The Impact Of Job-Related Stressors On Incidents Of Excessive Force By Police Officers

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ABSTRACT

The present study addresses the relationship between job-related stressors and incidents of police misconduct, a concept that has largely been neglected in policing literature. Manzoni and Eisner’s conceptualization of stress-strain theory provided the foundation for the research. Specifically, this study examines individual differences in the perception of how job-related stressors such as departmental leadership, departmental policies and regulations, and departmental climate are related to incidents of police misconduct expressed through the exercise of excessive force. This quantitative survey design employed the Police Survey of Job Related Stress (PSJRS) among a convenience sample of 94 active police officers (49 African American and 45 European) from a southern U.S. state. T-tests and the Mann-Whitney test were used to document statistically significant differences between white and African American officers across the perceived connection linking the core PSJRS dimensions of job-related stressors to excessive force misconduct. The results promote positive social change by reinforcing social bonds between police and communities and creating safer places to live.

Keywords: Police; Job Stressors; Police Brutality

INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

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

Levels of police brutality are often determined by the perceived success in achieving arrest rates and police targets and the resulting perks and potential promotional opportunities available from performance, rather than the inherent “bullying mentality” (Kirkcaldy, Cooper, Furnham, & Brown, 1993, p. 102). The implication of the claim that stress strain causes police brutality is that changing the internal organizational and structural system within the force would remove the need to resort to excessive force (Kappeler et al., 1995).

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

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

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

None of the existing researchers took into account an examination of the pattern of routine police officer activities as a crucial factor, thereby focusing on isolated incidents limited by reports and failing to compare other circumstances in which police officers utilize force, which were vital as part of the current study (Brandl et al., 2001). Manzoni and Eisner (2006) noted that “to limit a study to relatively homogenous groups of police officers is not sufficient, as there may still be intra-group variation regarding frequency with which officers perform activities holding a potential for conflict, such as arrests or identity checks” (p. 78). These activities were defined as the police officers’ job profile. Officers’ job profiles and victimization were included as situational controls to avoid spurious relationships between stress-related variables and the use of force in carrying out the research. From a theoretical perspective, when analyzing police use of force, some researchers have distinguished between excessive force and
the legitimate exercise of force as part of specific rights granted to the police (Skolnick & Fyfe, 1994; Worden, 1995).

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Case studies provide an important starting point for the literature review. First, the consistent thread in the case studies indicated resisting arrest was not an operational factor (Irwin, 2005). It could be argued that these case studies were one-off incidents that attracted media attention and are not representative of any widespread problem (Lawrence, 2000). Such an argument would support the working personality theory propounded from the psychological perspective. Accepting such a theory as conclusive would undermine the significant empirical data that demonstrate that stress triggers play a part.

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

Manzoni (2006) noted that no significant relationship exists between the use of force and work stress and used multivariate analyses equation models to demonstrate that no stress-related factors influenced the amount and level of force used by officers. This conclusion is further supported by the patterns demonstrated in the case studies, highlighting background factors to the stress strain theory in the context of the watchman theory. The case studies indicated a need to review categorization and the development of Scrivner’s (1995) profiling further. It was further evidence that the job profile remains the only predictor of police use of force, and victimization is strongly correlated with the use of force (Manzoni, 2006).

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

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

Junger-Tas and Marshall (1999) noted that a major analytical challenge facing the efficacy of studies of different treatment models is the fact that the research samples often comprise “well motivated people who have reached a stage in their career where they want to improve or do not want repercussion” (p. 123). Accordingly, it is problematic to reliably attribute any resulting reduction in police brutality in light of the inherent motivation of the sample (Junger-Tas & Marshall, 1999). Notwithstanding the consistent problem of the motivated sample and self-reporting methods, the results of the studies (motivated sample and self-reporting methods) indicate that stress is one of many possible causal factors for police brutality.
In the context of the debate regarding the correlation between stress and police brutality, the conclusiveness of the model as an encompassing explanation of police brutality can be refuted emphatically. Kop et al. (1999) conducted a quantitative analysis in relation to stress and the influence of burnout on police officers’ self-reported use of force among a sample of 358 Dutch police officers. The results of the study indicated that burnout led to increased incidences of use of force. Moreover, officers demonstrating stronger symptoms of burnout demonstrated a positive attitude toward the use of violence, which further supported the findings of a Canadian police study linking stress with police brutality (Stearns & Moore, 1993).

**Stress and Strain Theory: Research Study and Review**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Diversity Training for Stress

A half a century ago, police departments began to shift from a structure in which officers were assigned to neighborhoods and grew intimately familiar with their beats to one that put officers in readily identifiable uniforms and into vehicle patrol. Police leadership instituted standards for ethical and legal conduct, moved to paramilitary command and control structures, and trained officers to appear as detached experts in interactions with citizens. However, beginning with the civil unrest of the 1960s, shortcomings in the structure became apparent, and police departments were seen as too removed from and not racially representative of, the communities they served and officers were seen as being technically proficient but lacking in communications skills (Los Angeles Community Policing, 2004).

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

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

The staff at the Law Enforcement Regional Training Facility attempt to incorporate adult experiential learning into all of their programs. The training facility also adheres to the guidelines and curriculum for the POST Instructor Certification Program. The facility is also dedicated to providing practical and contemporary non-agency-specific courses that can benefit law enforcement agencies anywhere in the state. From the POST Basic Course to Continuing Professional Training and more skill specific courses, the San Francisco Police Department prides themselves on catering to the needs of the student. They have developed programs to address the safety and high-liability issues common to all law enforcement agencies: Arrest and Control Techniques, Use of Force, and Emergency Vehicle Operations, (Skogan, 2004).

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

METHODOLOGY

The area of inquiry for this research study involved the impact that job-related stressors might have on the ability of law enforcement officers to perform their occupational and daily lives without committing police misconduct. The focus of the study was on job-related stressors such as leadership, organizational policies and regulations, and departmental climate. A law enforcement officer acts “under color of law” (Juariez, 2004 p. 66), even if he or she is exceeding his or her rightful power. The types of law enforcement misconduct covered by these laws include excessive force, sexual assault, intentional false arrests, or the intentional fabrication of evidence resulting in a loss of liberty to another. Law enforcement officers have struggled with the issue of use of force or
more specifically with police brutality Juarez (2004). Many citizens have made complaints about the misuse of force
by law enforcement Juarez (2004).

The participants in the research study were current law enforcement officers within a Metropolitan Atlanta
Police department. (I am currently employed as a police officer with an Atlanta police department and an instructor
at a local college where law enforcement officers attend. Therefore, the study used a convenience sample.

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

Data were collected through surveys. The data helped to determine if stress was a trigger affecting police
officer use of force and officer perception of the standard operating procedure by zones. The Police Survey of Job
Related Stress survey was presented in two sections. Section A, Demographic Information, collected information
from the law enforcement officers concerning their age, race, rank, and years of experience on the force. These
variables were used to disaggregate the data collected. Section B, Job Related Stressors, collected information as it
related to the factors of leadership, climate, and policies and regulations and the impact of these factors on the use of
excessive force by law enforcement officers.

The data for the impact of departmental policies and procedures on the use of excessive force were
collected in Questions 5-12, the data for the impact of leadership on the use of excessive force were collected in
Questions 13-23, and the data for the impact of climate on the use of excessive force were collected in Questions 24-31.

Research Instrument

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

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

Parametric test is pictorially depicted in normal distribution q-q plots reported for all the items in the scale.
Points are widely scattered around the line, which is an indication of deviation from normality. The table below
gives the descriptive statistical summary for total response for three factors affecting the use of excessive force.
Even for these total scores, the normality test failed and the researcher appropriately used a nonparametric test for
testing the significance of the difference in the impact of different factors in the use of excessive force.

| Table 1: Descriptive Statistics Summary for Factors on Use of Excessive Force |
|------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Impact on policy            | N          | Minimum    | Maximum    | Mean        |
| 94                          | 16.00      | 21.00      | 18.4574    |
| Impact on leadership        | 94          | 14.00      | 21.00      | 17.4043    |
| Impact on climate           | 94          | 20.00      | 29.00      | 24.8404    |
| Std. error                  | .11781     | .15374     | .27820     |
The Mann-Whitney test was used to test whether a significant difference existed in the impact of factors on the use of excessive force by police officers. Table 2 gives the summary of the Mann-Whitney test procedure and reports descriptive values. To apply the Mann-Whitney test, the data results were placed into SPSS version 14.0.

Table 2: Mann-Whitney Test Statistics Summary for Race Comparison

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Impact of policy</th>
<th>Impact of leadership</th>
<th>Impact of climate</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mann-Whitney U</td>
<td>310.500</td>
<td>70.500</td>
<td>54.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilcoxon W</td>
<td>1345.500</td>
<td>1295.500</td>
<td>1279.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z</td>
<td>-6.255</td>
<td>-7.961</td>
<td>-8.151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
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For impact of policies and procedures on the use of excessive force, the Mann-Whitney test statistic value was 310.50, with an asymptotic Z statistic value of 6.255. This gave a p value of .00001 (<.05), which meant that a significant difference exists in the impact of policies and procedures on the use of excessive force between African American and European police officers.

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

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

CONCLUSION

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

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

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

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REFERENCES


APPENDIX: POLICE SURVEY OF JOB RELATED STRESS

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

Section A: Demographic Information

1. What is your age?

2. What is your race?
   A. African-American  B. Caucasian  C. Other

3. What is your rank?
   A. PO1  B. PO2  C. Master  D. Sergeant
   E. Lieutenant  F. Captain  G. Major  H. Other

4. How many years of experience do you have?
   A. 0-5  B. 6-10  C. 11-15  D. 16-20  E. Over 20

Section B: Job Related Stressors

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

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

5. Disagreeable departmental regulations are related to excessive force
   SA  A  D  SD

6. Job conflict (by-the-book vs by-the-situation) is related to excessive force
   SA  A  D  SD

7. Problematic administrative policies and procedures are related to excessive force
   SA  A  D  SD

8. Excessive paperwork /red tape in personnel complaint procedures are related to excessive force
   SA  A  D  SD

9. Directly bearing the wrath when complaints are made are related to excessive force
   SA  A  D  SD

10. Overtime pay practices are related to excessive force
    SA  A  D  SD

11. Problematic measures of efficiency and effectiveness are related to excessive force
    SA  A  D  SD

12. Transfers without any prior consultation are related to excessive force
    SA  A  D  SD
Impact of Leadership on use of excessive force

13. Inadequate support by supervisor is related to excessive force
   SA A D SD

14. Inadequate support by department are related to excessive force
   SA A D SD

15. Difficulty getting along with supervisor is related to excessive force
   SA A D SD

16. Lack of recognition for good work is related to excessive force
   SA A D SD

17. Excessive or inappropriate discipline is related to excessive force
   SA A D SD

18. Poor or inadequate supervision is related to excessive force
   SA A D SD

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

20. Self-centered, self serving leadership is related to excessive force
   SA A D SD

Impact of Climate on use of excessive force

21. Assignment to new or unfamiliar duties are related to excessive force
   SA A D SD

22. Fellow officers not doing their job are related to excessive force
   SA A D SD

23. Insufficient manpower to adequately handle a job is related to excessive force
   SA A D SD

24. Inadequate or poor quality equipment is related to excessive force
   SA A D SD

25. Demands for high moral standards are related to excessive force
   SA A D SD

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

27. Lack of input into the decision making process is related to excessive force
   SA A D SD

28. Work conflict with peers are related to excessive force
   SA A D SD

29. Lack of adequate training on handling stress is related to excessive force
   SA A D SD

30. Poor working conditions are related to excessive force
   SA A D SD

31. Lack of job security is related to excessive force
   SA A D SD