full and successful completion of
the academy process as prescribed by the commission. The performance of each recruit will be evaluated as
follows:
    (1) Academic performance. A standardized examination process will be utilized by all basic law
enforcement academies sponsored or conducted by the commission in evaluating the level of scholastic
achievement of each recruit. Such process will include the application of a designated minimum passing
score to each subject area and the availability of a retesting procedure. Failure to achieve the required
minimum passing score will result in termination of academy assignment.
    (2) Practical skills. A standardized evaluation process will be utilized by all basic law enforcement
academies sponsored or conducted by the commission in evaluating the level of practical performance of
each recruit. Such process will include the application of pass/fail grading to designated instructional
objectives for physical performance and the availability of a retesting procedure. Failure to achieve a final
passing grade in each practical skills dimension will preclude a certificate of completion.
    (3) Conduct. Failure to maintain an exemplary standard of conduct or to adhere to all rules, regulations,
and policies of a basic law enforcement academy sponsored or conducted by the commission may result in
termination of academy assignment.
720 six months

[2] Washington Adminstrative Code (WAC):

WAC 139-05-250
Basic law enforcement curriculum. The basic law enforcement curriculum of the commission may
include, but not be limited to, the following core subject areas with common threads of communications,
community policing, and professional ethics throughout:

    (1) Orientation and history of policing;

Prokos and Padavic (2000), Fielding (1988) and Beck and Wilson (1998) argue that the police academy is the first step for new recruits to be socialized as police officers.

Fielding (1988) and Beck and Wilson (1998) argue that two types of police socialization take place at the academy: formal socialization and informal socialization. The formal socialization is manifested in the academy through curriculum in terms of the policies, procedures, and practices. The curriculum is expected to change the recruits into novice police by supplanting technical knowledge. However, as Prokos and Padavic (2000) and Fielding (1983) point out, technical knowledge is only one aspect of the academy socialization process. An informal socialization also occurs within the academy.

While the formal process of socialization is shaped by the curriculum of the organization, the informal socialization is developed from the culture of the profession itself. Informal socialization is the process by which recruits develop a police character. In other words, the informal socialization process edifies a recruit into who they are and the values they hold. According to Van Maanen (1975), the informal socialization process moulds the attitude of an individual recruit into collective patterns.

Thus, the purpose of the academy is to create a social identity transformation. In other words, the academy is used to change the recruit into a novice police officer. The academy creates a social identity transformation by striping away the old person and

(2) Criminal law;
(3) Criminal procedures;
(4) Patrol procedures;
(5) Crisis intervention;
(6) Emergency vehicle operation course;
(7) Report writing;
(8) Traffic law;
(9) Firearms;
(10) Defensive tactics; and
(11) Criminal Investigation.

creating a new one. Or put another way, the academy de-socializes and then re-socializes a cadet. According to Fielding (1988), the academy is, at times, unpleasant and difficult. The difficulty and unpleasantness generates an *esprit de corp*, which in turn helps de-socialize and re-socialize the recruits into novice police officers (Harris, 1973). The academy, therefore, is a position between two fixed points with the intent of re-socializing a person into something they were not before.

<div align="center">The Theory of Liminality and the Rites of Passage</div>

Gennep (1960, p. 2) argued that life is a series of "passages." Whether the passage is through age, occupation, or status is irrelevant. The relevancy is that people, in their life course, will progresses through one or more of these passages. Gennep (1960) suggested that the progression is accomplished through the *rites of passage.*

Gennep reasoned that the *rites of passage* could be broken down into three distinctive categories: *rites of separation, rites of transition, and rites of incorporation* (Turner, 1987). Turner (1969) expanded on Gennep's theory of the *rites of passage* and critically focused on the subgroup *rites of transition*, which Gennep also referred to as the *liminal phase*. Alexander (1979) has argued that the *liminal phase* is the most important phase in the *rites of passage* because it is the point at which change occurs.

Turner (1987, 1969) has discussed Gennep's subgroups in the *rites of passage* as the *pre-liminal*, *liminal*, and *post-liminal* stages. The subgroups, as defined by Turner, appear to emphasize the importance of the *liminal* period. In other words, the *liminal* stage appears to be the basis for the *rites of passage*. The rites of passage, in general, involve three phases of human transition as illustrated in figure 2.1.

<div align="center">35</div>

Figure 2.1 The *Rites of Passage*

Pre-*liminal* Phase $\longrightarrow$ *Liminal* Phase $\longrightarrow$ Post-*liminal* Phase
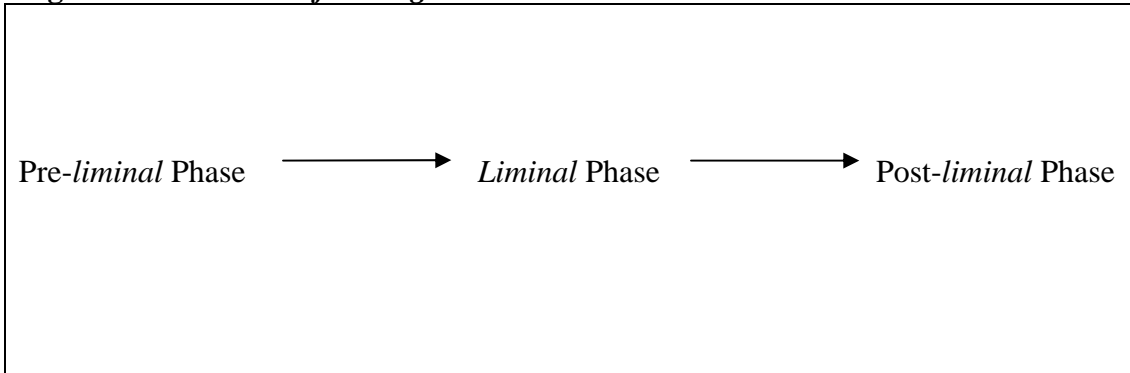
Note: Adopted from Turner (1969), *The Ritual Process: Structure and Anti-structure*

Pre-liminal Phase and the Rites of Passage

The first phase, according to Turner (1987, 1969) is the *pre-liminal* phase. In the *pre-liminal* phase, a person is separated from a social group and/or social structure. Turner (1969) explains that the separation from the group is symbolic in nature that identifies a detachment from a fixed social point. The detachment from a fixed social point elucidates an objective of progression to a new social group and/or social structure. However, before matriculation can occur in the new social group and/or social structure can occur, there is a transition period or the *liminal* stage.

Liminal Phase and the Rites of Passage

The *liminal* stage is fraught with ambiguity. The *liminal* "passenger" is somewhere in-between the old fixed point, but has not yet achieved his or her new social and/or structural standing (Turner, 1969, p. 94). Therefore, the *liminal* "passengers" have no identity or standing. Turner (1974, 1987) portrays the *liminal* "passenger" as structurally and socially invisible. The *liminal* period strips the person of the old and initiates them to their new position in life. The initiation in the *liminal* phase is a ritual or

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ceremony with the purpose to pass the subject from one social world to another. *Liminal*

"passengers" in the *liminal* phase have no status. Thus, they are undistinguishable from

other *liminal* "passengers." Because, the *liminals* are the undistinguishable from one

another and are treated similarly during the *liminal* process, group homogeneity is

developed. Since *liminals* have no understanding of the new position they seek, they are

passive to instruction. They also obey their instructors unconditionally. Turner (1969, p.

95) asserts, "It is though they are being reduced or ground down to a uniform condition to

be fashioned anew and endowed with additional powers to enable them to cope with their

new situation in life."

Post-liminal Phase and the Rites of Passage

After the liminal phase the neophyte enters the third phase of the *rites of passage*

or the *post-liminal phase*. The subject has detached from his or her old standing,

transitioned through the *liminal* phase, and is re-integrated back into community. The

subject is re-integrated into the community with the rights and privileges the new position

demands. The subject has moved from social invisibility back to social visibility. In

other words, the change is complete (Turner, 1987).

However, a subject does not always progress through the *rites of passage*

implicitly. Turner (1974) argues that a subject does cannot always resolve their

ambiguity in the *liminal* phase. These subjects are *marginals* as illustrated in figure 2.2.

Marginals will aspire to a higher social or structural social group, but culturally may

never be seen as a legitimate member of that social or structural group. In other words,

some *liminal* passengers may become trapped in the *liminal* space or *permanently liminal*.

Figure 2.2 The *Rites of Passage* and *Marginals*

Pre-*liminal* Phase   →   *Liminal* Phase   →   Post-*liminal* Phase

Marginals
(*Permanently Liminal*)
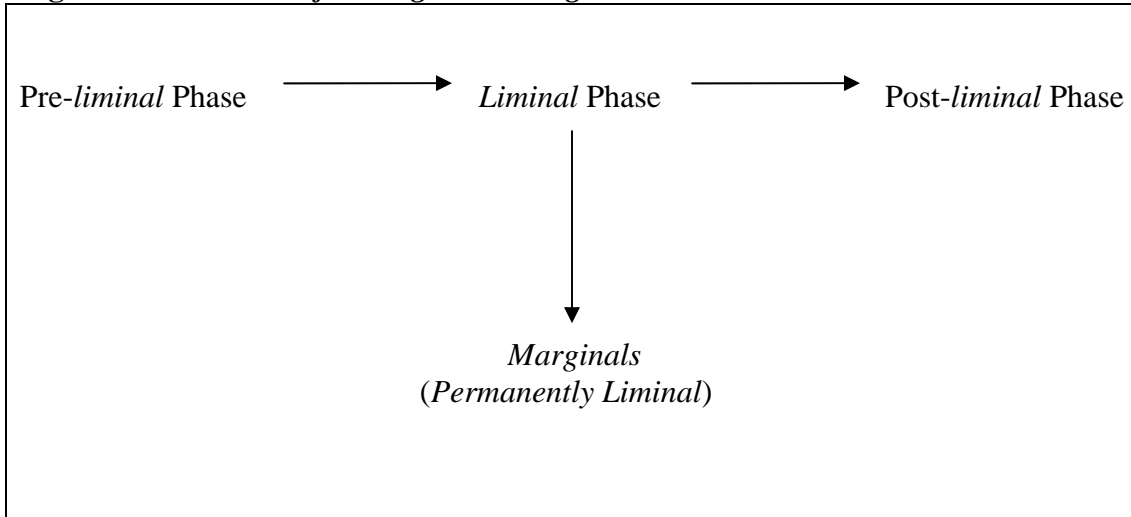
Note: Adopted from Turner (1969), *The Ritual Process: Structure and Anti-structure*

Police Legitimacy, Public Support, and Crime Control

In the 1800s, Sir Robert Peel, the father of modern policing argued that police could only be effective with public approval. Peel further articulated that police could not control crime without voluntary deference by the public (Gehrand, 2000).

Awerbuck (1999) suggested that there is no such thing as new ideas. Or put another way, the historical assumptions of Peel appear to still be true. In contemporary policing, for higher levels of crime control to exist, the police must have public support and respect. Simply put, the public must perceive the police as a legitimate authority for compliance.

According to Sunshine and Tyler (2003), police legitimacy has an overreaching effect on determining the levels of public's compliance with the law, willingness to cooperate with the police, willingness to assist the police, and empowerment of the

police. Consequently, if the police can enhance their legitimacy, they can have higher levels of community compliance and trust (Tyler, 2004). Higher levels of compliance and trust will lower the levels of crime while, conversely, lower levels of legitimacy will have the opposite effect.

Brown (2002) suggests that low levels of legitimacy perception can cause civil wide disorder and public distrust. Public district reduces the ability of the police to control crime, since the pubic is less likely to provide the police with crucial community information. Thus, the consequences of lower levels of perception of police legitimacy can increase crime.

Therefore, it needs to be understood that the levels of legitimacy will influence the public's reaction to the police. Police legitimacy is a social value held by the public. Police legitimacy is the social value that precipitates the community feeling that the police and institution of policing are an entitled authority. According to Sunshine and Tyler (2003) and Tyler (2004), if the public sees the police as an entitled authority, the public will be more likely to cooperate with the police. More cooperation with the police will result in lower levels of crime and disorder. Therefore, the social value of police legitimacy becomes a crucial variable for creating safe and secure environments.

Conclusion

It appears that campus law enforcement followed the same basic patterns as "mainstream" policing. When the community was homogeneous and simple, problem behaviors could, therefore, be handled by the community. In other words, the communities could police themselves. However, as the community became more

complex, so did the need for more formalized policing structures. As with both "mainstream" police and campus police, their early evolutions were a "watchmen" style of policing. However, as the communities of both the city and university became too complex for the watchmen, a more modern model of policing was created.

One of the factors that modernized the institution of policing was the police academy. In the mid 1960s and 1970s, as universities began to create their own professional police departments, campus police began to be required to attend state sanctioned police academies. In other words, campus police recruits were required to attend the same academy as their mainstream police counterparts. The police academy was created to *professionalize* the police by teaching technical knowledge to police recruits. However, the academy also formally and informally edifies a recruit into the character of a police officer. Therefore, the academy is the transition period for a recruit to become a police officer.

The academy, theoretically, can be considered the *liminal* phase of becoming a police officer. A recruit, in the academy is neither a citizen nor a police officer. A recruit, at that point, is ambiguous. The *liminal* phase and the academy are used to re-educate and re-socialize the person giving them the skills to move to the new social position or structure. Consequently, the ultimate goal of a recruit is to graduate from the academy and thus be reintegrated back into the community with their new status (*post-liminal* phase).

However, it has been acknowledged that *liminals* "passengers" can get caught in the *liminal* phase and never move out of it. These *liminals* are called *marginals*. A *marginal* attempts to attain a new social position or status, but can never achieve that

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position or status. It appears that campus police can be considered *marginals* as

illustrated in figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3 *Liminality*: Municipal Police, Campus Police and the *Rites of Passage*

Civilians (Pre-*liminal* Phase – Separating people or things from their usual social setting)

Police Academy (*Liminal* Phase – The period of transition)

Municipal Police
(Post-*liminal* Phase – New social status
is confirmed and recognized)

Campus Police

(Permanently Liminal -
Incomplete transition)

Legitimacy
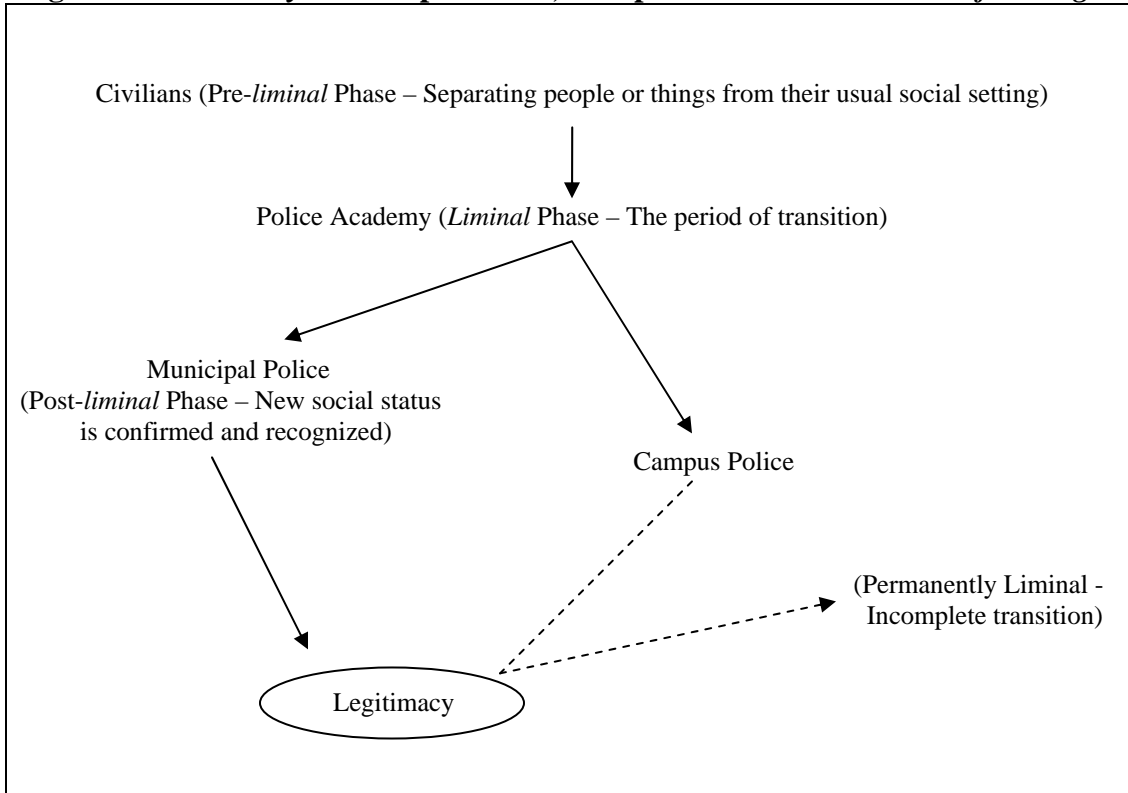
Note: Modification of Turner (1969), *Rites of Passage*

They leave their original community or status (*pre-liminal* phase). They attend, in

most instances, the same academy as their "mainstream" policing counterparts (*liminal*

phase). However, once out of the academy, campus police officers do not appear to be

recognized as "real" police. Thus, they are in a permanent position of *liminality*, where

they want to be recognized as a police officer, but cannot seem to be accepted at that

position. Thus, their legitimacy as a "real cop" is questioned (see figure 2.3).

Consequently, *marginals,* in terms of law enforcement, theoretically are not

identified as police. Not being identified as being a police officer causes questions about

the legitimacy of the position. It has been suggested that when police are not considered

legitimate, it is more difficult for the police to capture voluntary compliance from the

public. Furthermore, without voluntary compliance, it is more difficult for police to

develop collaborative relationships with the community. Voluntary compliance and

community collaboration are necessary for higher levels of crime control. Thus, it

becomes crucial that a campus police officer's legitimacy is understood if a university

desires to promote a safe and secure campus.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Overview of Methodology

The purpose of this chapter is to clarify the methodology of this study as well as the rationale for the methodology selected. As discussed earlier, the purpose of this study is to identify the perceptions of CP officers as well as the perceptions of WSU students. To better understand perceptions of campus police, this study used a mixed method, two-phase design. In a mixed method two-phase design, two data strings were collected. The first phase was a collection of qualitative data in the form of campus police interviews, while the second phase consisted of quantitative data in the form of student surveys.

According to Gillham (2002), a purely qualitative or quantitative methodology can be methodologically limiting. By incorporating a multi-methodological framework, the limitations of both pure methodologies can be taken into account. Thus, by using multiple methods of research, the limitation of each methodological perspective can be checked by the other methodology. In other words, validity will be increased by studying the same research question from different lenses. According to Cresswell (1994), studying a research question from different standpoints adds to the richness of the study by incorporating multiple sources of information. Studying a single phenomenon from different standpoints is called *triangulation*. Incorporating triangulation, according to Davis (1994), with its multiplicity of methods, adds more pieces to a puzzle. Thus, validity is increased by creating a balance between the strengths and weaknesses of each pure methodological technique.

The type of mixed methodology design used for this study incorporated a *mixed method, two-phase design*. In a mixed method, two-phase design, a staging process occurs. Initially, conclusions were drawn on the first qualitative thread of data gathered. The qualitative thread leads to a hypothesis. The second thread of quantitative data was used to test the hypothesis that was captured by the first data thread (Cresswell, 1994). According to Mertens and McLaughlin (2004), a mixed method approach is a robust tool for hypothesis testing.

Mixed Method, Two-Phase Design

The mixed method, two-phase design, as suggested earlier, is a methodological approach that, in part, consists of a two-string sequential data collection design. With this study, the first string of data collection was qualitative and consisted of interviews. The qualitative data addressed how CP officers' believed they were perceived by the community. The second string of data collection was quantitative. The quantitative data consisted of WSU students and their perceptions of CP officers and Pullman Police Officers. The purpose of the second phase or survey collection was to test the hypothesis that was identified and developed from the initial interviews.

Selection of Subjects

Washington State University Campus Police Officer and Pullman Police Officers

The primary purpose of this study was a comparison of legitimacy between two types of police organizations as perceived by WSU students. The organizations selected were the Washington State University Department of Public Safety and the City of

Pullman Police Department. The City of Pullman Police Department is what many

would consider a "mainstream" police agency. Consequently, the Pullman Police

Officers as well as the Pullman Police Department were compared to the WSU campus

police officers as well as the WSU Public Safety Department. The Pullman Police

Department and WSU Public Safety Department were chosen as comparison departments

based on four specific methodological considerations.

First, the two departments have relatively the same number of patrol officers.

Pullman has 27 patrol officers (PPD, n.d.), while WSU Public Safety Department has 18

(DPS, n.d.). Secondly, the populations of both the city and the campus are approximately

the same. The population of Pullman was 24,675 according to the 2000 census (U.S.

Census Bureau, n.d.), while the 2005-2006 university student population was 18,030,

with a fulltime staff of approximately 6,000 persons according to the Office of

Institutional Research at Washington State University (2007). In other words, there are

approximately 24,000 students, staff, and faculty at WSU. Third, the Chief (Weatherly,

2005) of the Pullman Police Department, explained that the Pullman Police Department

and the Washington State University Public Safety Department collaborate on

enforcement. In other words, PP officers and CP officers are not limited by their

community (Pullman or Washington Statue University Campus) jurisdictions.

Consequently, both agencies can carry out their enforcement in either the city or the

campus jurisdictions.

In 2005, it appears that alcohol and thefts appeared to be the most frequent crime

problems on campus, with 186 alcohol arrests and 165 thefts respectively for CP. There

were also fifty-five drug arrests, 40 burglaries, 28 simple assaults, 11 motor vehicle

thefts, two arsons, one weapon arrest, one aggravated assault, one robbery, and seven rapes (Department of Public Safety, n.d.a).

Similarly, in 2005, alcohol and thefts appeared to be the most frequent crime problems off campus with 407 alcohol arrests and 464 simple thefts respectively for PP. There were also 168 DUI and drug arrests, 153 burglaries, 114 simple assaults, three motor vehicle thefts, three arsons, 50 weapon complaints or arrest, two robberies, and ten rapes (Department of Public Safety, n.d.a). Although, PP handle more cases, the types of cases are similar for both departments.

Lastly, both the PP and CP are required to attend the Washington State Criminal Justice Training Commission, or what most would call the police academy (see revised Washington Statute 43.101.200). In other words, both agencies' officers are commissioned by the same sanctioning body. Consequently, both agencies' officers attended the same academy and, therefore, have the same basic police training.

Based on these four methodological considerations, it appears that an accurate comparison could be made between a PP officer and a CP officer. According to Shadish, Cook and Campbell (2002), there is a high degree of validity when comparisons are *generalizable* to persons, settings, and time. Based on the selection of the two departments, it appears that a high level of *genralizabiltiy* could be concluded. Consequently, validity was high, and the two groups of police being studied were methodologically sound.

Pilot Study Interviews with Washington State Campus Police

In October of 2005, interviews were conducted with CP officers. The interviews were part of a class study in EdAd 521: *Social Foundations of Education* at Washington State University. The interviews were used to identify campus police officers' perceptions of university police work. Five CP officers from Washington State University were interviewed. These officers were asked a series of open-ended questions. The questions were used to identify the officer's perceptions of university police work and community oriented policing (COP) as a policing strategy. The answers given by the officers were then compared and contrasted to the literature.

Interestingly, a major identifiable theme from the interviews was that CP officers felt that a large portion of the public does not perceive them as legitimate or "real" police. In fact, as perceived by the CP officers, the public identifies them, in many instances, as nothing more than security guards. Thus, in many instances, their credibility, respectability, and law enforcement legitimacy was questioned. From those initial interviews, the theme of legitimacy became an interesting focal point for study.

In a seminal work by Bordner and Peterson (1985), campus police from an urban university were studied. The urban university studies employed sixty-one campus police officers (p.231) with a student population of 20,333 (p.244). The university was located in a large southern city with a population of two million persons.

The researchers used a mixed methodology. Primarily, campus police observation and interviews were used in order to discover perceptions and attitudes of campus police, while other research methods were used in order to compliment the campus police interviews and observations. Bordner and Peterson (1985) used content

analysis of university newspapers, departmental documents, and departmental statistical records to compliment the campus police interviews and observations.

Based on the pilot study and the work of Bordner and Peterson (1985), three questions seemed apparent. First, would CP officers' feelings of the public's perceptions be consistent in later interviews from the pilot study? Secondly, would CP officers' feelings of the public's perceptions be similar to the Bordner and Peterson (1985) study. Lastly, the Bordner and Peterson (1985) study did not identify if CP officers perceptions are consistent with the public. In other words, would the feelings of CP officers be justified? Consequently, the study was developed to determine the levels of congruency between citizen perceptions of CP and CP officers' perceptions of how they feel they are identified by the public.

As suggested earlier, five CP officers were interviewed in October of 2005. One of the primary themes uncovered in the interviews was the perceived legitimacy levels of campus police. Consequently, the first string of data collection was a re-test of CP officers' feeling concerning community perceptions. However, the interviews were conducted with a new questionnaire that specifically addresses the theme of legitimacy (see appendix C).

Campus Police Officer Interview Protocols

As part of a formal study protocol, the study was approved by the Washington State University Institutional Review Board (IRB No. 9214) (see appendix G) and subject participation was voluntary. The target population for the first phase of data collection was CP officers. Since it was not apparent how many CP officers would be willing to be

interviewed, the researcher incorporated a purposeful and a snowballing sampling

technique. In other words, the sampling consisted of choosing "typical" individuals

because they represent the archetypal person under study. Thus, any person who was a

CP officer and had patrol duties was considered for the sample population. Once the

sample of CP officers were interviewed, *generalizable* results for the population were

expected to emerge.

According to Mertens and McLaughlin (2004, p. 146), "qualitative sampling is

relatively flexible." As a general rule in case studies, the N can be a low as one (Mertens,

1988). However, as with any study, the more cases the more *generalizable* the results.

Consequently, any and all CP officers willing to be interviewed were used in the sample.

Administration of the survey occurred during an officer's regularly scheduled

shift. Furthermore, a meeting with the Chief of Washington State University Department

of Public Safety was scheduled on December 5, 2006 before conducting any CP

interviews. The meeting with the Chief had a two-fold purpose. First, the meeting was

to discuss the nature of the study. Secondly, the meeting was to elicit the approval of the

study by the chief.

After discussing the nature of the study, the protocols, and IRB approval, the

Chief approved the study and the following week, December 14, 2006 sent out an email

to all CP officers. The Chief's email discussed the pilot study that the researcher had

conducted a year earlier and that the researcher wanted to conduct more interviews. The

Chief also discussed the voluntary nature of the study. The letter ended with the

researcher's contact information. The Chief's approval of the study and letter of support

to the officer, the researcher felt, would create officer "buy in."   The following day

(December 15, 2006), the researcher also emailed, on the CP officer list serve, the nature of the study and questions that would be asked of the officers. The researcher also let the officers know that the researcher could interview them at any time and location. The purpose of the follow up letter to the Chief was to add more detail and de-mystify the interview. The researcher received two responses to my emails and set up interviews with those officers on December 18, 2006. After interviewing the two officers that responded to the email, a third officer was asked by one of the participating officers to be interviewed. Consequently, on December 18, 2006, a total of three CP officers were interviewed. The officers who were interviewed suggested that they could ask other officers if they would be willing to be interviewed. Based on the interviewed officers' solicitation, two more officers agreed to be interviewed on December 22, 2006. Unfortunately, no other officers responded to the email or could be solicited into the interview process. On March 14, 2007, a final email was sent out on the CP officer list serve asking if any officers had changed their minds and would consider being interviewed. No officers, based on the final email, agreed to be interviewed. Consequently, a total of five CP officers were interviewed. Since there are 17 CP officers that the chief identified with patrol duties, five interviews resulted in less than a third of the WSU Campus Police Department patrol division being interviewed.

The CP officers were informed prior to the interview the nature of the study –a dissertation study regarding CP officer legitimacy issues and the number of interview questions. The officers were also provided with the questions. Furthermore, CP officers were re-informed that their chief was aware of the study and gave his consent for the researcher to administer the questionnaire. Initially, the officers were notified that the

study was voluntary and that they could refuse to participate. Furthermore, officers were notified that even if they agreed to be interviewed, they could stop at anytime and they did not have to answer any question that they felt was uncomfortable. The officers were informed that no names or ranks would be used that could identify an individual officer. The officers were also informed that notes would be taken. However, the notes would not identify an officer by name. Each officer would be identified by a letter (i.e., Officer A, Officer B, etc.). Finally, the officers were asked if the interview could be recorded with a digital voice recorder in order to reduce researcher bias and to preserve the integrity of the officer's answers. However, for any officer who did not wish to be recorded only hand notes would be used to record his or her responses. No officer refused to be recorded. It was at this point that officers were given the opportunity to ask questions concerning the study or protocols.

The CP officers who agreed to participate in the interview were required to sign a Washington State University Internal Review Board Human Subjects Form. The form provided participants with a written description of the study, as well as a waiver form that by signing acknowledged their voluntary participation (see Appendix E). The CP officers were also informed that the information from the interview will be kept strictly confidential and no identifiable characteristics would be addressed in the final write up.

Student Survey Protocols

The subjects for the survey portion of the study were undergraduate students at WSU. The students surveyed were enrolled at WSU during the fall semester of 2006. Courses surveyed in this phase of the study were: CRMJ 101, section 01 (Introduction

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to Criminal Justice Administration) N=76; CRMJ 365, section 01 (Juvenile Justice and Corrections) N=71; PSCHE 105, section 02, 03, and 04 (Introduction to Psychology) N=215; SPMGT 377, section 01 (Legal Aspect of Sport) N=56: T&L 402 and 405, section 01 (Instructional Practicum I) N=85; And POLS 101, section 03 (Introduction to Political Science) N=86. The survey protocol was approved by the Washington State University Institutional Review Board (IRB No. 9214) (see Appendix G), and participation was voluntary. Participants were surveyed during their normal regularly scheduled course times.

The method of participant selection was based on a convenience sample of WSU undergraduate students. As discussed earlier, the students were selected from courses at WSU. The courses were chosen based on the researcher's access to them. Consequently, the student selection, for the study, was not random and therefore involved a risk of bias. However, the characteristics of undergraduate students should be, in general, similar (Goodwin, 2002). Therefore, the risk of bias, in terms of undergraduate perceptions, should be reduced.

Wintre, North, and Sugar (2001) have argued that undergraduate students may not be accurate representations of the outside population. For example, university students tend to be from higher socio-economic class and, in general, have higher cognitive skills than their peer groups that do not attend a university. However, Goodwin (2002) explained that perceptual studies are largely unaffected by characteristics of undergraduate students. In other words, in the case of perceptual studies, undergraduate opinions can be *generalizable*. Furthermore, in terms of this study, perceptions of legitimacy need to be based on the clientele that the campus police serve. Therefore,

undergraduate perceptions appear to be the foundation for understanding campus police legitimacy levels.

Since the purpose of the study was to determine student perceptions of legitimacy between a PP officer and a CP officer, two surveys were used to capture those legitimacy perceptions. Consequently, the two different surveys were equally administered in each course. For example, in POLS 101, section 03a (Introduction to Political Science), the N was equal to 86 students. Therefore, approximately 43 students received a survey for PP officers, while approximately the other 43 students receive the surveys for CP officers (see Appendices B and D).

Instrumentation

The following section will describe the three types of instruments used in this study. The first instrument assessed how CP officers felt that they were perceived by the public. The second and third instruments were surveys that determined student perceptions of the Washington State University Department of Public Safety and Pullman City Police Department. The two student surveys were labeled "Perceptual Studies of Pullman Police" and "Perceptual Studies of Washington State University Campus Police."

Campus Police Officer Interview Instrument

A questionnaire was administered individually to each of the six or seven CP officers who agree to participate in the interview. The questionnaire incorporated a series of four open-ended questions related to their assessment of students' perceptions of CP

officers in terms of legitimacy. The first question asked officers if they believe there is a

perceived difference between campus police and "mainstream" police. Secondly, the CP

officers were asked to give examples that might make light of their beliefs. Third,

officers were asked, what may make their occupation appear less legitimate than

"mainstream" police? Lastly, officers were asked, what could be done to increase their

public perception of legitimacy? (see Appendix F).

The goal of qualitative analysis involves classifying information in order to make

sense out of the data that are gathered (Cresswell, 2003). Cresswell (2005) suggests that

in order to interpret the qualitative data certain steps must be followed. First, the data

must be organized and prepared for analysis. Second, a general sense of the data must be

explored. Third, the data must be coded. The coding disaggregates the information into

categories. Fourth, once the data are coded into categories they must be further reduced

into themes. The themes allow the researcher to further detail the event being studied.

The questions developed for the CP officer interviews grew out of the

researcher's original pilot study. As discussed earlier, the pilot study concerned CP

officer perception of Community Oriented Policing. However, once the information was

coded and then developed into themes, a theme of legitimacy became a major focal

point. Consequently, the interview questions specifically regarding "legitimacy"

perceptions were developed from a pilot study. However, once the new questions were

administered, the same process for analyzing data, in general, as outlined by Cresswell

(2005), was conducted. Information gleaned from the interviews was developed into

themes.[3] The interviews of CP officers completed the first string of data collection,

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[3] Coding was not conducted, since the actual interview questions were, in general, themes identified from
the pilot study.

which identified research questions. Consequently, the second phase of data collection

involved surveys of WSU Students in order to test the research questions identified in the

first data collection phase.

Washington State University Student Surveys

The second phase of data collection was surveys taken by students and WSU.

While the first phase of data collection was interviews, the second phase consisted of

surveys that provided the information necessary to perform quantitative measurements.

The quantitative measurements were used to determine if student perceptions are

congruent or inconsistent with CP officers' feelings as well as make inferential prediction

concerning multiple independent variables.

Student Survey Instrument

The student survey instruments were labeled "Perceptual Studies of Pullman

Police Officers" and "Perceptual Studies of Washington State University Campus Police

Officers." The first page of the survey discussed the purpose of the study. The first page

also described the confidential nature of the survey. Lastly, the first page allowed the

student to indicate: 1). If they do not wish to participate in the survey; 2). If they have

already participated in the survey; and 3). If they are under the age of 18. The first page

of the survey, basically, clarified and summarized the IRB consent form as well as

indicated why a student would not want to take the survey (see appendices A and C).

The actual survey instrument was divided into six sections. The first section of

the survey instrument asked basic demographic questions. While the first section

respondents were allowed to check their responses, the second section respondents had to write out answers.

The third section of the survey was a modified "police legitimacy scale" developed by Sunshine and Tyler (2003). The scale used nineteen items to identify levels of legitimacy[4]. Sunshine and Tyler's (2003) scale used a five-point Likert scale with a one representing "agree" to a five, which represents "disagree." Questions six, seven, eight, nine, seventeen, eighteen and nineteen were reversed coded. The reverse coding was developed to help alleviate *acquiescence bias*, which will be explained later in this chapter. The Sunshine and Tyler (2003) legitimacy scale had an alpha reliability of .84. In other words, the items on the survey were valid in their attempt to measure legitimacy. Once the student surveys were completed and analyzed, a factor analysis was conducted and a corresponding alpha rating was recalculated using the researcher's sample population. The factor analysis and recalculated alpha reliability will be discussed in Chapter Six. The Sunshine and Tyler (2003) scale was the basis for calculating the perceived legitimacy levels of PP and CP and was conceptualized as the dependent variable of this project.

The fourth section of the survey was an adjective scale. In this section, students determined their stereotyping level of a CP officer or a PP officer (dependant of the survey) based on eight adjectives. Four adjectives were negative (i.e., aggressive) and four were positive (i.e., helpful). Furthermore, each adjective was measured based on a Likert scale. In other words, the respondents could determine their stereotyping level of an officer based on a seven point Likert scale with a one suggesting that the adjective

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[4] Legitimacy as operationalized by Sunshine and Tyler (2003, p. 539) is the "perceived obligation to obey the directives of a legal authority, trust in the institution of policing and in individual police officers in one's neighborhood, and affective feelings toward the police."

does "not at all" describe the officer and a high of seven which indicates that the adjective "very much" describes the officer.

The original adjective scale was designed by Hopkins, Hewstone, and Hantzi (1992) and used to identify student stereotyping perceptions toward School Liaison Officers (SLO). The scale that was used for this study is a modified scale of Hopkins et al. (1992) and Jackson (2002) that was used to identify student stereotyping of police officers that are assigned to public schools i.e. student resource officers (SROs) and SLOs. Once the surveys were collected and analyzed, conclusions between student stereotyping of CP and PP based on adjectives, were analyzed determined. As with the Sunshine and Tyler (2003) legitimacy scale, an alpha reliability was conducted to determine how well the adjectives actually measure what they are supposed to be measuring. As with the modified Sunshine and Tyler (2003) scale, the adjective scale's alpha reliability will be discussed in the Chapter Seven. [5]

The fifth section of the student survey asked a series of true or false questions. The true/false section identified student perceptions of police powers for CP officers or PP officers (dependant of the survey). This section allowed the researcher to make descriptive student perceptual comparisons between a PP officers' and a CP officers' policing powers.

The final section of the surveys asked for "yes" or "no" responses. The primary purpose of section six was to identify contact with police officers. Furthermore, section six was used to determine if police contacts were positive. In other words, did the student feel that the officer treated them fairly during the contact? The information in this

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[5] The Hopkins, Hewstone, and Hantzi (1992) and the Jackson (2002) adjective scales were not measured for reliability.

section was used to identify police legitimacy perceptions based on contact (positive or negative) with an officer.

Legitimacy Predictor Variables

Eleven independent variables were chosen based on prior literature from municipal/state police, campus police, as well as CP interviews, in order to identify significant perceived legitimacy levels (Bordner & Peterson, 1983; Garcia & Cao, 2005; Griffith et al., 2004; Hopkins et al., 1992; Hurst, Browning, & Browning, 2000; Miller & Pan, 1987; Murphy & Worrall, 1999; Reisig and Giacomazzi, 1999; Reisig & Parks, 2000; Sloan, 1992; Weitzer & Tuch, 1997; White and Menke, 1982; Worrall, 1999; Zamble & Annesley, 1987). These 11 independent variables were: 1) Does the respondent live on campus; 2) Is the respondent a fraternity or sorority member; 3) Is a member of the respondent's family a police officer; 4) Respondent's home city (urban/rural); 5) Respondent's race/ethnicity; 6) If the respondent had contact with a by a police officer (campus or municipal) was the contact negative (perceived as treated unfairly); 7) If the respondent new someone who had contact with the police (campus or municipal) was the contact negative positive (perceived as treated unfairly); 8) Respondent's gender; 9) Respondent's class standing in college; 10) Respondent's age; 11) And a positive adjective scale. These independent variables were further reduced into individual level variable and contextual variables.

Individual Level Variables

In the current study, the research incorporated *family member a police officer; race/ethnicity; gender; class standing; age; stereotyping of the police*, *and if the respondent had contact with a by a police officer (PP or CP dependant of the survey) was the contact negative (perceived as treated unfairly)*, as the individual level variables.

There does not appear to be studies of family members of police officers in terms of shaping attitudes or perceptions of legitimacy. However, according to Barling, Kelloway, and Bremermann (1991), family socialization influences the development of a child's occupational interests. In fact, according to Barling et al. (1991) children, especially sons tend to follow in the career paths of their fathers. Similarly, Goodman (1957), in a study of values and attitudes of children, argued that boys chose occupations based on the proximity of acquaintances. In other words, in terms of the Goodman (1957, p.12) study, children develop occupational desires based on a "relative's or friend's occupation." Consequently, it seems likely if a family member of a respondent is a police officer that will increase the likelihood of a positive response.

It appears to be almost unarguable that research tends to indicate that blacks view the police less favorably than whites (Hurst, Browning & Browning, 2000; Murphy & Worrall, 1999; Reisig & Parks, 2000; Weitzer & Tuch, 1997; Worrall, 1999). Similarly, Hispanics also tend to view the police less favorably than whites (Garcia & Cao, 2005; Weitzer & Tuch, 1997). Because the community members under the current project were highly homogenous (see table 5.10), ethnicity was divided into two distinct groups for analysis, white and non-white.

The effects of gender and police perceptions have been mixed (Brown & Benedict, 2002). For example, Reisig and Giacomazzi (1999), in a study of perceptions of police in a northwest town of 25,000 residents, found that females view the police more favorably than do men. Similarly, Hopkins et al.'s (1992) study of SLOs in 13 public schools found that girls were more favorable toward police in general and SLOs specifically than males. In contrast, Correia, Reisig, and Lovrich (1996), in a study of citizen perceptions of Washington State Police found that males view the police more favorably that females, while Worrall (1999), from his national telephone survey, found no gender differences in perceptions of police. Although the campus police literature is slight, two studies appear to measure perceptions of campus police. However, the perceptual measurements were in terms of satisfaction with services and effectiveness of service (Griffith et al., 2004; Miller & Pan, 1987). In the Griffith et al. (2004) study, the researchers surveyed students at West Texas A&M University on their satisfaction with campus police services. According, to Griffith et al. (2004), gender was the only independent variable (out of age, ethnicity, and gender) to explain the variation in satisfaction. Moreover, it was the female respondents who significantly contributed to higher levels of satisfaction with campus police. Similarly, Miller and Pan (1997), in a study of undergraduate students at Purdue University, found that females have more respect for Purdue campus police officers than did males.

Age has also been shown to be a significant predictor of perceptions of police (Brown & Benedict, 2002). Police studies have indicated that younger persons are less favorable toward police than older persons (Correia et al. 1996; Reisig & Giacomazzi, 1998; Worrall, 1999). Conversely, in the Miller and Pan (1997) study of campus police

at Purdue University, one of the researchers' alternative hypothesis was that undergraduate under the age of twenty-two would have less favorable views toward Purdue University police than older students. However, the findings of the Miller and Pan (1997) study indicated that typical undergraduate students (under 22) at Purdue University had moderately favorable perceptions of campus police. Similarly, Griffith et al. (2004) found that age did not significantly predict satisfaction perceptions of campus police at West Texas A&M University.

Although, it does not appear that class standing has been studied, in terms of perceptions of police, class standing was added as an independent variable in this project. In a sense, it seems intuitive that a higher class standing would identify, in general, an older student. An older student (higher class standing), in terms of age and police perceptions, should equate to higher levels of favorability (Correia et al. 1996; Reisig & Giacomazzi, 1998; Worrall, 1999).

An adjective scale developed by Hopkins et al. (1992) was used to identify student stereotyping of SLOs at 13 public schools. The original Hopkins et al. (1992) study incorporated eight adjectives (four positive and four negative) on a 1-7 point Likert scale to determine levels of positive and negative stereotyping of SLOs. Hopkins et al. (1992) explained that the adjective scale was also used to identify students' perceptions of police in general. Consequently, the adjective scale is more than just a measurement of stereotyping. The scale can also be used as an instrument to identify a student's overall perception of the police as well.

The final individual level variable that will be discussed is negative contact with an officer. Wilson (1985) argued that police and citizen interactions are a primary

element in determining an individual's attitude toward the police. Citizen evaluations are much more positive when a citizen believes a police officer treated him or her fairly (Correia et al. 1996). In other words, satisfaction with the police has been shown to be directly related to personal experience with the police (Brandl, Frank, Worden, & Bynum, 1994; Reisig & Correia, 1999; Sims et al., 2002). Similarly, Sloan (1992) found that students who had negative involuntary contacts with campus police (i.e. traffic tickets) were less likely to believe that campus police maintain collegial relationships with students.

Contextual Level Variables

The first contextual level variable in the current project was, does the respondent live on campus? Although, CP can enforce rules of law both on and off campus, in general, their primary enforcement jurisdiction is located on campus. Thus, any on-campus infractions would, in general, be handled by CP. Contextually, it would seem that where a person resides would determine contact, in general, by the specific police agency (PP or CP). In other words, campus students should, in general, have more contact with CP and off-campus students should have more contact, in general, with PP. As suggested by White and Menke (1982), citizens who have had contact with police appear to have been less favorable views of police. Therefore, theoretically, CP should have less favorable views by on-campus students, while conversely, off campus students should have less favorability of PP. The second contextual level variable was dependent on the respondent's Greek affiliation. Greek Row (the area of the city where the fraternity and sororities are located) has a "targeted" foot patrol in place. Or put

another way, PP have a mandatory foot patrol (on the weekends) on Greek Row (Weatherly, 2006). Consequently, it would seem that PP will have more contact with Greek members than CP. Similarly, based on the study by White and Menke (1982), Greek members should have less favorability for PP based on police contact.

Third, Zamble and Annesley (1987) theorized that the rural community members would have higher levels of favorable views toward the police than urban community members. Based on the literature, Zamble and Annesley (1987) conducted a study comparing attitudes of rural community members' (population of less than 100,000) between urban community members (population of several million) view of police. The results of the study indicated that rural community members had more positive attitudes toward local police as well as a more positive global perspective of police than did urban community members.

The final contextual level variable in the current project was dependent if the respondent knew someone who had contact with the police (campus or municipal) and the contact was negative (perceived as treated unfairly)? According to Repenning, Powell, Doane, and Dunkle (2001, p.4), an individual's *social reality* is gathered from four sources: personal experience; significant others, social groups and institutions; and mass media. Significant others, and social groups and institutions appears to inculcate a person's *social reality.* S*ocial reality* is a process where a person formulates opinions from second hand knowledge. Lederman, Lederman, and Kully (2004) similarly argue that *social reality* can ultimately form an individual's perception of truth. Davis (1990) in a study of attitudes of police discovered that respondents indicated lower levels of favorability of police, when a family member was perceived to be treated negatively

during an arrest. Similarly, Rosenbaum, Schuck, Costello, Hawkins, and Ring (2005) found that direct contact with police does not shape attitudinal perceptions, in general, regardless of the perceived experience. However, Rosenbaum et al. (2005) discovered that vicarious beliefs significantly contribute to attitudinal perceptions of police both positive and negative.

Student Survey Threats

There appeared to be two main threats to the survey research. The first threat would be caused when the respondent would respond in socially desirable ways. In other words, the respondent would answer the questions the way he or she believed were socially correct or would answer the questions the way he or she believed the researcher wanted. Consequently, the respondent would not answer the questions with his or her true opinions. The threat of social desirability was controlled with a variety of methodological considerations. First, social desirability was controlled by discussing the anonymity of the survey. In other words, the researcher discussed the private nature of the survey in that no names were attached to the survey. Therefore, the respondents were able to answer the questions truthfully, since they were certain that their names could not be applied to any particular survey. Secondly, respondents were briefed on the how to take the survey. The respondents were instructed that the survey was an opinion survey in that there were no wrong or right answers. The briefing gave the respondents the confidence to answer the survey with their true opinions.

The second threat to the survey was *acquiescence bias*. *Acquiescence bias* is when a respondent anticipates the answers to the survey questions. In other words, there

is a tendency for the respondent to agree with particular statements. Acquiescence bias is more susceptible to surveys with questions that are logically formulated. To account for acquiescence bias, questions in the "legitimacy" scale section were reversed coded. In other words, the "legitimacy" scale in both "A" and "B" surveys did not follow a linear pattern of response. Consequently, the respondents were not able to anticipate an answer to a particular question. Likewise, the adjective scale was also developed with reverse coding. Consequently, stereotyped levels of responses could not be patterned. The respondent, therefore, had to read each question carefully and critically examine his or her response. Lastly, independent *samples* were used in order to control for *acquiescence bias*. *Independent samples* are samples that are totally independent of one another (Coladarci, Cobb, Minimum, & Clarke, 2004). Or put another way, samples are independent when observation in one group is in no way related to observations in another group. This assumes that one sample does not effect the selections of the other sample. For example, in this study, each respondent only answered one survey, either a CP officer or a PP officer. Therefore, each respondent's survey was independent of another survey.

The researcher could have performed *dependant sampling*. In *dependant sampling*, the samples are not independent of one another. In other words, only one sample is used to make comparison (i.e., treatment and control groups or pre and post tests) (Bachman & Paternoster, 1997). Consequently, the researcher could have given both instruments (PPO and CPO surveys) to each respondent. Giving each survey to each respondent would have been a dependant sampling methodology. In this instance, a measure would be identified to determine the legitimacy levels an individual perceive

between CP officers and PP officers. However, if both surveys were given to an

individual respondent, the respondent may have tacitly understood that the surveys were

being used to measure a difference between the two organizations. Becoming cognizant

that the surveys were trying to measure differences or similarities between a CP officers

and a PP officer may have caused the respondent to respond differently. To control for

respondent bias, it appeared more appropriate to conduct *independent samples* or one

survey per respondent. Consequently, with only one survey, the respondents would not be

able to make any conclusion about the nature of the survey and respond appropriately.

Conclusion

This study utilized a mixed methodology design. A mixed method design

according to Merten and McLaughlin (2004) is not just a simple conjoining of qualitative

and quantitative data. A mixed methodology is a complex way of looking at a single

phenomenon. Looking a single phenomenon in a complex way strengthens that

understanding (Toseland, 1994). In other words, a mixed methodology can create more

credibility on a single subject based on the multiple sources of information (Harrison,

1994; Sherman & Strang, 2004). Mixed methodology combines a story with numbers,

which adds a holistic dimension to research (Sherman & Strang, 2004).

The methodology in this study incorporated a mixed method, two-phase design.

This design allowed the researcher to first gather qualitative data in the form of

interviews. The interview data developed a hypothesis for the study, which was the

basis of the dependent variable. Secondly, quantitative data were collected in the form of

student surveys. The survey data tested the hypothesis that emerged from the qualitative data string.

In the study design, CP officers were interviewed on a series of questions developed from an earlier pilot study and the work of Bordner and Peterson (1985). The primary objective of the CP officer interviews was to develop a working hypothesis. As discussed earlier, an earlier interview of CP officers suggested that they, in many instances, were not perceived as legitimate by the public. It is the absence or presence of a perceived legitimacy difference that the interviews were examining. Secondly, a student survey was given to selected student at WSU. WSU students are, arguably, a CP officer's and a PP officer's primary clientele. Consequently, student surveys were the quantitative measurement that tested the hypothesis gathered from the first data string. It is the extent of the perceived legitimacy difference and the factors associated with the difference that the quantitative phase of this study tried to capture.

CHAPTER FOUR

CPO INTERVIEW FINDINGS

Introduction

The purpose of Chapter Four is to discuss the findings in the first phase of this

project. Since the study incorporated a mixed-methodology, two types of data were

collected. Because of the diversity in the types of data collected, each will be discussed

separately. Consequently, Chapter Four will only present the findings from the

qualitative data obtained from the CP officer interviews. The findings for Chapter Four

provided the information necessary to answer the first research question, *to what extent*

do CP officers' feel that they are not perceived as "real" police?

Interview Questionnaire Development

As discussed earlier, the interview questions were constructed based on two

earlier studies – first, a pilot study that the researcher conducted in 2005 to determine the

perceptions of COP by CP officers at WSU. Although, the pilot study was to determine

perceptions of COP by CP officers, interviews revealed a legitimacy perception that

appeared to require further investigation. Secondly, because the pilot study identified

legitimacy issues, it was necessary to develop legitimacy questions for further study.

Bordner and Peterson (1983) conducted a study to understand, describe, and

compare campus police to municipal departments. As part of the Bordner and Peterson

(1983) study, the researchers interviewed campus police officers from a large

metropolitan university. One salient theme that was discovered from the campus police

interviews was the officers' belief that they were seen as something *less than* sworn law enforcement agents.

Based on the finding from the earlier pilot study and the Bordner and Peterson (1983) study, specific questions were developed in order to identify themes, The themes were based on campus police officers' opinions on the extent to which CP officers believed they were perceived by the public as well as efforts that can be incorporated in their profession in order to identify and overcome the marginalization the officers encounter from the public.

Examination of Salient Themes

Although the Bordner and Peterson (1983) study was conducted almost twenty-five years ago, it appears that perceptions of campus police (in terms of how they believe they are perceived by the public) have changed very little over a quarter century. One of the major themes identified from the current interviews and literature (Bordner & Peterson, 1983) follows: *In many instances* t*he community did not regard campus police as sworn police officers.*

Officers interviewed from the Bordner and Peterson (1983) study argued that:

> "Students and faculty just think of us as security. It is really disappointing that most people don't think even think of us as 'real pigs'"(p. 135).

> "People think of us as high class security or counterfeit police. While our image has improved since we became a police department, most people don't think of us as real police. They look down on us and don't give us the same respect or perks" (p. 135).

> "Nine tenths of the community think of us as security. They think we don't do anything and they look down on us and show us no respect. They think we are inadequate just because they think of us as security and not police" (p, 66).

Similarly, the findings from the CP officers' interviews at WSU almost mirrored the

feeling and perceptions of the Bordner and Peterson (1983) interviews twenty-five years

previous:

> "I do see a little bit of difference in what the public perceptions is. I am
> not sure why it is occurring, but I think it is just something that… a lot of
> people, I just don't think they even realize for whatever reason whether it
> be television shows or whatever, they just think that if you are on campus
> it is just going to be campus security" (CPO, A).

> "I think that new students that are out of the area that don't know us at all,
> they sometimes question what your authority is, what your jurisdiction is,
> and what your job is" (CPO, B)?

> "I think you are always going to have a difference perception of how
> campus law enforcement is viewed anyway. You hear time and time
> again campus cop or campus security. So you are always going to carry
> around that stigma" (CPO, C).

> "Just the other day I wrote a ticket for speeding, I believe, and he asked
> me, 'well is this a real ticket, is this through the university?' Last year I
> ran into some gang bangers and they are like, 'Are you guys security or
> real cops or what do you guys do or stuff like that'" (CPO, D).

> "But many who don't have a college or university near by that have its
> own police department. They will just say, 'can you arrest people?' or
> 'Do you go through the academy?' You get this whole list of questions.
> And it is just something that you are used to being a university cop.
> Expect the questions and then give them the answer" (CPO, B).

> "I have had parents, I've had students, and I have had other officers refer
> to us as campus security. And then when you have to correct them, by
> enlarge you end up going over their head" (CPO, C).

> "[W]hen people think of a university they just don't think of a police
> department. I used to be that way. There are still some universities out
> there that when I hear they have a police department and I think 'really.'
> And I am a campus cop" (CPO, D).

> "Every once and a while now and then a parent from a student or someone
> from the east coast or something like that. They'll call "are you campus
> security?" And I usually just say no and say that I am actually a police
> officer. Sometime they understand that and sometimes they don't" (CPO,
> E).

More interesting, the CP officers from WSU also identified being marginalized from their

own "mainstream" colleagues. In other words, other cops (municipal) did not recognize

or give CP the respect of being a sworn law enforcement agent.

> "The cops are you know, I shouldn't say you get a sense of distain, but
> you are viewed as differently, as nothing more than a glorified babysitter
> in a lot respect" (CPO, C).

> "I think even among police officers there is a stigma about campus police
> officers, 'Oh there not real cops'" (CPO, D).

> "[T]he funny thing is that when I contact fellow officers, sometimes they
> are not aware of who we are and what we do" (CPO, E).

A second theme that developed from the interviews and the Bordner and Peterson (1983)

study was: *The public's stereotyping of campus police*.

One of the respondents of the Bordner and Peterson (1983) study argued that:

> "We have to establish who we are four times a year and that's hard. A lot
> of people misunderstand who we are and what we are here for. They think
> of us as security servants. Every three months a new batch of people
> come in here and we have to teach that new batch what we are all about.
> City police don't have this problem. In the city community already knows
> who you are and what you can do – they grow up knowing what your
> function is and what your power are" (p, 66).

CP officers at WSU also argued the difficulty of the community misunderstanding who

they are:

> "Well, most of the people we deal with are college students 18-19 years
> old. They just got out of highs school and they show up on college
> campus. I think a lot just don't realize that there is a police department
> here. It could be one reason. I think they just don't realize that a college
> would have police officers that an actual police officer shows up.   I think
> a lot of them are just under the impression -- campus security and not an
> officer. Maybe… I think there is a lot of confusion. Some colleges only
> have security and other have police. I think that is where the confusion
> comes from" (CPO, A).

"But as far as other people who coming to the university they might questions whether we are real police or not, because some universities just have security others have police department" (CPO, D).

"There are a lot of university that just have security guards and that is usually what people expect. They don't expect university to actually have a police department" (CPO, D).

"If they have not been socialized to this kind of environment they might be kind of ignorant. [I] agree probably that incoming freshman may not realize who we are and what we do but I think that come to that realization pretty quickly" (CPO, E).

"Perhaps when they went to college they maybe did not have a police force on college or if they did go to college they had a cougar security type thing, where these people are unarmed. I know the are a lot of university that still keep unarmed campus security and check doors" (CPO, E).

"Again. The fact that they just do not know. They just don't know" (CPO, B)
.

The final theme developed from the CP interviews and the Bordner and Peterson (1983)

study was the idea of: *Campus police having to sell their profession to the public.*

"Most of the community thinks of us as security they tend to look down on us unless they have had contact with us. When they have contact they think better of us" (p, 70).

CP officers at WSU also argued the importance of having to indoctrinate a new group of

students and/or community members each year to the functions, roles, and duties of a

campus police officer, something a municipal police would not have to do.

"I think we have to educate our citizens whether it be student or faculty and staff that works here on campus. I am not sure really how we would do that. But anything that we could do to expose faculty, staff, and students to the police department and to let them know what we offer what we do day-to-day on a daily basis" (CPO, A).

"A lot of the times I give alcohol awareness programs to the freshman that come to school . I will start out sometimes saying this is who we are. Yes,

we are fully commissioned. We all went to the academy. I know some of the Pullman officers do that as well and they give programs talking about the WSU police department. Put it out in the media. Anytime we do public education programs specify what we do. And also public recognition from other departments would be a big help" (CPO, D).

"I think just talking to other departments and explain what we do really breaks down the stigma" (CPO, D).

"Well I am not sure that there is anything that will help increase other than the police here being proactive and go out there and make social contacts. People will realize after they talk to you that okay this guy is cop and not campus security" (CPO, E).

"They just don't know. Part of their incoming education when they first get here is through student affairs and through alive. They let them know. They tell them. This is campus police service. This is what they do. We try to have one of our COP officers there during part of this training to give some of that orientation and let them know things, like, here we are these are the type of incidents that campus police officer are involved in. If you are contacted by campus police, this is what you should expect" (CPO, B).

"People will realize after they talk to you that "okay" this guy is cop and not campus security" (CPO, E).

Conclusion

A previous pilot study conducted on CP officers at WSU in 2005 uncovered a feeling of marginalization. Similarly, a study by Bordner and Peterson (1983) also identified a feeling of marginalization by CP officers at a metropolitan university. Based on the Border and Peterson (1983) study and the 2005 pilot study conducted by the researcher, the understanding of CP officers' feelings of marginalization appeared to need further research. Consequently, interviews were conducted on CP at WSU. The interview questions were developed and refined from the earlier pilot study and the work of Bordner and Peterson (1983).

Three themes were identified. First, based on the interviews, CP officers have different levels of feeling marginalized by the public. However, it was clear that the perception of marginalization was present. It was the extent of that perception that varied. Secondly, it appeared that marginalization was based on a "security guard" perception from the public. In other words, CP officers felt that the *uniformed* public identifies them with security guards rather than sworn law enforcement officers. Lastly, it appears that CP officers must always "sell" their profession to the public and their "mainstream" law enforcement colleagues. It appears that CP officers must, in performance of their duty, clarify and justify their law enforcement authority in terms of who they are and what they can do.

So, in fact, it appears that CP officers have a feeling (although differing levels) of marginalization from the public. In other words, it appears that CP officers often feel that the public does not identify them as "real" police.

However, identification of CP officers' feelings was only the first part of this project. The primary portion of the project was to determine if CP officers' feelings regarding community perceptions were realistic. In other words, do the perceptions of CP officers match the actual perceptions of the community? Consequently, while the purpose of chapter four was to identify the qualitative findings from the campus police interviews, the following chapters will use statistical methods to test the findings identified from the CP interviews.

CHAPTER 5

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Introduction

As discussed in Chapter Four, surveys were administered to students at WSU. The surveys were used to identify students' perception of PP officers or CP officers as well as the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The surveys were distributed in undergraduate classes based on a *convenience* sample. Once the surveys were returned and evaluated, the demographics of the respondents were identified. The survey demographics were compared to the WSU undergraduate student population as well as between the PPO survey and the CPO survey. Demographics were evaluated to determine the extent of the *generalizability* between the samples and the population.

Context of the Survey Respondents

Washington State University is a doctoral extensive land grant institution with the main campus located on the east side of Washington state in the city of Pullman Washington. Washington State University has three branch campuses, which are located in Spokane, the Tri-Cities and Vancouver, Washington. The university was founded in Pullman, Washington in 1890. The university's first name was Washington Agricultural College and Schools of Science. Later in 1905, the university changed its name to the State College of Washington, and in 1959 the name was changed again to it current title or Washington State University (*About WSU*, n.d.). Today, the university houses ten colleges and a graduate school with over 150 majors offered (*About WSU*, n.d.a).

The Pullman core campus incorporates 620 acres, while total university acreage (branch campuses) is 1,875 (*Future Students*, n.d.). In 2006 the university enrolled 23,655 part-time and full-time students. Of the 23,655 full-time and part-time students 19,554 were undergraduates. Of the 19,554 part-time and full-time undergraduate students 9,402 were male, while 10,152 were female. Males accounted for 48% of the full and part-time undergraduate students, while females accounted for the remaining 52% of the total population (*Enrollment and Persistence*, n.d.). The average age for undergraduate students at the Pullman campus was twenty-three (*About WSU*, n.d.b). Three thousand nine-hundred and seven students were from out of state or 16.68% of the total student population (*Future Students*, n.d.). In terms of racial/ethnic categories for full-time and part-time undergraduate students, 532 were nonresident aliens or 2.7% of the total population. Blacks, non-Hispanics accounted for 2.56% of the total student population or a raw total of 501 students. American Indians and/or Alaska natives accounted for 1.24% of the total population or a raw number of 243 students. There were 1,190 Asian and/or Pacific Islanders attending WSU or 6.1% of the total student population. In 2006 there were 825 Hispanics or 4.2% of the total undergraduate student population. 1,603 undergraduates did not self-report race/ethnicity or 8.2% of the total student population. Finally, white, non-Hispanics accounted for the highest total student population of undergraduate with 14,660 or 74.97% of the total undergraduate population (*Enrollment and Persistence*, n.d.).

As discussed in the methods section of this project, two student surveys were administered to undergraduate students in multiple classes within the main campus in Pullman, Washington. One survey measured student perceptions of CP, while the other

survey measured student perception of PP. The two different surveys were equally

divided between each class. In other words, in each class that was surveyed half of the

students received the PPO survey, while the other half received the CPO survey.

A total of 593 surveys were completed. 298 respondents completed the PPO

survey, while 294 respondents completed the CPO survey. Although a *convenience*

sample was the method chosen for class selection, it appears that a fairly representative

sample of the WSU student population was collected in each survey.

Survey Respondent Demographics

Of the 593 total survey respondents 277 indicated they were male, 314 indicated

that they were female and one respondent chose not to indicate his or her gender (see

table 5.1). Disaggregating the surveys, it appears that 136 males

Table 5.1: Gender of Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	277	46.7	46.8	46.8
	Female	314	53.0	53.0	99.8
	No Response	1	.2	.2	100.0
	Total	592	99.8	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.2		
Total		593	100.0		

completed the PPO survey as well as 161 females (see table 5.2). 141males, 153 females

completed the CPO survey, while one person chose not to indicate his or her gender (see

table 5.3).

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Table 5.2: PPO Gender Totals

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	136	45.6	45.8	45.8
	Female	161	54.0	54.2	100.0
	Total	297	99.7	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.3		
Total		298	100.0		

Table 5.3: CPO Gender Totals

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	141	47.8	47.8	47.8
	Female	153	51.9	51.9	99.7
	No Response	1	.3	.3	100.0
	Total	295	100.0	100.0	

Institutionally, men accounted for 48% of the total undergraduate population (*Enrollment and Persistence*, n.d.). In terms of the project, approximately 47% of the undergraduate survey respondents were male (see table 5.1). Of the undergraduates students who completed the PPO survey approximately 46% were male (see table 5.2), while 48% of the persons who completed the CPO survey were also male (see table 5.3). Consequently, it appears that gender samples are representative of the university population.

The age of the survey respondents had a range from 18 to fifty-one (see table 5.4), where the mean was 20.31 and the median age was 20. Individually the PPO survey had an age distribution of 18 to fifty-one (see table 5.5) with a mean of 20.25 and a median of 20.

Table 5.4: Age of Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18	122	20.6	20.7	20.7
	19	110	18.5	18.6	39.3
	20	137	23.1	23.2	62.5
	21	118	19.9	20.0	82.5
	22	50	8.4	8.5	91.0
	23	24	4.0	4.1	95.1
	24	6	1.0	1.0	96.1
	25	6	1.0	1.0	97.1
	26	2	.3	.3	97.5
	27	3	.5	.5	98.0
	28	3	.5	.5	98.5
	29	3	.5	.5	99.0
	31	2	.3	.3	99.3
	33	1	.2	.2	99.5
	36	1	.2	.2	99.7
	46	1	.2	.2	99.8
	51	1	.2	.2	100.0
	Total	590	99.5	100.0	
Missing	System	3	.5		
Total		593	100.0		

Table 5.5: PPO Age Totals

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18	67	22.5	22.6	22.6
	19	49	16.4	16.6	39.2
	20	69	23.2	23.3	62.5
	21	60	20.1	20.3	82.8
	22	27	9.1	9.1	91.9
	23	13	4.4	4.4	96.3
	24	3	1.0	1.0	97.3
	25	1	.3	.3	97.6
	26	1	.3	.3	98.0
	27	1	.3	.3	98.3
	28	2	.7	.7	99.0
	31	1	.3	.3	99.3
	36	1	.3	.3	99.7
	51	1	.3	.3	100.0
	Total	296	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	2	.7		
Total		298	100.0		

The CPO survey had an age distribution of 18 to 46 (see table 5.6) with a mean of

20.37 and a median of 20. The mean age of the surveys respondents was somewhat

lower than mean WSU undergraduate population as identified by campus statistics

(*Enrollment and Persistence*, n.d.b). However, the mean and median total between both

PPO and CPO surveys were similar.

Table 5.6: CPO Age Totals

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18	55	18.6	18.7	18.7
	19	61	20.7	20.7	39.5
	20	68	23.1	23.1	62.6
	21	58	19.7	19.7	82.3
	22	23	7.8	7.8	90.1
	23	11	3.7	3.7	93.9
	24	3	1.0	1.0	94.9
	25	5	1.7	1.7	96.6
	26	1	.3	.3	96.9
	27	2	.7	.7	97.6
	28	1	.3	.3	98.0
	29	3	1.0	1.0	99.0
	31	1	.3	.3	99.3
	33	1	.3	.3	99.7
	46	1	.3	.3	100.0
	Total	294	99.7	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.3		
Total		295	100.0		

According to WSU statistics 16.68% of the total student undergraduate population

is from out of state (*Future Students*, n.d.). Overall, 86% percent of the undergraduate

students that completed the surveys were from Washington State, while .5% did not

indicate their state status (see table 5.7).   Out of the 298

Table 5.7: Total in State, Out of State, or Foreign Students

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	In state	511	86.2	86.6	86.6
	Out of State	54	9.1	9.2	95.8
	Foreign	25	4.2	4.2	100.0
	Total	590	99.5	100.0	
Missing	System	3	.5		
Total		593	100.0		

respondents who completed the PPO survey, approximately 85% were from Washington

State (see table 5.8). Out of the 295 respondents who completed the CPO survey about

12% indicated that they were from outside the State of Washington (see table 5.9). It

appears that the survey averages (in state) are somewhat smaller than the total student

undergraduate population in state totals. However, the survey averages, albeit smaller,

are still somewhat similar to the total in state population at WSU.

Table 5.8: PPO in State, Out of State, or Foreign Student Totals

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	In state	252	84.6	85.1	85.1
	Out of State	31	10.4	10.5	95.6
	Foreign	13	4.4	4.4	100.0
	Total	296	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	2	.7		
Total		298	100.0		

Table 5.9: CPO in State, Out of State, or Foreign Student Totals

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	In state	259	87.8	88.1	88.1
	Out of State	23	7.8	7.8	95.9
	Foreign	12	4.1	4.1	100.0
	Total	294	99.7	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.3		
Total		295	100.0		

Approximately 14.1% of the full-time and part-time undergraduate students at

WSU reported having a minority background.   Blacks, non-Hispanics accounted for

2.56% of the total population. American Indians and/or Alaska natives had the lowest

representation accounting for 1.24% of the total population. Asian and/or Pacific

Islanders attending WSU had the highest representation, which accounted for 6.1% of the

total student population. Hispanics accounted for 4.2% of the total student population.

One thousand six-hundred and three undergraduates did not self-report race/ethnicity or

8.2% of the total student population, while 2.7% of the total population was non-resident

alien (*Enrollment and Persistence*, n.d.).

Sequentially, the totals of both student surveys mirrored the reported multicultural

background of undergraduate students at WSU. Native Americans were the lowest

represented multicultural group that completed the survey with 1.7% of the sample, while

Asians were the highest represented multicultural group with 5.2% of the sample (see

table 5.10). Individually, both the PPO survey and CPO survey followed a similar

pattern of multicultural student completion rates (see table 5.11 and 5.12). In other

words, both surveys had a similar percentage hierarchy

Table 5.10: Total Race/Ethnicity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	African American	11	1.9	1.9	1.9
	Asian	31	5.2	5.2	7.1
	White	479	80.8	80.9	88.0
	Hispanic	17	2.9	2.9	90.9
	Native	10	1.7	1.7	92.6
	Other	44	7.4	7.4	100.0
	Total	592	99.8	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.2		
Total		593	100.0		

representation (i.e. Natives, African Americans, Hispanic, and Asians). Furthermore, it should be noted that the total percentages of multicultural groups in each survey remained relatively comparable.

Table 5.11: PPO Race/Ethnicity Totals

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	African American	4	1.3	1.3	1.3
	Asian	16	5.4	5.4	6.7
	White	239	80.2	80.2	86.9
	Hispanic	11	3.7	3.7	90.6
	Native	6	2.0	2.0	92.6
	Other	22	7.4	7.4	100.0
	Total	298	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.12: CPO Race/Ethnicity Totals

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	African American	7	2.4	2.4	2.4
	Asian	15	5.1	5.1	7.5
	White	240	81.4	81.6	89.1
	Hispanic	6	2.0	2.0	91.2
	Native	4	1.4	1.4	92.5
	Other	22	7.5	7.5	100.0
	Total	294	99.7	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.3		
Total		295	100.0		

The survey respondents were fairly representative of all class standings. Overall, juniors accounted for the majority of the respondents or 32.9%, while sophomores accounted for the minority of the survey respondents or 19.1% (see table 5.13). Class standing for both the PPO survey (see table 5.14) and the CPO survey (see table 5.15) were fairly representative of all class ranges. Juniors and freshmen

Table 5.13: Total Class Standing

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Freshman	159	26.8	26.8	26.8
	Sophomore	113	19.1	19.1	45.9
	Junior	195	32.9	32.9	78.8
	Senior	126	21.2	21.2	100.0
	Total	593	100.0	100.0	

appeared to have the highest percentage total in both surveys, while sophomores and

juniors had the lowest total percentage rates.

Table 5.14: PPO Class Standing Totals

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Freshman	84	28.2	28.2	28.2
	Sophomore	60	20.1	20.1	48.3
	Junior	97	32.6	32.6	80.9
	Senior	57	19.1	19.1	100.0
	Total	298	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.15: CPO Class Standing Totals

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Freshman	75	25.4	25.4	25.4
	Sophomore	53	18.0	18.0	43.4
	Junior	98	33.2	33.2	76.6
	Senior	69	23.4	23.4	100.0
	Total	295	100.0	100.0	

Lastly, it should be noted that out of the 593 total survey respondents 59 majors

were represented (see Appendix H). The majors were re-coded into each college. Thus,

an accurate representation of the colleges in the survey could be identified. WSU houses

12 colleges[6]: Agriculture, Human, and Natural Resources, Business and Economics,

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[6] Although the university houses 12 colleges only 9 were included in the survey. The Honors College, the Graduate School and the Distance Degree Program were out of the purview of this study.

Education, Engineering and Architecture, Liberal Arts, Nursing, Pharmacy, Sciences, and

Veterinary Medicine *(Current Students*, n.d.).

What can be identified is that students from all colleges were represented in the

surveys (see Table 5.16). However, the distribution was highly skewed. The majority of

students that participated in the survey were from the College of Liberal arts, Education,

and Business. It should also be noted that 3.4% of the sample were double majors and

3.4% of the sample were undecided. However, between the two surveys (PPO and CPO),

although the college distributions were highly skewed, the frequencies of the colleges

represented between surveys were very comparable (see Tables 5.17 and 5.18).

Table 5.16: Total Colleges Represented

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agriculture	2	.3	.3	.3
	Business	90	15.2	15.4	15.8
	Education	170	28.7	29.1	44.9
	Engineering and Architecture	12	2.0	2.1	46.9
	Liberal Arts	216	36.4	37.0	83.9
	Nursing	15	2.5	2.6	86.5
	Pharmacy	7	1.2	1.2	87.7
	Sciences	22	3.7	3.8	91.4
	Veterinary Medicine	9	1.5	1.5	93.0
	Double Majors	21	3.5	3.6	96.6
	Undecided	20	3.4	3.4	100.0
	Total	584	98.5	100.0	
Missing	System	9	1.5		
Total		593	100.0		

Table 5.17: PPO Colleges Represented Totals

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Business	46	15.4	15.6	15.6
	Education	79	26.5	26.9	42.5
	Engineering and Architecture	6	2.0	2.0	44.6
	Liberal Arts	111	37.2	37.8	82.3
	Nursing	7	2.3	2.4	84.7
	Pharmacy	5	1.7	1.7	86.4
	Sciences	14	4.7	4.8	91.2
	Veterinary Medicine	4	1.3	1.4	92.5
	Double Majors	13	4.4	4.4	96.9
	Undecided	9	3.0	3.1	100.0
	Total	294	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	4	1.3		
Total		298	100.0		

Table 5.18: CPO Colleges Represented Totals

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agriculture	2	.7	.7	.7
	Business	44	14.9	15.2	15.9
	Education	91	30.8	31.4	47.2
	Engineering and Architecture	6	2.0	2.1	49.3
	Liberal Arts	105	35.6	36.2	85.5
	Nursing	8	2.7	2.8	88.3
	Pharmacy	2	.7	.7	89.0
	Sciences	8	2.7	2.8	91.7
	Veterinary Medicine	5	1.7	1.7	93.4
	Double Majors	8	2.7	2.8	96.2
	Undecided	11	3.7	3.8	100.0
	Total	290	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	5	1.7		
Total		295	100.0		

Conclusion

In the second phase of this study, two surveys were administered in selected undergraduate classes at WSU. The surveys were developed in order to identify students' perceptions of PP or CP. The surveys also identified demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Once the surveys were returned and evaluated, the demographic responses of the respondents were identified. Consequently, the purpose of Chapter Four was to describe the sample characteristics of each survey group. Although, the samples were selected using a non-parametric sampling technique, the hope was that the undergraduate classes chosen would still be representative of the overall population at WSU.

Respondents were disaggregated by gender, age, in-state/out of state, ethnicity, class standing, and colleges represented between surveys and the overall WSU population. In terms of gender, males account for 48% of the total WSU population. Males accounted for 46% of the total sample population for the PPO survey, while males accounted for 48% of the total sample for the CPO survey. The average age for WSU undergraduate student population was 23. The PPO survey respondents' mean age was 20.31, with a range between 18 and 51, while the PPO survey respondents' mean age of 20.37 with a range between 18 and 46. Approximately 16% of the WSU undergraduate population is from out of state. Fifteen percent of the PPO survey respondents indicated that they were from out of state, while approximately 12% of the CPO respondents indicated they were from out of state. Approximately 14% of undergraduate students at WSU report having membership in a minority group. Both PPO and CPO surveys respondents reported a slightly higher multicultural background with a 19.8% and 18.6%

respectively. Although all colleges were represented in the sample surveys, the colleges in terms of raw number were highly skewed. However, for both the PPO and CPO surveys, Liberal Arts, Education and Business were the most represented colleges.

In general, the survey samples are fairly representative of the overall WSU population. Furthermore, the surveys samples are extremely similar to one another. Consequently, it appears possible to make comparison between samples as well as make inferences on the overall WSU population.

CHAPTER SIX

SCALE DEVELOPMENT AND BI-VARIATE FINDINGS

Introduction

One of the primary research questions was to determine *the extent of the perceived difference in the legitimacy between CP officers and "mainstream" officers.* As discussed earlier, CP from WSU perceived legitimacy levels were being compared to PP perceived legitimacy levels. To determine the extent of the perceived legitimacy levels, a legitimacy scale needed to be developed. The researcher incorporated a modified Sunshine and Tyler (2003) scale, which was initially used for measuring legitimacy. However, after analyzing the completed surveys, specifically the modified Sunshine and Tyler (2003) legitimacy scale, it became apparent that the scale had to be further refined. Once the refinement took place, a measurement of legitimacy for both department and officer appeared.

Consequently, legitimacy could be measured and compared between PP (department and officer) and CP (department and officer). By comparing both department and officer between PP and CP appeared to add a richer understanding of legitimacy between campus and municipal police.

Once an accurate measurement of legitimacy was identified, comparison could be made between PP (department and officer) and CP (department and officer). The test used to determine perceived legitimacy differences between PP (department and officer) and CP (department and officer) were *independent sample t*-tests. I*ndependent sample* are groups that have no observational relationship to one another (Coladarci et al., 2001). In other words, an individual is limited to one group; therefore, one group's observations

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are in no way related to the other group. An *independent sample t*-test is used to compare

two samples that are independent from one another (i.e. PP and CP). Once the *t*-tests

were performed an eta squared was calculated on each model to determine the magnitude

of the difference. Consequently, a *t*-test was performed to measure if there was, indeed, a

difference between perceived legitimacy levels between PP (department and officer) and

CP (department and officer), while the eta squared was performed to determine (if there

was a difference) how much difference was there?

<center>Legitimacy Scale Development</center>

Two surveys were equally distributed to undergraduate students in selected

classes at WSU. One survey measured the perceived legitimacy of PP officers and the

alternate survey measured the perceived legitimacy of CP officers. The legitimacy

measure was a scale that was developed by Sunshine and Tyler (2003). The Sunshine

and Tyler (2003) scale used 19 items on a Likert scale to identify levels of perceived

legitimacy. Legitimacy was operationalized as the obligation to obey directives of a legal

authority and trust both in the individual police officer and the institution of policing

itself. Sunshine and Tyler indicated the overall scale had an alpha reliability of 0.84, a

mean of 2.36, and an S.D. of 0.53 (p. 543)[7].

A modified Sunshine and Tyler (2003) legitimacy scale was used for the current

project. Once the surveys were returned, they were screened for errors. All found errors

were corrected in the data file. Many of the items in "Section 3" (legitimacy scale) were

reversed coded. As discussed earlier, reverse coding was used to control for *response*

bias. Consequently, the reverse coded items responses were reversed into positive form

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[7] In the overall scale, a lower score was an indication of higher legitimacy

and put back into the data set. Once the reverse coded items responses were changed into

a positive form and put back into the data set, the individual items were added together in

both the PP and CP legitimacy scales and a new variable was created. The new variable

was identified as "scale 1."

Assumption Testing of the Dependant Variable

Before doing any statistical analysis it is important that a violation of the

assumptions of the particular statistical test is not violated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Multiple tests were conducted to check for violations of the assumptions of the statistical

techniques used to address the researcher's research question: *What is the extent of the*

perceived difference in the legitimacy between CP officer and "mainstream" officers (PP

officer). First , a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was conducted to determine if the new

dependant variable (Scale 1) was normally distributed. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test

identified a Significance Value for the PP scale of .092 and a Significance Value .069 for

the CP scale (see table 6.1). Both significance levels were non significant at the .05 level,

indicating that assumption of normality was not violated. Secondly, statistical techniques

that the research used to answer the research questions are sensitive to outliers. Outliers

Table 6.1: PP Scale and CP Scale Tests of Normality

	Survey	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Scale 1	PPO Scale	.092	298	.000	.974	298	.000
	CPO Scale	.069	295	.002	.982	295	.001

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

are extreme low and high cases in a data set. According to Pallant (2001), outliers have

the potential to distort the *r* value/correlation co-efficient. Outliers were identified using

the Boxplot. The Boxplot for the PP scale identified seven outliers, while the Boxplot for

CP identified six outliers. The outliers were inspected for their authenticity in terms of

the range of possible scores, input mistakes, etc. All of the identified outliers were true

outliers and subsequently were removed from the data set.

Factor Analysis on the Legitimacy Scale

Factor analysis was conducted to determine what, if any, underling constructs(s)

existed for measures of the 19 items in the modified Sunshine and Tyler (2003)

legitimacy scale for the PP (see appendix I). Principle component analysis was

conducted utilizing a Varimax Rotation (see table 6.2). The analysis produced a 4

component solution, which was evaluated with the following criteria: eigenvalue,

variance, scree plot, and residuals.

Table 6.2: PP Rotated Component Matrix(a)

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
S3Q1				
S3Q2		.760		
S3Q3		.837		
S3Q4		.772		
S3Q5				.838
S3Q6				.678
S3Q7			.758	
S3Q8			.781	
S3Q9			.609	
S3Q10				
S3Q11	.836			
S3Q12	.825			
S3Q13	.781			
S3Q14	.759			
S3Q15	.832			
S3Q16	.743			
S3Q17				
S3Q18				
S3Q19				

a Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

However, 2 of the 4 components did not appear to be a measurement of legitimacy of the institution or the individual police officer. Components 3 and 4 appeared to measure perceptions in the legitimacy of the law. Consequently, only components 1 and 2 were used for PP scale development. Component 1 appeared to measure perception of legitimacy with the PP department using items 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16, while component 2 appeared to measure perceptions in the legitimacy of the individual PP officer using items two, three, and four.

A factor analysis was conducted again to determine what, if any, underling constructs(s) existed for measures of the 19 items in the modified Sunshine and Tyler (2003) legitimacy scale for the CP (see appendix J). Principle component analysis was conducted utilizing a Varimax Rotation (see table 6.3). The analysis produced a 4 component solution, which was again evaluated with the following criteria: eigenvalue, variance, scree plot, and residuals.

Table 6.3: CP Rotated Component Matrix(a)

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
S3Q1				
S3Q2		.761		
S3Q3		.854		
S3Q4		.762		
S3Q5				
S3Q6				.761
S3Q7				.652
S3Q8				
S3Q9				
S3Q10				
S3Q11	.825			
S3Q12	.834			
S3Q13	.731			
S3Q14	.706			
S3Q15	.772			
S3Q16	.609			
S3Q17			.689	
S3Q18			.734	
S3Q19			.678	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

However, like the PP component solution, 2 of the 4 components did not appear

to measure legitimacy perceptions of the institution or the individual police officer.

Components 3 and 4 appeared to measure perceptions in the legitimacy of the law and

policies. Consequently, only components 1 and 2 were used for CP scale development.

Similarly, component 1 appeared to measure perception of legitimacy with the CP

department using items 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16, while component 2 appeared to

measure perceptions in the legitimacy of the individual campus police officer using items

two, three, and four.[8]

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[8] There was a loading on item 1 for component 2. The loading was significant, but small. Consequently, the item 1 loading was left out in order to make more accurate comparison between CP and PP officer legitimacy scales.

After developing the scales, a Cronbach's alpha coefficient was conducted in order to determine the scales' internal consistency. Internal consistency is used to determine if the items in the scale are actually measuring the same underlying construct (Mertler & Vannatta, 2001). As discussed earlier, Sunshine and Tyler (2003) reported their legitimacy scale had good internal consistency with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .84.

A Cronbach's alpha coefficient is a measure that determines how well the items from the scale are measuring the same underlying construct. The alpha coefficient value ranges from 0 to 1. The stronger the correlations between items, in a scale, will result in a higher alpha coefficient value (Pallant, 2001). In other words, the Cronbach's alpha measures how well the items in the scale "hang together" (p. 6). A minimally acceptable Cronbach's alpha is .70 (Devellis, 2003; Pallant, 2001; Spicer, 2005); between .70 and .80 is considered respectable; and between .80 and .90 is considered very good (Devellis, 2003, p. 95-96).

After conducting the factor analysis on the modified scales, two separate components emerged. Furthermore, 2 separate components emerged on the PPO and CPO surveys. Consequently, a Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated for PP and CP scales as well as the two components identified with the factor analysis. In other words, four separate Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the developed PP department and officer legitimacy scales were .763 and .905 respectively. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the developed CP department and officer legitimacy scales were .783 and .893. Consequently, the four

scales (PPO and CPO: department legitimacy and officer legitimacy) appeared to be

measuring their intended purpose. Or, put another way, the scales appeared to be sound

instruments that measured the department and officer perceived legitimacy levels.

Means Comparison Between PP and CP: Department and Officer

The legitimacy scales were compared against each other in terms of CP and PP:

department and officer. The researcher's interest was to determine the extent of the

perceived legitimacy differences. Initially, independent t-tests were conducted between

the PP department/officer legitimacy perceptions and the CP department/officer

legitimacy perception to determine the differences. After differences were identified, an

eta squared was calculated in order to determine the extent or the magnitude of those

differences. SPSS does not provide an eta squared function for an independent t-test

(Pallant, 2001). Consequently, an eta squared was hand calculated using the formula

(Walsh & Ollenburger, 2001, p.115):

$$\text{Eta squared} = \frac{t \text{ squared}}{t \text{ squared} + (N1 + N2 - 2)}$$

According to Pallant (2001, p. 175), a .01 eta is a small effect, a .06 is a moderate effect,

and a .14 is a large effect. Once the eta squared was calculated it could be multiplied by

100, which would indicate the percentage of variance explained in the model.

PP/CP Department Means Comparison

The first independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the legitimacy

perception scores between PP and CP departments. There was a significant difference in

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scores for the PP department (M=13.43, SD=5.21), and the CP department [M=14.3,

SD=5.18; t(578)= -2.021, p=.044] (see appendix K). The magnitude of the difference of

the means was small (eta squared=.007) .

PP/CP Officer Means Comparison

The second independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the legitimacy

perception scores between PP and CP officers. There was a significant different in scores

for PP officers (M=6.97, SD=2.95), and CP officers [M=7.73, SD=3.0; t(578)=-3.088,

p=.002)] (see appendix L). The magnitude of the difference of the means was small (eta

squared= .016).

Conclusion

Factor analysis and alpha reliability tests were conducted in order to develop an

accurate scale for measuring perceived legitimacy. The final scale developed appeared to

measure two forms of perceived legitimacy: department and officer. Consequently both

department and officer were measured between PP and CP.

Two *t*-tests were conducted to test legitimacy differences between PP/CP

department and PP/CP officer. The two models identified significant differences. In

other words, perceptions of legitimacy were different between the PP and the CP

department and individual officers. The direction of the coefficients indicated that PP,

both department and officer, had higher perceived legitimacy perceptions than the CP

department and officers. However, the magnitude was very small in both models, which

suggests that perceived legitimacy only accounts for a small percentage of the variation.

In other words, there was a statistical significant difference in perceived legitimacy, but it

is difficult to determine if there was a substantive one.

CHAPTER SEVEN

MULTIVARIATE FINDINGS

Introduction

The final research question was to determine the selected independent variables that returned significant perceived legitimacy levels. Based on the two scales (department and officer) and the PPO and the CPO surveys, four multiple regression models were constructed. The multiple regression models were developed in order to determine which selected set of independent variables significantly contributed to each model. Furthermore, each model identified the variance in the dependant variable (legitimacy perceptions) as explained by each predictor variable. Finally, the significant predictor variables were then tested between the models to determine the significance of the regression coefficients.

Legitimacy Predictor Variables

The researcher utilized 11 independent variables or predictor variables in the regression models. Again, these predictor variables were chosen based on prior literature from municipal/state police, campus police, as well as CP interviews in order to predict significant perceived legitimacy levels (Bordner & Peterson, 1983; Garcia & Cao, 2005; Griffith et al., 2004; Hopkins et al., 1992; Hurst, Browning, & Browning, 2000; Miller & Pan, 1987; Murphy & Worrall, 1999; Reisig and Giacomazzi, 1999; Reisig & Parks, 2000; Sloan, 1992; Weitzer & Tuch, 1997; White and Menke, 1982; Worrall, 1999; Zamble & Annesley, 1987). These independent variables were: 1) Does the respondent live on campus; 2) Is the respondent a fraternity or sorority member; 3) Is a member of

the respondent's family a police officer; 4) Respondent's home city (urban/rural); 5)

Respondent's race/ethnicity; 6) If the respondent had contact with a by a police officer

(campus or municipal) was the contact negative (perceived as treated unfairly); 7) If the

respondent new someone who had contact with the police (campus or municipal) was the

contact negative positive (perceived as treated unfairly); 8) respondent's gender; 9)

Respondent's class standing in college; 10) Respondent's age; 11) And a positive

stereotype scale.

Independent variables 1 through 3 were "yes"- "no" questions coded as 0-NO and

1-YES. Independent variable 4 was the respondent's hometown.[9] The hometown was

identified by city and state on the survey. The city and state were re-coded into urban

and rural cities as defined by the U.S. Census Bureau for the 2000 census. Consequently,

independent variable 4 was re-coded as 0-RURAL and 1-URBAN. Independent variable

5 was respondent's race/ethnicity. Race and ethnicity was originally coded: 1-African

American, 2-Asian American, 3-Caucasian, 4-Hispanic, 5-Native American, and 6-Other.

Since one racial/ethnic group did not account for more than 7% of the total sample, all

racial/ethnic groups were combined. Consequently, race/ethnicity was re-coded into 0-

WHITE and 1-NON-WHITE. Independent variable 6 was if a respondent's contact with

a police officer (campus or municipal) was negative. Independent variable 6 was coded

as 0-ABSENCE OF A NEGATIVE CONTACT and 1-NEGATIVE CONTACT.

Independent variable 7 was if respondent had a friend whose contact with a police officer

(campus or municipal) was negative. Independent variable 7 was coded as 0-ABSENCE

OF NEGATIVE CONTACT and 1-NEGATIVE CONTACT. Independent variable 8

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[9] A home city was operationalized as where the respondent felt he or she grew up (i.e. hometown). If the
respondent grew up in multiple cities, the respondent was to identify a single city that he or she considered
his or her hometown.

was respondent's gender coded as 1-MALE and 2-FEMALE. Independent variable 9 was respondent's class standing coded as 1-FRESHMAN, 2-SOPHOMORE, 3-JUNIOR, and 4 SENIOR. Independent variable 10 was the respondent's age. The respondent's age was coded with his or her identified age.

Lastly, an adjective scale was included in the regression model. The original scale was developed by Hewston et al. (1992) and used to identify student stereotype perceptions of School Liaison Officers (SLO). As discussed in the methods section of this project, the adjective scale was based on four positive and four negative adjectives and respondents were asked to identify his or her levels (seven point Likert scale) of each adjective based on his or her perception of SLOs.

After analyzing the completed surveys of this project, a factor analysis was conducted on the "Adjective Scale." The factor analysis was conducted to determine if there were two underlying constructs (positive and negative) in the "Adjective Scale." Principal component analysis was conducted utilizing a Varimax Rotation (see table 7.1). The analysis produced a two-component solution, which was evaluated with eignevalue, variance, scree plot, and residuals.

Table 7.1: Adjective Scale Rotated Component Matrix(a)

	Component	
	1	2
S4Q1	.796	-.019
S4Q2	-.098	.724
S4Q3	.847	-.024
S4Q4	.397	.563
S4Q5	.830	-.083
S4Q6	.115	.737
S4Q7	.806	.102
S4Q8	-.178	.620

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a   Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

A Cronbach's alpha coefficient was performed in order to determine the scale's internal consistency. The alpha coefficient for the overall model was low indicating a weak internal consistency. Based on the weak internal consistency, a Cronbach's alpha coefficient was conducted for each component that was identified in the factor analysis. The two components identified were based on the two adjective types (positive and negative). The positive adjectives (component one) had good internal consistency with a .85. The negative adjectives produced a Cronbach's alpha of .57, which identified an unacceptable internal consistency (Pallant, 2001). Based on the unacceptable alpha coefficient, the negative adjectives (component two) were removed from the scale and only the positive adjectives were kept. Consequently, the new adjective scale only incorporated levels of positive stereotypes and was coded from a 1 to 7.[10]

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[10] 7 being "very much" with a 1 indicating "not at all."

All of the 11 independent variables were assessed for accuracy and manipulated into a form that could be used for the multiple regression models. Once the independent variables were assessed for accuracy, manipulated into a useable form, and applied to the dependent variable (legitimacy scales), testing the assumptions of the multiple regressions could be conducted.

Assumptions of Multiple Regression

Multiple regression is a statistical technique that allows a researcher to identify patterns between multiple independent variables (predictor variables) on a single dependant variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Multiple regression can address how well a set of variables is able to predict an outcome as well as which variable is the best predictor of the outcome (Pallant, 2001).

Initially, before a multiple regression can be conducted, the data must meet specific assumptions (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005). If the data do not meet the specific assumption, the results would be consider untrustworthy (Spicer, 2005). In other words, a multiple regression analysis is only legitimate when the assumptions of a multiple regression are met. These assumptions are normality, linearity, and homoskedasticity, (Pallant, 2001; Spicer, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Practical Issues with the PP_ and CP_ Data

Before assumption of normality, linearity, and homoskedasticity can be tested, practical matters of the data must be assessed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). These practical matters are sample size, outliers, and absence of multicollinearity.

The characteristics of the sample of students were used in order to make

conclusions about the entire WSU undergraduate population's PP and CP legitimacy

perception levels. Consequently, how generalizable the samples are to the population

becomes paramount.

Tabachnick and Fidell (2001, p.117) suggest that a minimum sample size, for

regression analysis, should be: $N \geq 104 + 8m$. In other words, the N must be equal to or

larger than 104 cases + 8 times the number of independent variables used in the

regression equation. An N larger or equal to $104 + 8m$ increases the likelihood of

generalizability.

After, outliers were accounted for (which will be discussed later in the work) the

PPO survey comprised an N=270 and the CPO survey obtained an N=272. The PP and

CP regression equations incorporated 11 independent variables in the analysis (m=11).

Consequently, both surveys needed a sample size equal to or over N=104 + 8(11) or

N=192. Since both surveys had sample sizes of N=270 and N=272 respectively, the

minimum sample size requirement, as identified by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), were

fulfilled.

Although outliers and multicollinearity are not assumption testing issues, they

will be addressed in the "Assumptions Testing" section of this work. Both, outliers and

multicollinearity issues were addressed while testing for normality, linearity, and

homoskedasticity. Consequently, it would be more appropriate to discuss these issues

and assumption tests simultaneously.

As addressed earlier, assumptions of normality, linearity and homoskedasticity had to be addressed for multivariate statistical testing. Normality suggests that all observations in a sample are normally distributed. Linearity refers to a straight-line relationship between two variables. Homoskedasticity identifies that scores in one continuous variable are similar to scores in another continuous variable. Homoskedasticity is related to normality in that if normality is met, then so must homoskedasticity (Mertler & Vanatta, 2005).

Assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoskedasticity were assessed using residuals scatterplots and normality probability plots. In normality probability plots, the straighter a diagonal line from bottom left to top right is an indication of higher levels of normality (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005). Based on the normality probability plots (see Appendices N, O, P, and Q), assumptions of normality were not violated.   Residuals scatterplots can indicate matters of linearity and homoskedasticity. The more a scatterplot is rectangular with centralized scores around the zero point is an indication of higher levels of linearity and homoskedasticity (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005). Based on the residuals scatterplots (see Appendix N, O, P and Q), it also did not appear that the assumptions of linearity and homoskedasticity were violated. Consequently, the assumptions of multivariate statistical procedures were met and multiple regression tests could be conducted. However, as discussed earlier in this chapter, two more practical issues with the data needed to be assessed: multicollinearity and outliers.

Multicollinearity becomes a problem when the independent variables are highly correlated (Pallant, 2001). If the independent variables are highly correlated rejecting the

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null hypothesis becomes more difficult (Spicer, 2005). Consequently, a Collinearity

Diagnostics was conducted on each regression equations (see appendix M). The

Tolerance section of the Collinearity Diagnostics indicated coefficients for each

independent variable. The closer the coefficient was to zero indicated multicollinearity

(Pallant, 2001). After reviewing each Tolerance item, it did not appear that

multicollinearity was a concern in any of the regression models.

As discussed earlier in the project, outliers are extreme low and high cases in a

data set. According to Pallant (2001), outliers have the potential to distort statistical tests.

Consequently, outliers had to be identified and appropriately managed in the data set. In

the current project, outliers in the models were identified with Mahalanobis distances and

the critical chi-square values.[11] For the PP department and officer models, Mahalanobis

distances were identified (see table 7.2).

Table 7.2: Mahalanobis Distances for PP Department and Officer Models

				Case Number	Value
Mahalanobis Distance	Highest	1		56	160.54795
		2		125	42.56048
		3		109	26.02284
		4		267	25.18148
		5		269	24.70242
	Lowest	1		251	4.27700
		2		168	4.29606
		3		154	4.43558
		4		11	4.43558
		5		206	4.45367

The critical chi-square values were identified using a "Critical Values of Chi

Square" table (see Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001, Table C.4). Using an alpha level of .001

with 11 degrees of freedom, the critical chi-square value was 31.264. Cases 56 and 125

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[11] The number of independent variables was used to determine degree of freedom. Consequently, for each regression model degrees of freedom equaled 11.

exceeded the critical chi-square value indicating extreme cases. Consequently, cases 56

and 125 were deleted from the data set.

For the CP department and officer models, Mahalanobis distances were again

identified (see table 7.3). The critical chi-square values were identified using an alpha

level of .001 with 11 degrees of freedom. The critical chi-square value was again 31.264.

Cases 550 and 580 exceeded the critical chi-square value and were subsequently removed

from the data set.

Once all the outliers were removed, the data was finally complete in assessing

practical matters as well as meeting the assumptions of multivariate statistical testing.

Consequently, the regression models, in this project could be conducted.

Table 7.3: Mahalanobis Distances for CP Department and Officer Models

			Case Number	Value
Mahalanobis Distance	Highest	1	550	130.23789
		2	580	35.82044
		3	445	29.00507
		4	364	25.08561
		5	575	20.85787
	Lowest	1	461	4.20104
		2	460	4.35648
		3	466	4.62132
		4	531	4.62206
		5	473	4.63048

Regression Models

PP Department Legitimacy Multiple Regression Analysis

A standard multiple regression was conducted to determine the accuracy of the

independent variables (Live on campus [S6Q3], Greek affiliated [S6Q4], Family member

a police officer [S6Q5], Hometown [UrbanRural], Race [Race], Negative contact with

PPO [Negative_Contact], Friend had negative contact with PPO [Friend_Neg_Contact],

Gender [Gender], Class standing [Year], Age [Age], Adjective Scale [PosScale])

predicting student legitimacy perception levels of the PP department (see appendix R).

Regression results indicated that the overall model significantly predicted student

legitimacy perceptions of the PP department, R2=.537, R2adj=.517, $F(11, 256,)=26.974$,

$p<.001$. This model accounted for 54% of the variance in student legitimacy perceptions

of the PP department. A summary of regression coefficients is presented in Table 7.4 and

indicated that three variables (Hometown, Negative contact with a PPO, and Adjective

scale) contributed to the model.

Table 7.4: Coefficients for Model Variables PP Department

	B	*B*	t	p	Bivariate r	Partial r
Live on campus	-.829	-.078	-1.58	.115	-.090	-.098
Greek affiliated	.083	.006	.142	.887	.024	.009
Family member a police officer	-.218	-.015	-.335	738	-.042	-.021
Hometown	-1.020	-.097	-2.21	.028*	-.076	-.137
Race	.452	.033	.760	.448	.014	.047
Negative contact w/PPO	2.89	.178	3.64	.001^	455	.222
Friend negative contact w/PPO	.634	.061	1.327	.186	.290	.083
Gender	.165	.016	.362	.718	-.018	.023
Class standing	.244	.052	.860	.391	.069	.054
Age	-.134	-.049	-.813	.417	-.012	-.051
Adjective scale	-.731	-.602	-12.206	.001^	-.696	-.519

+ Significant at the .1 level
* Significant at the .05 level
^ Significant at the .001 level

PP Officer Legitimacy Multiple Regression Analysis

A standard multiple regression was also conducted to determine the accuracy of the independent variables (Live on campus [S6Q3], Greek affiliated [S6Q4], Family member a police officer [S6Q5], Hometown [UrbanRural], Race [Race], Negative contact with PPO [Negative_Contact], Friend had negative contact with PPO [Friend_Neg_Contact], Gender [Gender], Class standing [Year], Age [Age], Adjective

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Scale [PosScale]) predicting student legitimacy perception levels of the PP officers (see

appendix S). Regression results indicated that the overall model significantly predicted

student legitimacy perceptions of the PP officers, R2=.167, R2adj=.131, F(11,

256,)=4.66, p<.001. This model accounted for 17% of the variance in student legitimacy

perceptions of the PP officers. A summary of regression coefficients is presented in

Table 7.5 and indicated that four variables (Race, Negative contact with a PPO, Gender,

and Adjective scale) contributed to the model.

Table 7.5: Coefficients for Model Variables PP Officer

	B	*B*	t	p	Bivariate r	Partial r
Live on campus	.572	.094	1.432	.153	.078	.089
Greek affiliated	-.317	-.042	-.712	.477	-.026	-.044
Family member a police officer	-.014	-.002	-.028	.978	.003	-.002
Hometown	-.274	-.046	-.779	.437	-.020	-.049
Race	1.086	.138	2.392	.017*	.143	178
Negative contact w/PPO	1.096	.118	1.087	.072+	.191	.112
Friend negative contact w/PPO	.052	.009	.143	.886	.118	.009
Gender	1.536	.258	4.401	.001^	.235	.265
Class standing	-.114	-.042	-.525	.600	-.015	-.033
Age	.116	.074	.927	.355	-.011	.058
Adjective scale	-.149	-.216	-3.267	.001^	-.248	-.200

+ Significant at the .1 level
* Significant at the .05 level
^ Significant at the .001 level

CP Department Legitimacy Multiple Regression Analysis

A standard multiple regression was conducted to determine the accuracy of the independent variables (Live on campus [S6Q3], Greek affiliated [S6Q4], Family member a police officer [S6Q5], Hometown [UrbanRural], Race [Race], Negative contact with CPO [Negative_Contact], Friend had negative contact with CPO [Friend_Neg_Contact], Gender [Gender], Class standing [Year], Age [Age], Adjective Scale [PosScale])

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predicting student legitimacy perception levels of the CP department (see appendix T).

Regression results indicated that the overall model significantly predicted student

legitimacy perceptions of the CP department, R^2=.503, R^2adj=.482, $F(11, 258,)$=23.723,

p<.001. This model accounted for 50% of the variance in student legitimacy perceptions

of the CP department. A summary of regression coefficients is presented in Table 7.6

and indicated that four variables (Gender, Class, Age, and Adjective scale) contributed to

the model.

Table 7.6 Coefficients for Model Variables CP Department

	B	*B*	t	p	Bivariate r	Partial r
Live on campus	.378	.036	.734	.482	-.080	.044
Greek affiliated	-.611	-.045	-.979	.329	-.046	-.061
Family member a police officer	-1.004	-.063	-1.409	.160	-.092	-.087
Hometown	-.285	-.027	-.615	.539	-.002	-.038
Race	-.117	-.008	-.179	.858	.008	-.011
Negative contact w/PPO	.123	.009	.172	.863	.364	.001
Friend negative contact w/PPO	.429	.041	.841	.401	.274	.052
Gender	-.998	-.096	-2.095	.037*	-.223	-.129
Class standing	.704	.150	2.407	.017*	.153	.148
Age	-.270	-.103	-1.657	.099+	.049	-.103
Adjective scale	-.761	-.644	-12.191	.001^	-.690	-.605

+ Significant at the .1 level
* Significant at the .05 level
^ Significant at the .001 level

CP Officer Legitimacy Multiple Regression Analysis

A standard multiple regression was also conducted to determine the accuracy of the independent variables (Live on campus [S6Q3], Greek affiliated [S6Q4], Family member a police officer [S6Q5], Hometown [UrbanRural], Race [Race], Negative contact with CPO [Negative_Contact], Friend had negative contact with CPO [Friend_Neg_Contact], Gender [Gender], Class standing [Year], Age [Age], Adjective

Scale [PosScale]) predicting student legitimacy perception levels of the CP officers (see

appendix U). Regression results indicated that the overall model significantly predicted

student legitimacy perceptions of the CP officers, R2=.173, R2adj=137, F(11,

258,)=4.89, $p<.001$. This model accounted for 17% of the variance in student legitimacy

perceptions of the CP officers. A summary of regression coefficients is presented in

Table 7.7 and indicates that four variables (Live on campus, Family member a police

officer, Race, and Adjective scale) contributed to the model.

Table 7.7 Coefficients for Model Variables CP Officer

	B	*B*	t	p	Bivariate r	Partial r
Live on campus	.733	.121	1.82	.070+	.103	.113
Greek affiliated	-.227	-.029	-.486	.627	.005	-.030
Family member a police officer	-1.216	-.131	-2.276	.024*	-.163	-.140
Hometown	.328	.054	.944	.346	.091	.059
Race	.904	.106	1.852	.065+	.126	.115
Negative contact w/PPO	.621	.080	1.156	.249	.206	.072
Friend negative contact w/PPO	.129	.021	.337	.736	.143	.021
Gender	.534	.089	1.495	.136	.044	.093
Class standing	.007	.003	.033	.974	-.068	.002
Age	-.083	-.054	-.679	.498	-.092	-.042
Adjective scale	-.200	-.291	-4.271	.001^	-.318	-.257

+ Significant at the .1 level
* Significant at the .05 level
^ Significant at the .001 level

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Equality of Regression Coefficient Tests

A *z*-test was conducted to determine whether the empirical relationships that were estimated with two independent samples were significant. According to Paternoster, Brame, Mazerolle and Piquero (1998), the *z*-test is the most appropriate test for determining the equality of regression coefficients between independent models. Paternoster et al. (1998, p. 862) recommend the following equation to be used when testing the *null hypothesis* between two independent sample regression coefficients:

$$Z = \frac{b1 - b2}{\text{The square root of: } (SEb1 \text{ Squared} + SEb2 \text{ Squared})}$$

Since SPSS does not have functions concerning Regression Coefficient Testing, all significant coefficients between PP and CP multiple regression models were hand calculated using the formula recommended by Paternoster et al. (1988).

PP and CP Predictor Comparisons and Coefficient Testing

PP and CP Department

It appears that, for the most part, different predictor variables were driving the perceived legitimacy models for the PP and the CP department. As identified in Table 7.8, PP department perceived legitimacy was driven by the respondents' hometown, negative contact with a PP and stereotyping the officer, while perceived legitimacy for the CP department is driven by gender, class standing, age and stereotyping the officer.

Both models indicated that stereotyping was a significant predictor of each model. Because the adjective scale was a significant predictor in both models, a z-test was performed in order to determine if the stereotyping effect was similar for both the PP and the CP department perceived legitimacy levels. The null hypothesis for the equation would be bPP department = bCP department ($\underline{t}$ = 1.98. $\underline{p}$ < .05). The results indicated z < 1.98 (see table 7.8). Consequently the *null hypothesis* failed to be rejected. In other words, the effect of stereotyping on perceived legitimacy was similar for both the PP department and the CP department.

Table 7.8: Significant Coefficients for Model Variables and Z-Test PP/CP Department

	PP Department b(SE)	CP Department b(SE)	z-test
Hometown	-.097* (.461)		
Negative contact w/PPO	.178^ (.794)		
Gender		-.096* (.477)	
Class standing		.150* (.292)	
Age		-.103+ (.163)	
Adjective scale	-.602^ (.060)	-.644^ (.062)	.348

+ Significant at the .1 level
* Significant at the .05 level
^ Significant at the .001 level

PP and CP Officer

As with the PP department and the CP department, different predictor variables were driving the perceived legitimacy models for PP and CP officer. As identified in

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Table 7.9, PP officer perceived legitimacy was driven by the respondents' race, negative contact with a CP, gender and stereotyping of the officer, while perceived legitimacy for the CP officer was based on, living on campus, family member is a police officer, race, and stereotyping of the officer.

Both models indicated that race and stereotyping were significant predictors of each model. Because race and stereotyping were significant predictors in both models, z-tests were performed in order to determine if the stereotyping effect was similar for both PP and CP officer perceived legitimacy levels as well as if race effect is similar for both PP and CP officer perceived legitimacy levels. The null hypothesis for both equations would be bPP officer = bCP officer ($\underline{t}$ = 1.98. $\underline{p} < .05$). The results indicated $z < 1.98$ in both instances (see table 7.10). Consequently, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected in both cases. In other words, the effect of stereotyping and race on perceived legitimacy was similar for both PP officer and CP officer.

Table 7.9 Significant Coefficients for Model Variables and Z-Test PP/CP Officer

	PP Officer b(SE)	CP Officer b(SE)	z-test
Live on campus		.121+ (.403)	
Family member a police officer		-.131* (534)	
Race	.138* (.454)	.106+ (.488)	.273
Negative contact w/PPO	.118+ (.606)		
Gender	.258^ (.349)		
Adjective scale	-.216^ (.046)	-.291^ (.047)	.809

+ Significant at the .1 level
* Significant at the .05 level
^ Significant at the .001 level

Conclusion

The purpose of Chapter Seven was to determine the selected independent variable that returned significant perceived legitimacy levels. Eleven independent variables were selected as predictor variables. The 11 predictor variables were assessed for accuracy and manipulated into a form that could be used with multiple regression.

Four multiple regression models were constructed. The models were developed in order to determine which predictor variables significantly contributed to each model. It appears that a respondent's hometown, if they had negative contact with a PP, and the adjective scale were the independent variables that significantly contributed to the

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perceived legitimacy of the PP department, while gender, age, class standing, and stereotyping explained the variation in the CP department perceived legitimacy levels. Coefficient testing determined the effect of stereotyping on perceived legitimacy was the same for both the PP and the CP department.

In terms of individual officers, race, gender, negative contact with a PP, and stereotyping were the independent variables that significantly contributed to the perceived PP officer legitimacy model. Alternately, living on campus, family member a police officer, race, and stereotyping were the independent variables that significantly contributed to perceived CP officer legitimacy levels. Coefficient testing was conducted on both race and stereotyping in each model. The coefficient tests indicated that the effect of race and stereotyping on perceived legitimacy was the same for both PP and CP officers.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION

Introduction

Scholars have argued that universities are nothing more than small cities in many respects (Griffith et al., 2004; Michals & Higgins, 1997). In fact, the university campus is just a microcosm of the outside world (Bennett-Johnson, 1997). Therefore, crime is not only endemic outside the walls of the university, it is also present within the walls of higher education. In fact, universities have been described, in many instances, as "dangerous places" (Smith & Fossey, 1995). Recent examples that illustrate the dangerous nature of universities are: the Virginia Tech shooting where 32 people were killed by lone gunman, Seung Hui Cho (Johnson, 1997); Rebecca Griego, who was shot and killed in her office at the University of Washington by her estranged boyfriend Jonathan Rowan in April of 2007 (MSNBC, n.d.); Douglas Pennington, who killed his two sons and himself at Shepherd University in September of 2006; Robert Flores, who in October of 2002, shot and killed 3 of his instructors at the University of Arizona (MSNBC, n.d); Peter Odiguhizuwa, who shot and killed a dean, a professor, and a student at Virginia's Appalachian School of Law in January of 2002; And in August of 2000, James Kelly killed his chair and himself at the University of Arkansas (MSNBC, n.d.). It is from tragic incidents like these that illustrate the dangerous nature of universities. It is also from tragic incidents that changes in campus policing have occurred. As discussed earlier, tragic incidents at Kent State, the University of Texas, and Jackson State, in the 1970s, led university administrators to rethink the role of campus security and conceptualize modern campus policing (Esposito & Stormer, 1989).

Consequently, campus police officers are much different from the antiquated campus security of the mid 20th century. Primarily, campus police officers differ from campus security in that they were granted full police powers. In other words, campus police were given the *power of arrest* (Paoline & Sloan, 2003). With the *power of arrest*, campus police became similar to "mainstream" police.

The conundrum of CP is that they are trained as "mainstream" police, where control and arrest have been historically considered their primary law enforcement function, however, because of the nature of the university, ideologically, CP are based on prevention and service (Esposito & Stormer, 1989). The disparate ideological foci have placed CP in an awkward position. First, universities do not recognize them as part of the university system because they are "cops" and not part of academia (Smith, 1988). Conversely, and maybe more importantly, campus policing scholars have indicated that, in many instances, campus police are not perceived by the public as "real" cops, because they are based in university system (Bordner & Peterson, 1983; Hinkle & Jones, 1991; Heinsler et al., 1990; Nichols, 1987; Smith, 1988; Wensyel, 1987). However, these indications of campus police marginalization have been intuitive, anecdotal, or from the perception of campus police themselves. It does not appear that perceptions of campus police, in terms of being identified as "real" police from the community, have ever been empirically tested. Consequently, the main purpose of this project was to identify community perceived legitimacy perception of CP officers in relationship to "mainstream" or municipal police officers.

The theory hypothesized that would account for campus police marginalization, as a sworn law enforcement agent, was *liminality*. *Liminality* has been described as a

transitional period between two social standing (Turner, 1987). The *liminal* period is where a person is stripped of their "old" self and through ritual and ceremony and is transformed into something new (Turner, 1974). A person who exists in the transitional state is considered a *liminal* "passenger" (Turner, 1974). The goal of the liminal "passenger" is to be transformed into something new. However, in some instances, *liminal* "passengers" may become permanently trapped in the *liminal* stage. Or, put another way, sometimes a *liminal* "passenger" may never move onto his or her new desired social standing. These unfortunate few are considered "permanently" *liminal*. The "permanently" *liminal* exist somewhere "betwixt and between."

CP Officers' Perceptions

Two-phases were developed in this mixed-method project. The first phase consisted of CP interviews. The first-phase had a two-pronged purpose. First, the interviews were used to develop a hypothesis for the study. Secondly, the interviews were used to gather the information necessary to answer the first research question:

> *To what extent do CP officers' feel that they are not perceived as "real" police?*

As discussed in the Chapter Four, the campus police officers interviewed had varying levels of feelings that they were not perceived as "real" police. In general, all of the CP officers interviewed indicated a feeling of marginalization by the public. However, in most instances, it was dependent on the public that they were serving. For example, one CP officer stated that the established community that "knows" them, "We are viewed as a 'real' police force" (CPO B, 2006). However, the people that they encounter from other

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jurisdictions, other communities, and new students, often are unaware of their policing

powers. However, it was clear that CP officers had to sell their profession. In other

words, in most instances, CP officers have to identify themselves and explain their

functions, duties, roles, police powers, etc. whereas, a municipal police officer does not.

In many of the conversations with CP officers, they were specific in letting the

public and in some instances fellow police brethren know that they attended the same

police academy and/or training as "mainstream" police. One survey question in this

project was used to identify the public's knowledge of a CP officers' training (in terms of

police academy training). Question 5-1 in both surveys asked students if they believe CP

officers and PP officers attend the same academy. It appears that a little over 56% of the

respondents were aware that CP officers attend the same police academy as PP officers

(see Table 8.1). Conversely, over 41% of the survey respondents were not aware that a

CP officer's training is the same as a PP officer's, which somewhat identifies why CP

appear to have to "sell" or justify their policing powers to the public.

Table 8.1: Do CP and PP attend the same police academy?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	328	56.6	57.7	57.7
	No	240	41.4	42.3	100.0
	Total	568	97.9	100.0	
Missing	System	12	2.1		
Total		580	100.0		

In fact, many of the CP officers argued that the public, in most instances,

identifies them as the antiquated security guards of the middle 20th century. Therefore, as

the CP officers indicated, the public identifies them as something "less than" a sworn law

enforcement agent. Although, 5 CP officer interviews may make it difficult to generalize

to the entire CP department, it appears that, in general, CP officers feel, to varying

degrees, that they are not recognized as "real" police officers, at least in instances where

the "contacted" had not been acculturated to a formalized campus police agency and/or

officer.

Interestingly, the perceptions of CP officers were almost identical to the feelings

of campus police officers in a study conducted by Bordner and Peterson (1983) over

twenty years ago. This appears to indicate that the WSU CP officers' perceptions may be

somewhat generalizable.

However, these feelings were based on the perceptions of campus police officers

in terms of what they believe are the perceptions of the community. The actual legitimacy

perception of the community is the question that has not been addressed in the literature.

Consequently, the second purpose of this project was to identify the community's

legitimacy perceptions of CP.

Community Legitimacy Perceptions of PP and CP

As suggested earlier throughout this project, scholars (see Heinsler et al., 1990;

Hinkle & Jones, 1991; Smith, 1988; Nichols, 1987; Wensyel, 1987) have argued that the

public does not perceive campus police "real" cops. This interpretation had been

identified, primarily, intuitively. However, it does not appear that there have been any

studies that actually empirically measure the public's perception of campus police in

terms of, are they a "real" cop. In other words, does the public view campus police

similarly, in terms of a legitimate law enforcement agent, as their "mainstream" counter

parts (i.e. municipal police)?

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Consequently, the primary purpose of this project was to determine the public's legitimacy perceptions between CP and PP. It seemed that a perceived legitimacy comparison between a campus police department/officer and a municipal "mainstream" police department/officer would put these historical anecdotal annotations of legitimacy differences to "bed." To identify legitimacy perceptions, two surveys were equally distributed in undergraduate classes at WSU. The undergraduate classes were chosen based on a *convenience* sample. Although, a *convenience sample* is less rigorous than a *random sample*, Goodwin (2002) has argued that perceptual studies are highly generalizable between undergraduate students. Furthermore, as discussed in chapter five, the respondent demographics were, in general, similar to the WSU population as well as extremely similar between groups. Consequently, the *convenience samples* should not be problematic, in terms of the reliability and validity, for this project.

The primary purpose of the surveys was to measure a student's legitimacy perception of either a PP or a CP, dependent on the survey the student received. A modified police legitimacy scale developed by Sunshine and Tyler (2003) was the instrument for measuring police legitimacy. Legitimacy was operationalized as the "perceived obligation to obey the directives of a legal authority, trusting in the institution of policing and in individual police officers in one's neighborhood, and affective feelings toward the police" (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003, p. 539).

After analyzing the returned surveys from the current project, a factor analysis was run on the modified legitimacy scale. Two main factors were identified from the analysis. The two factors identified appeared to be legitimacy of an officer and legitimacy of the officer's department. Based on the factor analysis results, two

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legitimacy scales were constructed: legitimacy of the officer and legitimacy of the department. Consequently, two comparisons could be made between PP and CP. This appeared to add a more complex understanding of legitimacy between the two law enforcement agencies.

Based on the two legitimacy scales, two *null hypotheses* were constructed. First, the mean of legitimacy scores for the PP department would be equal to the mean legitimacy scores for the CP department or *H*o1: *mean of the PP department = mean of the CP department*. Because, theoretically, it appears that CP are seen as not "real" police, it would also seem likely that the CP department is also not seen as "real" police department. Consequently, the alternative hypothesis formulated would be directional. In other words, it could be hypothesized that the PP department should have higher legitimacy levels than the CP department. Thus, the alternative hypothesis accounted for this directionality, *H*1: *mean of the PP department legitimacy score < mean of the CP department legitimacy score*[12]. Secondly, the mean of legitimacy scores for PP officers would be equal to the mean of legitimacy scores for CP officers or *H*o2: *mean of PP officers' legitimacy score = mean of CP officers' legitimacy score*. The alternative hypothesis was based on the same rational as *H*1 and formulated, *H*2: *mean of PP officers' legitimacy score < the mean of CP officers' legitimacy score*.

The tests conducted for measuring legitimacy differences in PP and CP (department and officer) were *independent sample t*-tests. *Independent sample t*-tests "compare sample results with the conditions specified under the null hypothesis, dividing the difference by the standard error" (Coladarci, 2004, p. 290). Simply put, an *independent sample t*-test determines if there is a statistically significant means difference

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[12] Lower scores on the legitimacy scale represented higher levels of legitimacy.

between the two samples based on the sample results, conditions of the *null hypothesis*, and standard error. The formula for an *independent sample t*-test is as follows (Coladarci, 2004, p. 290):

$$t = \frac{\text{mean of X1 – mean of X2}}{\text{standard error of the mean of X1 – standard error of the mean of X2}}$$

As identified in Chapter Six, the first *t*-test was used to determine if no difference existed between the mean legitimacy scores of the PP department and the CP department perceived legitimacy scores. The t-test identified a $\underline{t}(578)=-2.201$, $\underline{p}=.044$. The results indicated that a statistically significant difference existed between the legitimacy scores of the PP department as compared with the CP department at the .05 level. As can also be identified, the *t* value was –2.201, which indicates, based on the legitimacy scale structure, that in fact, the PP department legitimacy, as perceived by the public, is higher than the CP department legitimacy as perceived by the public.

Similarly, the second *t*-test conducted between legitimacy perceptions of PP officer and legitimacy perceptions of CP officers also identified a statistically significant perceived legitimacy difference between the two types of law enforcement officers. The results of the *t*-test identified a $\underline{t}(578)=-3.088$, $\underline{p}=.002$. These results indicate a statistically significant difference of perceived legitimacy at the .001 level. Correspondingly, the *t* value was negative, which indicates that PP officers have a higher legitimacy perceptions from the public than do CP officers.

However, as Walsh and Ollenburger (2001) point out, statistical significance only specifies how likely a measurable difference can be found between groups in a sample. Statistical significance does not necessarily identify substantive significance. In other

words, a difference may be found between groups, but the difference may not have any practical importance.

To help identify the practical importance of a statistically significant test result, the *effect size* or the degree in which the variables are associated with one another can be calculated. The *effect size* indicates the amount of variance in the dependent variable based on the independent variable. The *effect size*, therefore, is an indicator of the magnitude of the difference between the means (Pallant, 2001). The magnitude of the difference helps explains, in general, the substantive importance of difference.

Looking at the first *t*-tests conducted in this project, the PP department and the CP department, a statistically significant result was returned. In other words, the PP department was perceived as more legitimate than the CP department as perceived by WSU undergraduate students. An eta squared was calculated to help understand the practicality of the result. The eta squared was calculated at a .007. This means that the type of department (PP or CP) accounted for .7% of the variance in perceived legitimacy in the sample. Conversely, .7% of the variance means, 99.03% of the variance, in terms of department type and legitimacy perceptions, is accounted for by some other variable(s). In other words, the type of department plays almost no role in determining perceived legitimacy levels. Similarly, the *t*-test used to measure the difference between PP officer and CP officer returned a statistically significant result. Or more specific, PP officers were perceived as more legitimate than CP officers. An eta squared was calculated to determine the *effect size*. The magnitude of the difference was small at a.016. Thus, officer type (PP or CP) accounted for 1.6% of the variance, indicating that

98.4% of the variance was accounted for by some other variable(s). In other words, officer type had a very small effect on perceived legitimacy levels.

The *t*-tests were used in order to answer the two proposed null hypotheses, *H*o1 and *H*o2. Secondly, eta squared was calculated for any significant results identified in either of the two *t*-tests and were used to, somewhat, determine the substantive value of the difference. As previously mentioned the first *null hypothesis* was *H*o1: *mean of the PP department = mean of the CP department*. As indicated by the *t*-test, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was supported, *H*1: *mean of the PP department legitimacy score < mean of the CP department legitimacy score*. The second null hypothesis was *H*o2: *mean of PP officers' legitimacy score = mean of CP officers' legitimacy score*. Also, as indicated by a *t*-test, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was supported, *H*2: *mean of PP officers' legitimacy score < the mean of CP officers' legitimacy score*. Simply put, both *t*-tests indicated that perceived legitimacy was higher for PP (department and officer) as compared to CP (department and officer). The calculated eta squared for both *t*-tests were very small. These findings indicated that, although there were significant differences, the differences may have little substantive or operational meaning.

Predictors of PP and CP Legitimacy Perceptions

The final research question was based on the selected independent variables that significantly predicted student legitimacy perceptions for each multiple regression model. As discussed earlier, multiple regression is a statistical technique that identifies patterns between multiple independent variable on a single dependent variable. Multiple

regression also addresses how well two or more independent variables are able to predict

an outcome of the dependent variable as well as indicate the relative strength of each

independent variable in relationship to the dependent variable (Walsh & Ollenburger,

2001). Simply put, the multiple regression models in this project identified the selected

independent variables that were contributing to legitimacy perception. Furthermore, the

multiple regression models indicated the strength of the effect of the independent

variable(s) on legitimacy perceptions. Consequently, multiple regression models were

used to answer the final research question: *What selected independent variables returned*

significant perceived legitimacy results (for PP department/officer and CP

department/officer)? Again, because the legitimacy scale developed in this project

identified two components of legitimacy, department and officer, four null hypotheses

were developed:

> *H*o3: *the selected independent variables overall did not significantly predict*
> *student legitimacy perceptions of the PP department*.
>
> *H*o5*: the selected independent variables overall did not significantly predict*
> *student legitimacy perceptions of the CP department*.
>
> *H*o4: *the selected independent variables overall did not significantly*
> *predict student legitimacy perceptions of PP officers*.
>
> *H*o6: *the selected independent variables overall did not significantly*
> *predict student legitimacy perceptions of CP officers*.

Consequently, what predictor variables contributed to the multiple regression

models (PP and CP: department and officer) will be discussed first. Once all significant

predictor variables are determined for all models, comparison between the models will be

discussed.

Predictor Variables

As discussed in Chapter Seven, 11 independent variables were used in the

multiple regression models. Independent variables were chosen based on prior

legitimacy literature for municipal/state police, CP literature, as well as CP interviews.

These 11 independent variables were: 1) Does the respondent live on campus; 2) Is the

respondent a fraternity or sorority member; 3) Is a member of the respondent's family a

police officer; 4) Respondent's home city (urban/rural); 5) Respondent's race/ethnicity;

6) If the respondent had contact with a by a police officer (campus or municipal) was the

contact negative (perceived as treated unfairly); 7) If the respondent new someone who

had contact with the police (campus or municipal) was the contact negative positive

(perceived as treated unfairly); 8) Respondent's gender; 9) Respondent's class standing in

college; 10) Respondent's age; 11) And a positive adjective scale.

Predictors of Legitimacy

According to Worrall (1999), public perceptions of the police have mostly

focused on municipal police. Although, to date, no public legitimacy perceptions[13] of

campus police have been studied, scholars have argued that campus police have evolved

similarly to municipal police (Bromley & Reeves, 1998). Furthermore, comparative

studies have indicated that municipal police and campus police, in general, are parallel in

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[13] Miller and Pan (1987) studied community perceptions of campus police in terms of effectiveness as law enforcers and effective response. However, the dependant variable was not legitimacy per se. Miller and Pan's dependent variables were: effective at job, ability to handle all law enforcement problems, relationship with community, public respect. Therefore, it could be argued that there has been somewhat of a perceived legitimacy study of campus police. Similarly, Griffith et al. (2004) also conducted a study on perceptions of campus police. However, the perceptions were not based on legitimacy per se. One of the dependent variables was conceptualized as satisfaction with police services. Therefore, the Griffith et al. (2004) could also be argued to somewhat measure perceived legitimacy.

organizational structure, (Paoline & Sloan, 2003) operations, and practice (Bromely & Reeves, 1998; Sloan, et al. 2000). Consequently, it was hypothesized that, in general, the CP understudy would have similar results in terms of the type of legitimacy predictors as PP.

The predictor variable(s), both individual and contextual, that significantly contributed to each of the models were identified. Once the significant predictor variable(s) were identified, a comparison between PP and CP could developed. Furthermore, a *z*-test was calculated on significant predictor variable(s) between models (CP and PP). The *z*-tests were used to determine if the predictor variable(s) effect was the same for both PP and CP.

PP Department Legitimacy Predictors

As identified in Chapter Seven, regression results for the overall model of the PP department was significant at the *p*<.001 (see Appendix R). Consequently, *H*o3 must be rejected and the alternative hypothesis must be supported or *the selected independent variables overall significantly predicted student legitimacy perceptions of the PP department*. The selected independent variables accounted for 54% of the variance in student legitimacy perceptions of the PP department (see Appendix R). Three of the 11-predictor variables returned significant results: hometown, negative contact with a PP officer and the adjective scale (see Table 8.2).

Table 8.2: Significant Coefficients for Model Variables and *Z*-Test PP/CP Department

	PP Department b(SE)	CP Department b(SE)	*z*-test
Hometown	-.097* (.461)		
Negative contact w/PPO or CPO	.178^ (.794)		
Gender		-.096* (.477)	
Class standing		.150* (.292)	
Age		-.103+ (.163)	
Adjective scale	-.602^ (.060)	-.644^ (.062)	.348

+ Significant at the .1 level
* Significant at the .05 level
^ Significant at the .001 level

Hometown was conceptualized in the survey as where the respondent grew up, if the respondent lived in multiple towns before college, where he or she felt was his or her place of greatest influence was recorded. Each respondent's recorded hometown was dichotomized into either urban or rural, based on the U.S. Census Department's 2000 classification of urban and rural areas by population.

During the CP interviews, officers indicated that perceptions of them not being identified as "real" police may be based on the size of the city and/or agency, not necessarily the institution of campus policing itself. For example, one CP officer indicated:

> "A lot of these college students come from the big city and stuff like that, where there is a lot more violence might be going on. If they come from

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Sacramento, Seattle, or Bellevue, of course law enforcement challenges are a lot different over there than they are in Pullman. I think that if there is a college student that comes to Pullman, goes to WSU, and comes from a big city, I don't think that they will give the same amount of respect to WSU police or Pullman police. Because their impression of Pullman is college related . I think that may be another reason why the students may have maybe a different perceptions of police on campus and the city itself" (CPO A).

The impression (of environment) that the CP officers identified contradicted the "Hometown" finding in the regression model for the PP department. The regression result indicated that a respondent from an urban area had higher levels of perceived legitimacy for the PP department. The finding also contradicted the Zample and Annesley (1987) study in which a respondent's hometown population was a significant predictor of favorability for the police. As would be intuitively expected, the Zample and Annesley (1987) study indicated a respondent's hometown that was classified as rural had higher levels of favorability toward police. Consequently, a student's urban classification and higher levels of perceived legitimacy towards the PP department needs further investigation.

Second, a respondent's negative contact with PP was also a significant predictor of legitimacy levels. Or put another way, a negative contact with a PP officer led to lower levels of legitimacy. This finding was similar to the multiple police studies on citizen/police interactions and satisfaction levels (see Brandl, Frank, Worden, & Bynum, 1994; Reisig & Correia, 199; Sims et al., 2002).

Lastly, similar to the Hopkins et al. (1992) study, a respondent's preconceived stereotyping/perception of an officer, based on an adjective scale, was significant in predicting levels of perceived legitimacy. In other words, the more positive an

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individual's stereotyping/perception of the PP department increased the levels of perceived legitimacy.

CP Department Legitimacy Predictors

Regression results for the overall model of the CP department was significant at the $p<.001$ (see appendix T). Consequently, Ho4 must be rejected and the alternative hypothesis must be supported or *the selected independent variables overall significantly predicted student legitimacy perceptions of the CP department*. The selected independent variables accounted for 17% of the variance in student legitimacy perceptions of the CP department (see appendix T). Moreover, four predictor variables returned significant results in the CP department multiple regression model: gender, class, age, and adjective scale (see table 8.2).

Gender of the respondent, in the current project, was a significant predictor of legitimacy of the CP department. It appears, in the current project, that females had higher perceived legitimacy levels for the CP department than did male respondents. The current finding was comparable to the multiple studies on gender and police favorability/satisfaction perceptions (see Griffith et al, 2004; Hopkins et al., 1992; Miller & Pan, 1997; Reisig & Giacomazzi, 1999).

The age of the respondent in the current study was also a significant predictor of legitimacy for the CP department. This finding was similar to multiple police studies that have identified younger persons as having lower levels of favorability toward the police than older persons (see Correia et al. 1996; Reisig & Giacomazzi, 1998; Worrall, 1999). However, the current finding also contradicted the Miller and Pan (1997) study of

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campus police at Purdue University, as well as the Griffith et al. (2004) study that found age did not significantly predict favorability and satisfaction levels of campus police.

As discussed earlier, it does not appear that class standing has been studied, in terms of perceptions of police. Therefore, class standing was added as an independent variable (in this project) to determine if class standing would significantly predict student legitimacy perceptions. As indicated by the regression model, a significant relationship between class standing and legitimacy perceptions existed. However, the relationship was negative. In other words, the higher the class standing of a respondent led to lower levels of perceived legitimacy. It is unknown why class standing would result in lower levels of perceived legitimacy. This finding is something that will have to be looked at in future research.

Similar to the PP department, the more positive a respondent's stereotyping/perception of a CP department was also a significant predictor of increased legitimacy for the CP department. A z-test was conducted on the adjective scale for both the PP department and the CP department (see table 8.2) and returned a non-significant result. Therefore, it could be argued that the effects of stereotyping for both the PP department and the CP department were comparable.

PP Officer Legitimacy Predictors

As identified in Chapter Seven, regression results for the overall model of PP officer was significant at the $p<.001$ (see appendix S). Consequently, Ho5 must be rejected and the alternative hypothesis must be supported or *the selected independent variables overall significantly predicted student legitimacy perceptions of PP officers*.

The selected independent variables accounted for 17% of the variance in student

legitimacy perceptions of PP officers (see Appendix S). Four of the 11-predictor

variables were significant predictors of legitimacy: race, negative contact with a PPO,

gender, and the adjective scale (see Table 8.3).

Table 8.3: Significant Coefficients for Model Variables and *Z*-Test PP/CP Officer

	PP Officer b(SE)	CP Officer b(SE)	*z*-test
Live on campus		.121+ (.403)	
Family member a police officer		-.131* (534)	
Race	.138* (.454)	.106+ (.488)	.273
Negative contact w/PPO or CPO	.118+ (.606)		
Gender	.258^ (.349)		
Adjective scale	-.216^ (.046)	-.291^ (.047)	.809

+ Significant at the .1 level
* Significant at the .05 level
^ Significant at the .001 level

Race was shown to be a significant predictor of legitimacy perceptions of PP

officers. These results were similar to the multiple police studies that indicated race,

blacks and Hispanics, in general, viewed the police with less favorability than whites (see

Garcia & Cao, 2005; Hurst et al., 2000; Murphy & Worrall, 1999; Reisig & Parks, 2000;

Weitzer & Tuch, 1997; Worrall, 1999).

Negative contact with a PP officer was also shown to be a significant predictor of perceived legitimacy for PP officers. The results of the regression model indicated that as negative contact increases, lower levels of legitimacy perceptions toward PP officers followed. Again, the finding, in terms of negative contact with a PP officers and lower levels of legitimacy perceptions, was unsurprising. Based on satisfactions studies of police, negative contact with police (both campus and mainstream police) has shown to decrease levels of satisfaction toward police officers (see Brandl, et al., 1994; Reisig & Correia, 1999; Sims et al., 2002; Sloan, 1992).

 Gender of the respondent in the current project contradicted the multiple studies on gender and favorability/satisfaction perceptions of police (see Griffith et al, 2004; Hopkins et al.,1992; Miller & Pan, 1997; Reisig & Giacomazzi, 1999). The regression results indicated that females had lower perceived legitimacy perceptions for PP officers than did males. However, the current finding was similar to the Correia et al. (1996) study of the perceptions of Washington State Police (WSP), in that females had lower levels of favorability toward WSP officers. However, Correia et al (1996) only indicated that this finding was contradictory to policing literature and offered no theoretical rationale for the occurrence. Consequently, it appears that females' lower levels of perceived legitimacy towards PP officers needs further investigation.

Similar to the PP department, the more positive a respondent's stereotyping/perception was also a significant predictor of increased perceived legitimacy toward PP officers. This finding was not surprising. It seems intuitive that positive perceptions of an officer would also increase the levels of perceived legitimacy.

Regression results for the overall model of CP officer was significant at the

p<.001 (see appendix J). Consequently, *H*o6 must be rejected and the alternative

hypothesis must be supported or *the selected independent variables overall significantly*

predicted student legitimacy perceptions of CP officers. The selected independent

variables accounted for 17% of the variance in student legitimacy perceptions of CP

officers (see appendix J). Four of the 11-predictor variables were significant predictors of

perceived legitimacy levels: live on campus, family member a police officer, race, and

the adjective scale (see table 8.3).

Whether a respondent lived on or off-campus was a significant predictor of

perceived legitimacy levels toward CP officers. As discussed earlier, since CP officers'

primary jurisdiction is the university campus, live-on students should have more contact

with CP. According to White and Menke (1982), citizens that had contact with the police

appeared to inculcate less favorable views of them. The results of the current project

confirmed the White and Menke (1982) study and identified that campus live-on students

had lower levels of perceived legitimacy for CP.

Correia et al. (1996) indicated that citizen evaluations were more positive when

an individual perceived that he or she was being treated fairly by the police officer. In

the CP officer interviews, many officers indicated that, in general, CP officers are liked

by the general public based on the time afforded to make individual positive contacts.

For example:

> "Because the environment we are in, we are afforded certain luxuries that
> a lot of other agencies are not, number one being time. We have the time

to sit down and invest in a call, to talk to the reporting party or complainant" (CPO C).

"We are proactive. I think we make a lot of social contacts." (CPO E).

"I think we are respected, but beyond that I think we are liked" (CPO B).

Similar to the Correia et al. (1996) study, since CP officers are able to make positive individualized contacts, it seems citizen evaluations would be more favorable. Furthermore, many CP indicated that, in general, the public likes them. As with the Hopkins et al. (1992) study, the more positive perceptions of the police by the public indicated higher levels of favorability. Consequently, the lower levels of perceived legitimacy toward CP from live on campus respondents needs further investigation.

A family member being a police officer also significantly predicted perceptions of legitimacy. Although, there does not appear to be specific research indicating higher levels of favorability of policing based on a family member's occupation, generally, research has indicated that close proximity of acquaintances effect the values and attitudes of children (Goodman, 1957). Consequently, it seemed theoretically plausible that a respondent would have higher levels of legitimacy for police, if a family member was a police officer. The regression model confirmed the theoretical argument that a respondent whose family member was a police officer increased the levels of perceived legitimacy. However, it is uncertain why this variable only applied to CP and not for PP. Therefore, this variable may be a concern for future study.

As with PP officers, race also returned significant results for perceived legitimacy. Similarly, to the PP officer results, the perceived legitimacy of a CP officer was lower if the respondent was non-white. This finding was consistent with the multiple

police studies that have identified non-whites having lower levels of favorability toward police (see Hurst, Browning, & Browning, 2000; Murphy & Worrall, 1999; Reisig & Parks, 2000; Weitzer & Tuch, 1997; Worrall, 1999). Although, one police study in particular, a study of citizen attitudes of Detroit police, by Frank, Brandl, Cullen, and Stichman (1996), found that blacks held more favorable views of police than do whites. However, the authors were quick to point out the context of the Detroit sample of respondents. The city of Detroit held a majority of black residents, had a long standing of retaining a black mayor, and over 50% of the police department was black. Consequently, Frank et al. (1996) argued that the context of the respondents was likely to be the influential component for the positive attitudes of black respondents toward police. Consequently, further study of race, legitimacy, and CP should be conducted at a university with a majority sample of minority students i.e. a historically black college or university (HBCU).

Lastly, similar to PP officer results, a significant finding between the adjective scale and levels of perceived legitimacy was identified. Higher levels of positive stereotyping, toward CP officers, led to higher levels of perceived legitimacy toward CP officers. The adjective/stereotype finding both for PP officer and CP officer were comparable to the Brandl et al. (1994) study that argued police evaluations were affected by stereotyping perceptions. Brandl et al. (1994) found that an individual who held favorable views of the police was more likely to perceive his or her contact with the police as positive. Therefore, a more positive stereotype and a more positive perception of legitimacy, in the current study, was not a surprising result.

PP officer and CP officer regression models had two similar significant predictor variables. The significant predictor variables found in both models were race and the adjective scale (or stereotyping). A *z*-test was conducted on race and the adjective scale for both PP officer and CP officer (see table 8.3). The results of the *z*-tests returned a non-significant result for both race and the adjective scale. Therefore, it was argued that the effects of race and stereotyping perceptions (adjective scale) for both PP officer and CP officer were comparable.

Conclusion

When analyzing the campus police interviews, the levels of feeling marginalized by the public was varied between officers. However, it was clear that the marginalization, in terms of legitimacy or not being recognized as a "real" cop was present. These finding were similar to the conclusions of Bordner and Peterson (1983) almost 25 years earlier.

Based on the modified police legitimacy scale developed by Sunshine and Tyler (2003), two measurements of police legitimacy were identified, legitimacy of the department and legitimacy of the officer. The legitimacy scales were used to test the developed hypothesis derived from the CP interviews and historical campus police literature. In other words, are campus police not recognized as "real" cops by the public? However, since two legitimacy scales were developed from the original Sunshine and Tyler (2003) scale, two comparisons could be made between PP and CP, a department comparison and an officer comparison.

Initially, *independent sample t*-tests were used to identify levels of legitimacy perceptions between PP and CP: department and officer. The results indicated that the feelings of CP were congruent with the public in that both PP: department and officer were identified with higher perceptions of legitimacy levels than CP: department and officer. However, these results should be noted with some skepticism. The eta squared or the measure that accounts for extent of the difference was very small. In other words, there were statistically significant differences, but the substantive differences were weak.

Nevertheless, based on the CP interviews and the statistical significance of the *t*-tests, it could be argued that CP are, in fact, *permanently liminal*. CP officers separate themselves from their community with an objective of progression into a new social group or social structure. Through the police academy or ceremony, CP are initiated with the ultimate purpose to transition him or her into a police officer. However, unlike "mainstream" police, it appears that CP are unable to leave that transitional state and become *permanently liminal.* CP appear to separate themselves from their original community, are initiated for a new social standing, but unlike their "mainstream" counterparts do not transition into their new or desired social standing. Or simply put, CP are not recognized as "real" cops.

In general, it appears that legitimacy predictors for PP were somewhat different for CP. In the current study PP: department and officer predictors of legitimacy were hometown, race, negative contact with a PP, gender, and the adjective scale, while the predictors of legitimacy for CP: department and officer were gender, class standing, age, living on campus, family member a police officer, race, and the adjective scale. However, race and the adjective scale were the two variables that significantly predicted perceived

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levels of legitimacy in both CP and PP models. Furthermore, the z-test indicated that effects of race and the adjective were the same for both CP and PP models.

Lastly, perceptions of legitimacy levels of PP and CP may be based on the size of the departments and/or the environment of the departments. Consequently, future studies of perceived legitimacy levels of CP should account for department size and the environment of the university.

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSION

The current project yielded very few surprises. In fact, all research questions were confirmed by the data analysis. The primary objective of the project was to empirically discover if, indeed, campus police were not seen as "real" police by the public. The statistical evidence significantly indicated that campus police, both department and officers, were not seen as legitimate as compared to their "mainstream" counterparts. Again, the finding must be reviewed with caution. The percentage of variance explained by CP and PP were very small. These findings suggested that although there was a statistical significance in perceived legitimacy between PP and CP, the effect was weak. In other words, the substantive difference of perceived legitimacy between PP and CP was almost meaningless. However, albeit weak, there was a measurable difference.

Because of the measurable difference between perceived legitimacy of PP and CP, it could be theorized that, indeed, campus police may be trapped in a *liminal* space, a space where CP are neither a civilian nor recognized as a "real" cop, someplace in-between two worlds. Again, the findings must be reviewed with caution. Being a "real" cop was operationalized as being perceived as "legitimate" as conceptualized by Sunshine and Tyler (2003). However, the Sunshine and Tyler (2003) scale was used to measure legitimacy perceptions of already established "mainstream" police. What determines the legitimacy of campus police could, theoretically, be different from "mainstream" police. However, at the time of this project, no other measurements existed.

Initially, the *permanently liminal* phenomenon of CP was considered a pessimistic attribute for a law enforcement agent. Not being identified as a "real" cop and being trapped in a *liminal* space seemed disconcerting, after all, CP go to the same police academy, attend similar training, and, in most instances, handle the same types of incidents as PP, their "mainstream" counterparts. It seemed *unjust* that the public would have a different perceptions or a different recognition of CP compared to their "mainstream" counterparts.

However, as Bordner and Peterson (1983), Nichols (1987) and Esposito and Stormer (1989) argued, the nature of campus police is different than "mainstream" police. Campus police are based on prevention and service rather than arrest and control. Moreover, campus police were developed to enhance the mission of a university by providing a safe atmosphere for scholarly learning. As one of the CP officers for the current project indicated:

> "I really see myself as an extension of the educational portion of this university" (CPO E).

Thus, in a sense, campus police are supposed to be different than "mainstream" police. It is quite possible that campus police should not be seen as "real" cops. Campus police were created to be something in-between a cop and representative of the university. Consequently, the *liminal* space may be the appropriate gap that campus police should occupy.

Czarniawska and Mazza (2003) explain that an individual in a *liminal space* is undefined and beyond the normative structure. The *liminal passenger*, therefore, is also liberated from structural obligations. Czarniawska and Mazza (2003) argue that the *liminal space* can be considered a permanent place rather than a created space for

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transition. The *liminal space* can, thus, be beneficial. Bruce and Davies (2005), in their study of hospice care, argued that the *liminal space* is a place where solid binaries fade. *Liminality*, as explained by Bruce and Davies (2005), is also the hyphen between two dualities. It is a place where two multiple identities can exist at once.

It appears that campus police exist in the *liminal space*. Campus police appear to be the hyphen between the police and the university. It also appears that existing in the *liminal space* may be essential for campus police to negotiate their multiple roles. The *liminal space* allows campus police to exist both as a law enforcement officer as well as an extension of the educational mission of the university.

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Appendix A

<div align="center">

WASHINGTON STATE UNIVERSITY

INFORMED CONSENT Research Project -- Perceptual Studies of

Campus Police (Student Surveys)

</div>

Researcher: James Wada,
Phone: 509 432-4281
Email: jcwada@yahoo.com

Researchers' statement

I am asking you to take part in a university-based research study. The purpose of this consent form is to give you the information you will need to help you decide whether to be in the study or not. Please read the form carefully. You may ask questions about the purpose of the research, what I would ask you to do, the possible risks and benefits, your rights as a volunteer, and anything else about the research or this form that is not clear to you. When I have answered all your questions, you can decide whether or not you want to be in the study. This process is called 'informed consent.' I will give you a copy of this form for your records.

<div align="center">

PURPOSE AND BENEFITS

</div>

Scholars have argued that the public's opinion of police is the key factor in maintaining public support and cooperation. Without community support and/or community cooperation, a police officer's effort to combat crime and maintain order will be compromised. The purpose of the research is to identify the community perceptions of police based on university students' views.

<div align="center">

PROCEDURES

</div>

I will ask you to answer a survey that will explore your views of police (either Washington State Campus Police or Pullman City Police). The survey will take about fifteen minutes to complete. Your participation is completely voluntary. You may refuse to answer any question, and you may stop taking the survey at any time.

<div align="center">

RISKS, STRESS, OR DISCOMFORT

</div>

There should be no risks concerning stress, discomfort, embarrassment, legal risks, or invasion of privacy with the survey. This one-time, voluntary survey will be completely anonymous. There will be no recording of names. Only the researcher will have access to the survey data. The only possible concern may be a feeling of apprehension about completing a survey of policing openly.

If at any time, while filling out the survey, you feel apprehension or discomfort, you may stop at any time. If at a later date you are still feeling discomfort, you may contact the researcher listed above.

If you have general questions about the research, you can ask the researcher listed above. If you have questions regarding your rights as a participant, you can call the WSU Institutional Review Board at (509) 335-9661. This project has been reviewed and approved for human participation by the WSU IRB.

<div align="center">

WSU Human Subjects Form

</div>

<div align="center">

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</div>

Appendix B

Perceptions of Washington State Campus Police

In any society, people have different views of the police. This research is designed to determine what people think about the police. There are no right or wrong answers.

All of your responses will be kept confidential. Nobody, except the researcher will see your responses.

Please indicate with an "X" if the following statements pertain to you.

_____ 1. I do not wish to participate in this survey.

_____ 2. I have already participated in this survey.

_____ 3. I am under 18 years of age.

If you placed an "X" to any of the above statements, you do not have to continue with this survey and you are free to leave.

If none of the above statements pertain to you, please continue with the survey.

Thank you for your time.

SECTION 1

Please check with an "X" in the appropriate responses:

1. Gender: _____ Male   _____ Female

2. Ethnicity: _____ African American
                          _____ Asian American
                          _____ Caucasian (White)
                          _____ Hispanic
                          _____ Native American
                          _____ Other

3. Year in School:
          _____ Freshman _____ Sophomore
          _____ Junior   _____ Senior

SECTION 2

Please write the appropriate response in the space provided:

1. Where did you grow up (City and State)?_____
      * *If you have lived in multiple places, where would you consider your hometown?*

2. Major (i.e. criminal justice, education, etc.). _____

3. What is your age? _____ Years

SECTION 3

DIRECTIONS: For each of the statements below, please indicate your level of agreement. If you agree with the statement please write "1" in the space provided to the left of the statement; if you disagree with the statement please write "5" in the space provided. And, of course, use the numbers in the middle if you fall between the two extremes.

1	2	3	4	5
Agree	Somewhat Agree	Uncertain	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree

_____ 1. You should accept the decisions made by a Washington State University campus police officer, even if you think he or she is wrong.
_____ 2. You should do what a Washington State University campus police officer tells you to do even when you do not understand the reasons for his or her decisions.

_____ 3. You should do what a Washington State University campus police officer tells you to do even when you disagree with his or her decisions.

_____ 4. You should do what a Washington State University campus police officer tells you to do even when you do not like the way he or she treats you.

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1	2	3	4	5
Agree	Somewhat Agree	Uncertain	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree

_____ 5. There are times when it is okay for you to ignore what a Washington State campus University Police Officer tells you.

_____ 6. Sometimes you have to bend the law for things to come out right.

_____ 7. The law represents the values of the people in power, rather than the values of people like you.

_____ 8. People in power use the law to try to control people like you.

_____ 9. The law does not protect your interests.

_____ 10. Overall the Washington State University campus police department is a legitimate authority and people should obey the decisions that a Washington State University Campus police officer makes.

_____ 11. I have confidence that the Washington State University Campus Police Department can do its job well.

_____ 12. I trust the leaders of the Washington State University Campus Police Department to make decisions that are good for everyone in the community.

_____ 13. People's basic rights are well protected by Washington State University campus police.

_____ 14. Washington State University Campus Police care about the well being of everyone they deal with.

_____ 15. I am proud of the work of the Washington State University Campus Police Department.

_____ 16. I agree with many of the values of the Washington State University Campus Police Department.

_____ 17. Washington State University campus police officers are often dishonest.

_____ 18. Some of the things Washington State University campus police officers do embarrass our community.

_____ 19. There are many things about the Washington State University Campus Police department and its policies that need to be changed.

SECTION 4

For each word underlined, please indicate the number that you believe, in general, most represents a Washington State University campus police officer.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Not at All			Uncertain			Very Much

_____ 1. **Helpful**

_____ 2. **Aggressive**

_____ 3**. Trustworthy**

_____ 4. **Racist**

_____ 5. **Friendly**

_____ 6. **Rude**

_____ 7. **Fair**

_____ 8. **Strict**

SECTION 5

Please indicate with an "X" if you believe the following statement to be true or false.

1. Washington State University campus police officers attend the same police academy as Pullman police officers.
   _____ true   _____ false

2. Washington State University campus police officers have the same policing powers as Pullman police officers.
   _____ true   _____ false
3. Washington State University campus police officers have the power of arrest.
   _____ true   _____ false

4. Washington State University campus police officers can use deadly force.
   _____ true   _____ false

5. Washington State University campus police officers carry handguns.
   _____ true   _____ false

6. Washington State University campus police officers' jurisdiction is limited to university property.
   _____ true   _____ false

7. Washington State University campus police officers can only police Washington State University students.
   _____ true   _____ false

SECTION 6

Please answer the following questions with an "X" in the appropriate response

1. Have you ever had contact with a Washington State University campus police officer (talked with, stopped, questioned, arrested, etc.)?
   _____ Yes   _____ No

1a. If you answered "yes" to question 1, was the contact positive (were you treated fairly). If you answered "no" to question 1, skip to question 2.
   _____ Yes   _____ No

2. Has anyone you know had contact with a Washington State University campus police Officer?
   _____ Yes   _____ No

2a. If you answered "yes" to question 2, was the person's contact with the Washington State University campus police positive (was the person treated fairly)? If you answered 'no" to question 2, skip to question 3.
   _____ Yes   _____ No   _____ Don't Know

3. Do you live on campus?
   _____ Yes   _____ No

4. Are you a fraternity or sorority member?
   _____ Yes   _____ No

5. Is any member of your family a police officer?
   _____ Yes   _____ No

Appendix C

WASHINGTON STATE UNIVERSITY
INFORMED CONSENT Research Project -- Perceptual Studies of
Pullman Police (Student Surveys)

Researcher: James Wada,
        Phone: 509 432-4281
        Email: jcwada@yahoo.com

Researchers' statement
I am asking you to take part in a university-based research study. The purpose of this consent form is to give you the information you will need to help you decide whether to be in the study or not. Please read the form carefully. You may ask questions about the purpose of the research, what I would ask you to do, the possible risks and benefits, your rights as a volunteer, and anything else about the research or this form that is not clear to you. When I have answered all your questions, you can decide whether or not you want to be in the study. This process is called 'informed consent.' I will give you a copy of this form for your records.

PURPOSE AND BENEFITS
Scholars have argued that the public's opinion of police is the key factor in maintaining public support and cooperation. Without community support and/or community cooperation, a police officer's effort to combat crime and maintain order will be compromised. The purpose of the research is to identify the community perceptions of police based on university students' views.

PROCEDURES
I will ask you to answer a survey that will explore your views of police (either Washington State Campus Police or Pullman City Police). The survey will take about fifteen minutes to complete. Your participation is completely voluntary. You may refuse to answer any question, and you may stop taking the survey at any time.

RISKS, STRESS, OR DISCOMFORT
There should be no risks concerning stress, discomfort, embarrassment, legal risks, or invasion of privacy with the survey. This one-time, voluntary survey will be completely anonymous. There will be no recording of names. Only the researcher will have access to the survey data. The only possible concern may be a feeling of apprehension about completing a survey of policing openly.

If at any time, while filling out the survey, you feel apprehension or discomfort, you may stop at any time. If at a later date you are still feeling discomfort, you may contact the researcher listed above.

If you have general questions about the research, you can ask the researcher listed above. If you have questions regarding your rights as a participant, you can call the WSU Institutional Review Board at (509) 335-9661. This project has been reviewed and approved for human participation by the WSU IRB.

WSU Human Subjects Form

Appendix D

Perceptions of Pullman Police

In any society, people have different views of the police. This research is designed to determine what people think about the police. There are no right or wrong answers.

All of your responses will be kept confidential. Nobody, except the researcher will see your responses.

Please indicate with an "X" if the following statements pertain to you.

_____ 1. I do not wish to participate in this survey.

_____ 2. I have already participated in this survey.

_____ 3. I am under 18 years of age.

If you placed an "X" to any of the above statements, you do not have to continue with this survey and you are free to leave.

If none of the above statements pertain to you, please continue with the survey.

Thank you for your time.

Please check with an "X" the appropriate responses:

1. Gender: _____ Male   _____ Female

2. Ethnicity: _____ African American
                 _____ Asian American
                 _____ Caucasian (White)
                 _____ Hispanic
                 _____ Native American
                 _____ Other

3. Year in School:
          _____ Freshman _____ Sophomore
          _____ Junior   _____ Senior

SECTION 2

Please write the appropriate response in the space provided:

1. Where did you grow up (City and State)? _____
   * *If you have lived in multiple places, where would you consider your hometown?*

2. Major (i.e. criminal justice, education, etc.). _____

3. What is your age? _____ Years

SECTION 3

DIRECTIONS: For each of the statements below, please indicate your level of agreement. If you agree with the statement please write "1" in the space provided to the left of the statement; if you disagree with the statement please write "5" in the space provided. And, of course, use the numbers in the middle if you fall between the two extremes.

1	2	3	4	5
Agree	Somewhat Agree	Uncertain	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree

_____ 1. You should accept the decisions made by a Pullman police officer, even if you think he or she is wrong.

_____ 2. You should do what a Pullman police officer tells you to do even when you do not understand the reasons for his or her decisions.

_____ 3. You should do what a Pullman police officer tells you to do even when you disagree with his or her decisions.

_____ 4. You should do what a Pullman police officer tells you to do even when you do not like the way he or she treats you.

1	2	3	4	5
Agree	Somewhat Agree	Uncertain	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree

_____ 5. There are times when it is okay for you to ignore what a Pullman police officer tells you.

_____ 6. Sometimes you have to bend the law for things to come out right.

_____ 7. The law represents the values of the people in power, rather than the values of people like you.

_____ 8. People in power use the law to try to control people like you.

_____ 9. The law does not protect your interests.

_____ 10. Overall the Pullman Police Department is a legitimate authority and people should obey the decisions that a Pullman Police Officer makes.

_____ 11. I have confidence that the Pullman Police Department can do its job well.

_____ 12. I trust the leaders of the Pullman Police Department to make decision that are good for everyone in the community.

_____ 13. People's basic rights are well protected by Pullman Police Department.

_____ 14. Pullman police officers care about the well being of everyone they deal with.

_____ 15. I am proud of the work of the Pullman Police Department.

_____ 16. I agree with many of the values that define what the Pullman Police Department stand for.

_____ 17. Pullman police officers are often dishonest.

_____ 18. Some of the things Pullman police officers do embarrass our community.

_____ 19. There are many things about the Pullman Police Department and its policies that need to be changed.

SECTION 4

For each word underlined, please indicate the number that you believe, in general, most represents a Pullman Police Officer.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Not at All			Uncertain			Very Much

_____ 1. **Helpful**

_____ 2. **Aggressive**

_____ 3. **Trustworthy**

_____ 4. **Racist**

_____ 5. **Friendly**

_____ 6. **Rude**

_____ 7. **Fair**

_____ 8. **Strict**

SECTION 5

Please indicate with an "X" if you agree or disagree with the following statements.

1. Pullman police officers attend the same police academy as Washington State University campus police.
   _____ true   _____ false

2. Pullman police officers have the same policing powers as Washington State University campus police.
   _____ true   _____ false

3. Pullman police officers have the power of arrest.
   _____ true   _____ false

4. Pullman police officers can use deadly force.
   _____ true   _____ false

5. Pullman police officers carry a handgun.
   _____ true   _____ false

6. Pullman police officers' jurisdiction is limited to city property.
   _____ true   _____ false

7. Pullman police officers can only police Pullman City residents.
   _____ true   _____ false

SECTION 6

Please answer the following questions with an "X" in the appropriate response

1. Have you ever had contact with a Pullman police officer (talked with, stopped, questioned, arrested, etc.)?
    _____ Yes   _____ No

1a. If you answered "Yes" to question 1, was the contact positive (were you treated fairly)? If you answered "No" to question 1, skip to question 2.
    _____ Yes   _____ No

2. Has anyone you know had contact with a Pullman police officer?
    _____ Yes   _____ No

2a. If you answered "Yes" to question 2, was the person's contact with the Pullman police officer positive (was the person treated fairly)? If you answered "No" to question 2, skip to question 3.
    _____ Yes   _____ No   _____ Don't Know

3. Do you live on campus?
    _____ Yes   _____ No

4. Are you a fraternity or sorority member?
    _____ Yes   _____ No

5. Is any member of your family a police officer?
    _____ Yes   _____ No

Appendix E

WASHINGTON STATE UNIVERSITY
CONSENT FORM Research Project -- Perceptual Studies of Campus Police (Campus Police Interviews)

Researcher: **James Wada,**
  Phone: 509 432-4281
  Email: jcwada@yahoo.com

Researchers' statement
I am asking you to take part in a university-based research study. The purpose of this consent form is to give you the information you will need to help you decide whether to be in the study or not. Please read the form carefully. You may ask questions about the purpose of the research, what I would ask you to do, the possible risks and benefits, your rights as a volunteer, and anything else about the research or this form that is not clear to you. When I have answered all your questions, you can decide whether or not you want to be in the study. This process is called 'informed consent.' I will give you a copy of this form for your records.
PURPOSE AND BENEFITS

The purpose of the research is to identify Washington State University campus police officer's opinions on how they believe students perceive them as compared to their "mainstream" police counterparts. Scholars in campus policing have argued that campus police are not identified, under many circumstances, as "real cops" by student populations. However, it does not appear that this identification of campus police has been empirically studied.

PROCEDURES
I will ask you to answer four interview questions related to the research question stated above. The interview will take about a half-hour. Your participation is completely voluntary. You may refuse to answer any question, and you may stop the interview at any time. Only the researcher will have access to your responses. Furthermore, no names, ranks or any other identifiable characteristics will be attached to your responses. This will ensure that responses given cannot be linked to an individual participant.

 RISKS, STRESS, OR DISCOMFORT

There should be no risks concerning stress, discomfort, embarrassment, legal risks, or invasion of privacy with the interview. This one-time, voluntary interview process will be completely anonymous. There will be no recording of names, ranks or any other type of identifiers. Only the researcher (interviewer) will have access to the interview data. The only possible concern may be a feeling of apprehension about discussing your perceptions of campus policing openly.

If at any time during the interview you feel apprehension or discomfort, you may stop the interview at any time. If at a later date you are still feeling discomfort, you may contact the researcher listed above.

Printed name of researcher   Signature of researcher   Date

Subject's statement
This study has been explained to me. I volunteer to take part in this research. I have had a chance to ask questions. If I have general questions about the research, I can ask the researcher listed above. If I have questions regarding my rights as a participant, I can call the WSU Institutional Review Board at (509) 335-9661. This project has been reviewed and approved for human participation by the WSU IRB.

Printed name of subject   Signature of subject   Date

WSU Human Subjects Form

Appendix F

CPO Interview Questions

1. How do you feel that the public (i.e. students) perceives you, in terms of your policing authority? In other words, do you feel that the public perceives you or treats you similar or differently than your "mainstream" police counterparts (i.e. municipal, county, state police)?

2. Can you give some examples that would illustrate your beliefs?

3. If members of the community (i.e. students) do not recognize your policing powers as similar to other "mainstream" departments – what do you believe accounts for this?

4. What would help increase community recognition of your policing authority?

Appendix G

WASHINGTON STATE
UNIVERSITY

Research Compliance Office

<u>MEMORANDUM</u>

TO: James Wada
Educational Leadership & Counseling Psychology, WSU Pullman (2136)

FROM: Malathi Jandhyala (for) Kris Miller, Chair, WSU Institutional Review Board (3140) *MJ*

DATE: 3 August 2006

SUBJECT: Approved Human Subjects Protocol - New Protocol

Your Human Subjects Review Summary Form and additional information provided for the proposal titled *"Perceptual Studies of Campus Police,"* IRB File Number **9214**-a was reviewed for the protection of the subjects participating in the study. Based on the information received from you, the WSU-IRB **approved** your human subjects protocol on **3 August 2006**.

IRB approval indicates that the study protocol as presented in the Human Subjects Form by the investigator, is designed to adequately protect the subjects participating in the study. This approval does not relieve the investigator from the responsibility of providing continuing attention to ethical considerations involved in the utilization of human subjects participating in the study.

This approval expires on 2 August 2007. <u>If any significant changes are made to the study protocol you must notify the IRB before implementation.</u> Request for modification forms are available online at http://www.ogrd.wsu.edu/Forms.asp.

In accordance with federal regulations, this approval letter and a copy of the approved protocol must be kept with any copies of signed consent forms by the principal investigator for THREE years <u>after</u> completion of the project.

Washington State University is covered under Human Subjects Assurance Number FWA00002946 which is on file with the Office for Human Research Protections.

If you have questions, please contact the Institutional Review Board at (509) 335-9661. Any revised materials can be mailed to the Research Compliance Office (Campus Zip 3140), faxed to (509) 335-1676, or in some cases by electronic mail, to *irb@mail.wsu.edu*.

Review Type: NEW   OGRD No.: NF
Review Category: XMT   Agency: NA
Date Received: 21 June 2006

PO Box 643140, Pullman, WA 99164-3140 • 509-335-9661 • Fax: 509-335-1676
iacuc@wsu.edu • ibc@wsu.edu • irb@wsu.edu • www.research-compliance.wsu.edu

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Appendix H

Identified Majors

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Criminal Justice	79	13.3	13.4	13.4
	Education	114	19.2	19.3	32.7
	Sociology	17	2.9	2.9	35.6
	Double major	24	4.0	4.1	39.7
	Political Science	27	4.6	4.6	44.2
	Communication	34	5.7	5.8	50.0
	General Studies	3	.5	.5	50.5
	Psychology	26	4.4	4.4	54.9
	Undecided	20	3.4	3.4	58.3
	Hotel and Restaurant Management	2	.3	.3	58.6
	Journalism	4	.7	.7	59.3
	Public Relations	2	.3	.3	59.7
	Liberal Arts	1	.2	.2	59.8
	Management Operations	2	.3	.3	60.2
	Wildlife Ecology	1	.2	.2	60.3
	Biology	9	1.5	1.5	61.9
	Human Development	3	.5	.5	62.4
	Business	44	7.4	7.5	69.8
	General Science	1	.2	.2	70.0
	Marketing	7	1.2	1.2	71.2
	Anthropology	2	.3	.3	71.5
	Philosophy	5	.8	.8	72.4
	Nursing	15	2.5	2.5	74.9
	Pre-Med	3	.5	.5	75.4
	Accounting	9	1.5	1.5	76.9
	Zoology	5	.8	.8	77.8
	Operations Management	1	.2	.2	78.0
	Pharmacy	4	.7	.7	78.6
	Pre-Law	1	.2	.2	78.8
	Fashion Merchandising	2	.3	.3	79.2
	Creative Writing	1	.2	.2	79.3
	Engineering	3	.5	.5	79.8
	Physical Therapy	1	.2	.2	80.0
	English	2	.3	.3	80.3
	Pre- Dent	1	.2	.2	80.5
	Architecture	5	.8	.8	81.4
	Chemistry	2	.3	.3	81.7

	Hospitality and Business Management	9	1.5	1.5	83.2
	Sport Management	38	6.4	6.4	89.7
	Dietetics	2	.3	.3	90.0
	Advertising	1	.2	.2	90.2
	Geology	1	.2	.2	90.3
	Spanish	1	.2	.2	90.5
	Finance	5	.8	.8	91.4
	Movement Studies	4	.7	.7	92.0
	History	8	1.3	1.4	93.4
	Athletic Training	12	2.0	2.0	95.4
	Sport Medicine	1	.2	.2	95.6
	Public Relations	3	.5	.5	96.1
	Broadcasting	3	.5	.5	96.6
	Neuroscience	4	.7	.7	97.3
	Actuarial Science	1	.2	.2	97.5
	Interior Design	2	.3	.3	97.8
	Natural Resource Sciences	1	.2	.2	98.0
	Health Science	1	.2	.2	98.1
	Construction Management	2	.3	.3	98.5
	Bio engineering	1	.2	.2	98.6
	Genetics	1	.2	.2	98.8
	Landscape Architecture	1	.2	.2	99.0
	MIS	3	.5	.5	99.5
	Speech and Hearing Therapy	2	.3	.3	99.8
	Entomology	1	.2	.2	100.0
	Total	590	99.5	100.0	
Missing	System	3	.5		
Total		593	100.0		

Appendix I

PPO Total Variance Explained for Four-Component Solution

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.435	33.867	33.867	6.435	33.867	33.867	4.878	25.671	25.671
2	2.146	11.295	45.161	2.146	11.295	45.161	2.684	14.127	39.798
3	1.675	8.818	53.979	1.675	8.818	53.979	2.386	12.558	52.356
4	1.044	5.493	59.472	1.044	5.493	59.472	1.352	7.116	59.472
5	.931	4.902	64.374						
6	.857	4.510	68.884						
7	.761	4.008	72.892						
8	.667	3.511	76.403						
9	.645	3.393	79.796						
10	.567	2.984	82.781						
11	.538	2.834	85.614						
12	.473	2.491	88.105						
13	.454	2.389	90.494						
14	.390	2.055	92.548						
15	.355	1.871	94.419						
16	.324	1.705	96.124						
17	.310	1.629	97.753						
18	.257	1.355	99.108						
19	.169	.892	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix J

CPO Total Variance Explained for four-Component Solution

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.915	36.396	36.396	6.915	36.396	36.396	4.246	22.348	22.348
2	2.076	10.927	47.324	2.076	10.927	47.324	2.666	14.031	36.380
3	1.503	7.912	55.235	1.503	7.912	55.235	2.525	13.288	49.668
4	1.126	5.926	61.161	1.126	5.926	61.161	2.184	11.493	61.161
5	.902	4.746	65.907						
6	.723	3.806	69.713						
7	.691	3.637	73.349						
8	.660	3.472	76.822						
9	.603	3.176	79.998						
10	.521	2.741	82.739						
11	.500	2.631	85.370						
12	.475	2.500	87.870						
13	.415	2.184	90.055						
14	.392	2.062	92.116						
15	.379	1.996	94.112						
16	.358	1.885	95.997						
17	.308	1.618	97.615						
18	.285	1.500	99.116						
19	.168	.884	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix K

T-Test PP and CP Departments

Group Statistics

	Survey	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
DEPSCALE	Pullman	291	13.4296	5.20653	.30521
	Campus	289	14.3010	5.17902	.30465

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
										95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
DEPSCALE	Equal variances assumed	.036	.850	-2.021	578	.044	-.87148	.43124	-1.71848	-.02449
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.021	577.998	.044	-.87148	.43124	-1.71847	-.02450

Appendix L

T-Test PP and CP Officers

Group Statistics

	Survey	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
COPSCALE	Pullman	291	6.9691	2.94941	.17290
	Campus	289	7.7336	3.01298	.17723

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
COPSCALE	Equal variances assumed	.317	.573	-3.088	578	.002	-.76449	.24758	-1.25076	-.27822
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.088	577.540	.002	-.76449	.24760	-1.25080	-.27819

Appendix M

Collinearity Diagnostics

PP Department

Collinearity Statistics	
Tolerance	VIF
.761	1.314
.927	1.078
.943	1.060
.941	1.063
.987	1.013
.764	1.309
.893	1.120
.953	1.049
.497	2.013
.500	1.998
.748	1.336

CP Department

Collinearity Statistics	
Tolerance	VIF
.745	1.343
.905	1.105
.973	1.028
.980	1.021
.985	1.015
.678	1.475
.800	1.250
.937	1.067
.504	1.985
.519	1.927
.711	1.406

Collinearity Diagnostics (continued)

PP Officer

Collinearity Statistics	
Tolerance	VIF
.761	1.314
.927	1.078
.943	1.060
.941	1.063
.987	1.013
.764	1.309
.893	1.120
.953	1.049
.497	2.013
.500	1.998
.748	1.336

CP Officer

Collinearity Statistics	
Tolerance	VIF
.745	1.343
.905	1.105
.973	1.028
.980	1.021
.985	1.015
.678	1.475
.800	1.250
.937	1.067
.504	1.985
.519	1.927
.711	1.406

Appendix N

PP Department Normal Probability Plot and Residuals Scatterplot

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: DEPSCALE

Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: DEPSCALE
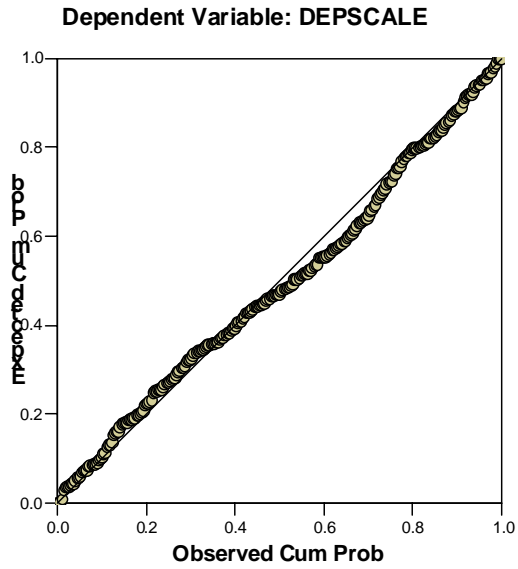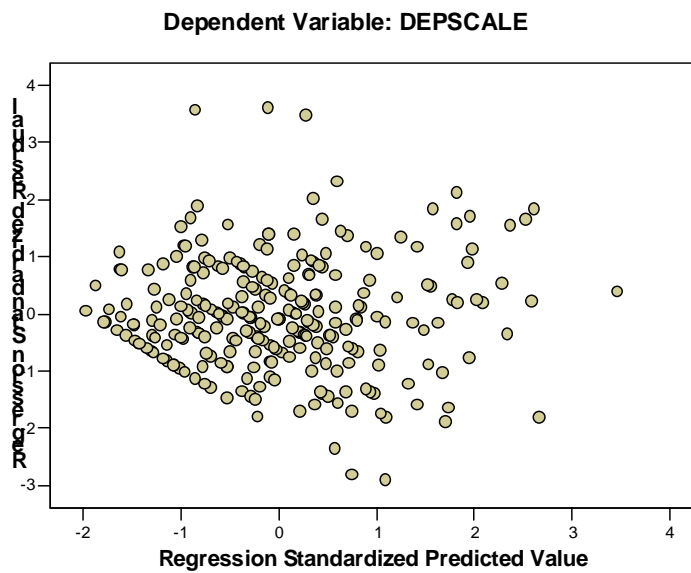
Appendix O

PP Officer Normal Probability Plot and Residuals Scatterplot

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: COPSCALE

Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: COPSCALE

Appendix P

CPO Department Normal Probability Plot and Residuals Scatterplot

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: DEPSCALE

Scatterplot

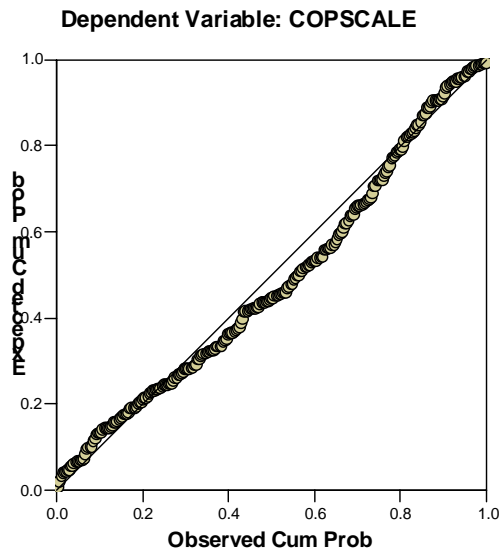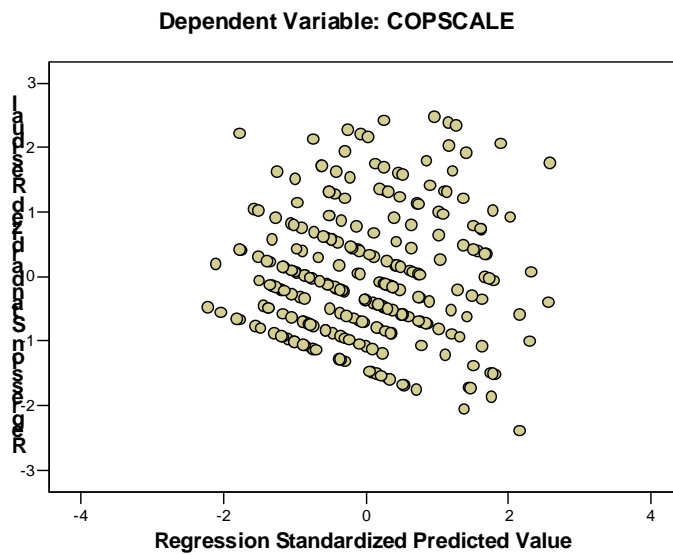**Dependent Variable: DEPSCALE**
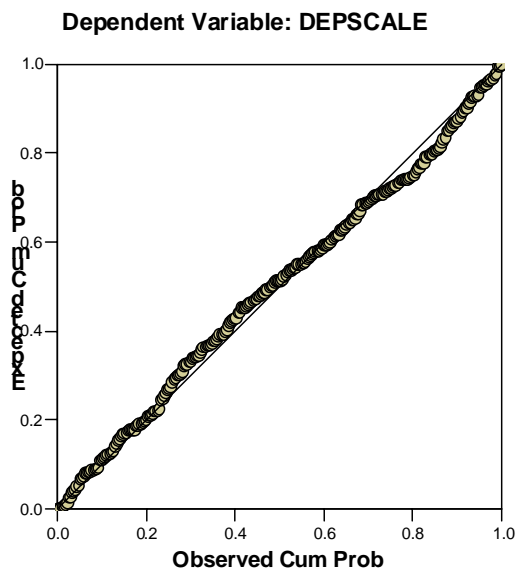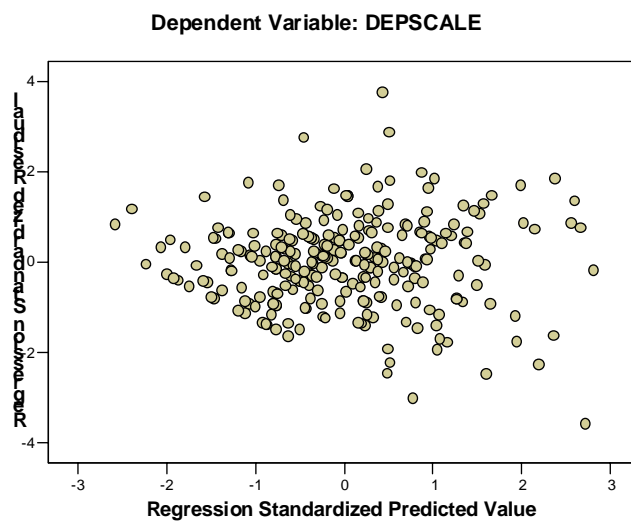
Appendix Q

CPO Officer Normal Probability Plot and Residuals Scatterplot

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: COPSCALE

Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: COPSCALE
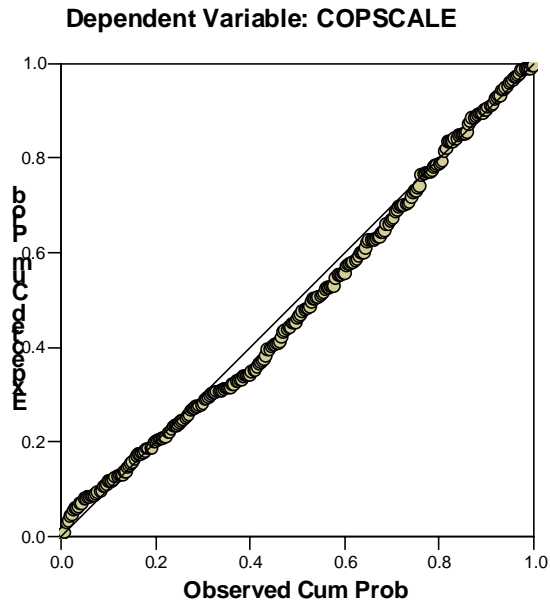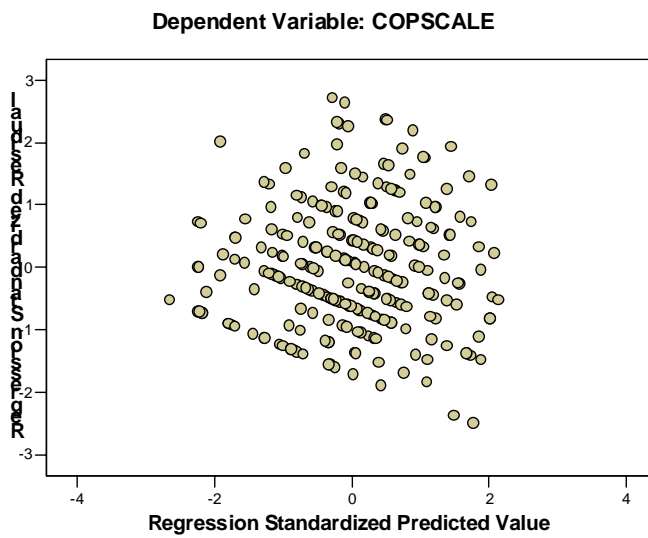
Appendix R

PP Department Regression Model Summary

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.733(a)	.537	.517	3.62385

a Predictors: (Constant), PosScale, Year, Race, Gender, S6Q4, S6Q5, UrbanRural, A Friend had negative contact with police, S6Q3, Had negative contact with an officer, Age

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3896.529	11	354.230	26.974	.000(a)
	Residual	3361.874	256	13.132		
	Total	7258.403	267			

a Predictors: (Constant), PosScale, Year, Race, Gender, S6Q4, S6Q5, UrbanRural, A Friend had negative contact with police, S6Q3, Had negative contact with an officer, Age
b Dependent Variable: DEPSCALE

Continued

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	29.498	3.233		9.123	.000			
	S6Q3	-.829	.524	-.078	-1.583	.115	-.090	-.098	-.067
	S6Q4	.083	.583	.006	.142	.887	.024	.009	.006
	S6Q5	-.218	.649	-.015	-.335	.738	-.042	-.021	-.014
	UrbanRural	-1.020	.461	-.097	-2.210	.028	-.076	-.137	-.094
	Race	.452	.595	.033	.760	.448	.014	.047	.032
	Had negative contact with an officer	2.890	.794	.178	3.639	.000	.455	.222	.155
	A Friend had negative contact with police	.634	.477	.061	1.327	.186	.290	.083	.056
	Gender	.165	.457	.016	.362	.718	-.018	.023	.015
	Year	.244	.284	.052	.860	.391	.069	.054	.037
	Age	-.134	.165	-.049	-.813	.417	-.012	-.051	-.035
	PosScale	-.731	.060	-.602	-12.206	.000	-.696	-.607	-.519

a Dependent Variable: DEPSCALE

Appendix S

PP Officer Regression Model Summary

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.408(a)	.167	.131	2.76622

a Predictors: (Constant), PosScale, Year, Race, Gender, S6Q4, S6Q5, UrbanRural, A Friend had negative contact with police, S6Q3, Had negative contact with an officer, Age

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	392.005	11	35.637	4.657	.000(a)
	Residual	1958.901	256	7.652		
	Total	2350.907	267			

a Predictors: (Constant), PosScale, Year, Race, Gender, S6Q4, S6Q5, UrbanRural, A Friend had negative contact with police, S6Q3, Had negative contact with an officer, Age
b Dependent Variable: COPSCALE

Continued

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	4.905	2.468		1.987	.048			
	S6Q3	.572	.400	.094	1.432	.153	.078	.089	.082
	S6Q4	-.317	.445	-.042	-.712	.477	-.026	-.044	-.041
	S6Q5	-.014	.496	-.002	-.028	.978	.003	-.002	-.002
	UrbanRural	-.274	.352	-.046	-.779	.437	-.020	-.049	-.044
	Race	1.086	.454	.138	2.392	.017	.143	.148	.136
	Had negative contact with an officer	1.096	.606	.118	1.807	.072	.191	.112	.103
	A Friend had negative contact with police	.052	.364	.009	.143	.886	.118	.009	.008
	Gender	1.536	.349	.258	4.401	.000	.235	.265	.251
	Year	-.114	.217	-.042	-.525	.600	-.015	-.033	-.030
	Age	.116	.126	.074	.927	.355	-.011	.058	.053
	PosScale	-.149	.046	-.216	-3.267	.001	-.248	-.200	-.186

a Dependent Variable: COPSCALE

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Appendix T

CP Department Regression Model Summary

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.709(a)	.503	.482	3.73045

a Predictors: (Constant), PosScale, S6Q4, UrbanRural, Race, S6Q5, Year, Gender, A Friend had negative contact with police, S6Q3, Had negative contact with an officer, Age

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3631.548	11	330.141	23.723	.000(a)
	Residual	3590.393	258	13.916		
	Total	7221.941	269			

a Predictors: (Constant), PosScale, S6Q4, UrbanRural, Race, S6Q5, Year, Gender, A Friend had negative contact with police, S6Q3, Had negative contact with an officer, Age
b Dependent Variable: DEPSCALE

Continued

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	33.526	3.321		10.095	.000			
	S6Q3	.378	.537	.036	.704	.482	-.080	.044	.031
	S6Q4	-.611	.624	-.045	-.979	.329	-.046	-.061	-.043
	S6Q5	-1.004	.713	-.063	-1.409	.160	-.092	-.087	-.062
	UrbanRural	-.285	.463	-.027	-.615	.539	-.002	-.038	-.027
	Race	-.117	.652	-.008	-.179	.858	.008	-.011	-.008
	Had negative contact with an officer	.123	.717	.009	.172	.863	.364	.011	.008
	A Friend had negative contact with police	.429	.510	.041	.841	.401	.274	.052	.037
	Gender	-.998	.477	-.096	-2.095	.037	-.223	-.129	-.092
	Year	.704	.292	.150	2.407	.017	.153	.148	.106
	Age	-.270	.163	-.103	-1.657	.099	.049	-.103	-.073
	PosScale	-.761	.062	-.644	-12.191	.000	-.690	-.605	-.535

a Dependent Variable: DEPSCALE

Appendix U

CP Officer Regression Summary

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.416(a)	.173	.137	2.79563

a Predictors: (Constant), PosScale, S6Q4, UrbanRural, Race, S6Q5, Year, Gender, A Friend had negative contact with police, S6Q3, Had negative contact with an officer, Age

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	420.959	11	38.269	4.897	.000(a)
	Residual	2016.408	258	7.816		
	Total	2437.367	269			

a Predictors: (Constant), PosScale, S6Q4, UrbanRural, Race, S6Q5, Year, Gender, A Friend had negative contact with police, S6Q3, Had negative contact with an officer, Age
b Dependent Variable: COPSCALE

Continued

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	11.593	2.489		4.658	.000			
	S6Q3	.733	.403	.121	1.820	.070	.103	.113	.103
	S6Q4	-.227	.468	-.029	-.486	.627	.005	-.030	-.028
	S6Q5	-1.216	.534	-.131	-2.276	.024	-.163	-.140	-.129
	UrbanRural	.328	.347	.054	.944	.346	.091	.059	.053
	Race	.904	.488	.106	1.852	.065	.126	.115	.105
	Had negative contact with an officer	.621	.537	.080	1.156	.249	.206	.072	.065
	A Friend had negative contact with police	.129	.382	.021	.337	.736	.143	.021	.019
	Gender	.534	.357	.089	1.495	.136	.044	.093	.085
	Year	.007	.219	.003	.033	.974	-.068	.002	.002
	Age	-.083	.122	-.054	-.679	.498	-.092	-.042	-.038
	PosScale	-.200	.047	-.291	-4.271	.000	-.318	-.257	-.242

a Dependent Variable: COPSCALE