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2017 URBAN RESEARCH AWARDS

About the College of Public Affairs and Community Service

The College of Public Affairs and Community Service (CPACS) was created in 1973 to ensure that the university was responsive to the critical social needs of our community and state. The College was given the mission not only to provide educational programs of the highest caliber to prepare students for leadership in public service, but also to reach out to the community to help solve public problems.

The College has become a national leader among similar colleges, with nine programs ranked in the top 25 in the nation. Our faculty ranks are among the finest in their disciplines. Faculty, staff, and students are integral to the community and state because of our applied research, service learning, and community partnerships. We take our duty seriously to help address social needs and craft solutions to local, state, and national problems. For more information, visit our website: cpacs.unomaha.edu

CPACS Urban Research Awards

Part of the mission of the College of Public Affairs and Community Service (CPACS) is to conduct research, especially as it relates to concerns of our local and statewide constituencies. CPACS has always had an urban mission, and one way that mission is served is to perform applied research relevant to urban society in general, and the Omaha metropolitan area and other Nebraska urban communities in particular. Beginning in 2014, the CPACS Dean provided funding for projects with high relevance to current urban issues, with the potential to apply the findings to practice in Nebraska, Iowa and beyond.

Overview

Gender, Personality, and Career Motivation in Policing

During the summer of 2018 we conducted a study with the Lincoln Police Department and the Omaha Police Department. The original focus revolved around exploring gender differences in the entry motivations and experiences of officers. In addition to these focus areas, the survey also included measures of officer attitudes and personalities and perceptions of the occupational and organizational environments. Finally, we collected information on demographic characteristics such as gender, age, length of employment, and rank. This report summarizes the survey results.

Literacy by Degrees and UNO Postsecondary Prison Education Project Evaluation

The University of Nebraska at Omaha (UNO) Post-Secondary Correctional Education Program was created in 2017 through fundraising by Steven and Thomas Scott and with the support of the University of Nebraska Foundation. A partnership was formed between UNO and the Omaha Correctional Center (OCC), a medium-minimum security men's prison within the Nebraska Department of Correctional Services (NDCS). The primary purpose of this program is to offer UNO courses, taught by UNO professors or adjunct instructors, to inmates at OCC. This report is a process evaluation of the policies and guidelines that have been established during the first year of the program, as well as an assessment of the fall and spring courses.

Police Transparency Following an Officer-Involved Shooting Captured by Body-Worn Camera: A Randomized Experiment

By 2016, one-half of American police agencies had adopted body-worn cameras (BWCs). Though a growing body of research has examined the impact of BWCs on outcomes such as use of force, complaints, and perceptions of police, few have considered how and why some agencies adopted BWCs, while others have not. With guidance from the diffusion of innovations paradigm, the current study explores variation in BWC adoption at the agency level. Drawing on a survey administered to a national probability sample of 665 municipal police chiefs in the spring of 2018, we found demographic composition and regionality were most strongly connected to BWC usage.

The State of Nonprofit Advocacy in Nebraska

148 Nebraska nonprofit leaders and 41 state-level policymakers were surveyed to understand current nonprofit advocacy knowledge and trends in the state. This research showed that many nonprofit staff and policymakers lack knowledge about nonprofit lobbying rules. There also is divergent thought between which lobbying activities Nebraska nonprofits currently use and the type of lobbying activities policymakers think are most effective.

Volunteer Programming Impact on Urban Nebraska Nursing Home Quality of Care

There are 18 quality measures and 14 of them address people who will be in the nursing home for more than 100 days and four of them address short stay residents or those people who are in the nursing home to rehabilitate and go home. This study focused on 14 long-stay quality measures and in particular, pressure sores, UTI's, depression, use of restraints, falls, use of antipsychotics, and use of hypnotics. The hypothesis was that the strength of volunteer program and the activities in which volunteers engage, impact the nursing homes quality measure scores and ultimately the quality of life of the nursing home resident.

Gender, Personality, and Career Motivation in Policing

FEBRUARY 2019

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CPACS Urban Research Awards

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Gender, Personality, and Career Motivation in Policing

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February 2019

Funding for this research was provided by a 2017 Urban Research Award from the College of Public Affairs and Community Service Dean's Office.

Gender, Personality, and Career Motivations in Policing Study
Preliminary Stakeholder's Report
January 2019

Research Conducted By:
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Research Funded By:
Urban Research Grant
College of Public Affairs and Community Service

Report Highlights

- The majority of officers first became interested in policing as a career between the ages 19-24 (**Figure 1.1**).
- Both men and women indicated *helping people in the community, excitement of the work, and fighting crime* as important motivations to enter the field (**Table 2**).
- The top entry-related concerns for both males and females were *being able to prove myself* and *being able to do the job effectively* (**Table 3**).
- Of the 13 entry-concerns, female participants scored higher than males on **all** but one concern (**Figure 1.3**). Gender differences reached statistical significance on the following items: (1) *physical nature of the job*, (2) *being accepted by my fellow officers*, (3) *discrimination in the work environment*, and (4) *being taken seriously*.
- Females were significantly more likely than males to report organizational stress or stress associated with things like dealing with coworkers, feeling that different rules apply to different people, and having to prove themselves (**Figure 2.4**).
- For all officers, environmental fit was strongest at the job-level (i.e., perceptions that capabilities/personality fit the demands of the job), followed by the workgroup-level, and agency-level (**Figure 4.1**). Although males and females had similar levels of fit at the job-level, females reported less perceived fit at the workgroup and organizational level than males did (**Figures 4.4** & **4.6**).
- Although reports of workplace incivilities were relatively low, female officers were more likely to report experiencing incivilities than male officers (**Figure 5.1**).
- Approximately 74% of male participants either somewhat or strongly agreed that they would still be at their job in 3 years compared to 56% of female participants (**Figure 5.2**).
- Overall, officers indicate a moderate to high level of job satisfaction. However, females reported lower levels of job satisfaction than males (**Figure 5.4**).

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Introduction and Methodology

During the summer of 2018 we conducted a study with two Nebraska police agencies, including the Lincoln Police Department. The original focus revolved around exploring gender differences in the entry motivations and experiences of officers. In addition to these focus areas, the survey also included measures of officer attitudes and personalities and perceptions of the occupational and organizational environments. Finally, we collected information on demographic characteristics such as gender, age, length of employment, and rank. The Lincoln survey was distributed as an anonymous survey link via the agency training system. The following presents descriptive information from the primary survey measures. It should be noted that we will continue to analyze this data over the coming months and we will share any additional research publications resulting from this data with the department. If you have questions about the current report or suggestions for additional analyses, feel free to contact Dr. Samantha Clinkinbeard at sclinkinbeard@unomaha.edu.

There were approximately 326 sworn officers from the Lincoln Police Department who participated, representing a response rate of 95%. As shown in **Table 1**, most of the sample consisted of patrol officers and they tended to be white, male, married, and had at least one child. The mean age was about 39 and the average years employed as a police officer was 14.

Table 1: Sample Demographics

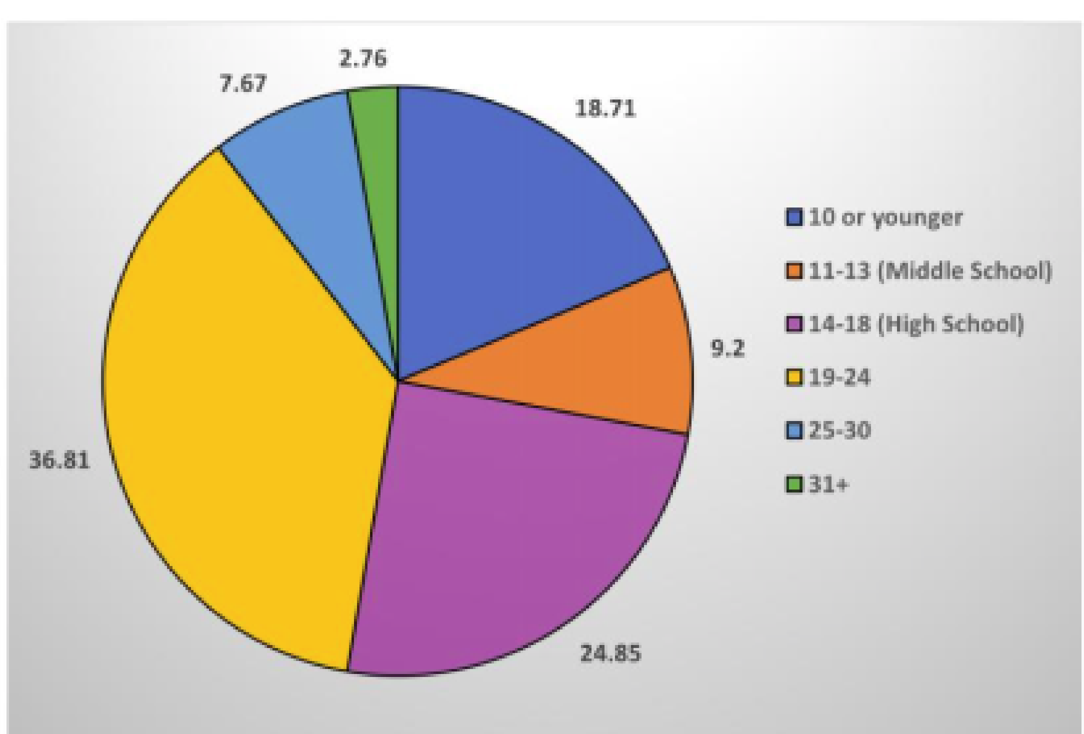
	Percent (%)	*Mean*	*Range*
White	91.02	-	*0-1*
Male	80.62	-	*0-1*
Patrol	80.64	-	*0-1*
Married	76.57	-	*0-1*
Child	68.77	-	*0-1*
Age	-	38.64	*21-69*
Length of Employment	-	14.16	*1-47*

Joining the Force - Motivations and Concerns

Age of Interest in Law Enforcement

Officers were asked to indicate when they first became interested in a career in law enforcement (**Figure 1.1**). It appears many officers (37%) first became interested in law enforcement between the ages of 19-24, at the time when they were likely working their first post-high-school jobs and/or attending college. One quarter of officers surveyed indicated they became interested between the ages of 14-18 (high school years) and approximately 19% of officers developed an interest at age 10 or younger. These results suggest that it is important to engage potential recruits during the stages of life (i.e., high school, post high-school, college) when they are exploring future career options.

Figure 1.1: Age of First Interest in Law Enforcement



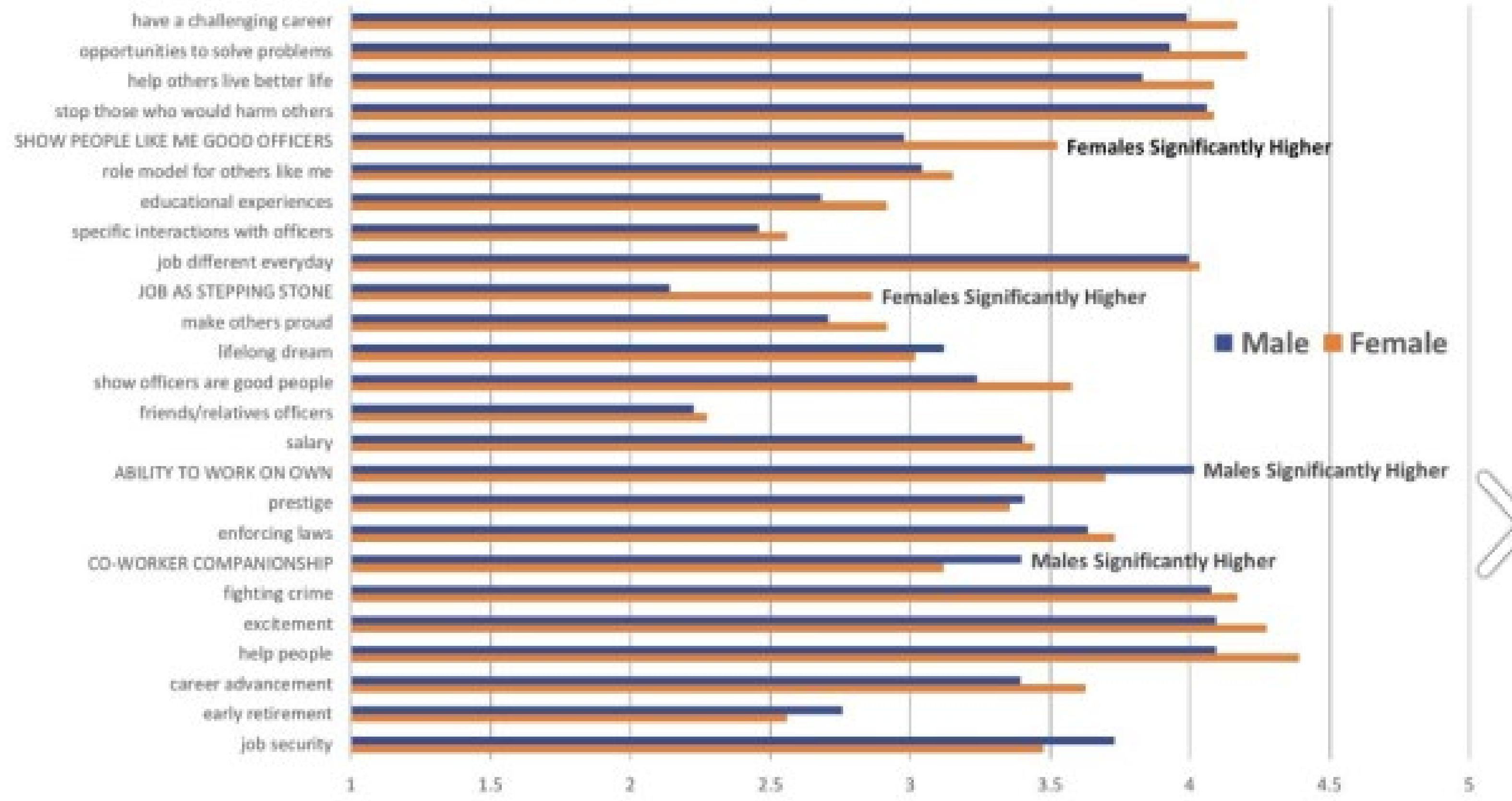
Motivations for Entry

Participants were provided with a list of entry motivations that have been cited in the literature as common among police officers and asked, ***"How important were each of the following in YOUR decision to enter policing?"*** Participants then rated each item on a 5-point scale from 1 "Not at all important" to 5 "Extremely important". The top motivations were similar for males and females as indicated in **Table 2**. Both men and women cited *helping people in the community, excitement of the work,* and *fighting crime* as important entry motivations. Men also rated *stop those who would harm others* and *ability to work on your own* as top 5 reasons, while women rated *opportunities to solve problems* and *have a challenging career* as top 5 reasons. **Figure 1.2** shows mean scores on all entry motivations by gender. Men and women scored relatively similar on most items though there were a couple of significant differences. Male officers rated *ability to work on your own* and *companionship with co-workers* as significantly more important than female officers did ($p < .05$). Female officers rated the items, *use the job as a stepping stone* and *show people like me make good police officers* as significantly more important than their male counterparts ($p < .05$). Generally, the data indicate that the motivations for entering policing are relatively similar for males and females. That said, there may also be a few themes that are more important for females than males, and vice versa. For example, recruitment messages that focus on the personal growth and challenge aspects of the job may be especially important for women.

Table 2: Top 5 Entry Motivations by Gender

Males	Females
Help People in the Community	Help People in the Community
Excitement of the Work	Excitement of the Work
Fighting Crime	Opportunities to Solve Problems
Stop Those Who Would Harm Others	Fighting Crime
Ability to Work on Your Own	Have a Challenging Career

Figure 1.2: Entry Motivations by Gender



*Significant differences indicated by text on the right side of indicator bars

Entry Concerns

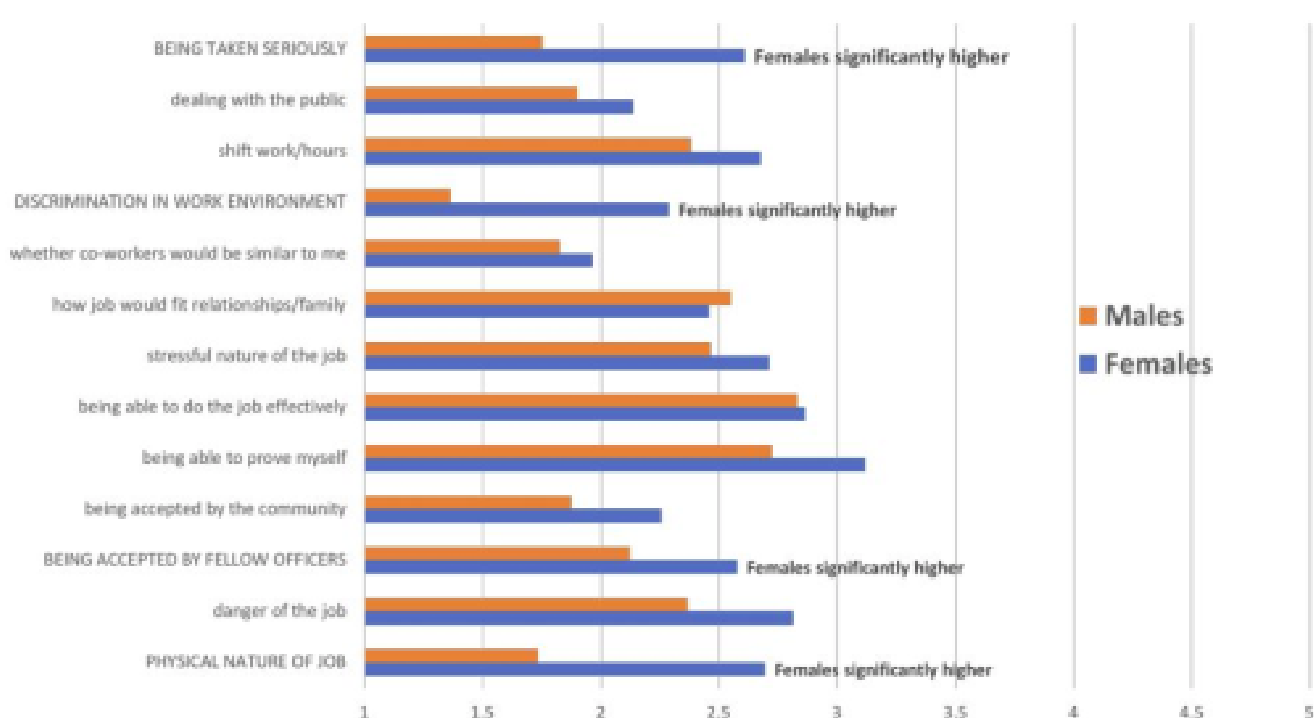
In addition to being asked about their motivations for entry, participants were also asked to report on entry-related concerns. Specifically, participants were provided with a list of items and asked to report, ***"Prior to entering policing, to what extent were you nervous about any of the following?"*** Items were rated on a scale from, 1 "Not at all nervous" to 5 "Very nervous". Overall, scores were low on these items indicating, either concerns were minimal and/or officers did not feel comfortable sharing their concerns. As with entry motivations, the top entry-related fears were similar for males and females (**Table 3**). *Being able to prove myself, being able to do the job effectively,* and the *stressful nature of the job* were top concerns for males and females. These types of concerns may actually be healthy as they indicate that participants care about doing good work. Although the top five concerns were relatively similar by gender, there were a few differences. Female officers ranked *danger* and the *physical nature of the job* in their top five concerns before they entered policing whereas males ranked *shift work/ hours* and *how job would fit with relationships* in their top 5.

Table 3: Top 5 Entry Concerns by Gender

Males	Females
Being able to do the job effectively	Being able to prove myself
Being able to prove myself	Being able to do the job effectively
How job would fit with family/relationships	Danger of the job
Stressful nature of job	Stressful nature of the job
Shift work/hours	Physical nature of the job

Of the 13 potential concerns, female participants scored higher than males on all but the following concern, *how the job would fit with relationship or family* (**Figure 1.3**). Gender differences reached statistical significance on the following items: (1) physical nature of the job, (2) being accepted by my fellow officers, (3) discrimination in the work environment, and (4) being taken seriously. Although overall concern scores were relatively low, this may be an area that is important to recruitment, particularly of women. These concerns were reported by women that *actually* went into the field. It is quite possible that similar concerns are keeping other qualified women from considering law enforcement as an option. It is also important to note that the concerns on which females score *significantly* higher are those that are either stereotypically expected to be more challenging for women (e.g., physical nature) or those that relate to concerns about token status (e.g, being taken seriously, being accepted, discrimination). Pre-employment mentoring and increased access to female role models may be possible approaches for mitigating such concerns. In addition, anything that improves the environment for current officers, may increase the likelihood that they will encourage or recruit others to the field.

Figure 1.3: Entry Concerns by Gender



*Significant differences indicated by text on the right side of indicator bars

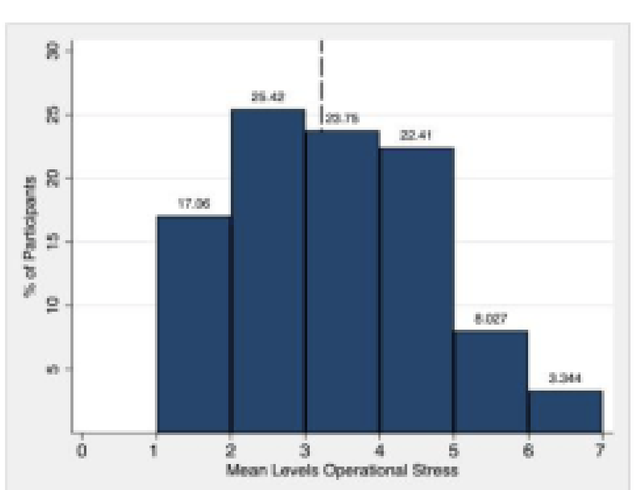
Psychological Distress

Stressors

McCreary and Thompson (2006) identify two domains of police stressors, operational and organizational. **Operational stressors are those that pertain to field work (e.g. traumatic events, paperwork, negative comments from the public), and organizational stressors are those that pertain to the workplace procedures and culture (e.g. lack of resources, staff shortages, leaders overemphasize the negative).** Participants in the study were asked to report the extent to which they experienced both operational and organizational stressors, on a scale from (1) “no stress at all” to (7) “a lot of stress” (**see Appendix**).

The overall score for operational stress indicates that officers have low to moderate levels of operational stress, as depicted in **Figure 2.1.** Although females (M = 3.46) reported slightly higher average scores than their male counterparts (M = 3.18) on the operational stress scale, as indicated in **Figure 2.2**, this difference was not statistically significant. Males and females reported similar levels of stress associated with things such as interacting with the public, traumatic events on the job, negative stories in the media, etc. Findings also indicate that operational stress is positively correlated with age and time in law enforcement, and these relationships were statistically significant ($p < .05$). That is, operational stress appears to increase with age and years on the job.

Figure 2.1: Perceived Operational Stress



*Dashed line indicates mean (M = 3.22)

Figure 2.2: Operational Stress by Gender

*Difference not statistically significant

Similar to operational stress, officers reported low to moderate levels of *organizational* stress (**Figure 2.3**). Unlike operational stress, however, there were significant differences reported by gender. Females (*M* = 3.64) reported significantly higher levels of organizational stress than their male counterparts (*M* = 3.04; **Figure 2.4**). Females were more likely than males to report stress associated with things like dealing with coworkers, feeling that different rules apply to different people, feeling they have to prove themselves, etc. In addition, patrol officers (*M* = 3.32) reported significantly higher levels of organizational stress compared to those of higher rank (*M* = 2.89; **Figure 2.5**).

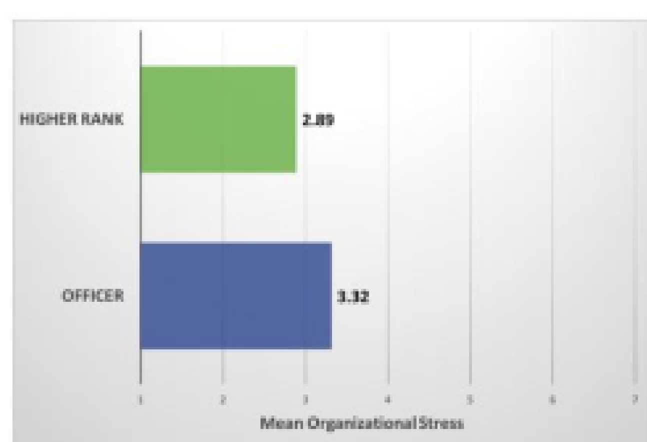
Figure 2.3: Perceived Organizational Stress

*Dashed line indicates mean (*M* = 3.14)

Figure 2.4: Organizational Stress by Gender

*Difference statistically significant $p < .05$

Figure 2.5: Organizational Stress by Rank



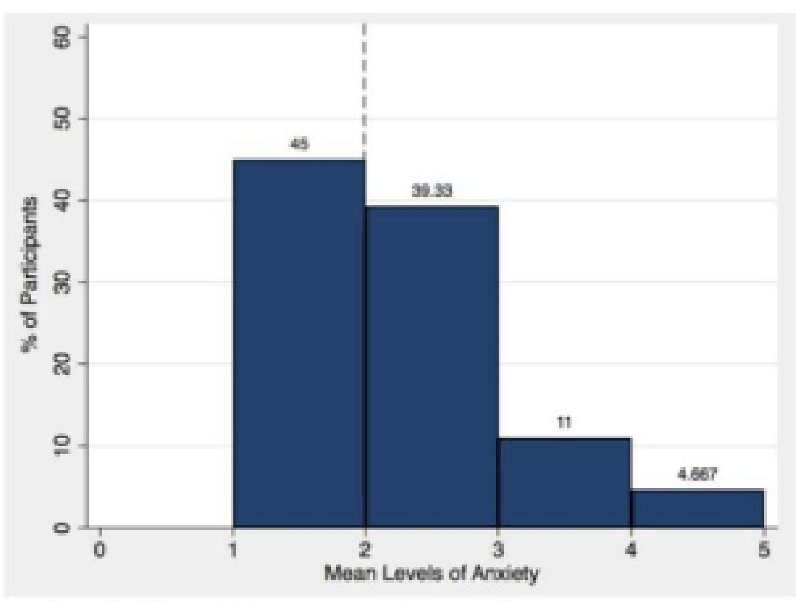
*Difference statistically significant $p < .05$

Anxiety

Due to the various operational and organizational stressors, officers are at risk for various physical and mental health concerns, including anxiety (Violanti, 2014). The anxiety measure **(see Appendix)** in the current research contained seven items tapping general levels of anxiety. Participants reported how often they experienced various feelings (e.g., I felt worried, I felt anxious) in the seven days preceding the survey using a scale from (1) "Never" to (5) "Always". Higher values on this scale indicate a higher level of anxiety.

The majority of officers reported low levels of anxiety. About 45% had an average anxiety level between 1 and 2 and about 39% had a level between 2 and 3. This is indicated in **Figure 2.6**. However, it is important to note that anxiety may sometimes be underreported due to the stigma surrounding mental health issues in policing (Violante, 2014). Officers' anxiety levels did not differ significantly according to gender, rank, age, and length of employment.

Figure 2.6: Anxiety - Past 7 Days



*Dashed line indicates mean (M=1.99)

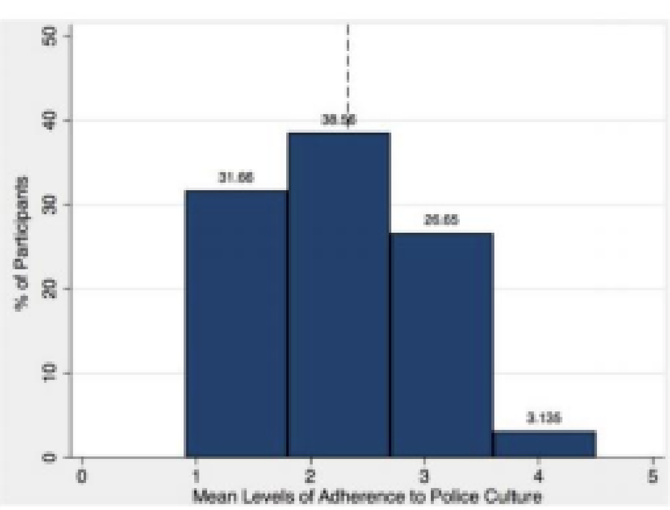
Policing Styles, Values, and Attitudes

Adherence to Traditional Police Culture

There were five items asking about adherence to traditional police culture. Traditional police culture, is defined as a set of attitudes, values, and norms that officers naturally establish as a result of strains from their organizational and occupational environments (Paoline & Gau, 2018; Silver, Roche, Bilach & Bontrager, 2017). These attitudes, values, and norms include, but are not limited to, behavior such as focusing on serious crime and taking a detached approach over a friendly approach on calls (**see Appendix**). Participants' agreement to each of the five items was coded on a five-point agreement scale from (1) "Strongly disagree" to (5) "Strongly agree". Each of these five items were then averaged to get an overall score. Higher scores indicate greater adherence and support of traditional police attitudes, values, and norms.

Overall, most officers reported low to moderate levels of adherence to traditional police culture ($M = 2.22$), depicted in **Figure 3.1.** When compared to officers of other ranks ($M = 1.98$), patrol officers ($M = 2.35$), report a stronger adherence to traditional police culture (**Figure 3.2**). Further, age and years in law enforcement are significantly correlated ($p < .05$) with support for traditional culture such that support decreases with age and years on the job. Although males reported slightly stronger support than females of traditional culture, the difference was not significant.

Figure 3.1: Traditional Police Culture



*Dashed line indicates mean (M=2.22)

Figure 3.2: Culture by Rank

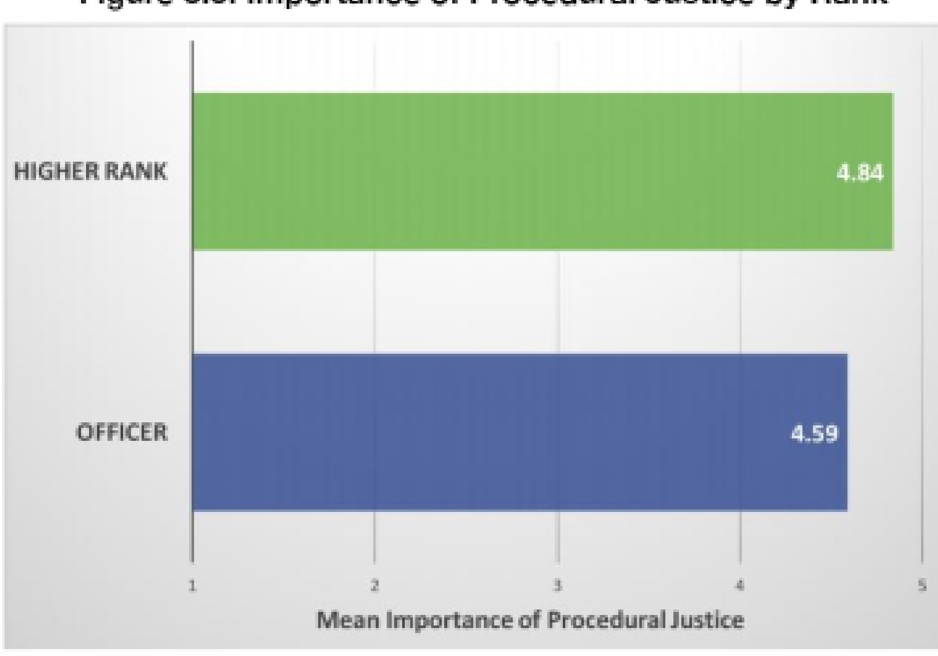
*Difference statistically significant, $p < .05$

Importance of Procedural Justice

Procedural justice is defined as a set of actions where officers use their authority over citizens in a ways that encourage satisfaction with the results of encounters (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). There are four components that make up procedural justice. These include how respectfully officers treat the citizen, the magnitude to which citizens are able to participate in the encounter, the neutrality officers use to make decisions, and the magnitude to which officers indicate their trustworthiness (Tyler, 2004). To gauge how important it was to officers to use procedural justice, we asked four questions.Participants responded to four items on the perceived importance of procedural justice in policing (**see Appendix**) on a five-point scale from (1) "Not at all important" to (5) "Extremely important." Higher scores on this scale indicate a greater perceived importance of procedural justice.

Overall, participants indicated that using procedural justice is important. The mean score was 4.68 (out of a possible 5). There were no significant differences by gender, but there was by rank. Patrol officers rated the use of procedural justice as significantly less important than those of higher rank, though both groups rated it fairly high in importance (**Figure 3.3**). Further, perceived importance of procedural justice increased significantly with age and time on the job ($p < .05$).

Figure 3.3: Importance of Procedural Justice by Rank



*Difference statistically significant, $p < .05$

Environmental Fit

Environmental fit concerns the influence of the police environments on workplace experiences. Understanding an individual's work environment is an important determinant of work behavior. Previous research indicates that, both, the physical elements of an individual's environment, and the psychological response to it, combine to have an effect on an individual's behavior (Bretz & Judge, 1994). This is generally described as a Person Environment (P-E) interaction (Cable & Judge, 1996). P-E fit is the similarity between an individual's characteristics and their work environment (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005).

In addition to the global definition of P-E fit, more specific subcategories have also emerged to describe an individual's interaction between their job (Person-Job fit), organization (Person-Organization fit), and work group (Person-Group fit). Previous research indicates that various types of P-E fit are associated with measures of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and stress. **Figure 4.1** shows the mean levels for each of the three types of P-E fit. The highest level of fit is reported at the job-level, followed by workgroup, and organization or agency.

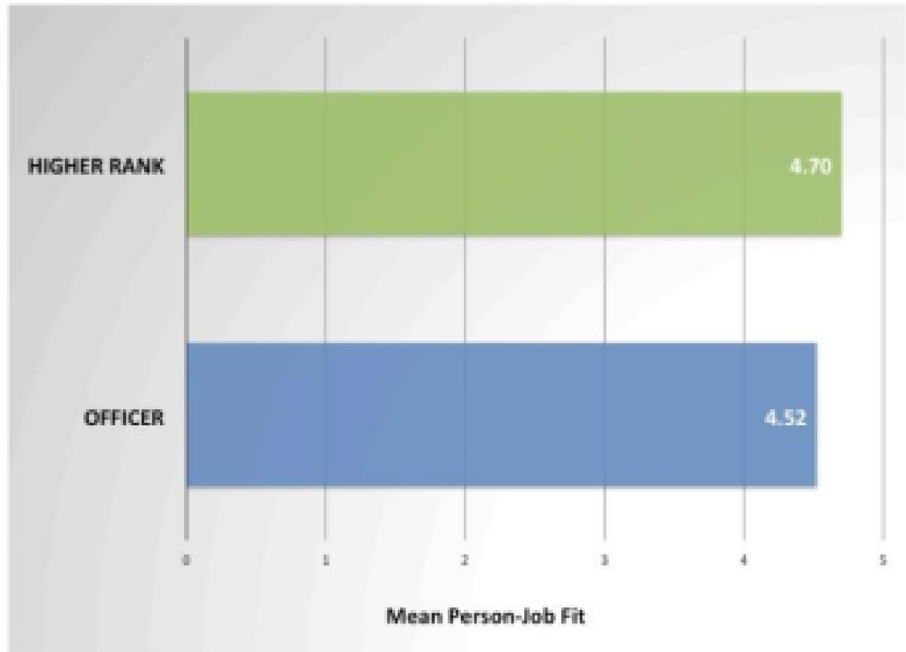
Figure 4.1: Person-Environment Fit

Person-Job Fit

Person-Job fit (P-J fit) is the match between the capabilities of an individual and the demands of the job (Edwards, 1991). In other words to what extent do individuals perceive that their characteristics, values, and abilities match the specific job they do? In the current research, there were three items that measured P-J fit (**see Appendix**). Participants indicated their level of agreement with each of the three items on a five-point agreement scale from (1) "Strongly disagree" to (5) "Strongly agree."

Overall, participants reported high levels of P-J fit. The mean score was 4.59 (out of a possible 5). Males reported slightly higher levels of job fit than females, but the difference was not statistically significant. Patrol officers reported lower levels of job fit than those at higher ranks, though both groups reported relatively high fit (see **Figure 4.2**). Further, P-J fit increased significantly with age and time on the job ($p < .05$).

Figure 4.2: Person-Job Fit by Rank



* Difference statistically significant, $p < .05$

Person-Organization Fit

Person-Organization fit (P-O fit) is the match between an individual's characteristics and that of the larger organization (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001). In the current research, there were three items that measured P-O fit (**see Appendix**). Participants indicated their level of agreement with each of the three items on a five-point agreement scale from (1) "Strongly disagree" to (5) "Strongly agree."

Organization fit was the lowest level of fit among all officers (*M* = 4.02). Females (*M*= 3.72) reported lower levels of P-O fit than males (*M* = 4.09) and patrol officers (*M* = 3.84) reported lower levels than officers of higher ranks (*M* = 4.29). In other words, females and patrol officers were less likely to report a match between their goals/values and those of the Lincoln Police Department (see **Figures 4.3** and **4.4**).

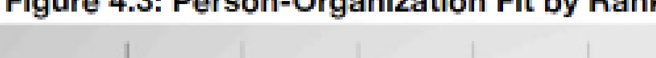
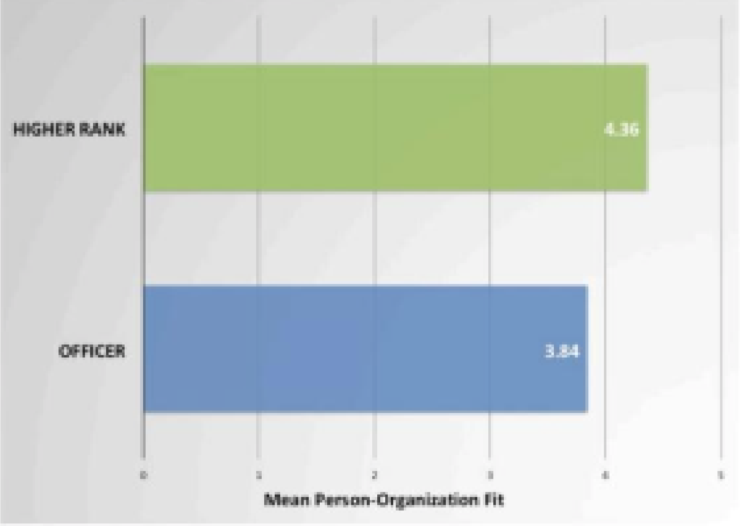
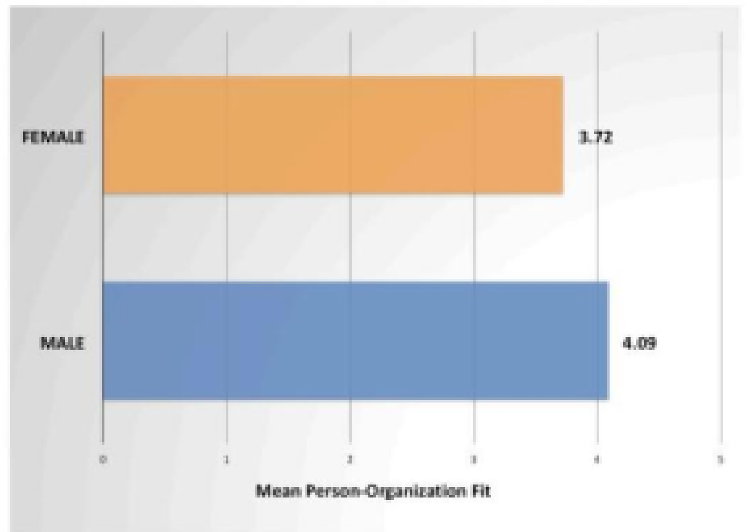


Figure 4.3: Person-Organization Fit by Rank



* Difference statistically significant, $p < .05$

Figure 4.4: Person-Organization Fit by Gender



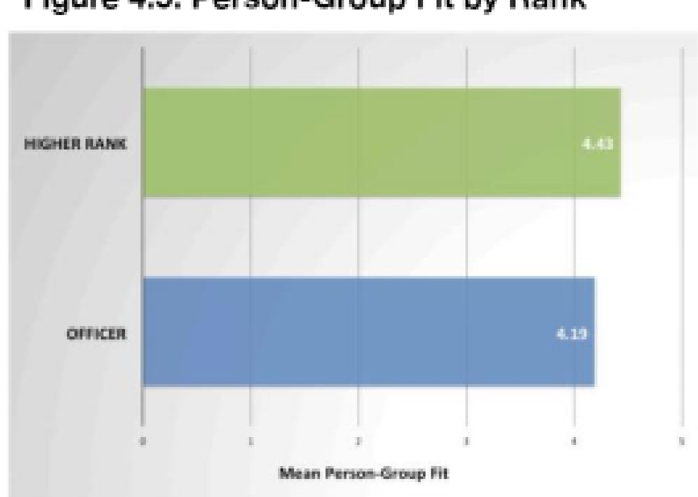
* Difference statistically significant, $p < .05$

Person-Group Fit

P-G fit focuses on the extent to which an individual perceives compatibility between their characteristics and the members of their workgroup (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Group fit is important to consider because work groups often have different values and norms than that of the larger organization to which they belong. Thus, perceptions of fit may vary at different levels of the organization (Kristof, 1996). In the current research, there were three items that measured P-G fit. Participants were told to "…think about your IMMEDIATE WORKGROUP, CREW, OR UNIT (i.e., those people you work most closely with on a regular basis)" and indicated their level of agreement to each of the three items (**see Appendix**) on a five-point agreement scale from (1) "Strongly disagree" to (5) "Strongly agree."

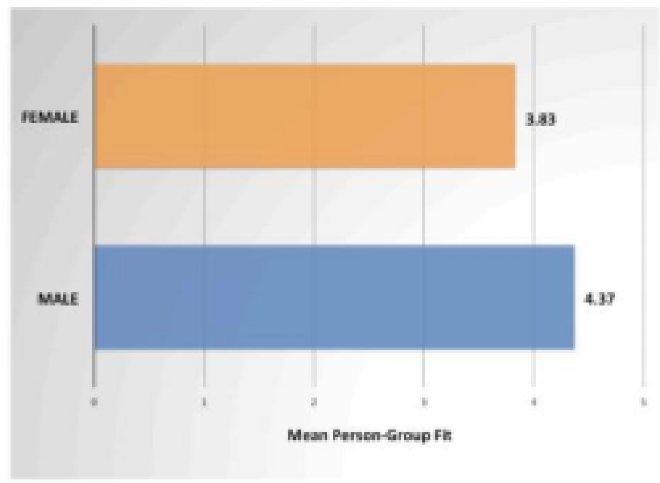
Overall, participants participants reported relatively high levels of P-G fit; the mean level of fit among all officers was 4.27 (out of a possible 5). Females had significantly lower levels of P-G fit than males (**see Figure 4.5**) and patrol officers reported lower levels of P-G fit than those of higher rank (**see Figure 4.6**). Age was not associated with P-G fit though P-G fit appeared to increase slightly with years on the job ($p < .05$).

Figure 4.5: Person-Group Fit by Rank



* Difference statistically significant, $p < .05$

Figure 4.6: Person-Group Fit by Gender



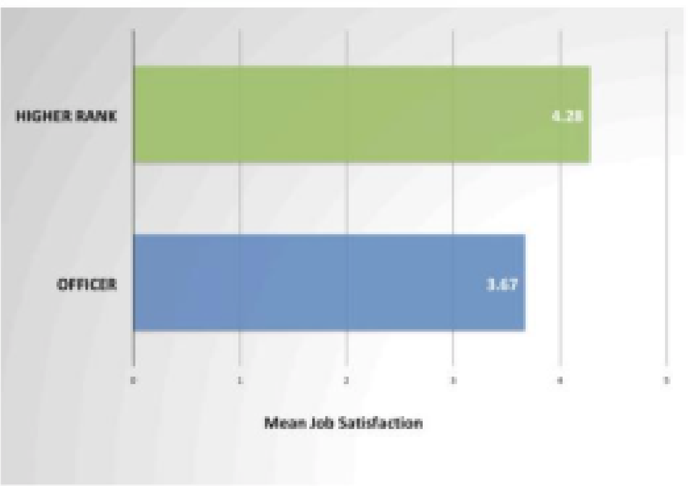
* Difference statistically significant, $p < .05$

Organizational Characteristics and Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction

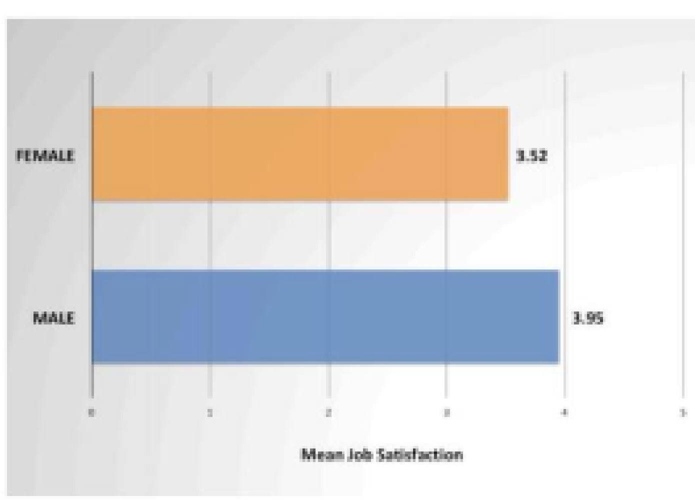
Job satisfaction was measured with a single item, “Overall, I am satisfied with my job” (**see Appendix**). Participants indicated their level of agreement on a five-point scale from (1) “Strongly disagree” to (5) “Strongly agree.” Overall, participants indicated a moderate to high level of job satisfaction ($M = 3.88$). There were significant differences in job satisfaction by gender and rank. Females ($M = 3.56$) reported lower levels of satisfaction than males ($M = 3.93$), and patrol officers ($M = 3.67$) reported lower levels of satisfaction than officers of higher rank ($M = 4.28$). Put another way, males and officers of higher rank, were significantly more satisfied with their jobs than female and patrol officers (see **Figure 5.3** & **Figure 5.4**).

Figure 5.3: Job Satisfaction by Rank



* Difference statistically significant, $p < .05$

Figure 5.4: Job Satisfaction by Gender



* Difference statistically significant, $p < .05$

Workplace Incivilities

Anderson & Pearson (1999) define workplace incivility as, “deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect” (p.457). These behaviors are usually rude and discourteous (Adams & Buck, 2011). They are important to consider because they are associated with psychological well being, and job satisfaction (Cortina, Magley, Williams, and Langhout, 2001).

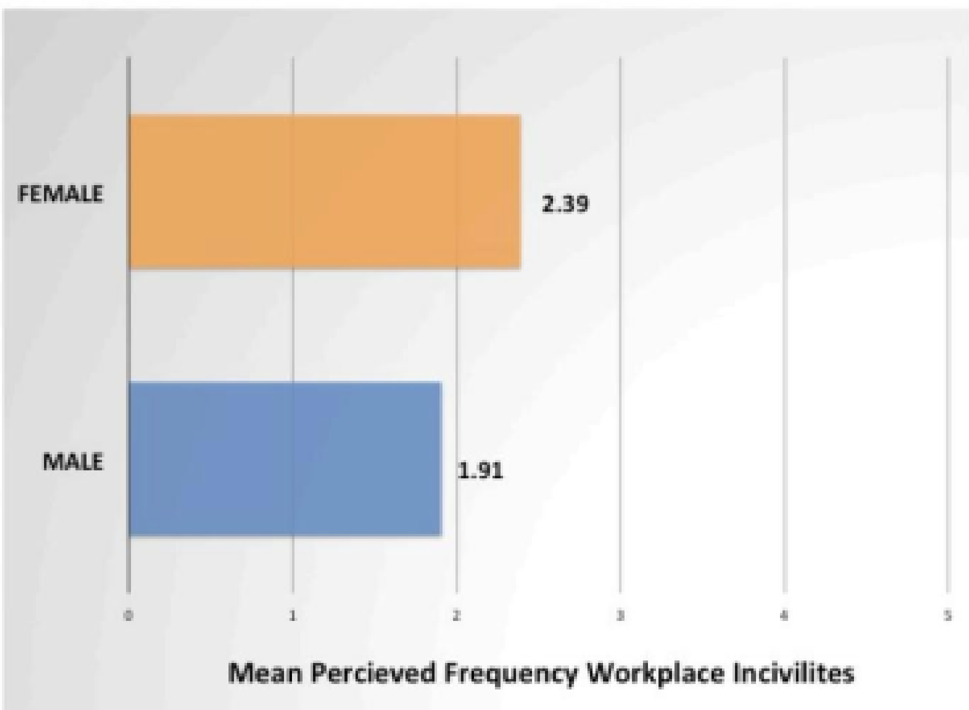
The workplace incivility scale in this research measured the frequency of officers' experiences of disrespectful, rude, or condescending behavior throughout their time as an officer in their current department (**see Appendix**). Participants indicated the frequency to which each item occurs on a five-point scale, from (1) “none of the time” to (5) “most of the time”. Scores were averaged across the six items with higher scores indicating more frequent experience with workplace incivilities.

Scores were not high for this measure ($M = 2.02$). That said, *any* experiences of incivilities can impact satisfaction and retention and there were group differences in the extent to which they were experienced. Females reported higher levels of overall workplace incivilities ($M = 2.39$) than males ($M = 1.91$) (**Figure 5.1**). Further, there were some gender differences between which types of incivilities were experienced most often (**Table 4**). The experience of incivilities also increased with age and time on the job, but this could be attributed to the fact that senior officers have had more time in which to experience incivilities and/or having been on the job prior to various cultural shifts in the agency.

Table 4: Most to Least Frequently Reported Incivilites by Gender

	Males	Females
	Paid little attention to your statement or opinion	Paid little attention to your statement or opinion
Most Reported	Put you down or was condescending to you	Put you down or was condescending to you
↑	Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you	Doubted your judgment on a matter, which you had responsibility over
	Doubted your judgment on a matter, which you had responsibility over	Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie
↓	Addressed you in unprofessional terms either publicly or privately	Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you
Least Reported	Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie	Addressed you in unprofessional terms either publicly or privately

Figure 5.1: Workplace Incivilities by Gender



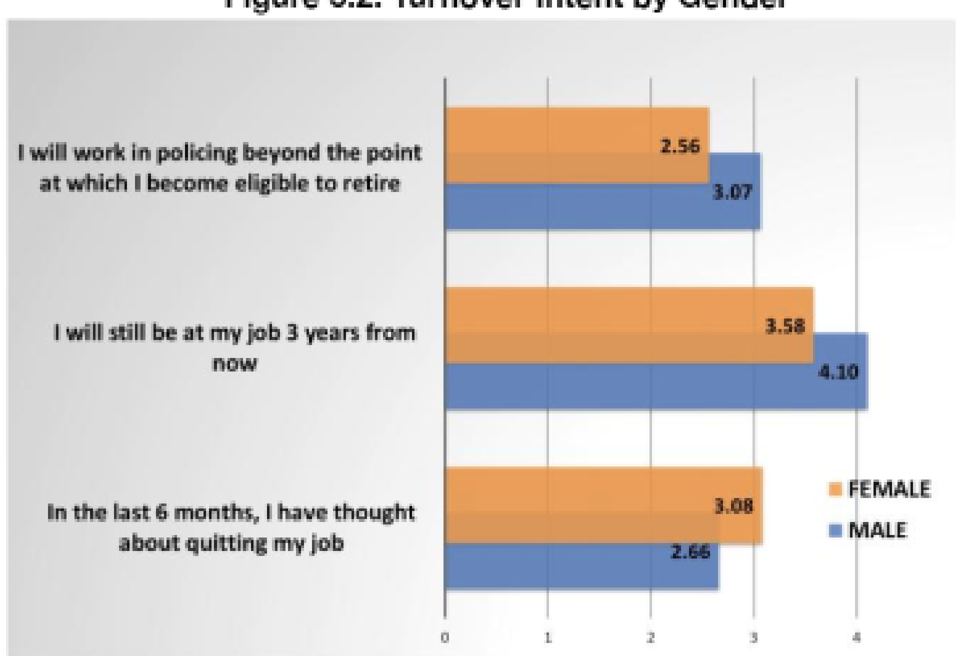
* Difference statistically significant, $p < .05$

Turnover Intent

Three items measured turnover intent. These items included *In the last 6 months I have thought about quitting my job*, *I will still be at my job 3 years from now,* and *I will work in policing beyond the point at which I become eligible to retire.* Participants indicated their level of agreement on a five-point scale from (1) “strongly disagree” to (5) “strongly agree” for each of these items.

The item, *I will still be at my job 3 years from now*, had the highest overall score of 4.01 out of 5, indicating that most officers plan to remain at the job for at least the next three years. Males (M = 4.1), however, were more likely than females (M = 3.6) to report that they expected to be at their job in 3 years (see **Figure 5.2**). Put a different way, approximately 74% of male participants either somewhat or strongly agreed that they would still be at their job in 3 years compared to 56% of female participants. Expectations about remaining at the job did not differ by rank, age, or years on the job. When asked the extent to which they had considered quitting their job in the past 6 months, participants were relatively neutral (M = 2.80). Females (M = 3.1) were significantly more likely than males (M = 2.7) to report having thought about quitting. Further, when asked whether they would likely work beyond the point at which they are eligible to retire, women were significantly less likely than men to report that they would continue working.

Figure 5.2: Turnover Intent by Gender



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Appendix

Item 1.1

Operational Stress	% 1 No stress at all	% 2	% 3	% 4 Moderate stress	% 5	% 6	% 7 A lot of Stress
Upholding an ideal public image	26.42	27.09	12.71	16.39	8.70	6.02	2.67
Negative comments from the public	19.80	21.48	12.75	22.82	11.74	6.38	5.03
Traumatic events	21.74	27.76	12.71	19.40	10.70	4.68	3.01
Negative stories in the media about the police	10.03	17.73	15.38	20.74	15.38	10.04	10.70

Item 1.2

Organizational Stress	% 1 No stress at all	% 2	% 3	% 4 Moderate stress	% 5	% 6	% 7 A lot of Stress
Dealing with co-workers	21.59	34.55	18.60	15.62	4.98	1.67	2.99
Feeling like you always have to prove yourself in the organization	22.00	20.67	11.67	21.33	8.33	8.00	8.00
If you are sick or injured, you co-workers seem to look down on you	39.87	21.93	6.31	13.95	6.98	4.65	6.31
Perceived pressure to volunteer free time	38.87	21.59	10.63	13.29	6.65	4.98	3.99
Leaders overemphasize the negatives	19.93	15.61	12.62	14.62	11.63	11.30	14.29
The feeling that different rules apply to different people	17.06	12.37	13.04	18.06	15.05	8.03	16.39

Item 2.1

Anxiety					
	% 1 Never	% 2	% 3	% 4	% 5 Always
I felt fearful	48.33	34.00	15.67	0.67	1.33
I felt anxious	26.00	29.33	32.67	2.33	9.67
I felt worried	27.67	36.67	28.00	1.33	6.33
I found it hard to focus on anything other than my anxiety	62.33	27.33	7.00	0.67	2.67
I felt nervous	36.66	35.00	22.67	1.00	4.67
I felt uneasy	38.93	34.90	21.48	1.67	3.02
I felt tense	27.66	32.00	28.67	4.00	7.67

Item 3.1

Adherence to Traditional Police Culture					
	% 1 Strongly disagree	% 2 Somewhat agree	% 3 Neither agree nor disagree	% 4 Somewhat agree	% 5 Strongly agree
An officer is most effective when they focus on serious crime	50.16	28.53	13.48	6.58	1.25
Police are required to spend too much time handling unimportant calls	13.17	19.12	15.67	35.74	16.30
A detached approach to dealing with citizens is more effective than a friendly approach	51.72	28.53	14.73	3.45	1.57
Police should be required to handle nuisances	3.46	4.72	21.70	39.94	30.18
Police should regularly engage in community policing activities	4.38	6.90	16.93	34.80	36.99

Item 4.1

Importance of Using Procedural Justice					
	% 1 Not at all important	% 2	% 3 Moderately important	% 4	% 5 Extremely important
Allowing citizens to explain their side of the story	0.32	0.00	6.35	22.54	70.79
Explaining to citizens the reasoning or legal basis behind important decisions	0.63	1.27	8.89	22.54	66.67
Treating citizens respectfully, even if you are personally frustrated with them	0.32	0.32	5.40	14.92	79.06
Treating citizens fairly	0.32	0.32	2.88	9.27	87.21

Item 5.1

Person-Job Fit					
	% 1 Strongly disagree	% 2 Somewhat agree	% 3 Neither agree nor disagree	% 4 Somewhat agree	% 5 Strongly agree
I have the right skills and abilities for this job	0.33	0.65	3.59	28.10	67.32
My personality is a good match for this job	0.33	1.31	4.58	28.10	65.69
I am the right type of person for this type of work	0.33	0.65	6.86	28.43	63.73

Item 5.2

Person-Organization Fit					
	% 1 Strongly disagree	% 2 Somewhat agree	% 3 Neither agree nor disagree	% 4 Somewhat agree	% 5 Strongly agree
My values match or fit the values of this agency	1.64	6.25	11.51	36.51	44.09
I am able to maintain my values at this agency	1.32	3.29	8.22	33.55	53.62
I fit in well within this agency	3.62	4.93	13.16	33.22	45.07

Item 5.3

Person-Group Fit					
	% 1 Strongly disagree	% 2 Somewhat agree	% 3 Neither agree nor disagree	% 4 Somewhat agree	% 5 Strongly agree
My values match or fit the values of my immediate workgroup	0.33	4.26	9.84	44.26	41.31
I fit in well with the members of my workgroup	0.33	3.28	7.54	39.67	49.18
The members of my workgroup value me	1.31	2.30	10.16	41.31	44.92

Item 6.1

Workplace Incivilities

	% 1 None of the time	% 2 Seldom	% 3 Sometimes	% 4 Often	% 5 Most of the time
Put you down or was condescending to you	21.93	41.53	29.89	5.65	1.00
Paid little attention to your statement or opinion	21.00	38.00	32.33	7.67	1.00
Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you	42.19	36.21	16.94	4.32	0.34
Addressed you in unprofessional terms either publicly or privately	46.51	32.89	15.61	4.32	0.67
Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie	46.85	31.56	17.94	2.99	0.66
Doubted your judgment on a matter, which you had responsibility over	32.00	40.67	23.00	3.00	1.33

Item 7.1

Turnover intent

	% 1 Strongly disagree	% 2 Somewhat agree	% 3 Neither agree nor disagree	% 4 Somewhat agree	% 5 Strongly agree
In the last 6 months, I have thought about quitting my job	38.61	8.91	12.87	21.12	18.49
I will still be at my job 3 years from now	5.96	3.64	19.54	24.83	46.03
I will work in policing beyond the point at which I become eligible to retire	24.75	10.23	25.41	19.47	20.14

Item 8.1

Job Satisfaction					
	% 1 Strongly disagree	**% 2** Somewhat agree	**% 3** Neither agree nor disagree	**% 4** Somewhat agree	**% 5** Strongly agree
Overall, I am satisfied with my job	6.27	6.93	15.84	34.65	36.31

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT OMAHA

Gender, Personality, and Career Motivations in Policing Study

Preliminary Stakeholder's Report
February 2019

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Report Highlights

- Approximately one-third of officers first became interested in policing as a career around ages 19-24 (**Figure 1.1**).
- Both men and women cited *helping people in the community, to be a role model for others like me, and fighting crime* as top entry motivations (**Table 2**).
- Overall, entry concerns were relatively low among officers though the top two concerns: b*eing able to prove myself* and *being able to do the job effectively.* were shared by both males and females (**Table 3**).
- Although entry concerns were relatively low, several concerns were reported as significantly higher for females compared to males: (1) physical nature of the job, (2) danger of the job, (3) being accepted by my fellow officers, (4) stressful nature of the job, (5) discrimination in the work environment, and (6) being taken seriously (**Figure 1.3**) .
- Overall scores indicate that officers have low to moderate levels of both *operational* stress and *organizational stress* (**Figure 2.1 & Figure 2.3**).
- Females were significantly more likely than males to report organizational stress (i.e., stress associated with things like dealing with co-workers, feeling that different rules apply to different people, etc.) (**Figure 2.4**).
- Officers' Anxiety levels differed significantly ($p < .05$) according to gender and rank. Higher rank officers and females reported higher levels of anxiety (**Figure 2.6 & Figure 2.7**).
- Overall, participants indicated that using procedural justice is important. The mean score was 4.40 (out of a possible 5).
- Overall, officers indicate a moderate to high level of job satisfaction ($M = 3.94$) (**Figure 5.1)**.
- Although reports of workplace incivilities were relatively low, females were more likely to report experiencing incivilities than male officers (**Figure 5.4**).
- Females were significantly more likely than males to report having thought about quitting in the past 6 months (**Figure 5.5**).

Introduction and Methodology

During the summer of 2018 we conducted a study with two Nebraska police agencies, including the Omaha Police Department. The original focus revolved around exploring gender differences in the entry motivations and experiences of officers. In addition to these focus areas, the survey also included measures of officer attitudes and personalities and perceptions of the occupational and organizational environments. Finally, we collected information on demographic characteristics such as gender, age, length of employment, and rank. The Omaha survey was distributed in person to patrol officers during roll call, and to all other officers, through an anonymous survey link via email. The following presents descriptive information from the primary survey measures. It should be noted that we will continue to analyze this data over the coming months and we will share any additional research publications resulting from this data with the department. If you have questions about the current report or suggestions for additional analyses, feel free to contact Dr. Samantha Clinkinbeard at sclinkinbeard@unomaha.edu.

There were approximately 506 sworn officers from the Omaha Police Department who participated, representing a response rate of 64%. As shown in **Table 1**, most of the sample consisted of patrol officers and they tended to be white, male, married, and had at least one child. The mean age was about 41 and the average years employed as a police officer was 14. Finally, about half of the officers had military experience.

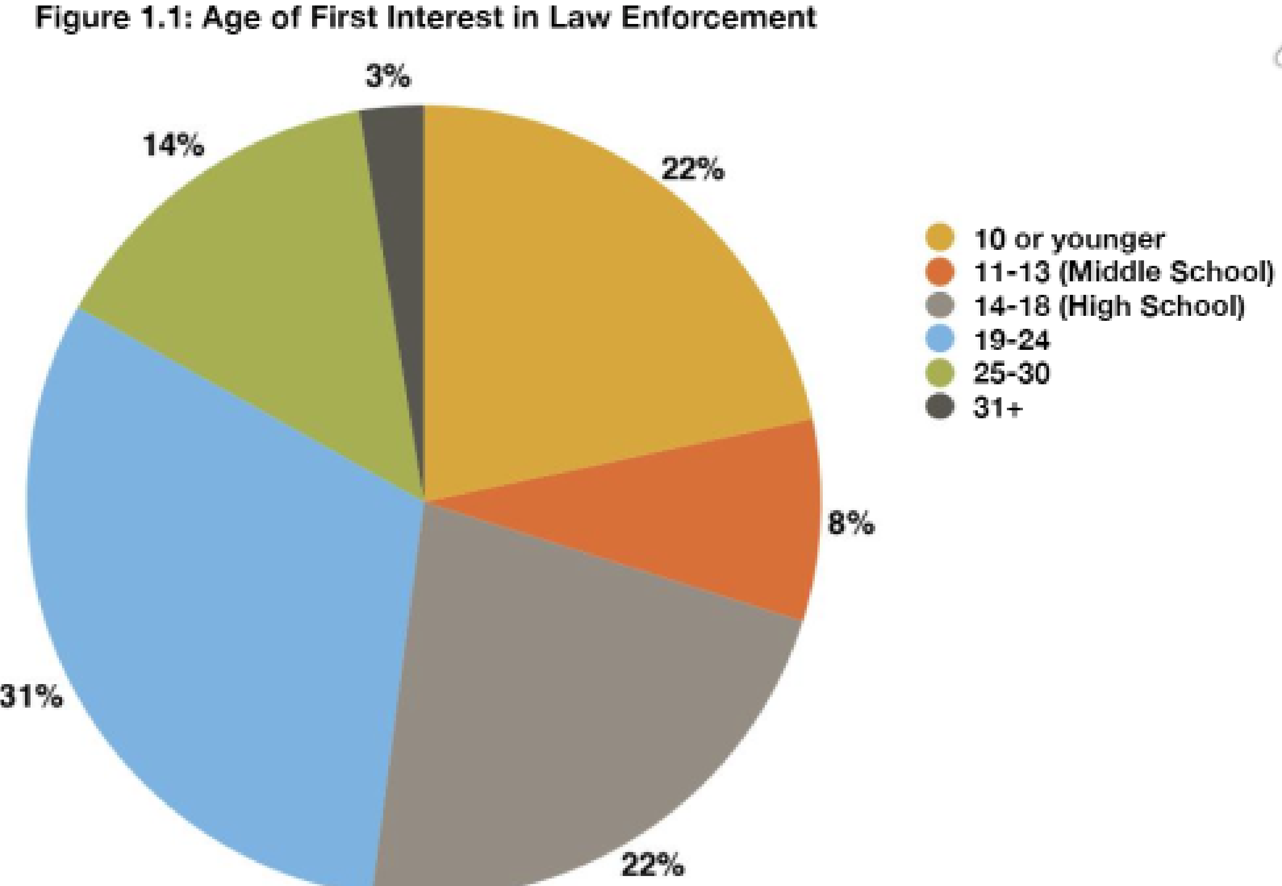
Table 1: Sample Demographics

	Percent (%)	*Mean*	*Range*
White	78.43	-	0-1
Male	80.91	-	0-1
Patrol	63.77	-	0-1
Married	75.80	-	0-1
Age	-	40.95	23-62
Length of Employment	-	14.03	1-37
Military	50.32	-	0-1

Joining the Force - Motivations and Concerns

Age of Interest in Law Enforcement

Officers were asked to indicate when they first became interested in a career in law enforcement (**Figure 1.1**). It appears many officers (31%) first became interested in law enforcement between the ages of 19-24, at the time when they were likely working their first post-high-school jobs and/or attending college. Almost one quarter of officers surveyed indicated they became interested between the ages of 14-18 (high school years) and almost one quarter of officers developed an interest at age 10 or younger. The data suggest that it is important to engage potential recruits during the stages of life (i.e., high school, post high-school, college) when they are exploring future career options. Further, although less than 10% of officers started thinking about law enforcement during middle school, this might be an important time to engage youth.



Motivations for Entry

Participants were provided with a list of entry motivations that have been cited in the literature as common among police officers and asked, *"How important were each of the following in YOUR decision to enter policing?"* Participants then rated each item on a 5-point scale from 1 "Not at all important" to 5 "Extremely important". The top motivations were similar for males and females as indicated in **Table 2** below. Both men and women cited *helping people in the community, to be a role model for others like me, and fighting crime* as important entry motivations. Men also rated *excitement of the work* and *job security* as top five reasons while women rated *help others live a better life* and *to show that people like me make good police officers* in the top 5. **Figure 1.2** shows mean scores on all entry motivations by gender. Men and women scored relatively similar on most items though there were a couple of significant differences. For example, male officers rated *companionship with co-workers* and *ability to work on your own* as significantly more important than did female officers ($p < .05$). Female officers rated the items, *desire to stop/apprehend those who would harm others* and *help others live a better life* as significantly more important than their male counterparts ($p < .05$). In addition, females reported *educational experiences* and *specific experiences with police officers* as more influential than did males ($p < .05$). Generally, then, the data indicate that motivations for entering policing are relatively similar though their may be special opportunities for proactive recruitment (e.g., recruiting women on college campuses and providing opportunities for direct interaction with police officers).

Table 2: Top 5 Entry Motivations by Gender

Males	Females
To be a role model for others like me	Help people in the community
Fighting crime	To be a role model for others like me
Help people in the community	Fighting crime
Excitement of the work	Help others live a better life
Job security	To show that people like me make a good police officer

Figure 1.2: Entry Motivations by Gender

Job security
Friends and relatives that are or were police officers
Career advancement
Help people in the community
Excitement of the work
Fighting crime
*Companionship with co-workers — Males significantly more likely
Enforcing the laws of society
Prestige of profession
*Ability to work on your own — Males significantly more likely
Salary
To show that officers are good people
Lifelong dream
Make others proud
Use this job as a stepping stone
Have a job that is different every day
*Specific experiences I had with police officers — Females significantly more likely
*Educational experiences I had — Females significantly more likely
To be a role model for others like me
To show that people like me make good police officers
*Desire to stop/apprehend those who would harm others — Females significantly more likely
*Help others live a better life — Females significantly more likely

1 1.5 2 2.5 3 3.5 4 4.5 5

Male Female

*Significant differences indicated by the text on the right side of indicator bars

Entry Concerns

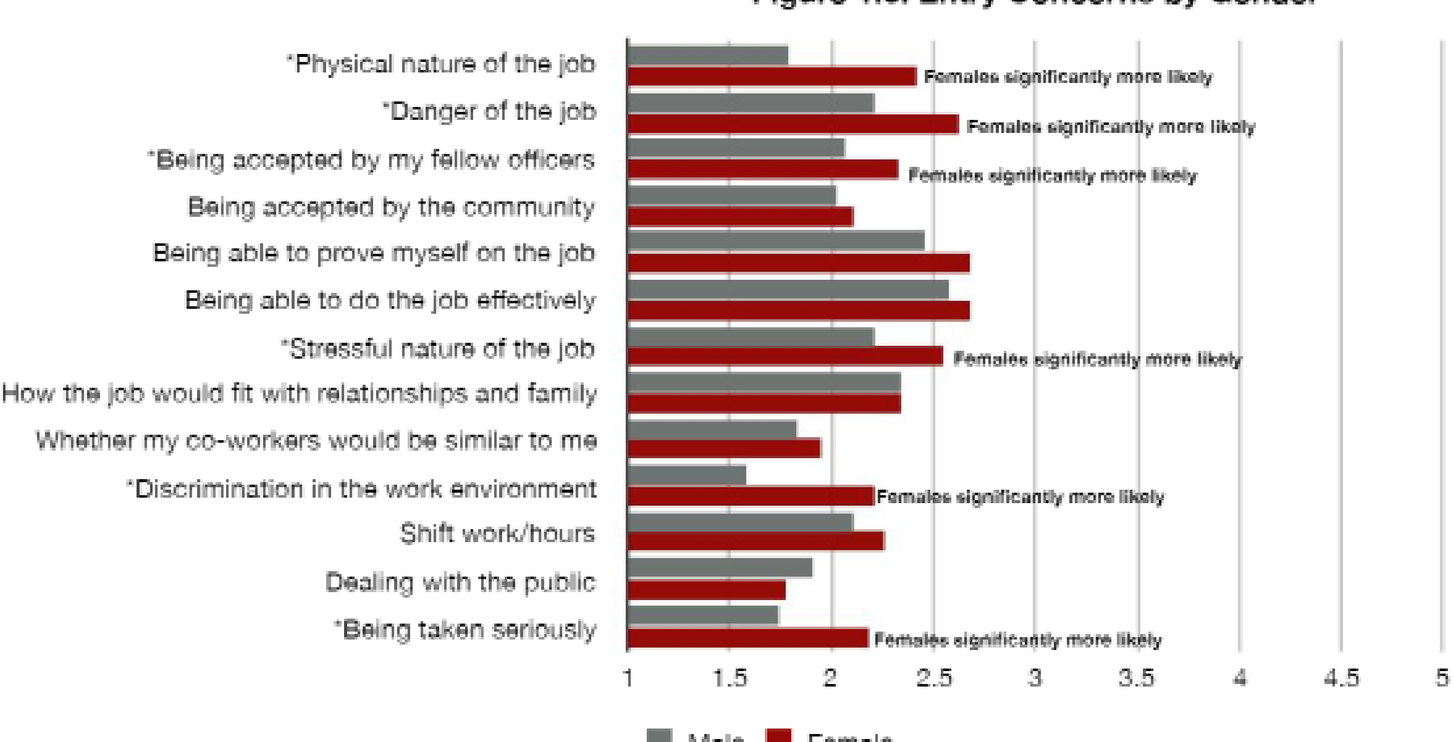
In addition to being asked about their motivations for entry, participants were also asked to report on entry-related concerns. Specifically, participants were provided with a list of items and asked to report, "Prior to entering policing, to what extent were you nervous about any of the following?" Items were rated on a scale from, 1 "Not at all nervous" to 5 "Very nervous". Overall, scores were low on these items indicating, either (a) that concerns were minimal, (b) officers had concerns but they were different from those listed, and/or (c) officers did not feel comfortable sharing their concerns. As with entry motivations, the top entry-related fears were similar for males and females (**Table 3**). *Being able to prove myself* and *being able to do the job effectively* were top concerns for males and females. These types of concerns may actually be healthy as they indicate that participants care about doing good work. Female officers ranked *physical nature of the job* as top concerns before they entered policing whereas males ranked *how job would fit with relationships* in their top 5.

Table 3: Top 5 Entry Concerns by Gender

Males	Females
Being able to do the job effectively	Being able to do the job effectively
Being able to prove myself	Being able to prove myself
How the job would fit with family/relationships	Danger of the job
Stressful nature of the job	Stressful nature of the job
Danger of the job	Physical nature of the job

Of the 13 potential concerns, female participants scored higher than males on all but, *how the job would fit with relationship or family* (**Figure 1.3**). Gender differences reached statistical significance on the following items: (1) physical nature of the job, (2) danger of the job, (3) being accepted by my fellow officers, (4) stressful nature of the job, (5) discrimination in the work environment, and (6) being taken seriously. Although overall concern scores were relatively low, this may be an area that is important to recruitment, particularly of women. These concerns were reported by women that *actually* went into the field. It is quite possible that similar concerns are keeping other qualified women from considering law enforcement as an option. It is also important to note that the concerns on which females score *significantly* higher are those that are either stereotypically expected to be more challenging for women (e.g., physical nature) or those that relate to concerns about token status (e.g, being taken seriously, being accepted, discrimination). Pre-employment mentoring and increased access to female role models may be possible approaches for mitigating such concerns. In addition, anything that improves the environment for current officers, may increase the likelihood that they will encourage or recruit others to the field.

Figure 1.3: Entry Concerns by Gender



*Significant differences indicated by the text on the right side of indicator bars

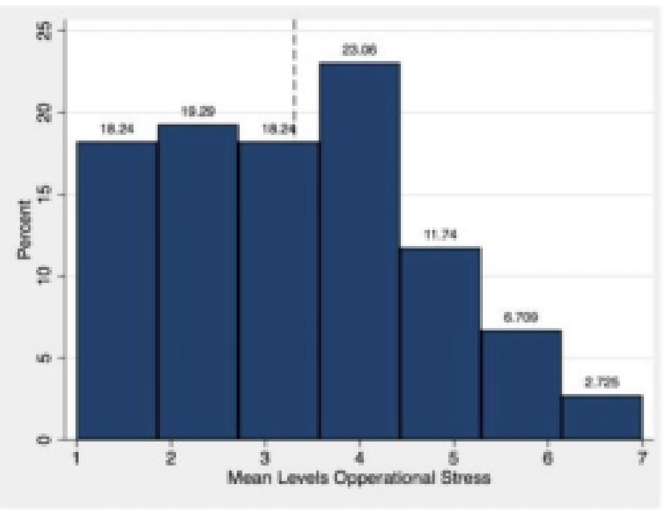
Psychological Distress

Stressors

McCreary and Thompson (2006) identify two domains of police stressors, operational and organizational. Operational stressors are those that pertain to field work (e.g. traumatic events, paperwork, negative comments from the public), and organizational stressors are those that pertain to the workplace procedures and culture (e.g. lack of resources, staff shortages, leaders overemphasize the negative). Participants in the study were asked to report the extent to which they experienced both operational and organizational stressors, on a scale from (1) "no stress at all" to (7) "a lot of stress" (**see item 1.1 and 1.2 in Appendix A**).

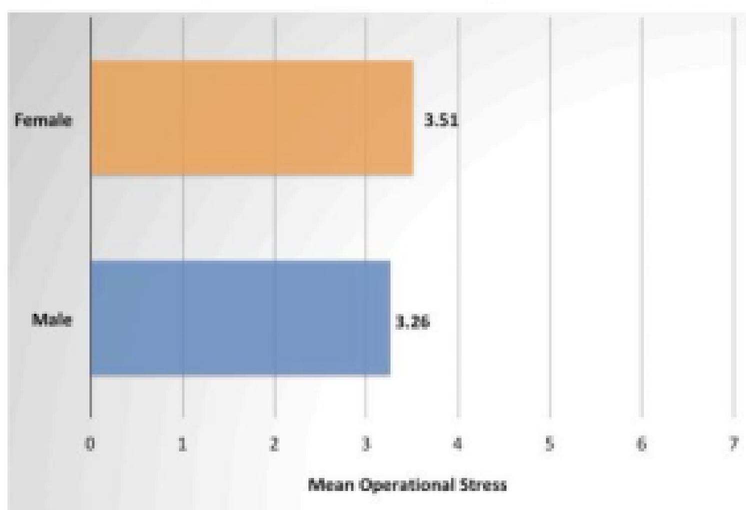
The overall score for operational stress indicates that officers have low to moderate levels of operational stress (*M = 3.31)*, as depicted in **Figure 2.1**. Although females (*M* = 3.52) reported slightly higher average scores than their male counterparts (*M* = 3.24) on the operational stress scale, as indicated in **Figure 2.2**, this difference was not statistically significant. In other words, males and females reported similar levels of stress associated with things such as interacting with the public, traumatic events on the job, negative stories in the media, etc.

Figure 2.1: Perceived Operational Stress



*Dashed line indicates mean (*M* = 3.31)

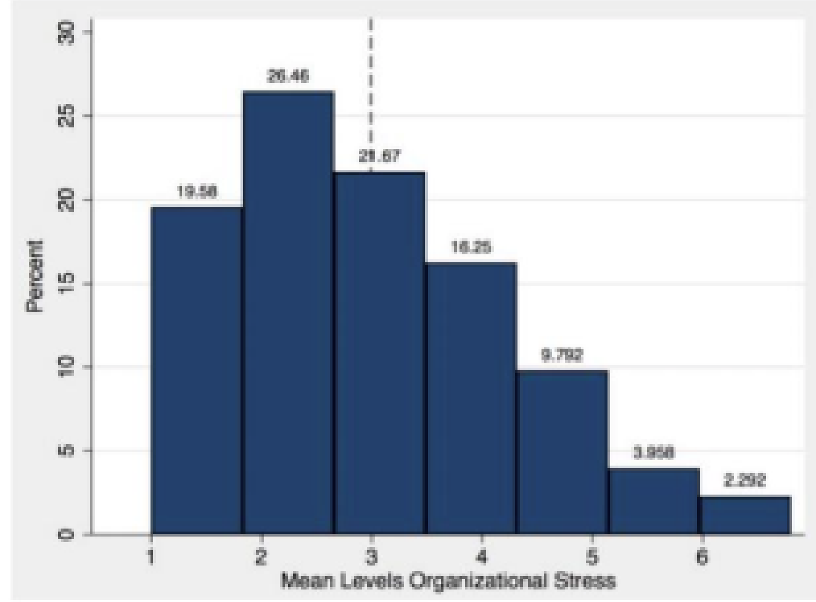
Figure 2.2: Operational Stress by Gender



*Difference not statistically significant

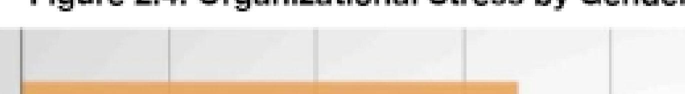
Similar to operational stress, officers reported low to moderate levels of *organizational* stress (M = 2.99) (**Figure 2.3**). Unlike operational stress, however, there were significant differences reported by gender. **Females (M = 3.37) reported significantly higher levels of organizational stress than their male counterparts (M = 2.90; Figure 2.4)**. In other words, females were more likely than males to report stress associated with things like dealing with co-workers, feeling that different rules apply to different people, feeling they have to prove themselves, etc.

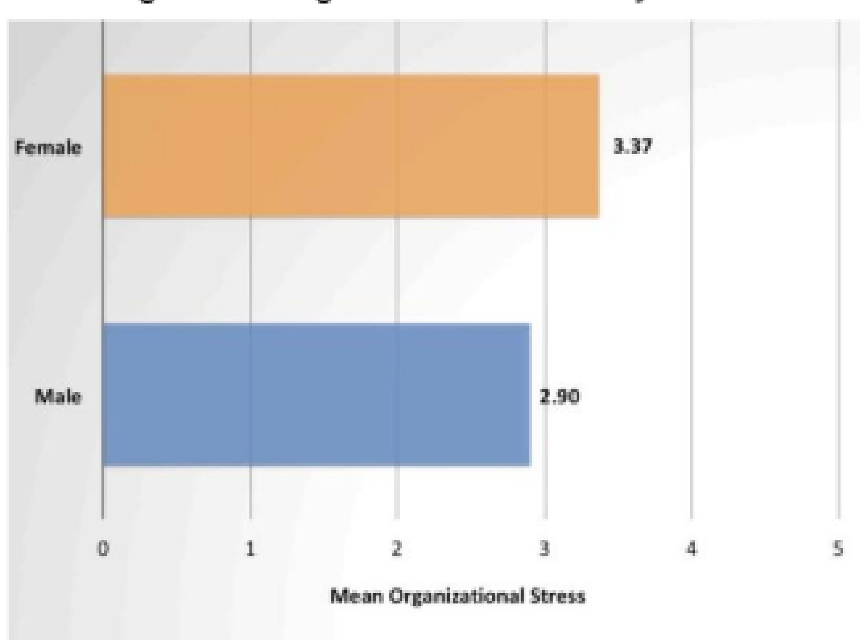
Figure 2.3: Perceived Organizational Stress



*Dashed line indicates mean (M = 2.99)

Figure 2.4: Organizational Stress by Gender



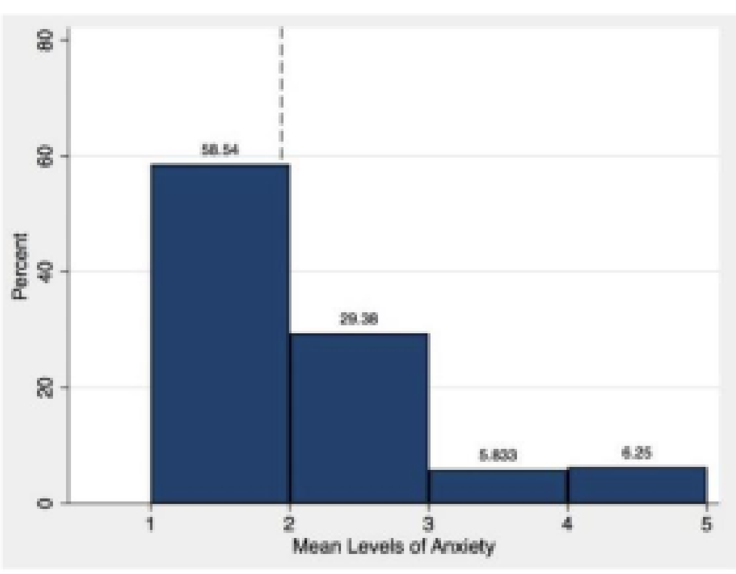


*Difference statistically significant ($p < .05$)

Anxiety

Figure 2.5: Anxiety

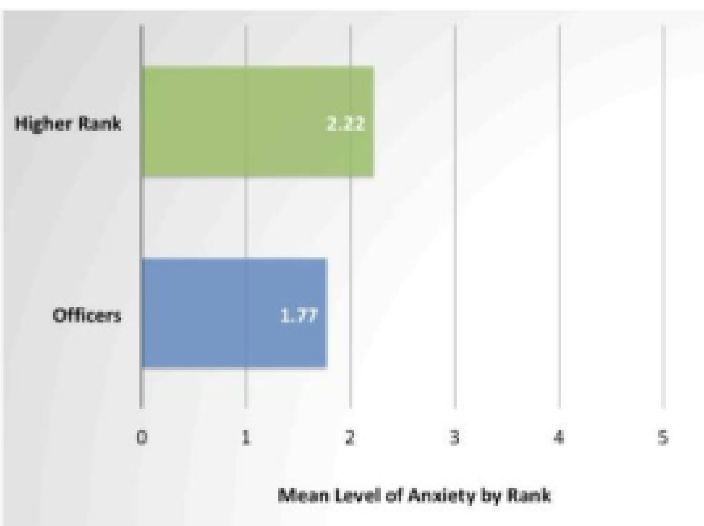
Due to the stressors officers experience, they are at risk for various physical and mental health concerns, including anxiety (Violanti, 2014). The anxiety measure (**see item 2.1 in Appendix A**) in the current research contained seven items tapping general levels of anxiety. Participants reported how often from, (1) "Never" to (5) "Always", they experienced various feelings (e.g., I felt worried, I felt anxious) in the seven days preceding the survey. Higher values on this scale indicate higher level of anxiety.



*Dashed line indicates mean (*M* = 1.94)

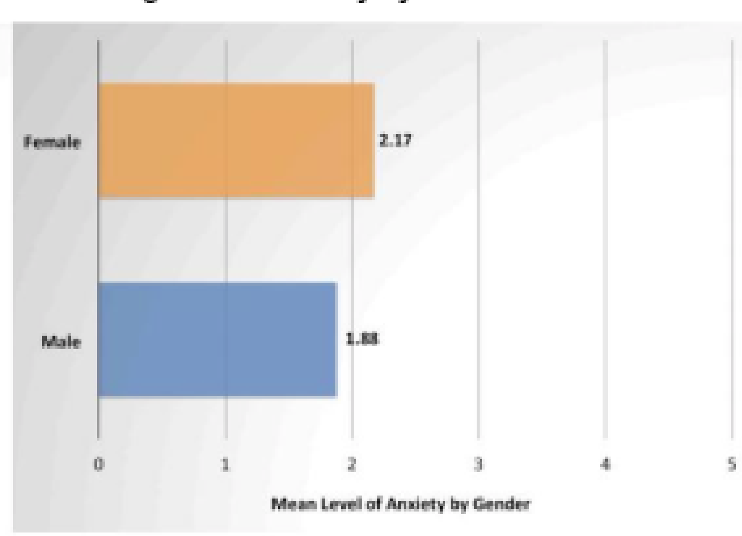
The majority of officers reported low levels of anxiety. About 59% had an average anxiety level between 1 and 2 and about 29% had a level between 2 and 3 (**Figure 2.5)**. It is important to note that anxiety may be underreported due to the stigma surrounding mental health issues in policing (Violante, 2014). Officers above the rank of patrol and females scored significantly higher on the anxiety measure than did their patrol or male counterparts. (**Figure 2.6**. **& Figure 2.7**).

Figure 2.6: Anxiety by Rank



*Difference statistically significant ($p < .05$)

Figure 2.7: Anxiety by Gender



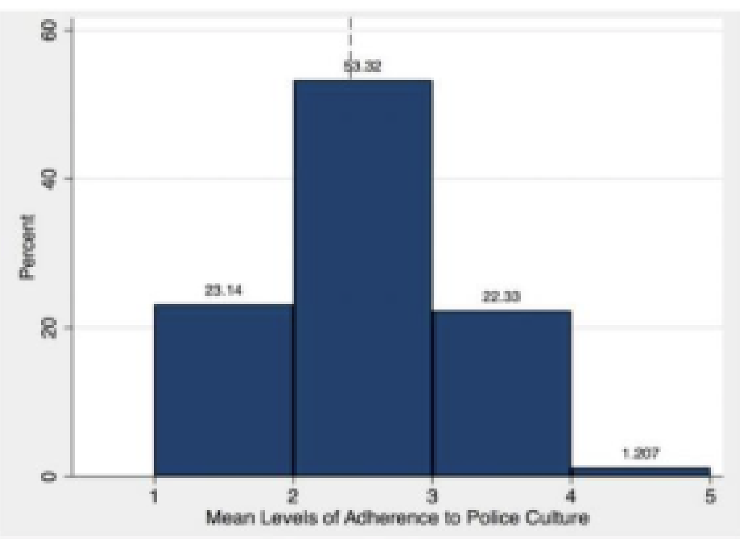
*Difference statistically significant ($p < .05$)

Adherence to Traditional Police Culture

There were five items asking about adherence to traditional police culture. Traditional police culture, is defined as a set of attitudes, values, and norms that officers naturally establish as a result of strains from their organizational and occupational environments (Paoline & Gau, 2018; Silver, Roche, Bilach & Bontrager, 2017). These attitudes, values, and norms include, but are not limited to, behavior such as focusing on serious crime and taking a detached approach over a friendly approach on calls (**see item 3.1 in Appendix A**). Participants' agreement to each of the five items was coded on a five-point agreement scale from (1) "Strongly disagree" to (5) "Strongly agree". Each of these five items were then averaged to get an overall score. Higher scores indicate greater adherence or support of traditional police attitudes, values, and norms.

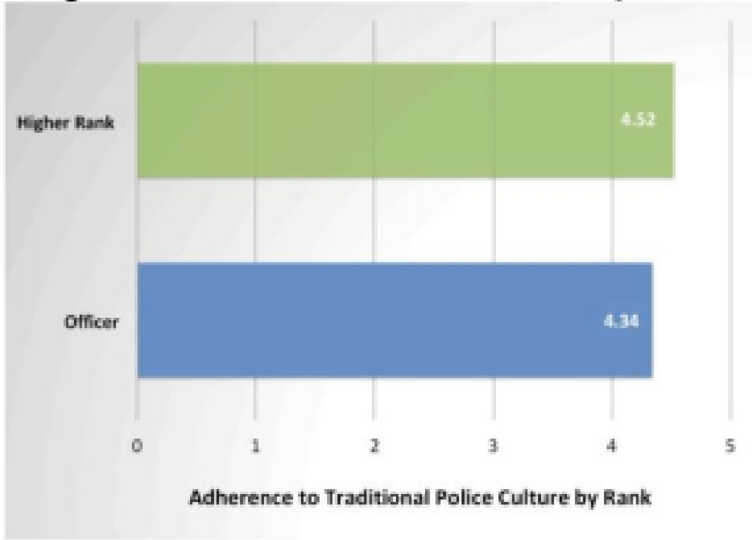
Overall, most officers reported low to moderate levels of adherence to traditional police culture ($M = 2.41$), depicted in **Figure 3.1.** When compared to officers of other ranks ($M = 2.28$), patrol officers ($M = 2.48$), report a stronger adherence of traditional police culture (**Figure 3.2**). Further, years in law enforcement is significantly correlated ($p < .05$) with support for traditional culture, such that support decreases with years on the job. Although males reported slightly stronger support than females of traditional culture, the difference was not significant.

Figure 3.1: Traditional Police Culture



* Dashed line indicates mean ($M = 2.41$)

Figure 3.2: Traditional Police Culture by Rank



*Difference is statistically significant ($p < .05$)

Importance of Procedural Justice

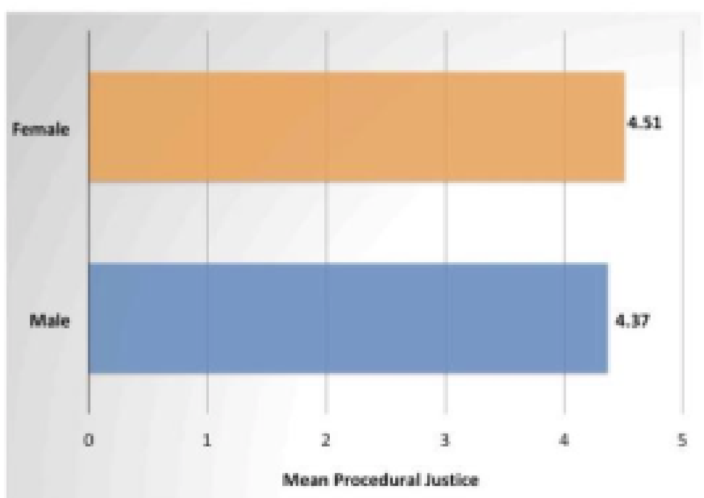
Procedural justice is defined as a set of actions where officers use their authority over citizens in a way that fosters satisfaction with the result of the encounter (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). There are four components that make up procedural justice. These include how respectfully officers treat the citizen, the magnitude to which citizens are able to participate in the encounter, the neutrality officers use to make decisions, and the magnitude to which officers indicate their trustworthiness (Tyler, 2004). To gauge how important it was to officers to use procedural justice, we asked four questions.

Participants answered these four items on the perceived importance of procedural justice in policing (**see item 4.1 in Appendix A**) on a five-point scale from (1) "Not at all important" to (5) "Extremely important." Items were averaged and higher scores indicate a greater perceived importance of procedural justice. Overall, participants indicated that using procedural justice is important. The mean score was 4.40 (out of a possible 5). Patrol officers rated the use of procedural justice as significantly less important than those of higher rank, though both groups rated it fairly high in importance (**Figure 3.3**). Similarly, both males and females rate procedural justice as important, but females ($M = 4.51$) rated it as significantly more important than males ($M = 4.37$) **(Figure 3.4)**.

Figure 3.3: Importance of Procedural Justice by Rank

*Difference is statistically significant (p <.05)

Figure 3.4: Importance of Procedural Justice by Gender

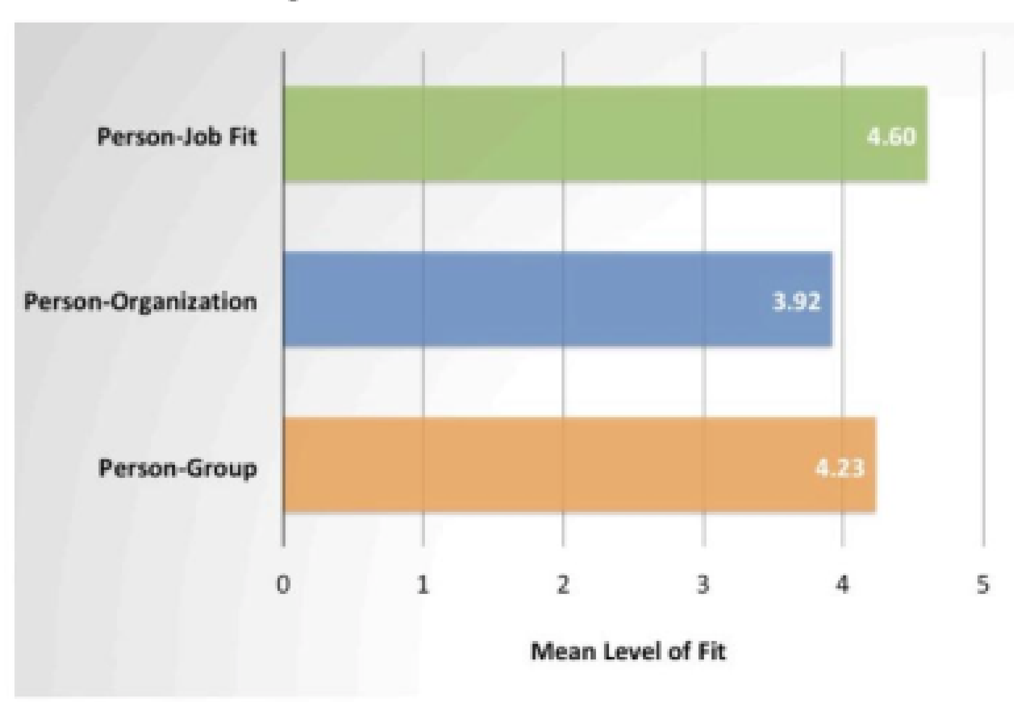


*Difference is statistically significant (p <.05)

Environmental Fit

Environmental fit concerns the influence of the police organizational environment on workplace experiences. Understanding an individual's work environment is an important determinant of work behavior. Previous research indicates that, both, the physical elements of an individual's environment, and the psychological response to it, combine to have an effect on an individual's behavior (Bretz & Judge, 1994). This is generally described as a Person Environment (P-E) interaction (Cable & Judge, 1996). P-E fit represents the similarities between an individual's characteristics and their work environment (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). In addition to the global definition of P-E fit, more specific subcategories have also emerged to describe an individual's interaction between their job (Person-Job fit), organization (Person-Organization fit), or work group (Person-Group fit). Previous research indicates that various types of person-environment fit are associated with measures of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and stress. **Figure 4.1** shows the mean levels for each of the three types of person-environment fit. The highest level of fit is reported at the job-level, followed by workgroup, and agency.

Figure 4.1: Person-Environment Fit

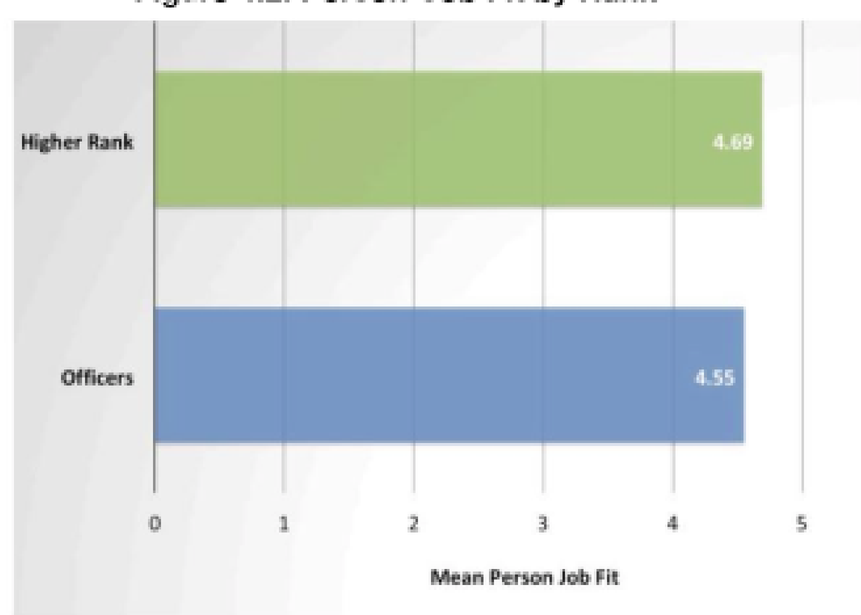


Person-Job Fit

Person-Job fit (P-J fit) is the match between the capabilities of an individual and the demands of the job (Edwards, 1991). In other words to what extent do individuals perceive that their characteristics, values, and abilities match the specific job that they do? In the current research, there were three items that measured Person-Job fit (**see item 5.1 in Appendix A**). Participants indicated their level of agreement with each of the three items on a five-point agreement scale from (1) “Strongly disagree” to (5) “Strongly agree.” Items were averaged and higher scores indicate higher levels of perceived job fit.

Overall, participants reported high levels of job fit. The mean score was 4.60 (out of a possible 5). Males reported slightly higher levels of job fit than females, but the difference was not statistically significant. Patrol officers reported lower levels of job-fit than those at higher ranks (**see Figure 4.2**). This relationship was statistically significant ($P < .05$). Further, perceived job-fit increased with age and time on the job; however, these relationships were also not statistically significant.

Figure 4.2: Person-Job Fit by Rank



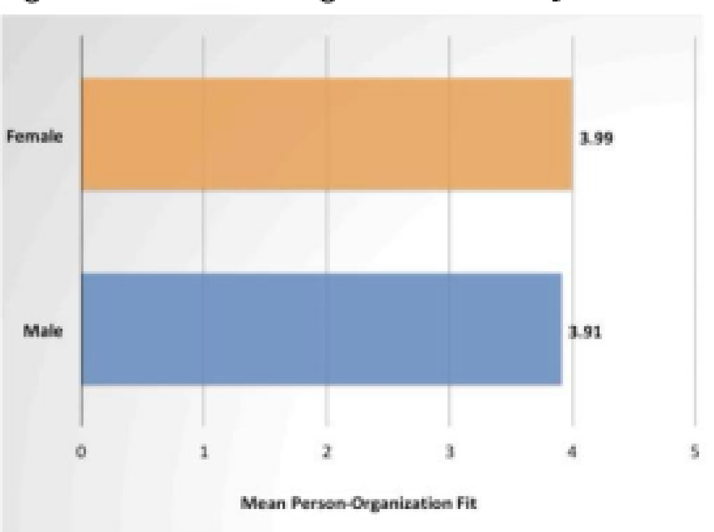
*Difference is statistically significant ($p < .05$)

Person-Organization Fit

Person-Organization fit (P-O fit) is the match between an individual's characteristics and that of the larger organization (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001). P-O indicates the extent to which there is a match between an individual and the values and goals of the organization. In the current research, there were three items that measured Person-Organization fit (**see item 5.2 in Appendix A**). Participants indicated their level of agreement with each of the three items on a five-point agreement scale from (1) "Strongly disagree" to (5) "Strongly agree." Items were averaged and higher scores indicate higher levels of perceived organization fit.

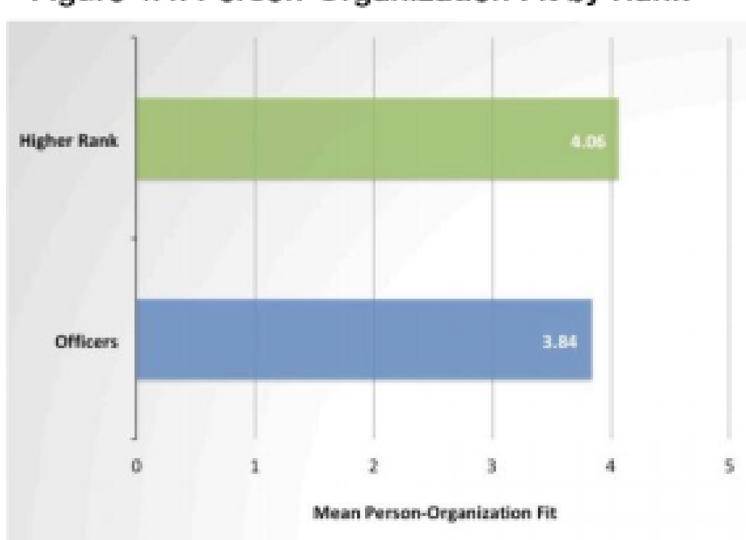
Organization fit was the lowest level of fit among all officers (*M* = 3.99). Females (*M*= 3.99) reported higher levels of P-O fit than males (*M* = 3.91), but the difference was not statistically significant. Patrol officers (*M* = 3.88) reported lower levels than officers of higher ranks (*M* = 4.07). This relationship was statistically significant (**see Figure 4.3**). In other words, patrol officers were significantly less likely to report a match between their goals/values and those of the Omaha Police Department (**see Figures 4.4**).

Figure 4.3: Person-Organization Fit by Gender



*Difference not statistically significant

Figure 4.4: Person-Organization Fit by Rank



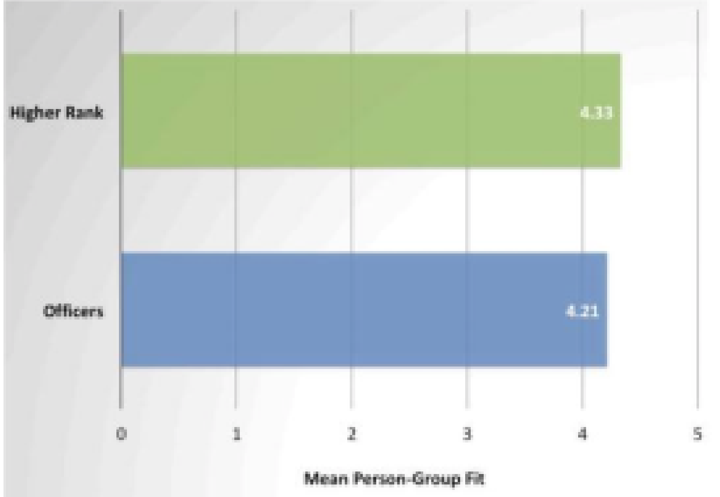
*Difference statistically significant (p<.05)

Person-Group Fit

P-G fit focuses on the extent to which an individual perceives compatibility between their characteristics and the members of their workgroup (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Group fit is important to consider because work groups often have different values and norms than that of the larger organization to which they belong. Thus, perceptions of fit may vary at different levels of the organization (Kristof, 1996). In the current research, there were three items that measured Person-Group fit. Participants were told to "…think about your IMMEDIATE WORKGROUP, CREW, OR UNIT (i.e., those people you work most closely with on a regular basis)" and indicate their level of agreement on each of the three items (**Item 5.3 in Appendix A**) on a five-point agreement scale from (1) "Strongly disagree" to (5) "Strongly agree." Items were averaged and higher scores indicate higher levels of perceived group fit.

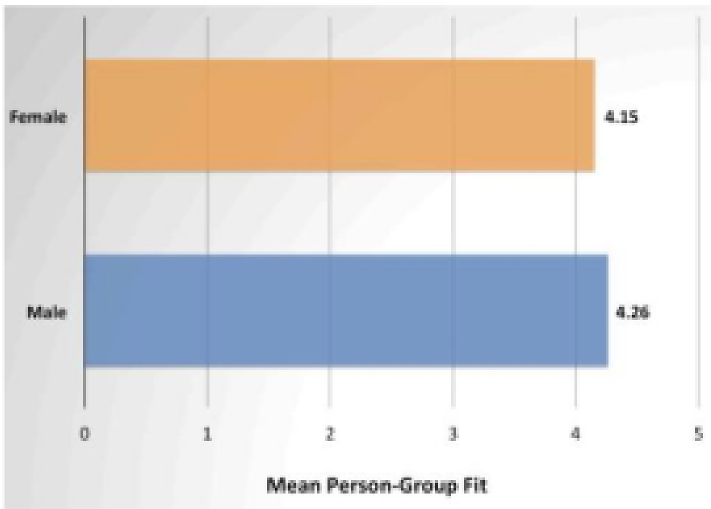
Overall, participants reported relatively high levels of group fit; the mean level of fit among all officers was 4.23 (out of a possible 5). When other variables are considered there were only slight differences. For example, females had slightly lower levels of group fit. than males (**see Figure 4.5**) and patrol officers reported slightly lower levels of fit than those of higher rank (**see Figure 4.6**). However, these relationships were not statistically significant.

Figure 4.5: Person-Group Fit by Rank



*Difference not statistically significant

Figure 4.4: Person-Group Fit by Gender



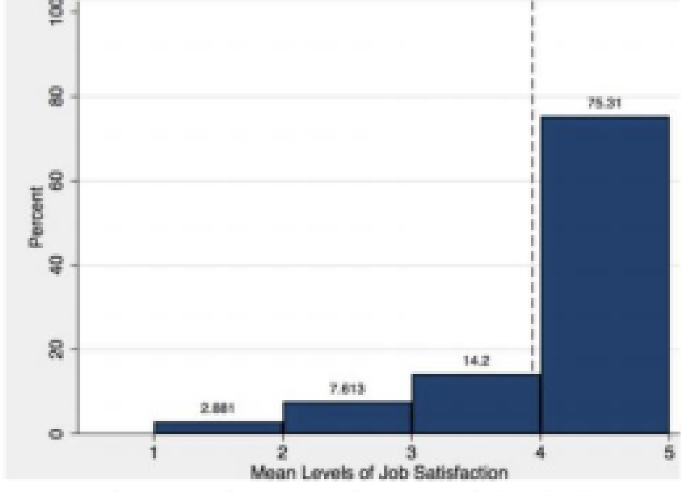
*Difference not statistically significant

Organizational Characteristics and Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction

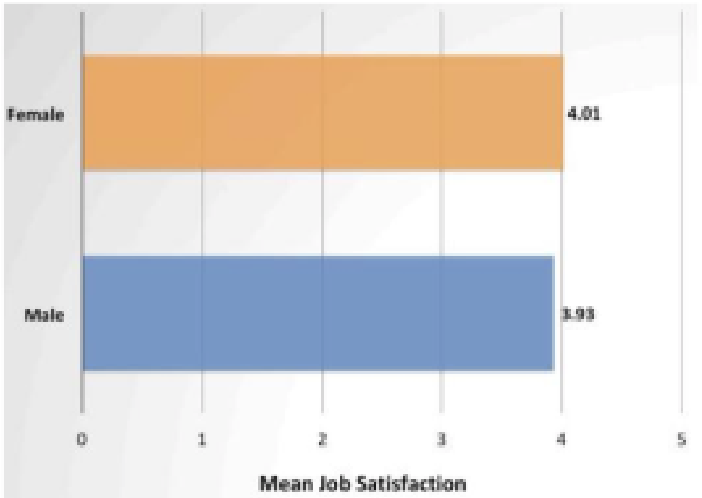
Job satisfaction was measured in one item. This item stated "Overall, I am satisfied with my job" (**see item 8.1 in Appendix A**). Participants indicated their level of agreement on a five-point scale from (1) "Strongly disagree" to (5) "Strongly agree." Overall, participants indicate a moderate to high level of satisfaction ($M = 3.94$) (see **Figure 5.1**). Males ($M = 3.93$) and females ($M = 4.01$) reported similarly high levels of overall job satisfaction, as did patrol officers ($M = 3.96$) and officers of other ranks ($M = 3.89$) (see **Figure 5.2** & **Figure 5.3**).

Figure 5.1: Job Satisfaction



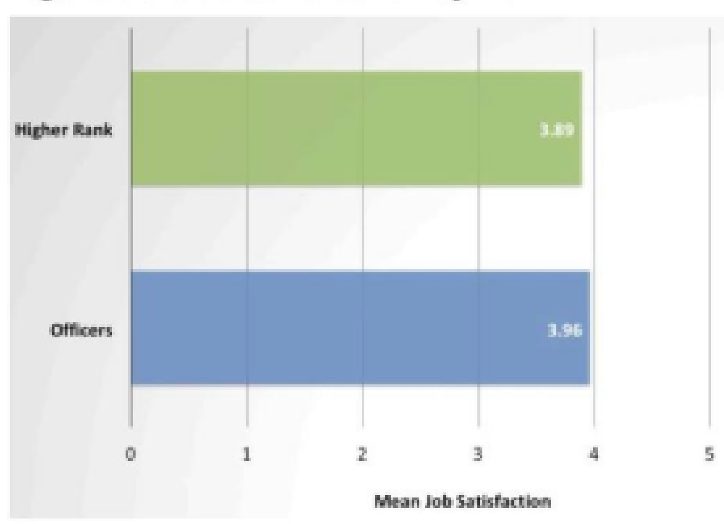
* Dashed line indicates mean ($M = 3.49$)

Figure 5.2: Job Satisfaction by Gender



*Difference not statistically significant

Figure 5.3: Job Satisfaction by Rank



*Difference not statistically significant

Workplace Incivilities

Anderson & Pearson (1999) define workplace incivility as, “deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect” (p. 457). These behaviors are usually rude and discourteous (Adams & Buck, 2011). They are important to consider because they are associated with psychological well being, and decreased job satisfaction (Cortina, Magley, Williams, and Langhout, 2001).

The workplace incivility scale measured the frequency of officers’ experiences of disrespectful, rude, or condescending behavior throughout their time as an officer in their current department (**see item 6.1 in Appendix A**). Participants indicated the frequency to which each item occurs on a five-point scale, from (1) “none of the time” to (5) “most of the time”. Scores were averaged across the six items with higher scores indicating more frequent experience with workplace incivilities.

Scores were not high for this measure ($M = 2.04$), which indicates that experiences of workplace incivilities among officers in the department is low. That said, any experiences of incivilities can impact satisfaction and retention and there were group differences in the extent to which they were experienced. For example, females in this sample report higher levels of workplace incivilities ($M = 2.25$), compared to their male counterparts ($M = 1.99$) (**see Figure 5.2**), and the level of frequency reported by males and females differed by the type of workplace incivility (**see Table 4**). For example, females reported that they were frequently *ignored or excluded from professional camaraderie*. The experience of incivilities also increased with age and time on the job, but this could be attributed to the fact that senior officers had more time to experience incivilities and/or have been on the job prior to various cultural shifts in the agency.

Table 4: Most to Least Frequently Reported Incivilites by Gender

	Males	Females
Most Reported	Paid little attention to your statement or opinion	Paid little attention to your statement or opinion
	Put you down or was condescending to you	Put you down or was condescending to you
	Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you	Doubted your judgment on a matter, which you had responsibility over
	Doubted your judgment on a matter, which you had responsibility over	Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie
	Addressed you in unprofessional terms either publicly or privately	Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you
Least Reported	Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie	Addressed you in unprofessional terms either publicly or privately

Figure 5.4: Workplace Incivilities by Gender

Female 2.25
Male 1.99
0 1 2 3 4 5
Mean Perceived Workplace Incivilities

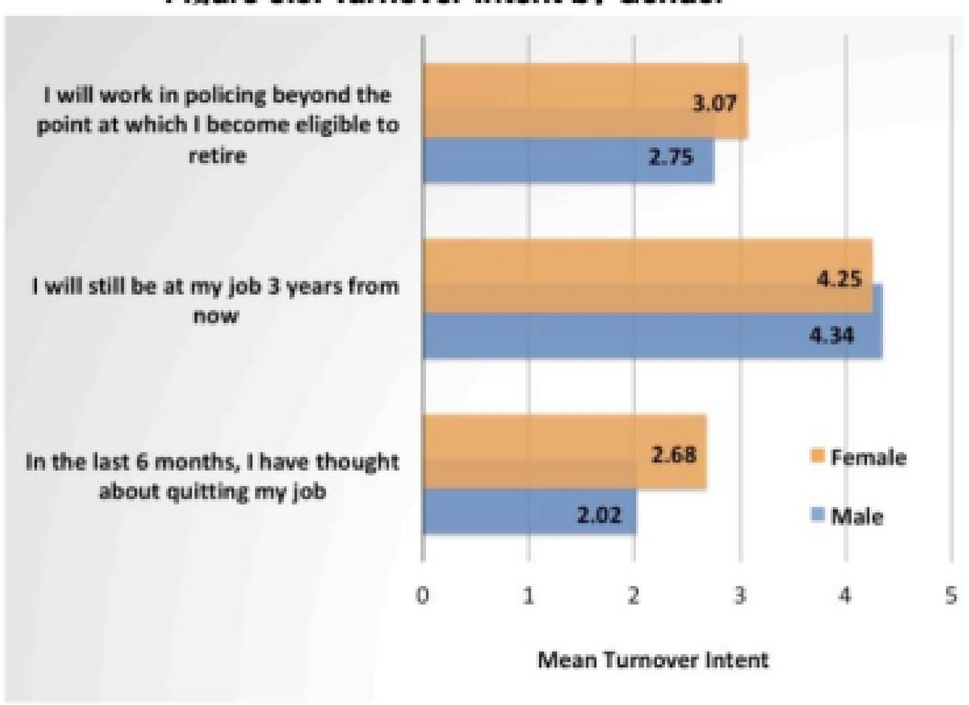
*Difference is statistically significant ($p < .05$)

Turnover Intent

Three items measured turnover intent. These items include *In the last 6 months I have thought about quitting my job, I will still be at my job 3 years from now,* and *I will work in policing beyond the point at which I become eligible to retire.* Participants indicated their level of agreement on a five-point scale from (1) "strongly disagree" to (5) "strongly agree" for each of these items (**see item 7.1 in the Appendix A**).

The item, *I will still be at my job 3 years from now,* had the highest overall score of 4.32 out of 5, indicating that most officers plan to remain at the job for at least the next three years. Expectations about remaining at the job did not differ by gender, rank, age, or years on the job. When asked the extent to which they had considered quitting their job in the past 6 months, participants were relatively neutral ($M = 2.16$). Females ($M = 2.68$) were more likely than males ($M = 2.02$) to report having thought about quitting (**see Figure 5.3**). This difference was statistically significant. On the other hand, female officers were also slightly more likely to report that they would work beyond retirement eligibility.

Figure 5.5: Turnover Intent by Gender



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Appendix A

Item 1.1

Operational Stress	% 1 No stress at all	% 2	% 3	% 4 Moderate stress	% 5	% 6	% 7 A lot of Stress
Upholding an ideal public image	32.29	26.42	11.95	18.24	6.08	2.10	2.94
Negative comments from the public	19.96	21.01	16.39	20.80	8.19	7.56	6.09
Traumatic events	19.12	26.26	15.97	20.17	6.51	7.56	4.41
Negative stories in the media about the police	12.37	16.14	15.09	20.75	14.26	12.58	8.81

Item 1.2

Organizational Stress	% 1 No stress at all	% 2	% 3	% 4 Moderate stress	% 5	% 6	% 7 A lot of Stress
Dealing with co-workers	26.04	32.71	13.75	16.04	6.88	2.50	2.08
Feeling like you always have to prove yourself in the organization	28.60	28.81	14.82	14.61	6.26	3.76	3.13
If you are sick or injured, you co-workers seem to look down on you	47.71	28.54	7.71	7.71	3.33	2.50	2.50
Leaders overemphasize the negatives	21.04	18.75	14.58	17.50	11.25	9.38	7.50
The feeling that different rules apply to different people	8.82	15.34	10.92	19.33	13.24	16.18	16.18

Item 2.1

Anxiety					
	% 1 Never	% 2	% 3	% 4	% 5 Always
I felt anxious	32.92	39.38	17.92	0.83	8.96
I felt worried	33.68	42.47	14.85	0.63	8.37
I found it hard to focus on anything other than my anxiety	64.58	24.38	7.29	0.21	3.54
I felt nervous	41.88	38.96	13.54	0.21	5.42
I felt uneasy	42.59	38.41	13.57	0.42	5.01
I felt tense	33.75	38.96	17.71	1.67	7.92

Item 3.1

Adherence to Traditional Police Culture					
	% 1 Strongly disagree	% 2 Somewhat agree	% 3 Neither agree nor disagree	% 4 Somewhat agree	% 5 Strongly agree
An officer is most effective when they focus on serious crime	44.27	30.99	17.71	5.43	1.61
Police are required to spend too much time handling unimportant calls	8.87	13.91	15.73	37.90	23.59
A detached approach to dealing with citizens is more effective than a friendly approach	44.67	27.97	22.74	3.82	0.80
Police should be required to handle nuisances	2.82	11.27	22.54	41.65	21.73
Police should regularly engage in community policing activities	3.02	7.44	21.53	37.22	30.78

Item 4.1

Importance of Using Procedural Justice					
	% 1 Not at all important	% 2	% 3 Moderately important	% 4	% 5 Extremely important
Allowing citizens to explain their side of the story	0.40	1.21	7.89	41.30	49.19
Explaining to citizens the reasoning or legal basis behind important decisions	0.81	3.65	19.47	39.96	36.11
Treating citizens respectfully, even if you are personally frustrated with them	0.20	1.42	7.69	33.40	57.29
Treating citizens fairly	0.20	0.81	2.02	24.09	72.87

Item 5.1

Person-Job Fit					
	% 1 Strongly disagree	% 2 Somewhat agree	% 3 Neither agree nor disagree	% 4 Somewhat agree	% 5 Strongly agree
I have the right skills and abilities for this job	0.20	0.00	2.04	30.61	67.14
My personality is a good match for this job	1.22	0.00	5.09	29.53	64.15
I am the right type of person for this type of work	0.20	0.41	6.73	25.31	67.35

Item 5.2

Person-Organization Fit					
	% 1 Strongly disagree	% 2 Somewhat agree	% 3 Neither agree nor disagree	% 4 Somewhat agree	% 5 Strongly agree
My values match or fit the values of this agency	2.24	4.68	12.63	48.27	32.18
I am able to maintain my values at this agency	1.63	1.83	9.78	42.97	43.79
I fit in well within this agency	1.02	4.29	13.47	43.06	38.16

Item 5.3

Person-Group Fit					
	% 1 Strongly disagree	% 2 Somewhat agree	% 3 Neither agree nor disagree	% 4 Somewhat agree	% 5 Strongly agree
My values match or fit the values of my immediate workgroup	0.61	4.09	10.02	43.76	41.51
I fit in well with the members of my workgroup	0.61	2.86	7.77	39.88	48.88
The members of my workgroup value me	1.02	3.07	16.56	37.83	41.51

Item 6.1

Workplace Incivilities	% 1 None of the time	% 2 Seldom	% 3 Sometimes	% 4 Often	% 5 Most of the time
Put you down or was condescending to you	17.77	46.69	29.13	5.58	0.83
Paid little attention to your statement or opinion	0.83	48.14	30.58	5.99	0.41
Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you	36.10	40.25	18.88	3.94	0.83
Addressed you in unprofessional terms either publicly or privately	37.27	41.61	16.36	3.52	1.24
Ignored or excluded you from professional camaraderie	40.50	38.84	14.67	3.93	2.07
Doubted your judgment on a matter, which you had responsibility over	31.20	47.11	17.77	2.89	1.03

Item 7.1

Turnover intent	% 1 Strongly disagree	% 2 Somewhat agree	% 3 Neither agree nor disagree	% 4 Somewhat agree	% 5 Strongly agree
In the last 6 months, I have thought about quitting my job	55.76	9.05	7.41	19.14	8.64
I will still be at my job 3 years from now	6.38	2.06	8.85	18.31	64.40
I will work in policing beyond the point at which I become eligible to retire	28.60	15.02	21.40	16.46	18.52

Item 8.1

Job Satisfaction					
	% 1 Strongly disagree	**% 2** Somewhat agree	**% 3** Neither agree nor disagree	**% 4** Somewhat agree	**% 5** Strongly agree
Overall, I am satisfied with my job	2.88	7.61	14.20	43.00	32.30

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA OMAHA
COLLEGE OF PUBLIC AFFAIRS AND COMMUNITY SERVICE

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SCHOOL OF CRIMINOLOGY AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE

UNIVERSITY OF
Nebraska
Omaha

Literacy by Degrees and UNO Postsecondary Prison Education Project Evaluation

AUGUST 2018

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The College of Public Affairs and Community Service (CPACS) was created in 1973 to ensure that the university was responsive to the critical social needs of our community and state. The College was given the mission not only to provide educational programs of the highest caliber to prepare students for leadership in public service, but also to reach out to the community to help solve public problems.

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Literacy by Degrees and UNO Postsecondary Prison Education Project Evaluation

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August 2018

Funding for this research was provided by a 2017 Urban Research Award from the College of Public Affairs and Community Service Dean's Office.

UNO'S POST-SECONDARY CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAM: A PROCESS EVALUATION

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August 26, 2018

"Correctional education programs provide incarcerated individuals with the skills and knowledge essential to their futures. Investing in these education programs helps released prisoners get back on their feet — and stay on their feet — when they return to communities across the country."
- Arne Duncan, United States Secretary of Education, January 2009 – December 2015

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INTRODUCTION

The University of Nebraska at Omaha (UNO) Post-Secondary Correctional Education Program was created in 2017 through fundraising by Steven and Thomas Scott and with the support of the University of Nebraska Foundation. A partnership was formed between UNO and the Omaha Correctional Center (OCC), a medium-minimum security men's prison within the Nebraska Department of Correctional Services (NDCS). The primary purpose of this program is to offer UNO courses, taught by UNO professors or adjunct instructors, to inmates at OCC. Since its inception, four classes have been taught by three UNO instructors over three semesters (i.e., Fall 2017, Spring and Summer 2018). These courses have not only given the student-inmates an opportunity to transform their lives and earn college credit, but have also given UNO instructors a distinct opportunity to teach and learn from a unique and diverse population. The student-inmates are bright, motivated, and appreciative of the opportunity to take college classes and earn college credit while they are incarcerated. For most participants, the program had an empowering and transformative effect.

This report is a process evaluation of the policies and guidelines that have been established during the first year of the program, as well as an assessment of the fall and spring courses. This evaluation is a result of interviews with administrators at UNO and NDCS involved in the program, UNO instructors who taught at OCC in the first year, and student-inmates who participated in the courses. Although this program is still in its infancy, individuals at both UNO and NDCS have worked together to define the responsibilities and policies for various processes so that the program can be implemented more effectively. There are still many details to work out as this program grows at both OCC and to other NDCS facilities, but this report should provide a history of the various processes that must take place on both UNO and

OCC's side for this program to work. Thus, I outline the policies and processes we have already established at OCC which might serve as a blueprint for expanding the UNO Post-Secondary Correctional Education (PSCE) program to other facilities. It should be noted that each prison is different in terms of the inmate composition, staff culture, and what each warden and deputy warden will allow in their facility. So what worked at OCC and the agreements UNO has with OCC may not necessarily transfer to other facilities. Nonetheless, this report should provide a history of the first year of the program and some direction for the growth and sustainability of the program. If the program is extended to other facilities, it is essential that UNO administrators (or other institutions) first seek the support and cooperation of the warden and deputy warden of a facility.

First, I will briefly discuss the history of post-secondary correctional education programs in the United States and the research on their effectiveness. Next, I will describe the history of the UNO Post-Secondary Correctional Education Program, including the classes that were taught during the first year, student feedback about the classes/instructors, and outline the processes that UNO and OCC administrators have to take to make this program work. Finally, I will conclude with suggestions on how to expand the program to other facilities. I have provided three appendixes: Appendix A is a directory of individuals who were involved in the program during the first year, Appendix B is a copy of NDCS's most recent volunteer handbook which instructors must abide by when teaching in prison and the background forms UNO instructors must complete, and Appendix C is a potential teacher application form.

BACKGROUND OF POST-SECONDARY CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION (PSCE) PROGRAMS IN THE UNITED STATES

The United States has the highest incarceration rate in the world, incarcerating one out of every 100 American adults in local, state or federal facilities (Guerino, Harrison & Sabol, 2011; Wagner & Sawyer, 2018). Although the United States has only 5% of the world's population it houses 25% of the world's prisoners, or 2.3 million people, the majority of which are poor, undereducated, and disproportionately from minority communities (Pew Center on the States, 2008; Wagner & Sawyer, 2018). Most inmates do not serve life sentences and are eventually released back into society, thus it is in society's best interest to help inmates succeed upon re-entry (Clear, 2009; Petersilia, 2003). There are several factors that affect an inmate's odds of becoming a productive member of society upon release, one of which is post-secondary education programs (Vera Institute of Justice, 2017).

One of the major drivers of the high incarceration rate is the large number of released inmates who return to prison because they cannot find sustainable employment upon release (Lin, Grattet & Petersilia, 2010; Travis, 2007). Nearly 2,500 NDCS inmates were released from prison in 2017 and about 80% were discharged with community supervision (i.e., parole), as opposed to mandatory discharge without parole/supervision (Nebraska Board of Parole & Nebraska Department of Correctional Services, 2018). The majority of individuals released on parole are required to maintain employment as part of the conditions of their release – if they are unable to secure employment they are at risk for parole revocation and return to prison. About 90% of jobs in the fastest growing occupations require at least some post-secondary education (National Governor's Association, 2010). People who participated in post-secondary education programs while incarcerated had 46% lower recidivism rates than the people who had not taken

college classes (Chappell, 2004). A separate study done in three states (i.e. Maryland, Minnesota, Ohio) also found that prison education programs significantly reduced recidivism in part because the earnings of the correctional education participants were higher than the non-participants (Steurer & Smith, 2003). Higher wages means that individuals are better able to support themselves and their families, and that they are engaged in jobs that hold promise of sustainability, making it less likely they will turn to illegal means for income (Steurer & Smith, 2003). The Department of Justice estimates that every $1 spent educating an inmate saves correctional facilities $5 long-term due to lower recidivism rates (Davis et al., 2013).

Prior to the 1970's, educational programs were present in the majority of prisons and widely supported by corrections officials, politicians and the public (Ryan, 1995). Even in the early 1990s, the majority of state correctional facilities offered some form of college-level programming that allowed inmates to earn two- or four-year degrees, usually through partnerships with local community colleges (Wetherbee, 2008). During this time most states could cite studies and internal statistics demonstrating that education significantly reduced participants' odds of recidivism by ensuring that individuals who had served their time had a better chance of avoiding future crimes and remaining free, by expanding their social horizons and making them more employable (Wetherbee, 2008).

However, due to the changing political climate and a very misunderstood report by Robert Martinson (1974) on what works in prison rehabilitation, public support for correctional education programs began to wane in the late 1970s (Ryan, 1995). The landscape of the prisons began to change dramatically during this time as policy experts became skeptical that prisons could prevent crime by reforming inmates, thus federal and state governments began to move prison policies and funding away from rehabilitation purposes and toward the goals of

incapacitation and punishment (Western, 2006). In the early 1980s, state lawmakers began crafting mandatory sentencing laws, abolishing parole, creating three-strike laws for repeat offenders, and the federal government began a war on crime which transformed into a war on drugs. Between 1970 and 2013 the state and federal prison population grew sevenfold to house 2.3 million felons and new prisons were constructed all over the country as the nation began mass incarcerating people, particularly disadvantaged communities of color (Alexander, 2010; Wagner & Sawyer, 2018; Western, 2006).

Although the nation's prison population has grown exponentially in the last four decades, the Bureau of Justice Statistics revealed that states are spending less on prison education programs now than in 1982 (Kyckelhahn, 2014). Part of this is due to widespread policies making education less accessible to felons. For example, in 1994, President Bill Clinton and Congress signed the Violent Crime Control and Law Enforcement Act which declared prison inmates ineligible for Pell Grants and other federal funding that had made college programs behind bars possible. The American Correctional Association (1988) recognized the disturbing shift in prison policy and population and released the following statement, "*Prisons today are filled to overflowing with the young, the poor, the illiterate, the unemployed, the minorities. When they are released (as the majority will be) their chances for law-abiding behavior will not be enhanced if nothing is done to deal with their deficiencies while incarcerated.*" A special report published by the U.S. Department of Justice confirmed that incarcerated persons are disproportionally likely to come from economically disadvantaged backgrounds; to be members of racial/ethnic minority groups; to have held a low-skill, low-paying job (if employed at all) at the time of arrest; and to be less educated than their counterparts in the general population (Harlow, 2003).

The loss of funding for post-secondary correctional education programs led to a huge decline in the number of programs available to inmates in state and federal facilities, although some states were able to partner with local community colleges to create/keep PSCE programs. There is some evidence that public and political support may be growing again since President Barack Obama signed the Second Chance Pell Experiment in July 2016, which reinstated Pell Grant eligibility for some incarcerated students. This is important because increased educational attainment can reduce crime rates by providing meaningful alternatives to criminal activity once inmates are released. A reduction in crime over time will increase public safety and potentially ease strained federal and state budgets (Davis et al., 2013).

Research on PSCE Program Effectiveness

Several state and federal prisons have offered post-secondary correctional education (PSCE) to inmates in the past two decades. The primary objective of providing PSCE to inmates is to advance their educational attainment levels so they have better employment opportunities upon release from prison. Many studies have noted that participation in PSCE programs reduces recidivism, criminal justice costs and reliance on welfare and other public programs, and increases post-release employment and education (Baer et al., 2006; Chappell, 2004; Davis et al., 2013; Easman & Contardo, 2005; Gorgol & Sponsler, 2011; Meyer et al., 2010; Wilson et al., 2000; Winterfield et al., 2009). Furthermore, investments in correctional education can provide more efficient cost/benefit outcomes than other sorts of correctional investments (Bazos & Hausman, 2004). For example, Aos, Miller, and Drake (2006) showed that vocational training and education in Washington state prisons produced some of the largest net economic benefits for the state.

Education and vocational training programs in prison are important because the majority of inmates are less educated and vocationally trained than the general population. For example, about 36% of inmates in state prisons had below a high school education compared to 19% of the general population (Davis et al., 2013). Inmates face significant barriers to employment once they are released, due in part to low educational attainment and a steady history of unemployment (Visher & Lattimore, 2007). Additionally, the stigma of having a criminal record can make it difficult for uneducated inmates to obtain stable employment post-release (Davis et al., 2013). Baer and colleagues (2006) found that individuals who are employed after their release from prison are less likely to recidivate. Improving inmates' educational aptitude is one strategy that has shown promise in helping inmates find gainful employment upon release and end their involvement with the criminal justice system. Several studies have examined the effectiveness of correctional education programs and find that inmates who participate in PSCE have significantly lower odds of recidivism (Aos, Miller & Drake, 2006; Chappell, 2004; Davis et al., 2013; MacKenzie, 2006; Wilson, Gallagher, & MacKenzie, 2000). For example, Chappell (2004) found that PSCE in particular led to a 46% reduction in recidivism while Wilson et al., (2002) found a more modest but still significant 26% reduction in recidivism by inmates who participated in PSCE. A RAND study also found that inmates who participate in prison education programs are 43% less likely to recidivate (Davis et al., 2013). In addition, Davis and colleagues (2013) found that correctional education would reduce recidivism and save states between $870,000 and $970,000 for every 100 inmates who received PSCE. In summary, providing inmates the opportunity to participate in college education while incarcerated is valuable not only to the inmates and prisons, but to society as a whole.

There is much literature about the difficulties inmates face when trying to reenter society after even a few years of incarceration (e.g., Clear, 2009; Petersilia, 2003). Inmates face enormous difficulties when trying to find housing and jobs, and many do not even have a high school diploma, making their employment prospects even more bleak (Nelson, Deese, & Allen, 1999). A disproportionate number of inmates also have severe physical or mental disabilities and often have a history of substance abuse and victimization (Bushway & Reuter, 2002; Byrne et al., 2002; Petersilia, 2003; Steurer & Smith, 2003). All of these issues compound to make reentering society more difficult, especially for inmates who no longer have social support from family or friends, which can greatly assist inmates with the overwhelming obstacles they face in reentry (Clear, 2009). Additionally, the experience of incarceration has negative psychological effects on many individuals, including a reduced self-esteem, hopelessness about the future, and a sense that others look down on people who have been incarcerated (Evans, Pelletier & Szkola, 2018). However, prison education programs may empower inmates and help attenuate the negative effects of self-stigma that can result from incarceration (Evans et al, 2018).

UNO'S PSCE PROGRAM

Specific to our community, every year Nebraska prisons release over 2,000 inmates back into the community and disproportionately into the Omaha-Metro area (Nebraska Board of Parole & Nebraska Department of Correctional Services, 2018). Although NDCS's 2017 annual budget is over $207 million, a very small amount was invested in prisoner reentry (Nebraska State Budget Division, 2017). Additionally, over half of all inmates released from Nebraska prisons are released mandatorily, meaning without supervision (or parole), which can assist former inmates find employment, housing, and education opportunities once they return to their

communities (Young, 2016). Without preparation or support for reentry, in is not surprising that about 30% of Nebraska inmates return to prison, or recidivate, within three years (UNO Center for Public Affairs Research, 2012). As noted above, education can play a critical role in helping inmates build community connections and reduce their risk of recidivism (Aos et al., 2006; Gorgol & Sponsler, 2011).

In a study by Visher and Lattimore (2007), the researchers found that “more education” was one of the most commonly reported reentry needs by prisoners. A study by Davis and colleagues (2013) revealed that, on average, an inmate who participates in post-secondary education in prison is half as likely to reoffend and is more likely to obtain post-release employment compared to one who does not. Unfortunately, post-secondary educational opportunities are limited in the Nebraska correctional system, leaving many inmates who already possess a GED or high school diploma few options for advancement. However, UNO’s PSCE program seeks to change this by providing an opportunity for interested professors to teach college courses to a population that needs and desires an opportunity to transform their lives.

In 2014, Metropolitan Community College (MCC) was awarded a three year grant by the Nebraska State Legislature (under Legislative Bill 907, 2014) to implement a Vocational and Life Skills Program (VLS). The goal of the program is to reduce recidivism and increase employment opportunities for individuals released from prison in the last 18 months. The VLS programming is available in all 10 Nebraska correctional facilities and offers a wide range of services from mental health programming, vocational training, job readiness skills, career certifications, cognitive behavioral therapy, and more (for more information see https://www.unomaha.edu/college-of-public-affairs-and-community-service/nebraska-center-for-justice-research/vls/index.php). While MCC has done a great job providing a variety of

vocational and life skills training to NDCS inmates, there is still a gap in post-secondary education programming for inmates. This gap inspired Steven and Thomas Scott to raise money to give to UNO if they would offer college classes in the Omaha Correctional Center (just 1 of NDCS's 10 prisons).

The Scott brothers' proposal (2017) created an initial partnership between UNO and NDCS to provide college-level educational courses to OCC to fulfill both UNO's and NDCS's mission. The PSCE Program extends UNO's mission to "transform and improve the quality of life locally, nationally and globally" (https://www.unomaha.edu/about-uno/mission.php) by engaging students incarcerated in Nebraska prisons in new knowledge, the respectful exchange of ideas, and self-achievement. This program has the potential to transform and improve the quality of life locally by reducing the recidivism rates of student-inmates who participate in the program, which also influences the communities they return to (e.g., reduces taxpayer dollars spent on corrections, and increases the stability of families). This program is also consistent with NDCS's mission to "keep people safe" by providing program opportunities to inmates that help transform lives, make prisons safer, and prepare inmates to return renewed to their families and communities (https://corrections.nebraska.gov/about).

UNO Classes Offered at OCC

In the fall of 2017, with the support of the University of Nebraska Foundation funds raised by Steven and Thomas Scott, Dr. Daniel Wuebben taught the first face-to-face UNO course in OCC: ENG 1200.804 "Autobiographical Reading and Writing." Below is information regarding which classes that have been offered, who taught them, how many inmates were enrolled and how many completed the course.

Fall 2017

- ENG 1200.804 "Autobiographical Reading and Writing" with Dr. Daniel Wuebben of the Goodrich Scholar Program (14 enrolled, 12 completed)

Spring 2018

- SOC 101 "Introduction to Sociology" with Dr. Nikitah Imani of the Black Studies Department (14 enrolled, 12 completed)
- ENG 225 "The Short Story" with Dr. Daniel Wuebben (12 enrolled, 9 completed)

Summer 2018

- POLSCI 101 "Introduction to Political Science" with Joel Case, adjunct professor in the Political Science Department (15 enrolled, 12 completed)

Fall 2018 (scheduled)

- ENG 1150 "English Composition I" with Dr. Daniel Wuebben

Survey Responses from Students who Took UNO Classes At OCC

Table 1. Descriptives of student-inmates at OCC (*N* = 26)

	Frequency	%	Range
Age at survey (*mean* (SD))	*41.4*	(10.66)	24 – 58
Marital status			
Single, never married	9	34.6	0 – 1
Divorced	11	42.3	0 – 1
Married	2	7.7	0 – 1
In a serious relationship	4	15.4	0 – 1
Was in foster care while growing up	5	19.2	0 – 1
Grew up in Nebraska	13	50.0	0 – 1
Have a child(ren)	14	53.8	0 – 1
Race/Ethnicity			
White, non-Hispanic	16	61.5	0 – 1
Black, non-Hispanic	5	19.2	0 – 1
Hispanic	4	15.4	0 – 1
Native American	1	3.8	0 – 1
Number of times incarcerated			
1	12	46.2	0 – 1
2	3	11.5	0 – 1
3	3	11.5	0 – 1
4 or more	8	30.8	0 – 1
Number of times on probation			
0	5	19.2	0 – 1
1	15	57.7	0 – 1
2	2	7.7	0 – 1
3 or more times	4	15.4	0 – 1
Age at first arrest (*mean* (SD))	*18*	(8.08)	6 – 42
Age when first incarcerated (*mean* (SD))	*25.8*	(12.11)	12 – 51
Individual served time in a youth detention facility	8	30.8	0 – 1
Months incarcerated for current offense (*mean* (SD))	*81.5*	(88.28)	10 – 384
Months left to serve for current offense (*mean* (SD))	*15.6*	(14.17)	2 – 49
Have a place to live when released	13	50.0	0 – 1
Have a desire to continue college when released			
Definitely yes	20	76.9	0 – 1
Probably yes	6	23.1	0 – 1
Barriers to continuing your education upon release*			
Cost of tuition	12	46.2	0 – 1
Housing issues/access to classes close to home	6	23.1	0 – 1
Time for classes	4	15.4	0 – 1
Addiction issues	2	7.7	0 – 1
No concerns	6	23.1	0 – 1
Motivation to participating in PSCE*			
To achieve better situation for myself	11	42.3	0 – 1
To pass the time in prison	15	57.7	0 – 1

To prepare for employment upon release	21	80.8	0 – 1
To achieve better educational training	23	88.5	0 – 1
To look better for prison staff/parole board	2	7.7	0 – 1
Self-improvement/to become less dependent on others	23	88.5	0 – 1
To receive higher pay once released	17	65.4	0 – 1
To satisfy intellectual curiosity	5	19.2	0 – 1
Employment prior to current incarceration*			
Employed full time through legal means	21	80.8	0 – 1
Employed through illegal means	9	34.6	0 – 1
Temporary work	3	11.5	0 – 1
Employed part-time through legal means	2	7.7	0 – 1
Other prison programs participated in*			
MCC	21	80.8	0 – 1
Defy Ventures	3	11.5	0 – 1
7 Habits	4	15.4	0 – 1
MRT	5	19.2	0 – 1
SAV	3	11.5	0 – 1
Other (i.e. Peru State College, Blackstone paralegal certificate, 180 re-entry, Southeast Community College)	4	15.4	0 – 1
Highest level of education prior to current sentence			
Some high school but didn't graduate	4	15.4	0 – 1
High school diploma (HSD)	1	3.8	0 – 1
General education diploma (GED)	6	23.1	0 – 1
Attended vocational school but didn't finish	5	19.2	0 – 1
Attended college less than 2 years, no degree	3	11.5	0 – 1
Attended college more than 2 years, no degree	6	23.1	0 – 1
College graduate (4 year degree)	1	3.8	0 – 1
Highest level of education completed since current sentence			
HSD/GED, some college classes but no degree	23	88.5	0 – 1
HSD/GED, some vocational training but no degree	2	7.7	0 – 1
College graduate (4 year degree)	1	3.8	0 – 1
Main reason you stopped schooling when you did			
Financial problems (e.g., needed to work, couldn't afford it)	8	30.8	0 – 1
Did not do well in school	6	23.1	0 – 1
Sent to juvenile detention/jail/prison	7	26.9	0 – 1
Personal reasons (i.e., drugs, illness, military deployment)	5	19.2	0 – 1

Notes: Responses with the range of 0 – 1 were coded 0 = "No" and 1= "Yes".

*Question was not mutually exclusive (i.e., respondents could choose more than one answer).

Student Feedback about the Classes/Instructors

Table 2: Course evaluation survey responses ($N = 26$, * $N = 17$)

	(1)	Strongly Disagree	(2)	Disagree	(3)	Neutral	(4)	Agree	(5)	Strongly Agree	*Mean*
I put effort into the writing assignments	-	-	-	-	2	7.7%	2	7.7%	22	84.6%	*4.8*
I participated in class discussions	-	-	-	-	2	7.7%	7	26.9%	17	65.4%	*4.6*
When I needed individual help, I took the initiative to ask the instructor	-	-	-	-	3	11.5%	8	30.8%	15	57.7%	*4.5*
I found this course intellectually challenging and stimulating*	-	-	-	-	1	5.9%	1	5.9%	15	88.2%	*4.8*
I learned something I consider valuable*	-	-	-	-	1	5.9%	4	23.5%	12	70.6%	*4.6*
My interest in the subject has increased as a result of this course*	1	5.9%	-	-	2	11.8%	2	11.8%	12	70.6%	*4.4*
The instructor was enthusiastic about teaching this course*	-	-	-	-	1	5.9%	1	5.9%	15	88.2%	*4.8*
Instructor's was dynamic and energetic in conducting this course*	-	-	-	-	1	5.9%	1	5.9%	15	88.2%	*4.8*
Instructor's materials were well prepared and carefully explained*	-	-	-	-	1	5.9%	2	11.8%	14	82.4%	*4.8*
Instructor's presentation facilitated my organization of content*	-	-	-	-	1	5.9%	2	11.8%	14	82.4%	*4.8*
Students were encouraged to participate in course discussions*	-	-	1	5.9%	2	11.8%	3	17.6%	11	64.7%	*4.4*
Students were invited to share their ideas and knowledge*	-	-	-	-	2	11.8%	3	17.6%	12	70.6%	*4.6*
Students were encouraged to ask questions & given meaningful answers*	-	-	-	-	2	11.8%	1	5.9%	14	82.4%	*4.7*
The instructor has a genuine interest in individual students*	-	-	-	-	2	11.8%	1	5.9%	14	82.4%	*4.7*
Instructor presented the background or origin of ideas/concepts developed*	-	-	-	-	1	5.9%	2	11.8%	14	82.4%	*4.8*
Feedback on examinations and graded material were valuable *	-	-	-	-	2	11.8%	2	11.8%	13	76.5%	*4.6*

*Question was added to the survey for the spring semester, thus the percentages reflect $N = 17$.

Students' Responses to Short Answer Questions about the Class/Instructor

Note: Responses below are color coded with their respective classes/instructor:

- Responses in **black** correspond to Dr. Wuebben's Autobiographical Reading and Writing Course (Fall 2017)
- Responses in **blue** correspond to Dr. Imani's Introduction to Sociology Course (Spring 2018)
- Responses in **red** correspond to Dr. Wuebben's Short Stories Course (Spring 2018)

1. **Explain which assignments were the most valuable to you and which were the least valuable?**

the writing interested more. It was easy to write about my life. I got less out of the reading than I should have
all of them were valuable
All the assignments have been very valuable to me for each one had new lessons in each
Most valuable was the personal autobiography. Least was the reading responses, brothers & keepers book- replace with Always Running by Luis Rodriguez
the autobiography was really helpful, I will continue working on it when I get out
I think the personal autobiography was the best assignment. All the other assignments helped my writing get better.
all were valuable, none were not valuable
I thought all the lessons were pertinent
MV-timed writing exercises, Least favorite but valuable-writing 3-part summaries
The overall learning of basic sociology concepts, micro/macro, quantitative, qualitative, etc.
all were valuable, the history of sociology was very interesting to me
I valued the
The only assignment was the sociological autobiography and it really provided little value to the course because it was not really addressed, discussed or feedback given
Society and social interaction was the one I learned the most. I learned from each module
society/culture
It helped me put a perspective on where I fit into society
They all gave me insight and knowledge, but I know I won't use some of the material
I feel the writing of the final essay was the best for me because I was able to get feedback and improve my work. it allowed me to formulate my thoughts & learn about references.
all the information that the professors showed me English is a class where students my age get a sad feeling but he made it fun
The most valuable by far were the red marks on my paper regarding what I should touch up. The least valuable was having to read long and boring short stories with no excitement or adventure
The writing over stories as critical evaluation always had constructive comments on how to do better
Analyzing stories was very new to me and helped me understand breaking down the story
I liked the fan fiction

The readings and the papers were really useful.
all of them

2. **Has your writing improved? Give a couple specific examples of areas of improvement.**

yes, my writing has improved. I started giving more detail.
yes, responses, summaries and short stories have improved
yes, in creative and punctual and grammar
yes, better description of things, people or events
Yes, I've learned to be more descriptive when I write, before I wrote like the reader knew certain things already. Now I take time to write them out.
Instead of writing boring sentences, I've learned how to spice up my writing and still make it sound good.
I like to think so but that is subjective....
become more thoughtful in terms of describing scenes
yes 1. being able to recall several childhood memories w/ vivid detail & write extensively about it. 2. becoming better about not getting really wordy in my writing
yes, learned what a passive sentence is, how to use Microsoft word
yes, more detail in my writing
no
yes
probably not
no
society instead of people
my knowledge of sociology is much better
no, it hasn't improved but I feel my insight into cultures and societies has improved- especially on how groups need to grow and change
Definitely, learning how the intro should catch the attention of the reader as it leads into the story and the closing should give you what you have written able in a summary
my writing has improved from my spelling to grammar
Yes, my writing as improved and I am able to argue my point of view with valid facts as opposed to just saying, "The sky is blue."
yes, critical thinking and use of quotes and to show parallels between the works
I would like to think my writing has improved. I give more detail in my writing now
I think it has, I see it in my personal writing
I think so- but Dr. Wuebben would know better.
yes

3. **Have your feelings or attitude about college changed this semester? If so, how did the course or instructor contribute to these changes?**

I have the writing bug. I like putting my experiences on paper.

I tend to attach more details when I write a response, summary or short story
Yes, I hate to read and write but this class has helped seek some potentials I have on it
no
Yes, I really loved the autobiography writing. Before not so much. Writing seemed like a way to get your assignments done but nothing more
Yes, I love to write a lot more now. This class has helped me become better in my writing.
nope, still enjoy it!
yes, I found myself wanting to write more about past events
Yes, for the better. I knew I had a story to tell, but my confidence in it was not great but I feel very confident & accomplished now that I've written my autobiography and received positive feedback on it
yes, I love UNO, great teaching instructor
my feelings didn't change but were more enhanced
I love education
yes
no change, still engaged
the way he taught the class- I figured it was going to be a harder class but I did good!
yes- the society of college makes me want to know more
no
I want to get a degree
I love being in college- it gives me a sense of purpose and accomplishment. this course also allowed me to think critically
I always wanted to go to school but when I did it seemed I never had time. I'm glad I'm taking UNO and can't wait to move on and start school
No, my feelings have not changed. I still only want to take classes that would pertain to my future and not waste my time.
yes, this class has greatly increased my confidence in my ability to write
my feelings are the same- I feel privileged to be able to take the classes I am able to
I have been interested in higher education and this experience has boosted that interest
No- I am still just as engaged in my education
yes

4. Did the atmosphere of the class encourage full participation of everyone, regardless of age, race/ethnicity, or socioeconomic background? Please explain?

yes- there were no barriers
yes- because we were/are all focused on the task at hand
yes
yes, everyone who wanted to participate had the chance to do so in my eyes
yes
yes, because we are all in prison and there was only 10 of us so everything that was said seemed authentic from the different people
I thought so

I believe so, I though a little coaxing, but others came around
yes, we discussed very culturally & politically sensitive topics in class & in our readings. our class was a multi-racial mix & we were all able to freely talk and not feel uncomfortable
yes, everyone was welcome and invited
yes
yes, Dr. Imani is very engaging
yes
yes, everyone was treated equally and respectfully
yes
no
yes- discussions were very open and encouraged
yes- everyone was welcomed and it didn't feel like anyone was being belittled
Absolutely, the atmosphere was very relaxed and it allowed you to learn. Instructor Wuebben is a great and knowledgeable teacher
I just wish it was longer and more hands on
yes, because this atmosphere allows us to be comfortable with one another due to the closeness
yes, he always wanted and sought input. He treated everyone as equal
yes
yes
I felt like the atmosphere was very conductive for learning!
yes

5. What would you change about this course? Is there anything you would add or remove from the course?

Less reading and more writing
more computer time
nothing, don't change the instructor or else his class will not be as good as it was
brothers & keepers, get rid of it
nothing
personally, I wouldn't change anything. That class was damn near perfect to me!
the extra typing time through MCC keyboarding was invaluable and would have been tough to finish my autobiography without.
the course is what it is. Dr. W put it right up front as advertised
nothing- maybe steer clear of jail stories or books about incarceration. In a prison setting it's not exactly uplifting material
more computer work and research
nothing
nothing
nothing
I would make the tests be no-note/closed book. I would add more graded homework where feedback could be given.

nothing
more Mexicans
I wouldn't change it. maybe make it more class time as I really liked being here.
nothing
maybe to write 2 essays
Longer class and more hands on work. Books were okay but hands on would make it great and I'm talking about hands-on-work
I would change the choice of short stories and add in more suspense driven stories. I would not delete a thing besides the boring short stories
I think it went great. I believe pressure should be put on NDCS to allow time per the syllabus to type our final paper
nothing
more computer time
nothing
nothing

6. Which characteristics of this instructor or course have been the most valuable to your learning experience? Which characteristics of this instructor are the most important for him to improve upon?

the well explained concepts, real life application to sociological theories and concepts
a personal teacher, he included life experiences in his teaching
he did great
none
I enjoyed Dr. Imani's personality and approachability. I LOVED his course.
how Dr. Imani gave examples of what was going on in the world today with what we were learning.
his race was valuable and gave him credibility
He was very engaging. I really enjoyed my time here- thank you so very much Dr. Imani
nothing to improve. Great teacher made it easier to understand. I hope all my future teachers are like Dr. Imani
Dr. Wuebben is a great listener, very respectful, non-judgmental, and an overall good person
He's funny and curses
He took the time critique each assignment, which really helped me become a better writer. I would just have him improve on his short story choices.
his attitude, personality, and demeanor were always great. he's outgoing, upbeat and caring.
He showed that he cared and wanted to see each of us learn
being put in a position to think outside the box
Dr. Wuebben's classes have been really exciting- It's something I look forward to - this class every week!
none

7. What other types of classes would you like to see UNO offer to inmates at NDCS?

psychology, computer science, African civilizations
any tech training classes that would help people get employed or classes that would help with a degree
Math
Math
criminal justice, psychology, sociology courses
Any class I need to become a counselor
anything
legal aid certification
Math
computer skills, college algebra, biology/science, culture
any other that are more hands on and more info about the school
computer programming or computer repair classes.
Business management, MIS, computer information
business, criminal justice, math
criminal justice, psychology, sociology courses
math & computers

Overall Feedback from the First Year

These courses have not only given the students an opportunity to transform their lives but have also given the professors a unique life experience and an opportunity to not only teach, but also learn from, a unique and diverse population. Dr. Wuebben writes, "Teaching courses for UNO at the Omaha Correctional Center has been one of the most rewarding experiences of my career. The students are bright, inquisitive, and appreciative. Despite the institutional challenges, these class meetings allow me to feel the palpable and transformative effects of sharing knowledge and striving for social justice."

The initial efforts of the UNO's PSCE Program have garnered favorable responses from inmates, prison educators, and corrections officials. However, research, leadership, and development are required to sustain and to possibly expand this project and to help released inmates continue towards degrees and to become engaged members of the local community.

Current Program Challenges

- Determining the most useful curriculum (which courses will spark interest, what will best help student inmates upon release, class assessments since internet use in not accessible to inmates and computer time and skills are limited)
- Deciding on rules and guidelines (which students qualify, when to pay tuition, when to drop students who do not show, what to do with students who get transferred between facilities)
- Coordinating course schedule, classroom space, and materials with OCC.
- Adequate training for faculty so they can enter the facilities and feel comfortable teaching alone with students (radio etiquette, ID badges, communication with OCC personnel)

PROCESSES TO IMPLEMENT THE PROGRAM

Matt Tracy's (UNO) Responsibilities to Get Instructors/Classes Set Up

1. Identify instructors who are interested in teaching in the program.
2. Talk to the department's chair and dean of those instructors:
    a. If they are a full-time faculty member and the course they are teaching is considered part of their workload, their department chair and dean just need to sign off on it.
    b. If their course is considered over-load, there is paperwork that needs to be completed by their chair and office managers and such so they can be paid extra for the course.
    c. If the instructor is an adjunct, there is a whole different process – Matt works with the assistant to the dean to generate the paperwork for teaching a class in prison and the dean of the college and the instructor have to sign off on it. From there, it goes to Academic Affairs and a Personal Action Form (PAF) is generated which enables the instructor to be paid for the course.

3. The University of Nebraska Foundation needs to be notified of the class and instructor who may teach in the program so they can get the funders (Steven & Thomas Scott) to sign off on it.
4. Work with Steven Scott and Jean Slieter (NDCS Adult Edu. Principle) to advertise the course in prison.
5. Set up a date/time with Jean Slieter, Chasidy Bryl (OCC Program & Volunteer Coordinator), Katie Sup Rezac (UNO academic advisor in Division of Continuing

Studies), and Maureen Pope (UNO admissions representative) to go into OCC to have inmate-students complete a basic UNO application (hard copy).

    a. Katie will answer inmates' questions about how classes will count toward credit, financial aid when they are released, how to go about continuing education once released, and so forth.

6. Jean then takes the completed applications and checks the inmates' records against the eligibility criteria that Steven Scott (funder) set up. These criteria include:
    a. Inmate must have a GED or High School diploma
    b. Inmate must be free of any Class 1 misconduct in past 12 months, free of all IDC misconduct reports for the immediate past 6 months and only 2 UDC misconduct reports for the immediate past 6 months
    c. TABE test of academic ability level 10.0 (desired but not required)
    d. Inmate should have at least 18 months before parole eligibility date (desired but not required)
7. Jean then sends the list of approved students to OCC Warden Barbara Lewien and Deputy Warden Loretta Wells to sign off on the list of inmates.
8. Once the wardens sign off on the list, Jean sends the list back to Maureen Pope (UNO admissions representative) to work with the UNO registrar's office to admit the students and register them for that particular course. Maureen also helps set up the course with the registrar's office (although it is not visible to regular UNO students in the class search).
9. Maureen will then send the list of enrolled students back to the UNO instructor so that they know how many and who to expect for the first class.

UNO Instructors' Steps to Teaching in the PSCE Program

1. Interested faculty or adjuncts should talk with their department chair about their desire to teach in the program and if their chair would be willing to count the course as part of their workload.
2. Instructors should then talk with Matt Tracy about potential classes they would like to teach and coordinate with Jean Slieter and Chasidy Bryl about a date/time of the class to make sure it doesn't overlap with other teaching responsibilities.
    a. **NOTE**: OCC is very limited on classroom space and UNO is just one of many programs that requests to use the classrooms so availability of space is a hurdle that OCC and UNO must work through for every semester and every class.
3. Instructors must complete a background check for NDCS before they are approved to do the volunteer training (see form in *Appendix B*).
4. Instructors must complete a 3-4 hour volunteer training prior to the semester beginning (instructors should coordinate with Chasidy for the date/time of training).
5. Once instructors have a course, time, and enrollment set up with both OCC and UNO administrators they will receive a roster of enrolled students and confirmation about the day/time of the class.
6. Instructors need to send their sample syllabus to Chasidy, Warden Lewien and Deputy Warden Wells at least 2 weeks prior to the beginning of the semester so they can sign off on the syllabus and the books being used.
7. Instructors can order the books/materials for the course through the University of Nebraska Foundation, as the funders will pay for these materials (i.e., Tessa Barney with the UNF will help with this process).

a. Whether the books are new or used, instructors need to take them to OCC for Deputy Warden Wells to inspect at least a few days before the first class.

b. Deputy Warden Wells will leave the books/class materials with the Central Command after she inspects and approves the material, which instructors can get when they check in before their first class.

8. **FIRST CLASS and the intake process:** Instructors should show up to OCC for the first class 30 – 40 minutes before the class begins so they can go through the intake process.

   a. Bring your driver's license and give to the office at central command and tell them you are with UNO and teaching a class in education.

   b. Put car keys, phone and any smart device (watch), wallet, and coat in a locker. These are free to use so no need to bring in quarters.

   c. Wait for a guard to put your bag and class materials through the detector and to pat search you. Note: you will have to take your shoes and belt off before you walk through the metal detector so make sure you wear socks.

   d. Once you and your material are searched and cleared, central command will buzz you in to the secure side of the lobby where you will receive a visitor's badge and radio. Make sure you follow radio etiquette (see below).

   e. A guard will then escort you back to the education center and your classroom where you will wait for inmates to arrive. Note: If your class is at 5:30 p.m., it is common for students to be 10-15 minutes late to class because the facility count can often go longer than scheduled and inmates only have a tiny window to get dinner before class.

f. Have inmates sign in on the accountability roster once they arrive, which you will take back to central command when you check out of prison. The guard will give the roster to Chasidy to see who is coming/not coming to class every week.
g. Once you finish class you can dismiss the inmates and use the radio to call for an escort to take you back to the lobby (see the process outlined by NDCS below).
h. Once back in the lobby, give central command the radio, your visitor's badge and the accountability roster for Chasidy, and you will get your driver's license back.
i. They will buzz you out to the non-secure side where you can collect the items you left in your locker.

IMPORTANT PRISON POLICIES FOR INSTRUCTORS & OTHER FAQ's ABOUT THE PSCE PROGRAM

Q: When are the courses offered?

> **A:** All courses follow UNO's regular academic calendar. Classes can be offered during the fall, spring, and summer terms. Specific class times are coordinated with OCC leadership.

Q: Where do classes take place?

> **A:** All classes are offered inside the Omaha Correctional Center (OCC) which is located at 2323 Ave J, Omaha, NE 68110. OCC has 3 classrooms inside their facility.

Q: What courses are offered at OCC?

> **A:** This program ideally seeks to offer courses that fulfill UNO's General Education requirements and that are widely transferable to other post-secondary higher education institutions. The course offerings for any particular semester is determined by an advisory committee composed of UNO faculty/staff and representatives from NDCS. UNO would eventually like to establish a sequence of 6-8 different courses that could be offered on a rotating 18-24 month schedule.

Q: Are there any special requirements for faculty teaching inside OCC?

> **A:** Yes, anyone who wants to work inside OCC must first complete an OCC background check *AND* a one day orientation training session offered at the facility. Faculty are also required to submit to OCC administration a list of all materials (books, pens, articles, etc.) they want to bring into the facility. No electronic devices (e.g. thumb drives) are permitted into the facility without prior approval from the OCC Warden.

Q: What are the costs of the PSCE program?

> **A:** The cost of tuition for each enrolled inmate, teaching materials, will be paid by the Nebraska Post-Secondary Correctional Education Fund in coordination with the University of Nebraska Foundation.

<u>Q:</u> What resources are available in the classrooms?

<u>A:</u> Resources vary by classroom, but are limited compared to what is typically available in UNO classrooms. All rooms have a white board that instructors may use during class. Computers are limited to one room and student use is highly regulated by OCC requirements. Students have no internet access and they are unable to print or save their work in Microsoft Word. Instructors must make plans to bring in a flash drive with Chasidy and Deputy Warden Wells if they want students to be able to save their documents and work on them from week to week. In short, the ability for students to complete assignments using a computer is difficult. Additionally, most classrooms do not have the capability to use electronic resources (e.g., videos, PowerPoint slides). Faculty should be prepared to teach a course under these constraints.

<u>Q:</u> How many courses are offered at OCC in a given semester?

<u>A:</u> Currently, the maximum number of courses that UNO is able to offer is two per semester due to classroom space limitations at OCC.

<u>Q:</u> How do students apply and matriculate to UNO?

<u>A:</u> Representatives from UNO's Admissions Office and/or Registrar visit OCC prior to the semester when the class is offered to work with students in completing a hardcopy application which is then entered into UNO's Students Information System.

<u>Q:</u> What are the minimum requirements for inmates to participate in the program?

<u>A:</u> All prospective students must either have a diploma or GED. Additionally, NDCS also requires students to pass the Test of Adult Basic Education (TABE) which assesses reading, language, and mathematics abilities of students. Students must also meet conduct requirements established by OCC.

<u>Q:</u> Pedagogically, is there anything I need to know about teaching in a prison?

<u>A:</u> Be prepared to be challenged by your class. Students will have done the work you assigned and will be eager to discuss it and seek clarification of what they don't understand. Prepare to be flexible. For example, if the entire prison should close on

the day of your class, you need to be able to adjust your curriculum to cover the same amount of material in a reduced number of sessions. Be aware that students' exposure to the norms of a college classroom is limited. They do not have access to the Internet, and the library is limited in terms of research purposes. Do expect carefully hand-written papers. There is a white board available for your use. There are no "office hours" in prison teaching. However, if you would like to discuss coursework with a student, you can devote a portion of a class for that purpose while the rest of the class reads quietly or works on a group project.

Q: Are there any students with disabilities who might be interested in taking classes if they had the appropriate accommodations (e.g., is there someone who can sign for deaf students?)

A: The NDCS American Disabilities Act coordinator is looking into this issue.

Q: How should I address students and how should they address me in class?

A: As for how to address your students, some professors refer to students as Mr. or Ms., while others use students' first names. Similarly, you may ask them to call you Professor or to use your first name. Another consideration is the role of pride and respect in prison. In a traditional college classroom, a student may enjoy being singled out or applauded for his or her work. This is not always true in prison, for a variety of reasons. You may wish to write notes on papers that are read only by the student, but it is a good idea not to allude to disparities in achievement within the class.

Q: Who should I contact if I have an issue with a student (e.g., not showing up to class, or showing up late/leaving early)?

A: Use an accountability roster where you have students sign in every class period and then leave it with the front desk clerk who will give it to Chasidy. You can also let Chasidy, Vicky, Amy, Jean, or Warden Wells know if there is an issue with a students' attendance or any other aspect of the course. Instructors should contact Rob Britten during the Fall 2018 semester while Chasidy is on maternity leave if they encounter any problems.

Q: Can instructors remain in communication with inmates for purely academic purposes after a class and/or after the inmate is released? (e.g., if student wants information on attending UNO or is working on an academic publication with the instructor?)

A: Generally no, instructors should not have contact with inmates outside of class due to safety and boundary issues (see volunteer handbook in *Appendix B* for more details). If instructors want to be involved in other prison volunteer programs or groups (e.g., Hammurabi) they need to be especially aware of inmate manipulation and make sure they understand the strict boundaries they need to maintain with inmates.

Q: What is the best way to get students their final grade since they do not have access to e-mail or MavLink?

A: Send the final grades to students at end of semester via USPS. You will just need the inmates' names & ID numbers and you can send it to: **P.O. Box #11099 Omaha, NE 68110–2766.**

Q: Can students keep the course books after the class ends if it is okay with the instructor?

A: You will need to check with Deputy Warden Wells in each case and for each book. Inmates can only have so many supplies in their cell so even if it is okay with the instructor, they may not have room for it in their allocated personal space.

Q: If an inmate transfers to the Omaha Community Correctional Center (O-CCC) right across the street from OCC can they remain in the class?

A: They cannot come back into OCC for classes, but if instructors want to meet with them at O-CCC to keep them in the course and give/get assignments they can.

Q: What is the policy for radio and/or keys for instructors?

A: Instructors should ask Central Control for a utility radio upon entry into the facility and if one is available it will be issued. No keys will be given to instructors. The radio will be the responsibility of the instructor while inside the secure facility and should not

be left where inmates can get ahold of it. It will need to be turned back into Central Control when leaving. Radio etiquette should be discussed with instructors when checking them out. In general, it is important that the radio be set on Channel 1. To contact Central Control, proper etiquette would be something like, "UNO Instructor Daniel Wuebben to Central Control". Then wait for a response from them. Central Control is referred to as "297" so the response may be something like, "Go ahead for 297." The instructor should then state as clearly and concisely what the communication is, such as, "UNO class is dismissed and I need an escort back to the front of the facility from the multipurpose room or computer lab."

Q: How do I use the radio for an emergency while I am teaching?

A: In the event of an emergency give the same introduction ("UNO Instructor (your name) to Central Control") then state your location, and describe what is happening (e.g. how many inmates are involved, weapons if known, etc.). For example, "UNO Instructor Daniel Wuebben to Central Control. I have 2 inmates fighting in the multipurpose room. There are about 10 other inmates watching the fight but not engaged. There are no weapons, just 2 inmates throwing punches at each other." Tell all other inmates not involved to get belly down onto the ground. That way staff know they are not involved when they enter.

Lastly, the radios are equipped with body alarms on them. They are a little orang/red button on the top of the radio. If in immediate danger, the instructors should push the button and a notification will be sent to Central Control. The facility's emergency response teams will be immediately dispatched and any sounds/noises will be broadcast over the radio.

Q: Are there other universities or colleges that have similar programs in prisons?

A: Yes! There are many institutions all over the United States that have their own style of PSCE programs. Below is a list of just some of these universities/colleges and their respective websites. There is also a Consortium for the Liberal Arts in Prison

organized by Bard College (NY) which provides resources for other institutions looking to build similar programs (https://bpi.bard.edu/the-work/consortium/).

- Bennington College (VT/NY) http://www.bennington.edu/center-advancement-of-public-action/human-rights-and-peacebuilding/incarceration-america/prison
- Boston University (MA) http://sites.bu.edu/pep/
- Colorado College (CO) http://sites.coloradocollege.edu/hip/prison-education/
- Cornell University (NY) http://cpep.cornell.edu
- Emmerson College (MA) http://epi.emerson.edu/
- Grinnell College (IA) http://www.grinnell.edu/academics/centers/liberal-arts-prison
- Groucher College (MD) http://www.goucher.edu/learn/goucher-prison-education-partnership/
- Holy Cross College at Notre Dame (IN) http://www.hcc-nd.edu/westville-education-initiative/
- Metro Community College (NE) https://mccneb.edu/reentry
- Middlesex Community College (CT) http://mxcc.edu/cfpe/
- Tacoma Community College (WA) Freedom Education Project of Puget Sound http://fepps.org/
- University of California – Los Angeles http://www.uclaprisoned.org/
- University of Vermont https://www.uvm.edu/cas/liberal-arts-prison-program-lapp
- Washington University (MO) https://prisonedproject.wustl.edu/
- Wesleyan University (CT) http://www.wesleyan.edu/cpe/index.html
- Yale University (CT) https://www.yaleprisoneducationinitiative.org/
- York College (NE) https://www.york.edu/news

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE FUTURE OF UNO'S PSCE PROGRAM

There is ample evidence that post-secondary correctional education programming is beneficial to inmates, the communities they return to, and to taxpayers (Gaes, 2008; Meyer et al., 2010; Winterfield et al., 2009). Inmates who participate in PSCE programs have a 43% lower recidivism rate than non-participants and are 13% more likely to be employed upon release (Davis et al., 2013). Every single year nearly 700,000 individual are released from federal and state prisons and nearly half of them return to prison within three years (Davis et al., 2013). Although some people may question why inmates should receive post-secondary education for free (or little cost) when many law-abiding citizens struggle to afford college tuition, the cost-benefit to society as a whole are ample. A study by RAND Corporation found that education programs cost nearly $1,400 to $1,744 per inmate every year, but they can save prisons (or tax-payers) between $8,700 and $9,700 per inmate, or the costs associated with re-incarcerating them (Davis et al., 2013). Former United States Attorney General Eric Holder said, "These findings reinforce the need to become smarter on crime by expanding proven strategies for keeping our communities safe, and ensuring that those who have paid their debts to society have the chance to become productive citizens."

Administrative support from UNO, NDCS and prison staff from each facility is essential for the implementation of PSCE programs in Nebraska prisons. This support is especially crucial as the program begins, ensuring that university and prison staff are willing and able to assume their new duties for the program. This support is also critical due to the large amount of time it takes for the program to work and to grow. Finally, administrative support from both UNO and OCC is essential to guide the program through ongoing changes and challenges that may surface.

The challenges moving this program forward are manifold: the need for quality research and evaluation, continued professionalism, and standards for correctional education (for more information about the challenges and opportunities of implementing PSCE programs see Borden, Richardson & Meyer, 2012; Meyer et al., 2010). There is a critical need to increase opportunities for education and participation in education programs. The evidence clearly supports the value of correctional education—to inmates, instructors, taxpayers, and society in general. The challenge to correctional educators is to ensure that quality programs are offered and the participation rate is increased significantly. On the surface, the odds against meeting this challenge are overwhelming. State and federal sentencing laws and practices, the nation's penchant for increasingly punitive responses to crime, the competition for scarce resources—these are just some of the obstacles correctional educators must overcome. But there is room for optimism even in the face of these odds. There will always be a place for correctional education in the nation's prison systems (Winfree, 1993). As long as there are correctional educators with courage, conviction, commitment, and creativity, the challenge to develop and deliver quality programs can and will be met.

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APPENDIX A: Directory of Individuals Involved in the PSCE Program During Year One

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APPENDIX B: Possible UNO Teaching Application

Please email your responses to mtracy@unomaha.edu

1. Course title and name.

2. A 200-250 word statement of your motivation/aspiration

- Why do you want to teach this particular course?
- Why do you want to teach it in a prison setting?
- What are your goals for yourself, including your goals as a teacher in a nontraditional classroom setting?

3. 200-250 words about your preparation

- What, if any, is your teaching or tutoring experience, and how will it prepare you for teaching this course?
- What coursework have you taken/experience do you have that has prepared you to cover the content?
- How are you equipped to engage students of diverse backgrounds and skill levels?

4. A list of learning objectives

- At the end of the semester, what specific skills will your students walk away with?
- What are your goals for your students?

5. A 150-200 word course description

- What is your course about?
- What academic discipline?
- Will it be based loosely on any UNO classes?

6. A preliminary syllabus.

- This syllabus is for approval by prison administration only, and should list your initially assigned readings and assignments for each week of the course. Please note that we expect you to work further on your syllabus as your class approaches.

APPENDIX C: OCC Volunteer Services Handbook and Related Forms

NEBRASKA Good Life. Great Mission. DEPT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES	OMAHA CORRECTIONAL CENTER		
	OPERATIONAL MEMORANDUM VOLUNTEER SERVICES		
	REVISION DATE July 31, 2018	NUMBER 105.01.001	PAGE 1 of 11
	STATEMENT OF AVAILABILITY Official Distribution		

Effective:	March 6, 1985	Revised:	August 2, 2013
Revised:	July 26, 2009	Revised:	October 11, 2014
Revised:	July 28, 2010	Revised:	September 30, 2015
Revised:	July 27, 2011	Revised:	July 31, 2016
Revised:	August 13, 2012	Revised:	July 31, 2017

SUMMARY OF REVISION/REVIEW

Several revisions, staff should review thoroughly and carefully.

APPROVED:

Barbara Lewien, Warden
Omaha Correctional Center

I. Purpose To establish rules and procedures which govern the operation of a volunteer service program at the Omaha Correctional Center (OCC) which will ensure the efficient use of volunteers.

II. Policy The OCC encourages citizen involvement and volunteer programs with the intent of generating a variety of services for inmates. Rules for the protection of staff, volunteers and inmates and the orderly operation of OCC have been established and will be followed.

III. Authority Administrative Regulation (AR) 105.01.

IV. Applicability This Memorandum is applicable to divisions/departments/operations and shall be maintained current by the Deputy Warden.

V. Procedure

A. Definitions

1. A Nebraska Department of Correctional Services (NDCS) Volunteer is an unpaid community member who facilitates programs by providing leadership, direction and guidance to the mission of the program.

2. A volunteer program is defined as any program approved to operate within or operated by NDCS which utilizes non-paid personnel (This does not include interns; see AR 112.15, *Internship/Externship/Practicum Programs*).

3. Staff may volunteer with approval from the facility Warden.

4. Employees approved to volunteer will be issued a volunteer badge that they must wear while they are performing as a volunteer.

5. They will only be allowed to volunteer in areas which are different from their regular paid assignment.

6. Any staff who chooses to be a volunteer will be doing so on their off time and are not considered to be an on duty staff member.

7. Off duty employees are not expected or permitted to perform work related functions during their volunteer time and other staff members shall not request anyone wearing a volunteer badge to perform any work related tasks.

8. Employees may also serve as a Victim/Offender Dialogue Facilitator.

9. An employee who is a member of an inmate's immediate family may sponsor that inmate on furloughs and passes.

10. Immediate family is defined as spouse, parent, step-parent, persons acting in place of a parent (as documented in the institutional file), sibling, step-brother, step-sister, half-brother, half-sister, child, step-child and grandparent.

B. Responsibility

The Central Office Administrative Assistant III-Programs is responsible for coordination of the Department's non-religious Volunteer Service Program. This individual will also chair the non-religious volunteer services committee, which will assure that departmental policy is followed in each institution and program area. The Central Office Administrative Assistant III-Programs will also receive, review and coordinate volunteer programs with the volunteer services committee. All Volunteers are subject to the provisions in this

policy. The Department's Religion Program is a separate entity comprised of Religious Coordinators, legal staff, Clergy Visitors, and Religious Volunteers. Religious Volunteers are also subject to the provisions in AR 208.01, *Religious Services*. The Department's Religion Program has a separate Committee referred to as the Religious Study Committee (RSC). The RSC is chaired by the Central Office Administrative Assistant III-Programs. Religious Coordinators are responsible for Religious Volunteers.

OCC's Religious Coordinator shall act as the OCC's Religious Volunteer Services Coordinator. The OCC's Administrative Assistant II is the Volunteer Services Coordinator for the non-religious volunteers. The Volunteer Coordinator shall assume the following responsibilities of the Non-Religious Volunteer(s):

1. Coordinates and supervises the distribution of Volunteer Application Form (Attachment 1) and NDCS Personal Information for Security Check (DCS-A-per-002) (Attachment 2) to potential volunteers.

2. Maintains accurate records of the identification, training, and program status of all volunteers.

3. Reports to the Administrative Assistant III and Deputy Warden on the activities of the volunteer services programs.

4. Recruits, screens, and selects volunteers from all cultural and socioeconomic segments of the community.

5. Coordinates the orientation and training for all approved volunteers, and

6. Coordinates OCC's volunteer programs with the Central Office's "Volunteer Service Committee."

7. New inmates arriving at OCC shall be given information relative to the volunteer services programs available at the institution. The current schedule of available volunteer services to inmates shall be posted on bulletin boards in all housing units.

8. During the month of April, OCC will honor the volunteers who participate in the programs offered at OCC. OCC will determine the type of function by which the volunteers are honored (e.g. recognition letter, reception, banquet, etc.) OCC will select a Volunteer of the Year who will be honored at an annual NDCS gathering to coincide with Correctional Employee appreciation month in May.

C. Program Coordination

1. The Volunteer Coordinator or Religious Coordinator depending upon the program, will be responsible for the recruitment and initial screening of volunteers from all cultural and socioeconomic segments of the community. Volunteers are to be 19 years of age or older. This does not preclude younger individuals who are a relevant part of a volunteer program/service from participating in an activity, under the supervision of appropriate volunteers, within an institution at the discretion of the Warden. Non-religious volunteers are allowed to be involved in more than one club/activity at one facility. Religious volunteers will be limited to involvement in one religious group unless the volunteer can show relevant knowledge which would directly relate to a different religious group. A request for involvement in more than one religious group requires a recommendation from the Religious Study Committee.

    a. A National Crime and Information Center (NCIC) check is required initially, and annually thereafter, for all of the following volunteers:

(1) Individuals volunteering for more than a single event.

(2) Any leader (professional or religious), regardless of credentials, for whom there is no documented endorsement by their judicatory.

All volunteers working in the institution in a discipline, which by law requires professional credentials, must hold such credentials. The credentials must be currently valid, and the volunteer must be able to produce verification of that fact. Copies of certificates, licenses, etc., shall be filed in the Volunteer Services Coordinator's Office, in that particular volunteer's file.

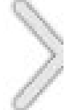
(3) Performing or athletic groups which will have significant, direct contact with inmates.

b. An NCIC is optional for the following individuals volunteering for a single event: (i.e., One Time Volunteers)

(1) Professionals with national organizations. These individuals will often provide services as speakers or seminar/workshop leaders.

(2) Credentialed and/or endorsed professionals, worship leaders or religious instructors.

(3) Performing or athletic groups which will have minimal or no direct contact with inmates.



(4) Representatives of organizations who have been provided with documentable training for volunteering in a correctional setting.

c. Recommendations shall be delivered by the institution volunteer coordinator, to the Warden/designee for final approval.

d. Information on volunteers will be tracked on a Department-wide computerized data base. This information will be shared by all NDCS volunteer coordinators.

e. Once a volunteer has met the entire agency's requirements, has received an orientation, and has been approved at one secure facility they will be approved at all secure facilities. However, before providing volunteer services at another facility, the volunteer shall complete a facility specific tour and be briefed on the various aspects unique to each facility and the inmate population. The tour and briefing will be given by either the Volunteer Coordinator or Religious Coordinator depending upon the volunteer service being provided.

2. Ex-inmates

The volunteer programs may include ex-inmates as volunteers, providing the following is considered:

a. Written approval to be given by the Warden/designee.

b. The ex-inmate is no longer on parole and has been discharged for a minimum of 18 months and had no contact with any criminal justice agency during the 18 months. The Warden may make exceptions on a

case-by-case basis dependent upon agency needs, including exception based on NDCS staff recommendations.

c. The type of crime and length of sentence.

d. The ex-inmate's friends and associates are still incarcerated.

e. The institutional record, including any program participation.

f. They possess a special talent or skill that will benefit the inmates, institution or NDCS.

3. After final approval by the Deputy Warden, each Volunteer's name shall be retained on file in the Volunteer Service Coordinator's Office. Initial training and orientation procedures shall then be scheduled by the Volunteer Service's Coordinator.

D. Orientation and Training

Orientation and training will be provided to volunteers by the Volunteer Coordinator or Religious Coordinator with whom they will be working. Exceptions may be made upon agreement between institution and department.

1. All volunteers are to attend an orientation session and be placed into the Volunteer database, prior to their first volunteer activity (Attachment 3). These orientation sessions shall be made available on an as needed basis as determined by the Volunteer Coordinator. Volunteers participating in a one-time activity are to be given a verbal and/or written orientation appropriate to the circumstance. Orientation for volunteers will include the following:

   a. The criteria requirements for being a volunteer (a copy of the Volunteer Services AR shall be given to each volunteer);

   b. An overview of NDCS philosophy and operation, the criminal justice system, agency mission statement and vision points;

   c. Familiarization to OCC including physical plant layout, staffing, programming provided, operational memorandum, etc.

   d. An overview of inmate characteristics and background;

   e. Guidelines for working with inmates specific to the institution;

   f. Security and confidentiality of information;

   g. Emergency situations; (i.e., being taken hostage, severe weather, lockdown);

   h. Contraband;

   i. Ethics (A copy of the American Correctional Association's (ACA) Code of Ethics shall be given to each volunteer) (Attachment 4);

   j. Workplace harassment policy;

   k. Statutory provision regarding sexual conduct with inmates/parolees, Section 28-101 R.S. Supp. 1998.

l. Victim Services

m. PREA guidelines.

2. During this first six months, in addition to the general orientation, each volunteer shall be given specific training in a curriculum devised by the program head under whom the volunteer's services will be rendered. The subject matter and length of time needed shall be left to the discretion of that program head.

3. Volunteers may be directed by OCC staff verbally and/or in writing to report their observations or incidents they may witness. This information may be helpful in continuing and/or designing new programs and resolving security threats or misbehavior by inmates, staff or other volunteers.

E. Volunteer Responsibilities

1. In general, volunteers are to conduct themselves in a manner similar to that expected of employees pursuant to the rules and regulations of NDCS. Specifically, volunteers shall not:

   a. Introduce contraband into any institution within NDCS;

   b. Accept or issue any bribe, gift, loan, or gratuity from or to an inmate;

   c. Engage in trading or trafficking with inmates, including selling, buying from, or delivering to any inmate any article or commodity, of any description, except through authorized channels;

   d. Bring articles of any kind into an institution for delivery to an inmate, or take out an article of any kind for an inmate, unless authorized to do so by the Warden;

   e. Give or send money to an inmate in a secure facility for any reason. Dual Status Volunteers may send money with Warden's advanced approval (refer to AR 208.01, Religious Services);

   f. Be on the visiting list of any inmate, with the following exceptions:

      (1) The visiting lists of inmates on community custody residing at a community corrections center.

      (2) With written permission from the Warden, volunteers may be on the friends and family visiting list of an immediate family member. The volunteer should not provide services within the facility that houses the immediate family member without the Warden's permission. This exception also applies to dual status volunteers, as defined in AR 208.01, Religious Services. Exceptions for other non-immediate family members will be at the Warden's direction.

   g. Provide services at any institution housing an immediate family member;

   h. Be permitted to perform their duties or enter departmental facilities or offices while under the influence of alcohol, illegal drugs and/or controlled substances.

2. All volunteers shall sign a prepared statement agreeing to abide by all institutional/program policies and regulations, especially those dealing with security, confidentiality of records and other privileged information (Attachment 5).

3. All volunteers shall follow the same dress code established for visitors, per AR 205.02, Visiting.

4. All volunteers shall sign a waiver, acknowledging that they assume the risk of engaging in contact with inmates.

5. Volunteers will generally be responsible to the department head within whose area the volunteer service is being performed. Volunteers will be accountable, as is paid staff, for their actions and services rendered in the institution or program.

6. All volunteers working in a discipline which by law requires professional credentials, must hold such credentials and be able to produce verification of such.

7. No telephone communication or written correspondence (to include email) is allowed between volunteers and inmates at NDCS institutions. Exceptions may be approved by the Warden on a case-by-case basis and require written justification from the volunteer, and a recommendation from the Volunteer Coordinator or Religious Coordinator. (Exceptions to this section are made for dual status volunteers as written in AR 208.01)

8. Any volunteer who is arrested or issued a citation of the law, other than a minor traffic violation, must immediately notify the Warden or Volunteer Coordinator of his/her alleged violation of the law. Failure to report may result in suspension or termination of volunteer status.

9. Whenever a volunteer would like to play a video and/or audio recording at an approved activity, it must be screened and approved by the Intel Captain prior to the presentation. Recordings will be denied when they advocate violence, when the contents are likely to incite violence including inflammatory racist/ethnic content or illegal activity or sexual activity, or they describe plans for incendiary/explosive devices, alcohol/drugs or escape plans. No audio/video recordings will be allowed for hearing/viewing when such would violate copyright laws.

10. Group coordinators and volunteers shall have their activities reviewed a minimum of annually by the volunteer coordinator. This will coincide with a new NCIC check. This information will be updated in the volunteers file, and the volunteer database during the month of expiration.

11. Access areas for all groups of volunteers will be stipulated according to the Operational Memorandums.

12. All Volunteers must be escorted unless they have successfully completed Pre-Service and/or annual In-Service training as directed. Upon successful completion of Pre-Service and/or annual In-Service training, volunteers may be granted unescorted access to specified areas of the facility as approved by the Warden/designee.

F. Volunteer Categories

Volunteers shall be categorized into the following groups:

1. One-Time Volunteer

An individual may only be admitted into an institution once per year as a One-Time Volunteer for a single event or purpose.

2. Volunteer

The volunteer category is compromised of trained volunteers providing consistent and regular services to inmates.

3. Grant Recipient Volunteer

a. The purpose of a Grant Recipient Volunteer is to provide vocational and life skills services to Nebraska Department of Correctional Services (NDCS) offenders. The following applies to these individuals.

b. Grant Volunteers will abide by the regulations stated within AR 105.01 unless specific provisions are granted by the Deputy Director of Operations, Deputy Director of Programs, or their designee.

c. Grant Volunteers who complete the Pre-Service course and PPCT II will be allowed unescorted access to the area in which their event occurs. These individuals will be identified by a blue stripe at the bottom of their NDCS ID.

d. The Grantee Coordinator will act as the Volunteer Coordinator for Grant Volunteers and will be responsible for the maintenance of their paperwork to include annual NCIC updates and In-Service training if applicable.

4. Group Coordinator

Group coordinators are those volunteers who work closely with the volunteer coordinator in providing services to inmates. Group Coordinators are the volunteers most involved in advisory and policymaking groups for the total program. Once a volunteer is approved by the institution/program as a group coordinator, that individual's volunteer application form is to be forwarded to NDCS Programs Administrator as a reference for other institution/programs. A group coordinator will:

a. Be credentialed professionals in their area of volunteering, and/or;

b. Be a director or executive director of a volunteer organization, and/or;

c. Have a minimum of two (2) year's experience as a volunteer with NDCS.

5. Dual Status

An individual holding both a volunteer and clergy visitor status is identified as a dual status volunteer. In dual status cases, the clergy visitors/volunteers will already have a current NCIC and it will not be necessary to run a new NCIC to activate the new status, unless the NCIC has expired. In the event of a dual status, the volunteer will be afforded the same privileges as a clergy visitor as outlined in AR 208.01. When present in the facility as a volunteer all applicable volunteer regulations apply.

G. Peer Volunteer Program

OCC and Adult Parole Administration recognize that some parolees can offer inmates insight into release planning that will facilitate success and potentially reduce recidivism. Parolees may participate in events facilitated by staff for this purpose. Such events may occur at the request of staff or structured inmate clubs.

2. Application Process

A parolee may volunteer for or a Parole Officer may invite a stable parolee to participate in the program. In order to be selected, a parolee should have a period of time on parole that has been successful. The parolee may have experienced some struggles initially; however, there should be sufficient stabilization to ensure that the parolee can provide appropriate guidance. Rather than have specific guidelines, the parole officer will consider the following:

a. Length of stable time on parole in the following areas:

(1) Residence
(2) Sobriety
(3) Relationships
(4) Medication
(5) Associates
(6) Overall outlook concerning changing behavior, responding to challenges and experience on parole

b. Length of time since any parole violation

c. References from others in the community that the parolee is involved with including:

(1) Mental Health/substance abuse providers/sponsors
(2) Family member (this should not be the only reference that the parolee has)

d. Parolee commitment and interest in helping other offenders re-enter the community. Including a potential interest to continue participating after discharge from parole.

e. Ability to follow instructions from the NDCS/APA staff the parolee will be working with.

3. Upon identification of an interested parolee/former parolee, the parole officer will ensure that the person meets the qualifications and will prepare the Peer Volunteer Program form (attachment 9) and submit to his/her supervisor. Upon approving, the supervisor will submit to the Warden. Once the Warden has approved the form, it will be forwarded to the Adult Parole Administrator/designee who will forward to the Reentry Administrator/designee for his/her approval and finally to the Deputy Director of Programs for approval.

4. Preparation for entering the institution

Parolees and former inmates selected for this program will not need to go through a volunteer program, as they will be escorted by a staff person at all times. However they will be required to submit an NCIC form.

5. Removal of a parolee/former parolee from the program

In the event a participant elects to be removed from the program or needs to be removed due to unsatisfactory progress, relapse, parole violations, criminal conduct or other situation that make the participant unacceptable, a new attachment 9 shall be resubmitted through the supervisor to the Adult Parole Administrator/designee, Warden Reentry Administrator/designee, Deputy Director of Programs/designee notifying of the removal.

At the completion of a successful quarter of participation (the end of the month September, December, March and June) in the Peer Volunteer Program, the parolee/former parolee will be issued a certificate of successful participation (attachment 10). Successful participation shall mean at least one volunteer event during the quarter. The assigned parole officer shall be responsible for monitoring and issuing the certificate(s).

H. Volunteer I.D. Cards

Volunteers and group coordinators will be issued photo I.D. cards.

1. A volunteer I.D. card will be issued to volunteers after 6 months or longer service with NDCS (attachment 8). Depending upon the program, the institutional volunteer coordinator or the institutional religious coordinator will notify the volunteer and arrange for the volunteer to have the ID card mad.

   Once the I.D. card has been issued, the volunteer will retain the ID card in their possession and will be responsible for showing the NDCS issued I.D. card along with their state issued I.D./drivers license to enter the facility. The volunteer will wear their NDCS issued I.D. at all times when in a facility. Only one I.D. card will be issued to a volunteer for all facilities.

2. The ID card will contain the following:

   a. Picture of the volunteer, preferably with a yellow background, or a color background different than employees; Full-time Volunteer Clergy ID cards will have a green background.

   b. Name of the volunteer.

   c. The position title of the volunteer – group coordinator or volunteer (i.e., group coordinator, volunteer, or full-time volunteer clergy).

   d. Date of issue.

3. Volunteers not issued ID cards will be granted admission to an institution by placement of their names on a list each time they are approved to enter the institution. When in the institution, they will wear "visitor" cards.

4. A computerized database which includes name, current address, telephone number, current status, record of participation and other relevant information by individual volunteers will be maintained by each institution's Volunteer Coordinator. This information will be shared by all institution/program volunteer and religious coordinators.

5. Each approved volunteer will receive a letter once a year from the Volunteer Coordinator/Religious Coordinator with a Personal Information for Security Form (NCIC) attached. The letter will be sent out at the first of the month when the volunteer's NCIC is due. The volunteer will be given 15 days to fill out, sign, and

return the NCIC to the Volunteer Coordinator/Religious Coordinator. If there is no response by the 15th of the month, the Volunteer Coordinator/Religious Coordinator will send out a follow-up letter, warning the volunteer of change in status if there is no response by the end of the month. If no response is received by the end of the month, the volunteer's status will change to "Inactive" on the NDCS Volunteer Database and the volunteer must return their volunteer ID card. The volunteer will then be required to repeat the application and orientation process in order to serve as a volunteer again. A final letter will be sent to the volunteer advising them of the change in their status, explaining the conditions for the re-application and requesting the volunteer card be returned.

I. Termination/Suspension

At such time as deemed necessary by the Warden for the safety of the volunteers, the management of the inmate population, or the tightening of security precautions, may restrict, postpone, suspend or terminate the services of any volunteer or volunteer organization.

1. If a situation of high risk occurs in the institution, the Warden/designee may, by verbal mandate immediately discontinue, restrict or terminate the services of volunteers.

2. Following the issue of such a mandate, a written statement shall be prepared by the Volunteer Coordinator or the Religious Coordinator and signed by the Warden informing the volunteer or volunteer organization of the reason(s) for the discontinuance of the program. The statement shall be issued to the volunteer(s) unless divulging such would be detrimental to the safety and security of OCC and/or the general public.

3. When a volunteer has been terminated or suspended, the Administrative Assistant III-Institutions will be notified. They will make the appropriate database entries and subsequently notify all other coordinators and relevant stakeholders in NDCS. The respective volunteer or religious coordinator will send a letter to the volunteer requesting that the volunteer ID card be returned.

I. Funding

See *AR 113.01, Fiscal Management* for funding relevant to volunteer and volunteer activities.

VI. References:

ACA Standards 4-4114, 4-4115, 4-4116, 4-4117, 4-4118, 4-4119, 4-4120-4-4121, and 4-4122.

Attachments:

1. Volunteer Application Form DCS-A-adm-123-pc
2. DCS Personal Information for Security Check Form DCS-A-per-002
3. Orientation and Waiver Form for One-Time Volunteers
4. ACA Code of Ethics
5. Nebraska Department of Correctional Services Volunteer Pledge and Waiver
6. Nebraska Department of Correctional Services Volunteer Training Record
7. Nebraska Department of Correctional Services Religious and Volunteer Services Organization Chart
8. Volunteer Identification Card Request Form
9. Application for Volunteer Peer mentor
10. Certificate Success-Peer Mentor

Attachment 1
OM 105.01.001

NEBRASKA DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES
VOLUNTEER APPLICATION FORM

Name: ____
Last *First* *Middle*

Home Address: ____

City: ______________________ State: ________ Zip: ____________

Home Phone: ______________________ Work Phone: ______________________

Social Security Number: ______________________ (Social Security number is needed to complete security check.)

In Case Of Emergency Notify: ______________________ Relationship: ____________

Home Phone: ______________________ Work Phone: ______________________

Are You on a Visiting List of, or Visiting any Inmate or Detainee? Yes___ No___

If Yes, Inmate Name: ____________________ Relationship: ________________

Do you have any specific area/program within the Department for which you wish to volunteer?

Yes___ No___ If yes, list which area/program (be specific as possible):______________
____

Have you ever volunteered for the Nebraska Department of Correctional Services? If yes, where and when? ____

Please provide the following information so you may best be matched with our volunteer needs:
Education:____
Skills/Abilities:____
Hobbies:____
Interests:____
Prior Volunteer Experience(s):____

List the names of three individuals we may contact (other than relatives) who have knowledge of your skills and character.

Name	Address	Phone

______________________ ______________________
Applicant's Signature Date

DCS-A-adm-123-pc

NEBRASKA
DEPT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES

Personal Information for Security Check

As part of maintaining a safe and secure environment the NDCS may conduct security checks prior to and periodically throughout an individual's employment or affiliation with the NDCS. A conviction does not automatically bar an individual from entering a facility or from employment. Each case will be considered individually. **All information on this document is required.** If you omit any information from this form you may be disqualified from entrance to a facility or employment. **PLEASE READ FULLY AND PRINT LEGIBLY IN INK.**

Please check the appropriate reason for requesting entrance into a facility.

List position title and facility: ______________________________

☐ Contractor ☐ NDCS Employment ☐ Volunteer ☐ Clergy ☐ Intern ☐ Temp/SOS ☐ PREA

____________________	___/___/___	___ ___ ___ - ___ ___ - ___ ___ ___ ___
PRINT NAME (Last Name, First Name, Middle Initial)	Date of Birth Month/Day/Year	Social Security Number

____
Other Names Used (e.g. aliases, former names, etc.)

______ / ______	______	___/___/___
Driver's License Number / State If no driver's license, please enter your state ID.	State ID number	Expiration Date

______	______	______	___' ___"	______ lbs.	______	______
Place of Birth (City, State or Country)	Sex	Race	Height	Weight	Eyes	Hair

List all previous states or countries of residence: ______________________________

Current address:

______	______	______	______
Street Address	City	State	Zip

Please provide your current phone numbers and e-mail addresses (business and personal):

Home: (____) ______________ E-mail addresses: ______________

Cell: (____) ______________ ______________

Other: (____) ______________ ______________

Are you currently or have you ever been in contact with any Nebraska Department of Correctional Services inmate (current or former) by way of phone, facility visit, or email? Yes____ No ____
If yes, state name, facility, and relationship to you ______________________________

Are you or have you ever been affiliated with a gang/security threat group(s)? Yes____ No ____
If yes, state group name and your affiliation ______________________________

I hereby certify that all information I have entered on this form is accurate and complete. I understand and agree that the NDCS may use information on this form to conduct security checks prior to and periodically throughout my employment or affiliation with the NDCS. I understand that failure to disclose or fully disclose the requested information may be grounds for disqualification of my application or termination of my employment.

______________________________ ______________
Signature Date

OFFICE USE ONLY

HR Site Contact: ____________________

Date Submitted: ____________________

NCIC Processed By: ____________________

DMV Processed By: ____________________

NCJIS Processed By: ____________________

NCIC/NCJIS Reviewed By: ____________________

Date Reviewed: ____________________

☐ APPROVED

☐ DENIED

HR Site Contact Notified: ____________________

HRIS Entry: ____________________

To be checked at facility/program:

*Check **only** if New Hire, Intern, SOS temp or Health Services Contractor.*

Inmate Phone List ☐
Inmate Visitor List ☐
Inmate Email ☐

Approval ☐ Disapproval ☐

Comments: ____________________

____

Intel Captain/ Designee:

____
Signature Date

Comments/Justification:

____

____

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____

____

NDCS Company Hire Date: ____________________

PREA Indicator

☐ No

☐ Yes, Date: ____________________

Comments: ____________________

____

Emergency Management Services review:

____
Signature

____
Date

Legal review:

____
Signature

____
Date

Project:

Project #:

Project Location:

Contractor:

NEBRASKA DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES
VOLUNTEER PLEDGE AND WAIVER

INSTITUTION: ______________________________

NAME: ____
LAST FIRST MIDDLE

PLEDGE

In consideration of being allowed to participate in the Nebraska Department of Correctional Services (DCS) volunteer program, I agree that:

1. I will abide by all policies, rules and regulations of the Nebraska Department of Correctional Services and of each facility where I perform volunteer services;
2. I will follow verbal instructions given to me by DCS staff;
3. I will abide by the policies and procedures regarding confidentiality of information;
4. I will not accept from nor convey to an inmate or anyone acting on behalf of an inmate any article, money or message without appropriate approval from DCS staff;
5. I will keep scheduled hours as agreed;
6. I will not perform professional services which by law require certification, licensing or credentials that I do not have;
7. I will dress in accord with the DCS dress code; and
8. I will immediately report to correctional facility staff any violation of the DCS rules by an inmate or another volunteer.

WAIVER

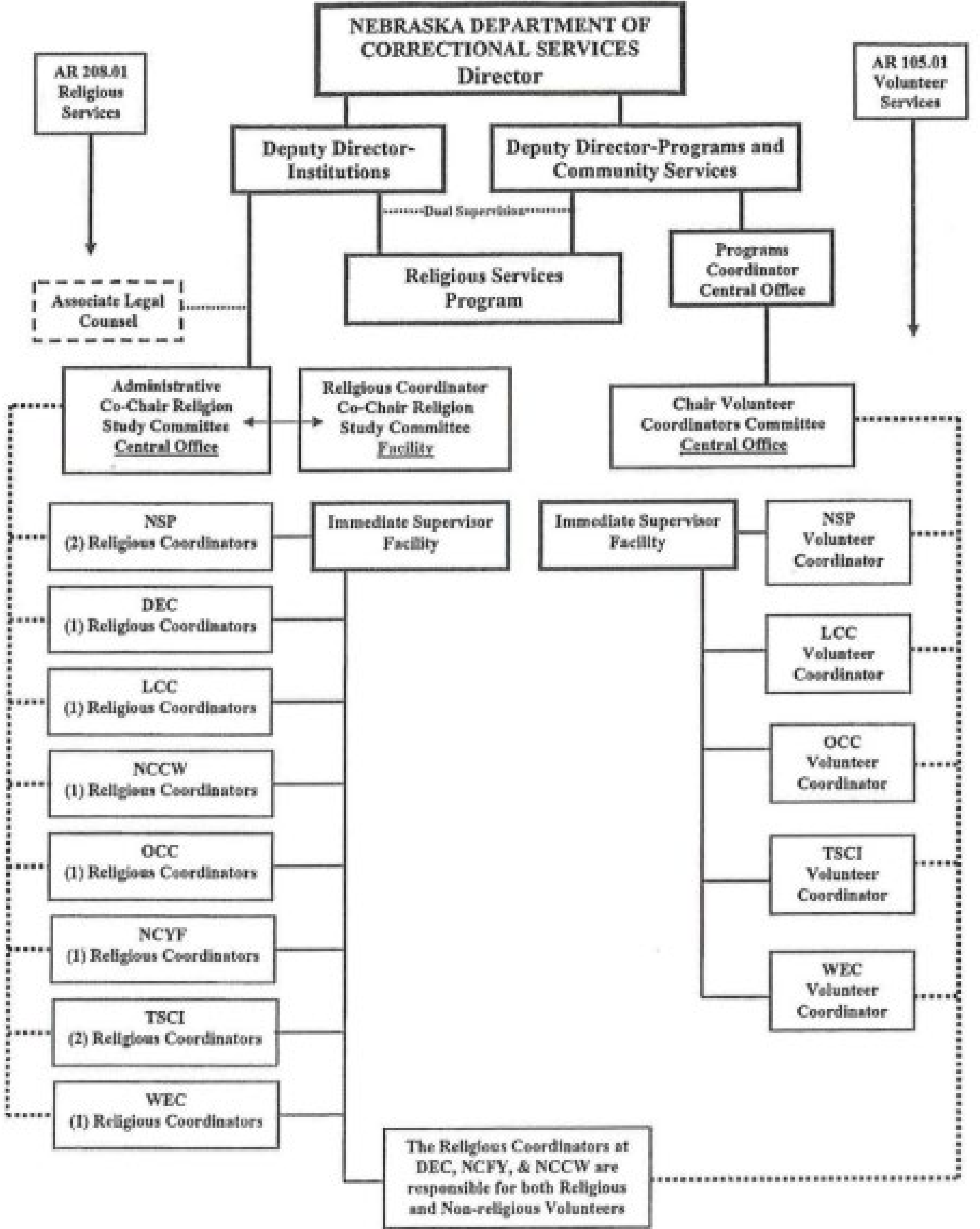
In consideration of being allowed to participate in the Nebraska Department of Correctional Services (DCS) volunteer program, I acknowledge and agree that:

1. My participation as a volunteer may involve risk of serious injury or harm;
2. I understand that the Nebraska Department of Correctional Services makes no representations regarding behavior of the inmates with whom I may come in contact;
3. I assume any and all risks of injury or harm caused by or arising from my participation in the volunteer program;

This Volunteer Pledge and Waiver shall remain in full force and effect for the duration of my volunteer service with the Nebraska Department of Correctional Services.

______________________________ ____________
Volunteer's Signature Date

______________________________ ____________
Staff's Signature Date


NEBRASKA DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES Director
AR 208.01 Religious Services
AR 105.01 Volunteer Services
Deputy Director-Institutions
Deputy Director-Programs and Community Services
Dual Supervision
Religious Services Program
Programs Coordinator Central Office
Associate Legal Counsel
Administrative Co-Chair Religion Study Committee Central Office
Religious Coordinator Co-Chair Religion Study Committee Facility
Chair Volunteer Coordinators Committee Central Office
NSP (2) Religious Coordinators
Immediate Supervisor Facility
Immediate Supervisor Facility
NSP Volunteer Coordinator
DEC (1) Religious Coordinators
LCC (1) Religious Coordinators
LCC Volunteer Coordinator
OCC Volunteer Coordinator
NCCW (1) Religious Coordinators
OCC (1) Religious Coordinators
TSCI Volunteer Coordinator
NCYF (1) Religious Coordinators
WEC Volunteer Coordinator
TSCI (2) Religious Coordinators
WEC (1) Religious Coordinators
The Religious Coordinators at DEC, NCFY, & NCCW are responsible for both Religious and Non-religious Volunteers

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA OMAHA
COLLEGE OF PUBLIC AFFAIRS AND COMMUNITY SERVICE

COLLEGE OF PUBLIC AFFAIRS AND COMMUNITY SERVICE
SCHOOL OF CRIMINOLOGY AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE

UNIVERSITY OF
Nebraska
Omaha

Police Transparency Following an Officer-Involved Shooting Captured by Body-Worn Camera:

A Randomized Experiment

FALL 2019

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The College has become a national leader among similar colleges, with nine programs ranked in the top 25 in the nation. Our faculty ranks are among the finest in their disciplines. Faculty, staff, and students are integral to the community and state because of our applied research, service learning, and community partnerships. We take our duty seriously to help address social needs and craft solutions to local, state, and national problems. For more information, visit our website: cpacs.unomaha.edu

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Part of the mission of the College of Public Affairs and Community Service (CPACS) is to conduct research, especially as it relates to concerns of our local and statewide constituencies. CPACS has always had an urban mission, and one way that mission is served is to perform applied research relevant to urban society in general, and the Omaha metropolitan area and other Nebraska urban communities in particular. Beginning in 2014, the CPACS Dean provided funding for projects with high relevance to current urban issues, with the potential to apply the findings to practice in Nebraska, Iowa and beyond.

Police Transparency Following an Officer-Involved Shooting Captured by Body-Worn Camera:

A Randomized Experiment

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Fall 2019

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Testing a Theoretical Model of Perceived Audience Legitimacy: The Neglected Linkage in the Dialogic Model of Police–community Relations

Justin Nix[1], Justin T. Pickett[2], and Scott E. Wolfe[3]

Abstract

Objectives: Democratic policing involves an ongoing dialogue between officers and citizens about what it means to wield legitimate authority. Most of the criminological literature on police legitimacy has focused on citizens' perceptions of this dialogue—that is, audience legitimacy. Consequently, we know little about how officers perceive their legitimacy in the eyes of the public and the antecedents of such perceptions. Pulling together separate strands of literature pertaining to citizen demeanor, hostile media perceptions, and danger perception theory, we propose and test a theoretical model of perceived audience legitimacy. *Method:* We conducted two separate studies: the first a survey of 546 officers working at a southern U.S.

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agency and the second a survey of a national probability sample of 665 executives and high-ranking officers. *Results:* Local violent crime rates, but not minority group size or growth, are associated with lower perceived audience legitimacy. Additionally, recent experiences with citizen disrespect and global perceptions of citizen animus are both inversely associated with perceived audience legitimacy. The perceived hostility of local, but not national, media coverage is also associated with lower perceived audience legitimacy. *Conclusions:* Our results suggest a need for additional research that explores whether the antecedents of audience legitimacy indirectly affect police behaviors, like the use of force.

Keywords

police legitimacy, danger perception theory, crime, media, policing

Policing in the United States is characterized by an ongoing dialogue with the public regarding what it means to wield legitimate or rightful authority (Bottoms and Tankebe 2012; Tyler 1990). The police make various claims to legitimacy, to which their audience—the public—interprets and reacts favorably or unfavorably, conveying or withholding audience legitimacy. A critical element of this process is *perceived audience legitimacy*—that is, how the police believe they are viewed by the public (Bottoms and Tankebe 2012). Perceived audience legitimacy shapes officers' orientations toward their job and may ultimately explain the way they interact with members of the public. For example, officers who perceive greater audience legitimacy express more support for a democratic approach to policing, including the installation of citizen oversight bodies (Kang and Nalla 2011), and are more likely to use procedural justice when interacting with citizens (Bradford and Quinton 2014; Jonathan-Zamir and Harpaz 2018). Further, officers who believe they possess higher levels of audience legitimacy tend to view citizens as more cooperative, though this relationship appears to vary by neighborhood conditions (Nix 2017a).

The idea that officers' perceptions of their legitimacy in the public eye would explain the way they approach their job is consistent with the police culture literature, which has documented the salience of officer cynicism and its effects (Muir 1979; Niederhoffer 1967). Cynical cops embrace an aggressive style of policing—they "believe that the citizenry is hostile to police" and "see themselves as a principally negative force in peoples' lives" (Worden 1995:58). They express job dissatisfaction (Regoli, Crank,

and Culbertson 1989) and more frequently engage in problematic behaviors (Hickman 2008). Yet, in this literature, the conceptualization and measurement of cynicism has been broad, overlooking important nuances and causal relations between the presumed components of officer perceptions. For example, researchers have employed measures that combine officers' perceptions of citizens' *attitudes*, citizens' *behaviors*, and the favorability of media coverage (Niederhoffer 1967; Regoli 1976; Regoli, Crank, and Rivera 1990). Such broad measures inhibit our ability to understand fully what impacts officers' orientations.

Perceived audience legitimacy refers to how officers believe their community *views* them—a judgment they likely make based on how citizens actually *behave* toward them. Officers who recently have been disrespected by citizens (i.e., had their legitimacy challenged) may be more likely to generalize such treatment to the larger community, believing that most citizens exhibit animus toward police, and do not view them as a legitimate authority. In addition to direct contact with hostile citizens, media coverage of police work may influence officers' perceptions of audience legitimacy. Recent studies indicate that media coverage of policing has increased officers' apprehension in the post-Ferguson era (Nix and Pickett 2017; Wolfe and Nix 2016). Indeed, this may explain why officers in some cities have become less proactive in recent years (Morgan and Pally 2016; Shjarback et al. 2017). This would be consistent with the dialogic model of police legitimacy: Officers perceive that hostile media coverage, because of its influence on the public and representation of its views, undermines police legitimacy and adjust their behaviors in response (Bottoms and Tankebe 2012). Thus, to the extent that media coverage influences officers' perceived audience legitimacy, it is likely also to affect officers' approach to policing.

At the same time, the broader social context may also shape officers' perceptions of audience legitimacy and subsequent behavioral responses. Research suggests officers use force more often in areas characterized by racial and economic inequality (Sorensen, Marquart, and Brock 1993), as well as in areas with higher rates of violence (Jacobs and Britt 1979; Jacobs and O'Brien 1998; Klinger et al. 2016). Perceived audience legitimacy might explain such ecological variation in police use of force. That is, community characteristics such as racial/ethnic heterogeneity and violent crime rates may shape officers' perceptions of audience legitimacy and, in turn, influence the occurrence of force. Violent crime rates and the size/growth of the minority population likely act as cognitive heuristics to officers, signaling the extent to which the community supports the police

(Moon and Zager 2007; Nix 2017b; Shjarback, Nix, and Wolfe 2018) and in turn influencing their policing style (Klinger 1997).

Unfortunately, we know little about the sources of perceived audience legitimacy among officers. This is an important research gap given the current state of affairs in the United States, where policing has been under the microscope for the last several years (Weitzer 2015). To advance the literature, we develop a theoretical model of the sources of audience legitimacy and test this model using two separate surveys conducted in 2018: the first with a sample of police officers from a large agency in a southern U.S. city ($N = 546$) and the second with a national probability sample of police executives ($N = 665$). Our findings suggest that perceived citizen animus and community violence are associated with perceived audience legitimacy, but minority population size and growth are not. Further, personal experience with citizen disrespect influences perceived audience legitimacy indirectly, through its direct association with global perceptions of citizen animus.

The Construct of Audience Legitimacy

Since Tyler's (1990) seminal study, audience legitimacy has received a great deal of attention in the criminological literature (e.g., Jackson et al. 2012; Mazerolle et al. 2013; McLean, Wolfe, and Pratt 2019; Wolfe et al. 2016). Yet, interestingly, scholars disagree on the conceptualization of legitimacy. On the one hand, Tyler (2003:310) contends that citizens' internal sense of obligation to obey authorities is "the most direct extension of the concept of legitimacy" and is strongly influenced by perceived fairness of authorities when exercising their power (see, e.g., Sunshine and Tyler 2003; Tyler 1990; Tyler and Huo 2002). On the other hand, Bottoms and Tankebe (2012) argue that obligation to obey cannot be equated to legitimacy, as people can feel compelled to obey authorities for reasons apart from legitimacy. For example, while perceived legitimacy undoubtedly causes some people to feel obligated to obey authorities, others might obey due to fear of the consequences of disobedience, while still others might feel powerless and see no realistic alternative to obedience (i.e., "dull compulsion," see Carrabine 2004:180). Given these possibilities, Tankebe (2013:105-106) argues that obligation to obey "can be considered a 'dependent variable,' sometimes explained by perceived legitimacy, and sometimes not . . . to the extent that legitimacy and obligation are conceptually distinct, conflating them can only obstruct efforts to understand both concepts." He maintains that legitimacy is comprised of three overarching

dimensions: lawfulness, shared values, and consent (see Beetham 1991; Coicaud 2002; Weber 1978).

Shared values can be further broken down into procedural fairness, distributive fairness, and effectiveness, according to Tankebe. Citing the "rise of universalism" (J. Q. Wilson 1993) in modern society, Tankebe (2013:111) argues there is a "shared aspiration in liberal democracies that citizens possess equal self-worth and dignity that should not be violated." In other words, fair treatment (in terms of procedures and the distribution of outcomes) is a normative value that must be shared by legitimate authorities and those subject to their power. Additionally, legitimate authorities must demonstrate effectiveness in dealing with crime and disorder so as to "satisfy the ends which justify [their] enormous concentration of power" (Beetham 1991:137). Although often considered an instrumental concern that factors into the legitimation of police, Tankebe (2013:112) considers effectiveness a "normative condition for their legitimacy" (see also Bottoms and Tankebe 2012:146-47). Based partly on the results of a confirmatory factor analysis of survey data from more than 4,000 Londoners, Tankebe (2013:125) submits that "what police researchers have persistently tended to use as predictors of legitimacy (procedural fairness, distributive fairness, lawfulness, and effectiveness) are rather the constituent parts of legitimacy" (see also Sun et al. 2018; Tankebe, Reisig, and Wang 2016). However, it bears clarifying these results do not confirm that this proposed four-dimensional construct represents legitimacy (see Jackson and Bradford 2019).

Despite the lack of consensus on what constitutes legitimacy, there is substantial agreement that procedural fairness, distributive fairness, lawfulness, and effectiveness are very closely related to audience legitimacy. That is, they are either legitimacy per se, as Tankebe (2013) claims, or they are the most important and proximate antecedents of legitimacy, as others claim (Jackson and Bradford 2019; Tyler 2003). We revisit this point in the Conclusion section, when we discuss the implications of our findings. In any event, the evidence accumulated to date suggests when citizens recognize police authority as legitimate (however measured), they are more likely to comply with officers during interactions and to abide by the law when the police are not present (see, e.g., Walters and Bolger 2018). When officers lack legitimacy, they must rely more on coercive tactics to achieve compliance.

Yet how do officers come to realize how much legitimacy they have (or do not have) in the eyes of citizens? As Bottoms and Tankebe (2012:129) point out, police legitimacy entails more than how citizens feel about the

police—it is a continuous and relational dialogue involving both police (as power holders) and citizens (as the audience to their power):

> [T]hose in power (or seeking power) in a given context make a claim to be the legitimate ruler(s); then members of the audience respond to this claim; the power-holder might adjust the nature of the claim in light of the audience's response; and this process repeats itself.

A crucial part of this ongoing dialogue—the decision whether to adjust their claim to legitimacy—results from officers' *perceived* audience legitimacy (or lack thereof). Relative to the large body of literature on police legitimacy from the citizen's perspective, very few studies have focused on police officers' perceptions of their audience legitimacy (Jonathan-Zamir and Harpaz 2014; Nix 2017b). Such perceptions appear to be significant. For example, officers who perceive greater audience legitimacy exhibit a greater willingness to exercise procedural justice with citizens (Jonathan-Zamir and Harpaz 2018) and, consistent with Bottoms and Tankebe's theory, have higher levels of self-legitimacy, which subsequently increases commitment to community partnerships (Wolfe and Nix 2016) and decreases reliance on coercive force to gain control over encounters (Tankebe and Meško 2015). Given such prosocial outcomes, research is needed that sheds light on the antecedents of perceived audience legitimacy.

Theorizing the Sources of Perceived Audience Legitimacy

What factors affect officers' perceptions of their audience legitimacy? The extant literature suggests several possibilities, including officers' perceptions of how they are treated by citizens and the media and the broader community context in which they work.

Experiences with Citizen Disrespect

Citizen disrespect communicates to officers that they are not viewed as legitimate. As Van Maanen (1978:316) observed, officers take it as an indication "that their position and authority in the interaction are not being taken seriously." Such a legitimacy challenge may partially explain why officers respond more punitively to disrespectful citizens (Van Maanen 1978; Westley 1970). Decades of research focused on the dynamics of police–citizen interactions demonstrates that officers are more likely to

arrest hostile and/or noncompliant citizens (Klinger 1994; Lundman 1974; Piliavin and Briar 1964; Worden and Shepard 1996) and use higher levels of force when citizens are physically resistant (Alpert and Dunham 2004; Terrill 2001). Disrespect by citizens also triggers other, less punitive behavioral responses from officers (Mastrofski, Reisig, and McCluskey 2002). For example, a pair of experiments by Nix and colleagues (2017) revealed that officers placed less importance on exercising procedural justice with disrespectful citizens. Similarly, Pickett and Nix (2019) showed that officers are more likely to support aggressive styles of policing if they believe citizens treat officers unfairly and disrespectfully. One potential explanation for findings such as these is that disrespect signals compromised legitimacy and that the encounter necessitates a more punitive response.

The effects of citizen disrespect likely extend beyond the interaction level and contribute to officers' general outlooks and expectations. Toch (1996:107) reminds us that repeated exposure to citizen disrespect can have a cumulative effect on officers, such that they can be seen as "composite[s] of the incidents in which [they have] been involved." Van Maanen (1978:311-15) similarly argued that the "experientially based meanings" that officers learn to ascribe to citizens are "sustained and continually reaffirmed through [their] everyday activity." Canteen talk provides additional opportunities for officers to be exposed vicariously to citizen disrespect, via their peers' experiences (Waddington 1999). As their direct and vicarious experiences with disrespectful treatment by citizens increases, officers' perceived audience legitimacy likely decreases, which may in turn influence their outlook and policing style. A recent study by Pickett and Ryon (2017) provides preliminary support for such a causal process. In their national survey, officer support for due process reforms in policing (e.g., early intervention systems, civilian oversight, sensitivity training) was significantly associated with the global belief that citizens are fair and respectful when interacting with officers. Perceived audience legitimacy is likely the key mechanism that would explain this relationship. Officers who believe citizens are generally fair and respectful toward the police likely believe they have greater legitimacy in the public eye and thus are not opposed to policing reforms meant to expand due process protections and citizen oversight.

Media Coverage of Law Enforcement

Another possible antecedent of perceived audience legitimacy is the extent to which officers believe the news media are hostile toward law enforcement. Communications studies suggest individuals frequently harbor

hostile media perceptions—the belief that media coverage is biased against their group (Hansen and Kim 2011; Rojas 2010; Vallone, Ross, and Leeper 1985). Moreover, individuals tend to believe the media influence other peoples' attitudes and behaviors (Paul, Salwen, and Dupagne 2000; Sun, Pan, and Shen 2008), which in turn exerts causal effects on their own attitudes and behaviors (Rojas 2010; Tal-Or et al. 2010).

In his classic survey of New York police officers, Niederhoffer (1967:234) found that the vast majority believed newspapers "seem to enjoy giving an unfavorable slant to news concerning the police, and prominently play up police misdeeds rather than virtues." Accurate or not, these attitudes persist today. In a survey of police officers at a southeastern U.S. agency, Nix and Pickett (2017) found that officers who felt the media were more hostile toward policing (i.e., negative, unfair, deceptive, unreliable) were more likely to think citizen distrust, noncompliance, and animus toward police had increased from 2014 to 2016. In a separate agency, Wolfe and Nix (2016) found that officers reported being less motivated as a result of negative publicity surrounding law enforcement post-Ferguson and expressed less desire to collaborate with their community to solve problems. Notably, both studies used coarse measures of media perceptions that did not distinguish local versus national media—but recent work suggests officers view local media as more impactful to their organization than national media (Matusiak 2019). We expect officers' perceptions of local media to be more consequential than their perceptions of national media, given local media's focus on stories closest to home and on the officers' agency specifically. Officers who believe the local media are hostile toward police are likely to believe this coverage undermines their legitimacy in the eyes of the local community (Crank and Langworthy 1992).

Violent Crime in the Local Community

Danger perception theory posits that officer aggression—namely, the use of force—is driven by real or perceived danger (Goldkamp 1976; Jacobs and Britt 1979). The extant literature generally supports this contention: Officers working in areas with higher rates of community violence tend to use nonlethal and lethal force more frequently (Fyfe 1980; Lee, Vaughn, and Lim 2014; Lim, Fridell, and Lee 2014; Terrill and Reisig 2003). Klinger and colleagues' (2016) analysis in St. Louis suggests the amount of firearm violence in a community predicts the use of lethal force by officers. In their study, the racial composition of neighborhoods did not have a direct relationship with officer-involved shootings, but it did have an indirect

relationship through its relationship with firearm violence. Neighborhoods with moderate levels of firearm violence experienced more officer-involved shootings; however, officers apparently stayed away from neighborhoods with the highest levels of firearm violence (see also Klinger 1997).

Officers' experiences working in violent communities may condition them to expect more citizen noncompliance, disrespect, and violence directed toward the police (M. R. Smith and Alpert 2007). The level of violent crime in a jurisdiction—to the extent that it is perceived by officers—likely serves as a partial indicator of the degree to which the public supports the police (Moon and Zager 2007; Nix 2017b). In other words, the violent crime rate is used as a cognitive heuristic when officers think about the level of legitimacy they garner from the public. Officers are likely to believe they have less legitimacy in areas with higher levels of violence and, in turn, police those areas more aggressively than places with less violence. Or, in areas with the highest levels of violence, officers may reason that their legitimacy has been entirely compromised and respond by depolicing. In any event, we expect crime rates, real or perceived, to be significantly associated with officers' perceptions of audience legitimacy independent of their direct experiences with citizen disrespect.

Minority Group Size and Growth

Non-White citizens generally express less confidence in and support of the police (Tuch and Weitzer 1997). Blacks' and Hispanics' confidence, in particular, has deteriorated since Ferguson (Norman 2017). Similar to our discussion of violent crime rates, community racial/ethnic composition also may be used by officers as a mental shortcut for estimating the level of legitimacy they possess in the eyes of the community. Officers working in predominantly Black/Hispanic neighborhoods may adopt a more aggressive approach to policing, reasoning that their compromised legitimacy in those neighborhoods generates noncompliance and a lack of cooperation among residents. Indeed, prior studies have found that racial composition is associated with such policing outcomes as arrest rates (Liska and Chamlin 1984; Liska, Chamlin, and Reed 1985) and the use of nonlethal and lethal force (Jacobs and O'Brien 1998; Lersch et al. 2008; Liska and Yu 1992; D. A. Smith 1986). Focusing on ethnic composition, Holmes, Painter, and Smith (2019) recently found a significant relationship between percent Hispanic and police-caused homicides of Hispanics across 230 cities. To date, however, we have no empirical evidence concerning whether the racial/ethnic composition of a community influences officers' perceived audience

legitimacy. If so, this could help clarify why such ecological factors are associated with officer behaviors.

Alternatively, the racial threat hypothesis posits that as the relative size of the minority population increases in an area, the majority group perceives greater threat—economic, political, cultural, or criminal—and in turn, the criminal justice system is used as a tool to suppress the minority population, thereby protecting the majority's status (Blalock 1967; Horowitz 1985). For instance, in areas where the size of the minority population is larger, White citizens are more fearful (Pickett et al. 2012), tend to be more supportive of punitive crime control policies (Baumer, Messner, and Rosenfeld 2003; King and Wheelock 2007), and exhibit greater empowerment of the police (Holmes et al. 2008; Stults and Baumer 2007). The community's racialized fears should be evident to police officers and perhaps factor into their judgments about the legitimacy they hold in the eyes of community members. As but one example, officers working in areas experiencing a recent growth in minority populations may sense increased fear of crime among White citizens, believing that it undermines their legitimacy in the eyes of those who comprise the majority of the community. If so, this could explain some of the relationships researchers have documented between population makeup (i.e., percent minority, change in percent minority) and various policing outcomes, like use of force (Sorensen et al. 1993), searches (Novak and Chamlin 2012), and misconduct (Kane 2002), among others.

Hypotheses and Current Focus

Based on our review of the literature, we tested the following hypotheses with our studies.

Hypothesis 1: Officers who have recently been disrespected by citizens will perceive lower levels of audience legitimacy.

Hypothesis 2: Officers who perceive greater citizen animus in general will perceive lower levels of audience legitimacy.

Hypothesis 3: Officers who believe local media are more hostile toward law enforcement will perceive lower levels of audience legitimacy.

Hypothesis 4: Officers who believe crime is increasing will perceive lower levels of audience legitimacy.

Hypothesis 5: Actual violent crime rates will be inversely associated with perceived audience legitimacy.

Hypothesis 6: In areas where the relative size of the minority population is larger or has grown recently, officers will perceive lower levels of audience legitimacy.

We tested these hypotheses with two samples of police officers—the first sample consisting of officers from a southern U.S. police department and the second study consisting of a national sample of police chief executives. It was necessary to examine the predictors of perceived audience legitimacy in different studies for several reasons. First, there is an ongoing debate regarding the conceptualization of audience legitimacy. Tyler (1990) argues that legitimacy is comprised of two elements: *trust* and *obligation to obey*. Alternatively, Tankebe (2013) contends that perceived obligation to obey the police is an outcome of legitimacy rather than a component of it. He argues that legitimacy is comprised of perceived police *procedural justice*, *distributive justice*, *lawfulness*, and *effectiveness* (see also Sun et al. 2018; Tankebe et al. 2016). Although we do not take a position on this debate, we are wary of the potential for mono-operation bias (Shadish, Cook, and Campbell 2002), and as such, believe it is important to ensure our results are robust to the measurement of legitimacy. Accordingly, study 1 uses a Tylerian measure of audience legitimacy comprised of trust and obligation to obey. Study 2, in contrast, operationalizes audience legitimacy in a manner consistent with Tankebe and colleagues' conceptualization.

Second, analyzing data from a single agency sample (study 1) allowed us to examine the relationship between officers' subjective perceptions of changes in their local crime rate on perceived audience legitimacy. Study 2, the national sample of chief executives, provided the opportunity to examine whether an objective measure of the crime rate had a similar effect on perceived audience legitimacy. These different operationalizations of crime allow us to assess the validity of our theoretical claims. Third, it is valuable to have empirical results from samples comprised of different types of police officers because it sheds light on whether the predictors of audience legitimacy are unique to a particular officer type (i.e., line level vs. executive), agency, jurisdiction type (e.g., population size, political climate), or U.S. region.

Study 1

Method

For our first study, we administered a survey to a large police department in a southern U.S. city. The city has a large population (>100,000) that is rapidly growing—having increased by approximately 17 percent from 2010 to 2016. Sixty-eight percent of its residents are White, 8 percent are Black, 6 percent are Asian, and the remainder belongs to some other race. One third of the population is of Hispanic or Latino decent. According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation's Uniform Crime Report (UCR), the overall violent crime rate in the metropolitan statistical area has increased slightly in recent years (from 2014 to 2016).

In January 2018, with the help of an executive lieutenant, we invited all 1,752 sworn employees to participate in an anonymous online survey. The executive lieutenant sent three reminder e-mails over the next two weeks, with the data collection period ending in early February. We used a self-administered web-based survey to minimize social desirability bias, although we knew it would likely yield a low response rate (Tourangeau, Conrad, and Couper 2013). Response rates to police surveys have declined over the past decade (Nix et al. 2019), and computerized surveys of police officers have tended to obtain low response rates: 21 percent (Donner, Fridell, and Jennings 2016), 25 percent (Skogan 2015), 28 percent (Reynolds and Helfers 2018), and "just over 30 percent" (Bradford and Quinton 2014:1032). Similar to this literature, 546 of the 1,752 officers invited to participate in our survey did so, resulting in a 31 percent response rate. We are not especially concerned about the response rate because the demographics of our sample closely resembled those of the agency and because we are able test the generalizability of the findings in a second survey.[1] There is also a weak relationship between response rates and nonresponse bias (Peytcheva 2013; Pickett et al. 2018).

Dependent Variable: Audience Legitimacy

We asked officers to indicate their level of agreement (1 = *strongly agree* to 5 = *strongly disagree*) with the following statements: "Most civilians feel an obligation to obey police officers," "Most civilians believe they should do what the police say, even if they disagree," and "Most civilians believe this department can be trusted to make decisions that are right for the people in their neighborhood." We reverse coded the items, so that higher scores indicated greater agreement and averaged responses to generate a mean

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Study 1—Southern Agency.

		Listwise Deletion		Multiple Imputation[a]			
Variable	*N*	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*[b]	Minimum	Maximum
Audience legitimacy	476	3.481	0.779	3.483	0.782	1	5
Recently disrespected	507	3.335	1.395	3.335	1.394	1	5
Citizen animus	521	3.418	0.659	3.419	0.660	1.571	5
Perceived crime trend	514	3.747	0.774	3.748	0.775	1	5
Male	446	0.901	—	0.900	—	0	1
White	446	0.673	—	0.673	—	0	1
Four-year degree	449	0.546	—	0.546	—	0	1
Years of experience	436	15.110	8.512	15.109	8.545	0	40
Police officer (reference)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Frontline supervisor	447	0.367	—	.373	—	0	1
Upper management	447	0.119	—	.118	—	0	1

[a]25 imputations, $N = 546$ for each variable. [b]Obtained via the "misum" command in Stata Version 15.

index, *audience legitimacy* ($\alpha = .87$). Descriptive statistics for all variables used in study 1 are presented in Table 1.

Predictor Variables

Recently disrespected. Our first predictor variable captured officers' direct experiences with citizen disrespect. We asked officers how many times civilians had done each of the following to them in the past year while they were on duty: (1) called you names, (2) treated you with disrespect, and (3) verbally abused you. Answer choices included 1 = *never*, 2 = *1–3 times*, 3 = *4–6 times*, 4 = *7–9 times*, and 5 = *10 or more times* (Weitzer and Tuch 2006). We averaged responses to these three questions to generate a mean index ($\alpha = .95$), with higher scores indicating more direct exposure to disrespectful citizens in the past year.

Citizen animus. Realizing that direct exposure to citizen disrespect accumulates over time (Toch 1996) and that officers may additionally be vicariously exposed to citizen disrespect, we measured respondents' global perceptions of how citizens treat police officers. We asked respondents to indicate their level of agreement (1 = *strongly agree* to 5 = *strongly*

disagree) with seven statements: (1) People often disrespect and insult the police, (2) People are normally polite when dealing with the police, (3) People treat police officers with dignity, (4) People treat the police worse than they treat other government employees, (5) People treat police officers unfairly, (6) People normally listen to the police before jumping to conclusions in incidents, and (7) People will ignore or walk away from the police when officers try to explain a situation (Pickett and Ryon 2017). Theoretically, officers' perceptions of citizen *behavior* are distinct from, and a cause of, their perceptions of audience legitimacy. Supporting this theoretical assumption, a promax-rotated factor analysis indicated that the animus items loaded onto a separate factor than the audience legitimacy items, with acceptable pattern loadings (see Online Appendix A). We averaged responses to the items to generate a mean index, *citizen animus* (α = .82), whereby higher scores reflect the global belief that citizens treat police officers disrespectfully and unfairly.[2]

Perceived crime trend. In this study, we use a perceptual measure of crime, but in study 2, we use an objective measure based on Federal Bureau of Investigation data. For study 1, we asked respondents the following question: "In your best judgment, has the overall crime rate in your city increased or decreased over the past three years?" Answer choices included 1 = *decreased greatly*, 2 = *decreased*, 3 = *stayed about the same*, 4 = *increased*, and 5 = *increased greatly*.

Controls

In our analyses, we controlled for officers' gender (1 = *male*), race/ethnicity (1 = *non-Hispanic White*), and education (1 = *four-year degree* or higher). In addition, we controlled for *years of experience* with a continuous variable and *rank* with two dummy variables, *frontline supervisor* (i.e., corporal or sergeant) and *upper management* (i.e., lieutenant, commander, assistant chief, or chief). *Police officer* is the reference category.

Analytic Strategy

Because the outcome (audience legitimacy) was a mean index that approximated a normally distributed continuous variable, we used ordinary least squares (OLS) regression equations to test Hypotheses 1, 2, and 4. Due to evidence of heteroscedasticity of error terms, we estimated our models using robust standard errors. Collinearity did not appear to be a problem.

All variance inflation factors (VIF) fell below 3.0 (mean VIF = 1.39), and all bivariate correlations were less than |.60| (Tabachnick and Fidell 2007). As is common in survey research, respondents sometimes skipped over questions, resulting in item-missing data for some of the variables in our analyses. To account for this, we used multiple imputation (*m* = 25; see, e.g., Allison 2002; McKnight et al. 2007; Rubin 1996). Multiple imputation avoids the bias that can be created by listwise deletion and helps maintain power by, for example, retaining respondents in the analysis who were missing a value for one item out of a larger scale (Sterne et al. 2009).[3] The mean of our dependent variable did not differ significantly between respondents with no item-missing data and respondents with missing data on one or more variables, suggesting our data satisfied the missing at random (MAR) assumption.[4] Finally, we meet the general recommendation to have at least 20 respondents per variable in our statistical models (Tabachnick and Fidell 2007), and our sample size is sufficient for having approximately 80 percent power to detect prespecified individual regression coefficients for medium-sized effects (Maxwell 2004).

Results

Before discussing our multivariate results, it is instructive to examine more closely the distributions of our dependent and predictor variables. *Audience legitimacy* ranged from 1 to 5 with a mean of 3.48 (*SD* = .78). Roughly 46 percent of respondents scored 4 or higher on this scale, indicating a large portion of the sample agreed citizens in their community trust the police and feel obligated to obey them. *Recently disrespected* ranged from 1 to 5 with a mean of 3.34 (*SD* = 1.40). On the one hand, 6.5 percent of the sample scored 1 on this scale—indicating they had never been called names, treated disrespectfully, or verbally abused while on duty in the past year. On the other hand, nearly 30 percent of the sample scored 5 on the scale, indicating frequently being disrespected while on duty. *Citizen animus* ranged from 1.57 to 5 with a mean of 3.42 (*SD* = .66). Roughly, 23 percent of the sample scored 4 or higher on this scale, indicating they agree citizens generally treat police badly. Finally, *perceived crime trend* ranged from 1 to 5 with a mean of 3.75 (*SD* = .77). Seventy percent of the sample believed crime had increased or increased greatly over the past three years, while 22 percent felt it had stayed about the same, and the remaining 8 percent felt it had decreased or decreased greatly.

Turning to our multivariate analyses, model 1 in Table 2 presents the results of an OLS model that regressed perceived audience legitimacy onto

Table 2. OLS Regression Models Predicting Perceived Audience Legitimacy (Study 1—Southern Agency, $N = 546$).

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
Variable	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*
Recently disrespected	−.154***	(.030)	—		—		−.053	(.032)
Citizen animus	—		−.464***	(.051)	—		−.394***	(.057)
Perceived crime trend	—		—		−.185***	(.046)	−.096*	(.042)
Male	.154	(.121)	.050	(.121)	.055	(.123)	.075	(.123)
White	.032	(.081)	.016	(.076)	−.016	(.081)	.017	(.075)
Four-year degree	.052	(.071)	.031	(.067)	.047	(.071)	.028	(.067)
Experience	.002	(.006)	.007	(.005)	.009	(.005)	.005	(.005)
Police officer (reference)	—		—		—		—	
Frontline supervisor	.112	(.086)	.128	(.082)	.225**	(.086)	.114	(.082)
Upper management	.215	(.129)	.234	(.120)	.371**	(.129)	.177	(.121)
Intercept	3.715***	(.189)	4.816***	(.226)	3.845***	(.239)	5.133***	(.281)
F test	8.88***		15.27***		7.32***		12.95***	
Adjusted R^2	.108		.201		.071		.213	

Note. Multiple imputation estimates ($m = 25$) using OLS regression are displayed. Entries are unstandardized regression coefficients (*b*) and robust standard errors (*SE*). OLS = ordinary least squares.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

recently disrespected and each of our control variables. Consistent with our first hypothesis, officers' recent experiences with citizen disrespect were significantly and inversely associated with their perceived audience legitimacy ($b = -.154$, $p < .001$). In model 2, we regressed perceived audience legitimacy onto citizen animus and the controls. The results supported our second hypothesis: citizen animus was strongly and inversely associated with perceived audience legitimacy ($b = -.464$, $p < .001$). Model 3 presents the results of an OLS model that regressed perceived audience legitimacy onto perceived crime trend along with the controls. The results are supportive of Hypothesis 4, indicating that perceived crime trend ($b = -.185$, $p < .001$) is significantly and inversely associated with perceived audience legitimacy. Rank was significant in this model as well, with frontline supervisors ($b = .225$, $p = .009$) and upper management ($b = .371$, $p = .005$) perceiving significantly higher levels of audience legitimacy.

In model 4 of Table 2, all three predictors were included in the regression equation, and the results provided further support for Hypothesis 2. Independent of their recent experiences with citizen disrespect and their perceptions of the crime trend, officers who perceived higher levels of citizen animus ($b = -.394$, $p < .001$) reported significantly lower levels of audience legitimacy. The direct effect of recent experience with citizen disrespect was reduced to nonsignificance, but perceived crime trend ($b = -.096$, $p = .023$) remained significantly and inversely associated with perceived audience legitimacy.

However, consistent with our theoretical discussion above, it is possible that officers' experience with citizen disrespect is one element in the accumulation of their views of citizen animus more generally. If so, citizen disrespect may be indirectly related to perceived audience legitimacy through perceptions of general citizen animus (Toch 1996). In other words, recent experiences with citizen disrespect may increase officers' global perceptions of citizen animus, which in turn shape perceived audience legitimacy. We tested for an indirect effect using a Sobel test with bootstrap confidence intervals (Hayes 2013; Zhao, Lynch, and Chen 2010). This analysis indicated that recent experience with citizen disrespect had a statistically significant indirect association with perceived audience legitimacy, through citizen animus ($b = -.088$, $p < .001$, 95 percent confidence interval [−.118, −.059]).[5] That is, officers' personal experiences with disrespect in the past year influenced their global assessments of how citizens tend to behave toward police, which in turn shaped their perceptions of whether the public sanctions their legal authority.

Study 2

Method

For our second study, we conducted a survey with a national probability sample of municipal police chiefs. Using the National Directory of Law Enforcement Administrators, we obtained the mailing addresses of 12,039 municipal police departments along with the names of their current police chief. We placed each of these departments into one of the four strata based on the number of officers they employed: 0–24, 25–49, 50–99, and 100 or more.[6] We then drew a random sample of 624 agencies from each stratum, resulting in a stratified random sample of 2,496 departments.

In February 2018, we prenotified the chiefs of each police department in our sample about the survey via a postcard, which informed them of the upcoming mail survey and provided a link to an online version if they preferred to take it at that time. One week later, we mailed the survey (along with a cover letter outlining the purpose of the study and their rights as research participants) to the chief of each department in our sample. Again, they were given the option to complete the survey online if they preferred. We then mailed surveys along with reminder letters to those who had yet to respond approximately two weeks later (Dillman et al. 2009). We received 675 surveys (369 by mail, 306 online) by the time data collection ended in mid-April, resulting a 27 percent response rate.[7] As noted previously, the best available evidence indicates survey response rate and nonresponse bias are only weakly correlated (Peytcheva 2013; Pickett et al. 2018). This evidence, coupled with other evidence that we discuss later, bolsters our confidence that this sample is representative of the population from which it was drawn.

Dependent Variable: Audience Legitimacy

There is an ongoing debate among criminologists about the proper conceptualization of legitimacy (Reisig, Bratton, and Gertz 2007; Tankebe 2013; Tyler and Jackson 2014). Most often, researchers have measured audience legitimacy similar to the way we did in study 1, as obligation to obey. However, Tankebe (2013) has proposed a four-dimensional construct consisting of procedural justice, distributive justice, lawfulness, and effectiveness. Mono-operation bias occurs when researchers assume that any one measure, like the *Audience Legitimacy* scale used in study 1, accurately taps

some broader theoretical concept, like audience legitimacy, but the findings actually differ depending on the specific measures used (Shadish et al. 2002). Given the aforementioned debate about legitimacy, in an effort to minimize mono-operation bias and threats to external validity, we used different survey questions to measure perceived audience legitimacy in this study, and surveyed a different sample. This second study also enabled us to examine potential relationships between our dependent variable and additional, theoretically germane variables. We asked respondents to indicate their agreement (1 = *strongly agree* to 5 = *strongly disagree*) with the following seven statements: *Most residents believe the police* . . . (1) are corrupt, (2) use rules and procedures that are fair to everyone, (3) clearly explain the reasons for their actions, (4) treat people with respect, (5) are biased against them, (6) do a good job tackling crime in the community, and (7) represent their values (Tankebe 2013; Tankebe et al. 2016). Exploratory factor analysis indicated the seven items loaded onto a single construct (see Online Appendix A). We coded responses so that higher scores reflected greater perceived *audience legitimacy* and averaged them to create a mean index ($\alpha = .76$). Descriptive statistics for each variable included in the analyses for study 2 are presented in Table 3.

Predictor Variables

Citizen animus. We asked respondents to indicate their level of agreement with the same seven statements used to measure citizen animus in study 1. As with study 1, factor analysis with promax rotation indicated the citizen animus and audience legitimacy questions loaded onto separate factors (see Online Appendix A). Accordingly, we coded items so that higher scores reflected greater perceived animosity of citizens and averaged them to generate a mean index, *citizen animus* ($\alpha = .81$).

Hostile media perceptions. According to Crank and Langworthy's (1992:339) institutional theory of policing, the media represent one of many actors in an institutional environment "on whom departments depend for legitimacy." While several studies have examined the impact of media coverage on officers' perceptions, our study goes beyond much of the existing research by measuring views about both national and local media (Nix and Pickett 2017). Per our theory, and prior work, perceptions of local media should be most important since agencies have stronger relationships with local news organizations and often lean on them to communicate with the public (Chermak and Weiss 2005; Surrette 2001). Matusiak (2019), for example, asked police

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for Weighted Variables (Study 2—National Sample).

		Listwise Deletion		Multiple Imputation[a]			
Variable	*N*	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*[b]	Minimum	Maximum
Audience legitimacy	654	3.938	0.457	3.935	0.458	1.857	5
Citizen animus	660	2.746	0.641	2.746	0.641	1	4.714
Hostile local media	655	2.359	0.707	2.362	0.710	1	5
Hostile national media	655	3.767	0.700	3.768	0.700	2	5
Violent crime rate[c]	589	5.057	1.228	5.065	1.223	0	7.939
%Black[c]	625	1.327	1.220	1.329	1.213	0	4.557
%Hispanic[c]	625	1.837	1.073	1.841	1.068	0	4.550
Change %Black[c]	624	2.825	0.249	2.825	0.248	0.483	3.885
Change %Hispanic[c]	624	2.525	0.345	2.527	0.344	1.014	4.417
Chief	657	0.853	—	0.851	—	0	1
Years of experience	632	27.366	9.174	27.388	9.143	3	50
Master's degree	630	0.267	—	0.271	—	0	1
Large agency	665	0.054	—	0.054	—	0	1
White male	618	0.865	—	0.862	—	0	1
South (reference)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Northeast	657	0.268	—	0.267	—	0	1
Midwest	657	0.368	—	0.368	—	0	1
West	657	0.158	—	0.158	—	0	1
Population size[c]	625	8.615	1.407	8.647	1.407	4.836	14.622
Unemployment rate[c]	626	1.995	.529	1.994	0.523	0	3.339
%Trump voters	631	53.919	16.081	53.690	16.085	8.405	89.335

Note. OLS = ordinary least squares.
[a]25 imputations, *N* = 665 for each variable. [b]Obtained via the "misum" command in Stata 15.
[c]Natural log transformation.

chiefs in Texas how impactful 26 stakeholders—including national and local media—were to their organization (0 = *not important at all* to 5 = *extreme importance*). The sample rated local media's impact as more important than national media (means = 3.82 and 1.59, respectively). In multivariate analyses, local media perceptions were inversely associated, whereas national media perceptions were positively associated, with the organizational goal of prioritizing law and order (see also Matusiak, King, and Maguire 2017).

We asked respondents to consider how the media portrays law enforcement, both nationally and locally. They were asked whether "NATIONAL MEDIA COVERAGE of law enforcement" is (1) positive or negative, (2) fair or unfair, (3) truthful or untruthful, and (4) reliable or unreliable. For

each question, respondents were asked to answer on a four-point item-specific response scale (e.g., 1 = *very positive*, 2 = *positive*, 3 = *negative*, and 4 = *very negative*). We then presented respondents with the same set of questions as they pertained to "LOCAL MEDIA COVERAGE of their agency." Responses to these eight items loaded onto two factors with acceptable loadings (national media = .75-.83, local media = .84-.86). As such, we created two mean indexes, *hostile national media* (α = .88) and *hostile local media* (α = .93), wherein higher scores reflect a belief that media coverage of the police is more hostile.

Average violent crime rate. Using UCR data, we calculated each jurisdiction's average violent crime rate from 2014 to 2016.[8] For each year, we divided the total number of murders and nonnegligent manslaughters, rapes, robberies, and aggravated assaults in each jurisdiction by its reported population and multiplied by 100,000. Similar to previous studies (Baumer et al. 2003), we averaged these annual rates to create a three-year *average violent crime rate*, which ranged from 0 to 2,802 violent crimes per 100,000 citizens (mean = 349). In order to reduce the right skew of this variable, we used its natural log in our analyses.

Minority presence. We used data from the 2016 American Community Survey's (ACS) 5-year estimates to calculate the percentage of each city's population who identified as (1) Black or African American alone or (2) Hispanic or Latino (of any race). Percent Black ranged from 0 to 94.32 (mean = 11.79) and percent Hispanic ranged from 0 to 93.66 (mean = 14.02). Both variables were right skewed, so we again used natural log transformations to normalize the distributions. The transformed versions of *%Black* and *%Hispanic* served as predictors in our analyses. We also obtained estimates of each city's racial/ethnic makeup from the 2,000 decennial census in order to calculate absolute changes in %Black and %Hispanic from 2000 to 2016. *Change %Black* ranged from −14.38 to 32.65 with a mean of 1.60. *Change %Hispanic* ranged from −7.24 to 72.88 with a mean of 4.35. Both variables were skewed, so we used their natural log transformations in our analyses.

Controls

We controlled for several respondent/agency characteristics in our models. We controlled for rank with a binary variable (1 = *chief*, 0 = *other*), as some surveys were completed by an officer other than the chief.[9] We also

controlled for respondents' *years of experience* with a continuous variable and their level of education with a binary variable (1 = *master's degree or higher*, 0 = *less than master's degree*), as there is evidence that each is associated with cynicism/distrust of citizens (Paoline, Myers, and Worden 2000; Shjarback et al. 2018; Sobol 2010). In addition, we controlled for the size of the respondent's department, since chiefs of small departments are generally more accessible to the public (Brown 1981) and may enjoy a more informal relationship with citizens (Kowalewski et al. 1984). Chiefs of larger departments, meanwhile, tend to be more cynical of their communities (Regoli et al. 1989). We defined departments with 100 or more officers as a *large agency* (1 = *yes*, 0 = *no*). Although limited, there is evidence of a possible relationship between perceived audience legitimacy and officer race, gender, or the interaction of the two (Gau and Paoline 2017; Paoline et al. 2000; Worden 1993). Most of our sample reported being non-Hispanic White (89 percent) and male (94 percent). The small number of non-Whites and females would make resulting regression coefficients for separate binary control variables unstable. Therefore, we elected to control for race and gender with a single binary variable, *White male* (1 = *yes*, 0 = *no*).

We controlled for various community characteristics as well. Prior research has uncovered regional variation in terms of the danger officers face on the job, as measured by assaults (S. Wilson and Zhao 2008) and felonious killings of officers (Kaminski 2008). Such incidents are more prevalent in the southern United States, so it is plausible officers working in the South may perceive lower levels of audience legitimacy than do their counterparts from other regions. Region is measured with three dummy variables: *Northeast, Midwest*, and *West* (*South* is the reference group).[10] Similarly, large cities and those with higher levels of unemployment tend to experience higher levels of crime, making it necessary to control for these factors as well (Chiricos 1987; Nolan 2004; Phillips and Land 2012). The *population size* and *unemployment rate* of each department's city were obtained from 2016 ACS's 5-year estimates. Population size ranged from 126 to 2.2 million with a mean of approximately 63,000. Unemployment rate ranged from 0 percent to 27.2 percent with a mean of 7.47 percent. Both were highly skewed, so we used their natural log transformations as control variables in our models. Finally, studies suggest political conservatism is associated with various attitudes toward police including support for the use of force (Gerber and Jackson 2017; Silver and Pickett 2015), militarization (Moule, Fox, and Parry 2019), and overall confidence in police (Cao, Stack, and Sun 1998). By extension, a jurisdiction's political climate might

influence officers' perceptions of their audience legitimacy. Therefore, we controlled for the percentage of the county that voted for Donald Trump in 2016 as a measure of the local political climate (Leip 2018).

Analytic Strategy

Prior to analysis, we weighted the sample in order to account for the sampling design, which oversampled larger departments. As in study 1, our outcome variable was a mean scale that approximated a normally distributed continuous variable. Accordingly, we used OLS regression to test Hypotheses 2–6. Due to evidence of heteroscedasticity, we estimated models using robust standard errors. Collinearity did not appear to be a problem in any of the models. All VIFs fell below 3.0 (mean VIF $= 1.77$), and none of the bivariate correlations exceeded $|.70|$ (Tabachnick and Fidell 2007). As in study 1, we used multiple imputation ($m = 25$) to account for item-missing data (McKnight et al. 2007).[11] Again, respondents with complete data and those with missing data on one or more variables were not significantly different in terms of their mean *audience legitimacy*, suggesting we met the MAR assumption.[12] The number of subjects per variable in each of our regression models well exceeds 20, and our sample size is sufficient for 80 percent power to detect prespecified individual regression coefficients for medium-sized effects (Maxwell 2004; Tabachnick and Fidell 2007).

Results

Fifty-seven percent of this sample scored 4 or higher on *audience legitimacy* (mean $= 3.94$, $SD = .46$), indicating the majority felt their communities believe police treat people fairly, act lawfully, and deal with crime effectively. *Citizen animus* ranged from 1 to 4.71 with a mean of 2.75 ($SD =$ .64). Just 2 percent of the sample scored 4 or higher on this scale. Indeed, compared to officers employed at the southern agency surveyed in study 1 (mean $= 3.42$, $SD = .66$), this sample of executives expressed significantly lower perceptions of citizen animus ($t = -17.67$, $p < .001$). *Hostile local media* ranged from 1 to 5 with a mean of 2.36 ($SD = .71$), whereas *hostile national media* ranged from 2 to 5 with a mean of 3.77 ($SD = .70$). The difference in means is statistically significant ($t = -39.72$, $p < .001$) and indicates respondents generally believe national media coverage of policing is more negative, unfair, untruthful, and unreliable than local media coverage of their agency, specifically. To be sure, just 5 percent of the sample

scored 4 or higher on *hostile local media*, whereas nearly 47 percent scored 4 or higher on *hostile national media*.

Table 4 presents the results of our multivariate analyses. In model 1, we regressed perceived audience legitimacy onto citizen animus along with the control variables. Supporting Hypothesis 2, citizen animus ($b = -.297$, $p < .001$) was significantly and inversely associated with perceived audience legitimacy. Population size ($b = -.050$, $p = .046$) and the unemployment rate ($b = -.147$, $p = .011$) were also significant, such that executives working in larger cities, and cities with higher levels of unemployment, perceived lower levels of audience legitimacy. In model 2, we regressed audience legitimacy onto hostile local and national media perceptions, as well as the controls. The results supported our third hypothesis, in that greater perceived hostility of the *local media* ($b = -.170$, $p < .001$) was inversely associated with perceived audience legitimacy. Perceived hostility of the national media was nonsignificant. Unemployment rate ($b = -.202$, $p = .003$) was again significantly associated with perceived audience legitimacy.

Model 3 of Table 4 presents the results of an OLS model that regressed audience legitimacy onto violent crime rate and the controls. The violent crime rate ($b = -.060$, $p = .018$) was significantly and inversely associated with perceived audience legitimacy, consistent with our fifth hypothesis. The unemployment rate again had an inverse relationship with perceived audience legitimacy, but the relationship was not statistically significant ($b = -.142$, $p = .053$). In model 4, we regressed perceived audience legitimacy onto our minority presence measures, along with the controls. Percent Black was statistically significant ($b = -.064$, $p = .030$), such that executives working in cities with a larger percentage of Black residents perceived lower levels of audience legitimacy. This provides partial support for our sixth hypothesis, and it is worth noting that this effect was significant independent of variation in unemployment rate (which was itself significant: $b = -.156$, $p = .020$). However, percent Hispanic was nonsignificant, as were changes in the percentage of the Black and Hispanic populations.

Model 5 of Table 4 presents the results of an OLS model that regressed perceived audience legitimacy onto all of our predictor and control variables. The model provided further support for our second, third, and fifth hypotheses. Citizen animus ($b = -.275$, $p < .001$), hostile local media ($b = -.098$, $p = .045$), and violent crime rate ($b = -.058$, $p = .020$) were each significantly and inversely associated with perceived audience legitimacy. Percent Black was rendered nonsignificant by the inclusion of these other predictors.

Table 4. OLS Regression Models Predicting Perceived Audience Legitimacy (Study 2—National Sample, $N = 665$).

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5	
Variable	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*
Citizen animus	−.297***	(.056)	—		—		—		−.275***	(.057)
Hostile local media	—		−.170***	(.051)	—		—		−.098*	(.049)
Hostile national media	—		.026	(.037)	—		—		.063	(.037)
Violent crime rate[a]	—		—		−.060*	(.025)	—		−.058*	(.025)
%Black[a]	—		—		—		−.064*	(.029)	−.028	(.027)
%Hispanic[a]	—		—		—		−.002	(.041)	.024	(.037)
Change %Black[a]	—		—		—		.144	(.125)	.125	(.106)
Change %Hispanic[a]	—		—		—		.016	(.104)	−.107	(.093)
Chief	.177	(.100)	.159	(.100)	.185	(.119)	.188	(.116)	.185*	(.089)
Years of experience	.003	(.004)	.005	(.004)	.006	(.004)	.005	(.004)	.003	(.003)
Master's degree	.075	(.052)	.088	(.055)	.054	(.055)	.067	(.054)	.063	(.050)
Large agency	.084	(.068)	.038	(.072)	.026	(.073)	.018	(.070)	.095	(.066)
White male	−.046	(.063)	−.065	(.066)	−.043	(.071)	−.036	(.070)	−.072	(.062)
South (Reference)	—		—		—		—		—	
Northeast	−.114	(.085)	−.164	(.099)	−.200	(.103)	−.257*	(.111)	−.148	(.093)
Midwest	−.047	(.074)	−.069	(.085)	−.092	(.086)	−.155	(.088)	−.072	(.077)
West	−.045	(.082)	−.051	(.096)	−.048	(.095)	−.153	(.109)	−.153	(.093)
Population size[a]	−.050*	(.025)	−.030	(.027)	−.016	(.030)	−.013	(.031)	−.026	(.027)
Unemployment rate[a]	−.147*	(.058)	−.202**	(.067)	−.142	(.073)	−.156*	(.067)	−.074	(.062)
%Trump voters	−.001	(.002)	−.004	(.003)	−.002	(.003)	−.003	(.003)	−.002	(.002)
Intercept	5.355***	(.355)	4.934***	(.405)	4.573***	(.385)	4.055***	(.546)	5.279***	(.497)
F test	6.19***		4.06***		3.48***		3.18**		5.48***	
Adjusted R^2	.264		.170		.128		.120		.306	

Note. Multiple imputation estimates ($m = 25$) using OLS regression are displayed. Entries are unstandardized regression coefficients (*b*) and robust standard errors (*SE*). OLS = ordinary least squares.

[a]Natural log transformation.

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Discussion

Police officer behaviors have far-reaching impacts on their own lives, the lives of citizens, and the communities they are entrusted to protect (McLean et al. 2019). While most officer behaviors are beneficial to the public, some officer actions rise to the level of misconduct or complacency that can inhibit the fulfillment of public safety or directly harm citizens and officers. Therefore, it is necessary to gain solid understanding of the factors that shape line-level officers' attitudes and behaviors, as well as those of higher ranking officers. Perceived audience legitimacy—the extent to which officers believe the public views them as a legitimate authority—has recently emerged as an important predictor of numerous police-related outcomes. When officers believe the public trusts the police, defers to their power, and sanctions their authority, it provides the feeling of empowerment and confidence. In turn, officers who believe the public affords them more legitimacy are more likely to using democratic styles of policing and, ultimately, use force less frequently (Jonathan-Zamir and Harpaz 2018; Tankebe and Meško 2015). Accordingly, we need to know what factors are associated with officers' perceptions of audience legitimacy. Not only will this provide a deeper understanding of the dynamics of audience legitimacy, it may also allow us to understand more fully why certain factors produce favorable or unfavorable officer behaviors. Our studies addressed these issues and, in this final section of the article, we discuss the main findings and their theoretical and practical significance.

Citizen animus was strongly associated with perceived audience legitimacy in both of our studies. Patrol officers and executives who believed citizens, in general, display greater disrespect toward the police felt the public affords the police less legitimacy. This is not terribly surprising but, nonetheless, the finding adds to the broader literature on the dialogic model of legitimacy (Bottoms and Tankebe 2012). What is more interesting, however, is that in study 1 we found that officers who had more recent exposure to disrespectful citizens had lower perceived audience legitimacy, but this relationship was rendered statistically nonsignificant once we controlled for officers' global views of citizen animus. Further analysis revealed that citizen animus mediated the effects of personal experience with disrespectful citizens. This suggests that direct citizen disrespect increases officers' global belief that members of the public tend to be disrespectful toward the police, which subsequently diminishes their perceptions of audience legitimacy.

These findings inform our broader understanding of the development and effects of cynical orientations toward the public among police. The direct experience of disrespect likely has a cumulative effect and shapes officers' opinions regarding citizens' intentions, demeanors, and levels of cooperation (Niederhoffer 1967; Toch 1996). Our studies extend this literature by suggesting that officers' global perceptions of citizen animus contribute to a cynical outlook in general and lead them to believe the public does not afford them legitimacy. This finding has important consequences for how officers may interact with the public. Perceived lack of audience legitimacy will tend to make officers less likely to use democratic styles of policing (e.g., use procedural justice) and more likely to use force (Bradford and Quinton 2014; Tankebe and Meško 2015). Similarly, if "the organizational culture of police departments is shaped by the values articulated by their leaders" (Tyler 2011:261), agencies led by executives who perceive low levels of audience legitimacy may be less likely to engage with their community or listen to their concerns. For example, in Oregon, two sheriffs have recently directed their deputies to stop responding to calls for service inside Portland city limits, citing a "hostile environment" created by residents and politicians (Sparling 2019). In other words, direct and vicarious experiences with citizen disrespect produce more cynical global views about citizens' behavioral tendencies toward police and, in turn, diminish perceptions of audience legitimacy, which may lead to less desirable police behaviors.

In study 2, we found that hostile local media coverage of the police reduces perceptions of audience legitimacy. This suggests that local media may serve as a symbolic representative of the public in the eyes of management-level police officers. With this finding, we see that local media coverage of the police has implications for how executives feel and behave. Negative media coverage, while warranted in some situations, may further alienate the police from citizens and lead to behavioral adaptations like depolicing or, the opposite, more aggressive law enforcement (Shjarback et al. 2018) if their attitudes transfer to the rest of their agencies (Tyler 2011). In fact, the trickle-down model, which has been supported by a long line of organizational behavior research, would anticipate such a process (Mayer et al. 2009). The good news is twofold. First, this finding also suggests that *positive* media coverage of the police may improve executives' views of citizen behavior and audience legitimacy. Second, we found that executives' perceptions of hostile *national-level* media coverage of policing did not significantly affect their views concerning the amount of legitimacy their local community affords them. This suggests that the

intense scrutiny of the police across the United States may not necessarily have adverse effects on police attitudes and behaviors as much as we may have thought (Nix and Pickett 2017; Wolfe and Nix 2016). Indeed, policing is a local activity; our evidence suggests executives have the ability to separate other jurisdictions' animosity toward the police from their own.

At the outset of these studies, we argued that officers' experiences with citizen disrespect, cumulatively developed global views of citizen animus, and opinions of local media coverage were key explanatory variables of perceived audience legitimacy. Our findings supported this argument. Yet we also contended that officers' working environments play an important role in this process, consistent with danger perception theory. Much of the extant literature has tested danger perception theory with objective indicators of crime (e.g., levels of community violence) rather than perceived levels of danger. Accordingly, in study 1, we measured officers' perceptions of the crime trend in their jurisdiction. Officers who believed the crime rate had increased recently were less likely to believe the public views the police as a legitimate authority. Study 2 confirmed this relationship with management-level officers and by using an objective indicator of crime rate. We showed that executives who worked in areas with higher violent crime rates perceived less audience legitimacy, independent of their own views concerning citizen animus or hostile media coverage. This finding is consistent with prior studies that have tested danger perception theory and, coupled with findings from study 1, suggests future research on the topic of audience legitimacy can utilize perceived or objective indicators of danger, as each yielded similar findings.

The observed relationships between real/perceived crime and audience legitimacy also improve our understanding of the dialogic model—local policing context matters because it serves as a cognitive heuristic when considering how much legitimacy the public affords the police. This mental shortcut is likely based in reality because communities with higher crime rates have higher rates of assaults on officers and lower levels of citizen cooperation (Kaminski, Jefferis, and Gu 2003; Kaminski and Sorensen 1995). Coupled with Shjarback, Nix, and Wolfe's (2018) recent findings, the literature now provides compelling evidence that violent crime rates shape executives' psychological orientations toward the public by increasing views of citizen animus, decreasing feelings of legitimacy from the public, and inhibiting confidence that the public will cooperate with officers. Such factors may prove to be important causal mechanisms that explain the long-established connection between community structural characteristics and neighborhood-level variation in officer use of force

(Shjarback 2018). Accordingly, the most pressing issue for future research aiming to build on our findings is to determine the extent to which officers' perceptions of audience legitimacy mediate the link between violent crime rate (and other structural characteristics) and police use of force (and other important outcomes). We were limited in our ability to explore this full process because measuring officer use of force (or other potentially controversial outcomes) with survey methodologies is difficult. We hope our analyses motivate future research that connects survey data (e.g., regarding perceptions of audience legitimacy) with official, line-level officer data.

Finally, we argued that the racial/ethnic makeup of a community also would serve as a cognitive heuristic for executives when thinking about how much legitimacy the public affords the police. The logic behind this argument was that because minorities have more negative views of the police (Carr, Napolitano, and Keating 2007; Decker 1981; Tyler 2005), executives would perceive less audience legitimacy in jurisdictions with larger or growing minority populations. In a truncated model, we saw that the percentage of the population that was Black was associated with less perceived audience legitimacy, but this effect was diminished (to nonsignificance) by the inclusion of perceived citizen animus, hostile media coverage, and violent crime rate. This suggests that the racial/ethnic makeup of a community is much less salient to executives when they assess the level of support they have from the public. Experience with citizen disrespect, perceived hostility of local media, and high violent crime levels are what appear to undermine perceived audience legitimacy. In some respects, we view this as an encouraging finding because many narratives suggest that breakdowns in police-community relations emanate from racial/ethnic animosity. At least in our studies, this does not necessarily appear to be the case when considering officers' and executive officers' opinions.

While these findings add to the literature, it is important to acknowledge the limitations of our analyses. First, we employed an alternative measure of perceived audience legitimacy in study 2: a four-dimensional construct comprised of perceived procedural justice, distributive justice, lawfulness, and effectiveness in the eyes of the public. This is consistent with Tankebe's (2013) theoretical reasoning, which derived from prior work by Weber (1978), Beetham (1991), and Coicaud (2002). Our motivation for using this alternative measure was not to pick a side in the debate about the appropriate conceptualization of legitimacy, but rather to be thorough. Indeed, to employ one set of measures, but not the other, would amount to picking a side in the absence of empirical evidence. As Jackson and Bradford (2019) pointed out, Tankebe's (2013) analyses cannot be cited as evidence that his

proposed conceptualization is more preferable than those who adopt the view that legitimacy is comprised of feelings of trust in and obligation to obey authorities. To be sure, "legitimacy is an abstract and unobservable psychological construct, and there are numerous ways to operationalise the perceived right to power, aside from the standard ways of institutional trust and/or normative alignment and/or obligation to obey" (Jackson and Bradford 2019:22-23). Our supplemental analyses revealed that citizen animus was significantly and inversely associated with procedural justice, distributive justice, lawfulness, and effectiveness (see Online Appendix C). If we assume that legitimacy is best conceptualized as trust in the police and felt obligation to obey them, these findings suggest the effect of citizen animus on perceived audience legitimacy is slightly more distal and may operate indirectly through its effect on perceived procedural justice, distributive justice, lawfulness, and/or effectiveness in the eyes of the public. Unfortunately, we could not test for this possibility, but we hope that future studies will endeavor to do so. In any event, Jackson and Bradford (2019:22) submit that "there is space for alternative approaches to measuring legitimacy," and we concur. However, our studies cannot speak to which approach is superior.

Second, our contextual indicators were city-level measures that cannot account for neighborhood heterogeneity, which could result in aggregation bias. Again, we hope future research builds on our findings by examining similar issues at the neighborhood level, particularly because police attitudes and behaviors can vary within patrol districts, squads, and shifts (Klinger 1997). Third, the mediation analysis we conducted in study 1 suggests that officers' recent experiences with disrespectful citizens were indirectly associated with perceived audience legitimacy, through their direct effect on global perceptions of citizen animus. Although consistent with prior observations (Toch 1996; Van Maanen 1978), it is also possible that officers' perceptions of citizen animus influence the way citizen interactions unfold and are interpreted by officers. For example, an officer who perceives higher levels of citizen animus may police more aggressively (Pickett and Nix 2019), which could anger citizens and prompt them to curse at the officer, call him or her names, or exhibit otherwise disrespectful behaviors. In the case of this officer, experiences with citizens being disrespectful might be the more proximate predictor of perceived audience legitimacy, as opposed to his or her global perceptions of citizen animus. As our data were cross sectional, we cannot rule out this possibility.

Finally, the response rates in both studies were low, creating the potential for nonresponse bias. There is meta-analytic evidence from surveys of

different populations (voters, employees, hospital patients) that response rates are weakly correlated with nonresponse bias (Groves and Peytcheva 2008), but maybe it is different for police surveys. No evidence exists that it is, but it is possible. Nonresponse biases regression coefficients only when it induces a correlation between the regressors and the error term—that is, when the outcome causes nonresponse, or when the list of regressors excludes common causes of both nonresponse and the outcome (Solon, Haider, and Wooldridge 2015; Winship and Radbill 1994). We have no reason to believe this occurred in either study. The response distributions to several other questions on our surveys closely align with those elicited from similar questions on larger, nationally representative surveys conducted by the National Police Research Platform (Morin et al. 2017) and the Bureau of Justice Statistics (Hyland 2018).[13] This boosts our confidence that the results are unbiased. Further supplementary analyses (see Online Appendix C) support this assumption and suggest that even if there is substantial nonresponse bias (an outcome-nonresponse correlation exceeding $r = |.50|$), the main substantive findings are unlikely to change. Nevertheless, future research should replicate our studies using data from police surveys with higher response rates.

In the end, our studies revealed that officers' experience with citizen disrespect, global views of citizen animus, perceptions of hostile local media coverage, and the local violent crime rate are central predictors of the extent to which they believe the public views them as a legitimate authority. These findings are important in their own right, but even more so when we consider the possibility of audience legitimacy explaining the relationships between other variables and officer behaviors. For example, citizen demeanor and community context (e.g., violent crime rate) each predict officer behaviors such as the use of force. Our studies demonstrate these same factors are key predictors of audience legitimacy. Thus, audience legitimacy may be a key intervening mechanism. We hope future research attempts to explore this possibility.

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Supplemental Material

Supplemental material for this article is available online.

Notes

1. In terms of gender and race, 90 percent of respondents were male (vs. 90 percent of the agency), and 67 percent were White non-Hispanics (vs. 69 percent of the agency). In terms of age, 17 percent of the sample were 50 or older (vs. 14 percent of the agency), 44 percent were in their 40s (vs. 40 percent of the agency), 32 percent were in their 30s (vs. 36 percent of the agency), and 7 percent were in their 20s (vs. 11 percent of the agency).
2. As noted by a reviewer, *citizen animus* and *recently disrespected* are conceptually similar. There is a moderate bivariate correlation between the two scales ($r = .46$; see Online Appendix B, Table B1), but factor analysis (with promax rotation) indicated the individual items used to construct each scale load on separate factors. The full pattern matrix for this analysis is available on request.
3. We obtained substantively similar results using listwise deletion (available on request).
4. "Complete data" group mean = 3.496 versus "Some missing data" group mean = 3.359 ($t = 1.180$, $p = .24$).
5. Full results are available on request.
6. The Bureau of Justice Statistics utilizes a similar sampling strategy (i.e., stratifying by agency size) for its *Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics* survey (see also Strom and Hickman 2010).
7. We removed 10 of the 675 respondents because 1 worked for a sheriff's department, 1 worked for a village department that contracts with its state police force, and 8 failed to provide enough information for us to determine which stratum from which they were sampled.
8. At the time of this writing, the 2017 Uniform Crime Report (UCR) had not yet been published.
9. Approximately 27 percent of respondents were not the chief of their department. However, the majority of these (over 80 percent) were lieutenants, majors, commanders, deputy chiefs, or other high-ranking officers.

10. Regions were defined as they are in the UCR.
11. As in study 1, results using listwise deletion were substantively similar (available on request).
12. "Complete data" group mean = 3.932 versus "Some missing" group mean = 3.866 ($t = 1.483$, $p = .14$).
13. As one example, 63 percent of the sample we surveyed as part of study 1 *supported* or *strongly supported* wearing body worn cameras, compared with 66 percent who reported being *in favor* on the National Police Research Platform survey (Morin et al. 2017). Similarly, we asked the sample surveyed in study 2 whether their agency was currently using body worn cameras. Forty-seven percent responded "yes," compared with 48 percent who answered yes on the 2016 *Law Enforcement Management and Administrative Statistics* survey administered by the Bureau of Justice Statistics (Hyland 2018).

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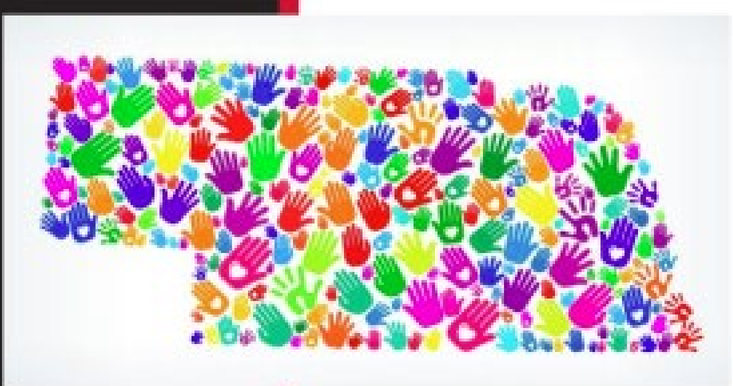
COLLEGE OF PUBLIC AFFAIRS AND COMMUNITY SERVICE
SCHOOL OF CRIMINOLOGY AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE

The State of Nonprofit Advocacy in Nebraska:

Findings from the
2018 Nebraska Nonprofit Advocacy Survey



NOVEMBER 2019

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The College has become a national leader among similar colleges, with nine programs ranked in the top 25 in the nation. Our faculty ranks are among the finest in their disciplines. Faculty, staff, and students are integral to the community and state because of our applied research, service learning, and community partnerships. We take our duty seriously to help address social needs and craft solutions to local, state, and national problems. For more information, visit our website: cpacs.unomaha.edu

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The State of Nonprofit Advocacy in Nebraska:

Findings from the 2018 Nebraska Nonprofit Advocacy Survey

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November 2019

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STUDY OVERVIEW

Without the involvement of nonprofit organizations in the policymaking process, the populations nonprofits serve are left without effective representation. By giving input to the process of developing public policies, nonprofit organizations not only protect the wellbeing of their clients, but also reach beyond assistance to promote economic and social justice, strengthen democracy and equality of opportunities, and enhance civic participation in order to promote a collective goal or interest.

In 2018, the University of Nebraska Omaha's School of Public Administration partnered with the Coalition for a Strong Nebraska and the Nonprofit Association of the Midlands to survey 148 Nebraska nonprofit leaders and 41 state-level policymakers to understand current nonprofit advocacy knowledge and trends in the state.

This research showed that many nonprofit staff and policymakers lack knowledge about nonprofit lobbying rules. There also is divergent thought between which lobbying activities Nebraska nonprofits currently use and the type of lobbying activities policymakers think are most effective.

NONPROFIT AND POLICYMAKER ADVOCACY AND LOBBYING KNOWLEDGE

Nonprofits and policymakers were given a list of seven statements about legal advocacy and lobbying rights. The table to the right provides a snapshot of each of the statements along with the percentage of respondents who selected the right answer.

As seen in the table, misconceptions exist around the role nonprofits can play in advocacy and lobbying in Nebraska, suggesting the need for an increase in statewide education.

For example, only 47% of nonprofit leaders understood that they could lobby if part of their budget comes from government funds, but 76% understood that they could not use those government funds to lobby.

Additionally, only 35% of policymakers understood that 501(c)(3) nonprofit organizations cannot endorse a candidate or elected official about policy matters.

	PERCENT WITH CORRECT ANSWER		
	Nonprofits	Policymakers	CORRECT ANSWER
Support or oppose legislation under current IRS regulations	64%	75%	YES
Take a policy position without reference to a piece of legislation, a bill, etc.	76%	78%	YES
Support or oppose regulations	75%	83%	YES
Lobby if part of your budget comes from government funds	47%	60%	YES
Use government funds to lobby	76%	65%	NO
Endorse a candidate or elected official about policy matters	74%	35%	NO
Sponsor a forum or candidate debate for elected office	44%	80%	YES

WHAT NONPROFIT ACTIVITIES ARE THE MOST EFFECTIVE FOR POLICY CHANGE?

Nonprofit organizations frequently engage in advocacy activities, but it is often unclear which activities are the most effective for policy change. In this survey, nonprofit leaders were given a list of advocacy activities and asked to share how frequently they engaged in these activities. Policymakers were given the same list and were asked how effective these activities are toward influencing public policy. The figure below shows recommended engagement levels for specific advocacy activities based on the perceived perspective of state policymakers.

LOW PRIORITY: YOUR CALL	MEDIUM PRIORITY: IF YOU HAVE THE CAPACITY	HIGH PRIORITY: ENGAGE IN THESE ACTIVITIES
• File legal briefs or filing suits in court • Discuss grant opportunities with government • Participate or organize public demonstrations, marches, etc.	• Attend a hearing • Enter into coalitions with other organizations • Interact socially with public officials • Work in an advisory group • Work to appoint or elect public officials • Encourage members or clients to contact policymakers	• Lobby in person • Testify at hearings • Work and meet with government at all stages of the policy process • Respond to requests for information from policymakers

SPECIFIC FORMS OF COMMUNICATION MATTER FOR EFFECTIVE ADVOCACY

- MOST EFFECTIVE: Email and phone calls are the most frequently used strategies by nonprofits, and the most effective strategies according to policymakers.
- LEAST EFFECTIVE: The use of social media sites such as Twitter and Facebook are the least effective.
- ANOTHER PREFERRED METHOD: Policymakers consistently stated in-person meetings as another highly effective form of communication.

	NONPROFIT USE FOR ADVOCACY		POLICYMAKER'S PERSPECTIVES ON DIFFERENT FORMS OF COMMUNICATION				
	Yes	No	Not Effective At All	Slightly Effective	Moderately Effective	Very Effective	Extremely Effective
Email	75%	25%	2%	7%	41%	29%	20%
Phone	68%	32%	0%	15%	34%	34%	17%
Twitter	59%	41%	60%	30%	10%	0%	0%
Facebook	58%	42%	46%	37%	15%	2%	0%
Video Conferencing	44%	56%	30%	25%	28%	15%	3%
Websites/ Blogs	25%	75%	17%	54%	24%	2%	2%

WHO FROM A NONPROFIT ORGANIZATION IS INFLUENTIAL IN SHAPING PUBLIC POLICY?

This research also sought to determine which individuals have the greatest influence in shaping public policy. While executive directors are often tasked with advocacy and engagement, policymakers also seek the voices of individuals impacted by policy decisions such as direct service providers and individual members/clients.

LOW INFLUENCE	MEDIUM INFLUENCE	HIGH INFLUENCE
• Contributors other than members or clients • Foundations and other funding agencies	• Political party leaders • Other national organizations active in policy • Board members	• Individual policy experts • Direct service providers • Elected and appointed officials • Executive Director • Professional staff • Individual members or clients

WHY NOT?

We asked nonprofits about some of the different ways they do and do not engage with their stakeholders in their lobbying activities.

71% of nonprofits never provide transportation for clients to government meetings

29% never link clients/members to legislative offices or elected officials

31% never encourage clients to attend public hearings or meetings

These numbers are important, especially if we want to make it clear that clients and community members are an important advocacy stakeholder group.

HOW CAN MY ORGANIZATION MOVE FORWARD WITH ADVOCACY?

The findings in this brief highlight the important gaps in advocacy knowledge among Nebraska nonprofit leaders and state-level policymakers, but also provide areas for growth.

Get Educated: Nonprofits and policymakers continue to be misinformed about nonprofit advocacy and lobbying rights. Make sure to seek information and training in Nebraska through organizations such as the Coalition for a Strong Nebraska and/or Nonprofit Association of the Midlands, or national organizations such as Bolder Advocacy and the National Council of Nonprofits.

Get Focused: Prioritize your nonprofit activities based on your organization's goals and capacity. Based on this study's findings, we recommend a focus on lobbying in person, testifying at legislative hearings, or working directly with government officials to effectively influence policy change.

Get Strategic: When deciding who to involve in advocacy work, it is just as important to involve and train members, clients, direct service providers, individual policy experts, and other staff as it is your executive director or board president.

RESPONDENT DEMOGRAPHICS

The final sample for this study consisted of 148 Nebraska nonprofit leaders and 41 Nebraska state policymakers.

NONPROFIT LOCATIONS

Omaha	**60%**	Kearney	**2%**
Lincoln	**23%**	Lyons	**1%**
Grand Island	**2%**	Papillion	**1%**

Other Areas **11%**

Ainsworth, Alliance, Aurora, Beatrice, Columbus, Elkhorn, Fairbury, Fremont, Lexington, Lyons, Macy, Norfolk, North Platte, O'Neil, Oxford, Red Cloud, and Scottsbluff

NONPROFIT TYPES

Human Services	**47%**
Public, Societal Benefit	**27%**
Education and Research	**27%**
Health	**26%**
Other	**19%**
Arts, Culture, and Humanities	**15%**
Environment and Animals	**5%**
Religion	**3%**
International	**1%**

Other included: Public Safety, Civil Rights and Liberties, Housing, and Youth

NONPROFIT RESPONDENTS

CEO/Executive Director/ Another Director	**48%**
Staff Member	**40%**
Other	**9%**
Board Member	**3%**

EXPERIENCE WITH ADVOCACY

40% of nonprofit organizations have engaged in advocacy for 20 or more years

23% have engaged for 0-2 years

POLICYMAKER RESPONDENTS

Legislative or Administrative Aides	**50%**
Other positions (e.g., Legal Counsel, Ombudsman)	**25%**
State Senator	**12.5%**
Researcher or Analyst	**12.5%**

Time spent in these positions ranged from 4 months to 31 years, with an average of 5 years spent in these roles.

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Nebraska
Omaha

Volunteer Programming Impact on Urban Nebraska Nursing Home Quality of Care

SPRING 2019

About the College of Public Affairs and Community Service

The College of Public Affairs and Community Service (CPACS) was created in 1973 to ensure that the university was responsive to the critical social needs of our community and state. The College was given the mission not only to provide educational programs of the highest caliber to prepare students for leadership in public service, but also to reach out to the community to help solve public problems.

The College has become a national leader among similar colleges, with nine programs ranked in the top 25 in the nation. Our faculty ranks are among the finest in their disciplines. Faculty, staff, and students are integral to the community and state because of our applied research, service learning, and community partnerships. We take our duty seriously to help address social needs and craft solutions to local, state, and national problems. For more information, visit our website: cpacs.unomaha.edu

CPACS Urban Research Awards

Part of the mission of the College of Public Affairs and Community Service (CPACS) is to conduct research, especially as it relates to concerns of our local and statewide constituencies. CPACS has always had an urban mission, and one way that mission is served is to perform applied research relevant to urban society in general, and the Omaha metropolitan area and other Nebraska urban communities in particular. Beginning in 2014, the CPACS Dean provided funding for projects with high relevance to current urban issues, with the potential to apply the findings to practice in Nebraska, Iowa and beyond.

Volunteer Programming Impact on Urban Nebraska Nursing Home Quality of Care

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Community 360°/VolunCheerLeader LLC

Spring 2019

Funding for this research was provided by a 2017 Urban Research Award from the College of Public Affairs and Community Service Dean's Office.

Volunteer Programming Impact on Urban Nebraska Nursing Home Quality Measures

Center for Public Affairs Urban Research Grant

IRB# 739-17-EX

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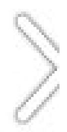
- Overview

  - Introductions
  - Background
  - Supporting research
  - Hypothesis
  - Theoretical frameworks/conceptual model
  - Methodology
  - Results
  - Discussion
  - Recommendations

(Please hold your questions until the Q & A session)



- Introductions
  - This study was made possible by a grant from the Center for Public Affairs Research – Urban Research Grant
  - Investigators
    - Principle Investigator – Christopher M. Kelly, Ph.D., UNO – Dept of Gerontology
      - cmkelly@unomaha.edu or 402.554.4124
    - Co-investigator – Nancy Kelley, Ph.D., UNO -- Grace Abbott School of Social Work
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    - Co-Investigator – Paul P. Falkowski, Ph.D., Community 360°/VolunCheerLeader LLC
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- Background
  - Experience/Background
    - Anecdotal evidence of volunteer impact
    - Personal conversations with care staff, residents and families
    - Feedback from volunteers

- IN THE BEGINNING I WAS VISITING ABOUT 170 NURSING HOMES EACH YEAR - ABOUT 5 EACH WEEK.
- I WAS BECOMING A STUDENT OF LONG-TERM CARE
- LISTENING TO WHAT THE STAFF WOULD TELL ME OR THE RESIDENTS REALLY INDICATED THAT MORE THAN ENTERTAINMENT, THEY NEEDED TO FEEL LIKE SOMEONE CARED ABOUT THEM.
  - *"THERE ARE A LOT OF PEOPLE AROUND ME, BUT THERE IS NO ONE HERE JUST FOR ME."*
  - I ASKED AN ACTIVITY DIRECTOR, *"HOW MANY VOLUNTEERS DO YOU NEED?"* HER RESPONSE: *"ABOUT 140." "HOW MANY PEOPLE LIVE HERE?" "ABOUT 140."*
- TOM, A VOLUNTEER SAID, *"I TALK TO MY WIFE A LITTLE DIFFERENTLY AND I HUG MY CHILDREN A LOT MORE. MY VIEW OF LIFE HAS CHANGED."*
- ALL OF THIS FEEDBACK INSPIRED ME TO CONTINUE TO PURSUE MY OWN VOLUNTEERING BUT IT ALSO INSPIRED ME TO GET OTHERS INVOLVED.

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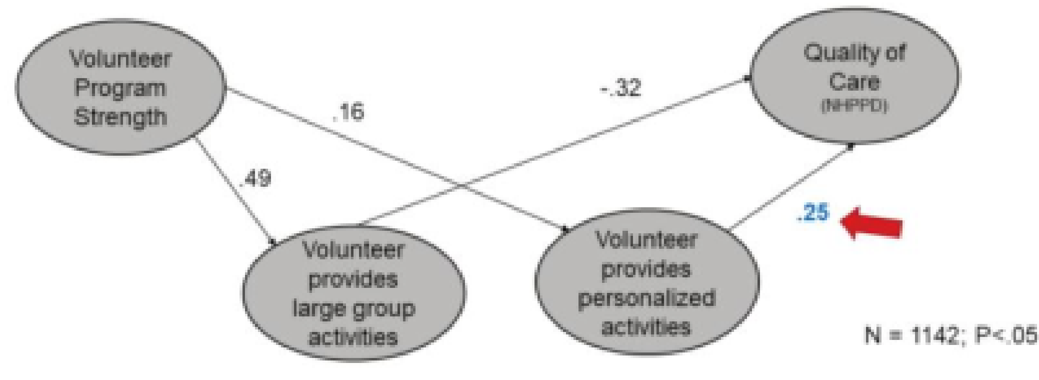
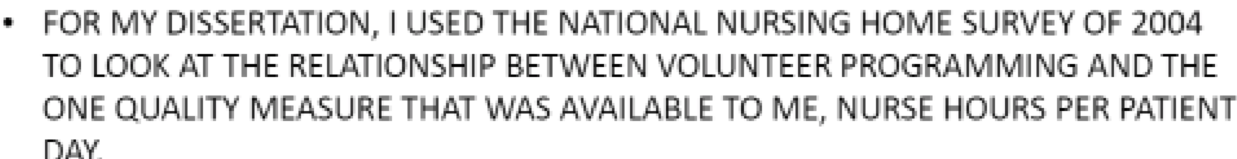
- Background
  - Dissertation results
    - Positive relationship between personalized activities and nurse hours per patient day (nhppd).
      - (Falkowski, 2013)





- FOR MY DISSERTATION, I USED THE NATIONAL NURSING HOME SURVEY OF 2004 TO LOOK AT THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VOLUNTEER PROGRAMMING AND THE ONE QUALITY MEASURE THAT WAS AVAILABLE TO ME, NURSE HOURS PER PATIENT DAY.

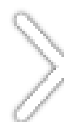
- THE SAMPLE SIZE WAS LARGE AND RESPRESENTATIVE OF THE INDUSTRY.

- AMAZINGLY, THE 2004 SURVEY COLLECTED DATA ON VOLUNTEER PROGRAMMING!

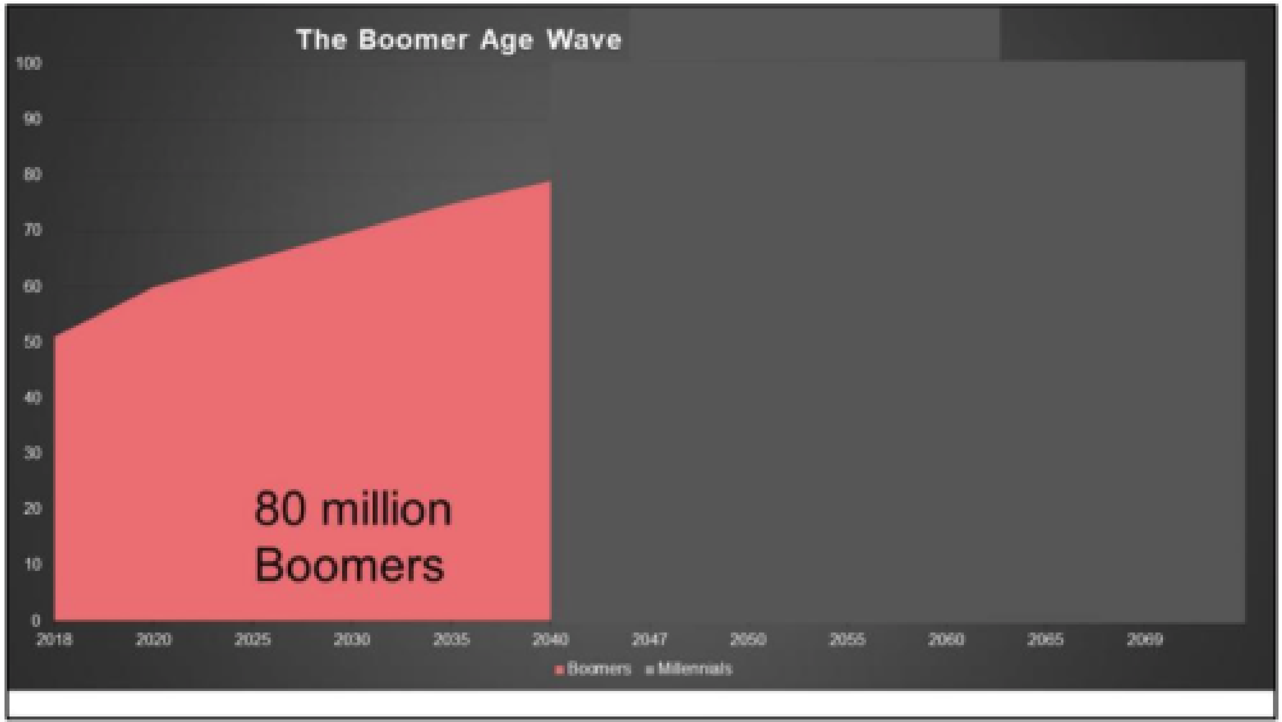
- THE VOLUNTEER ACTIVITIES FACTORED INTO TWO GROUPS, LARGE GROUP ACTIVITIES AND PERSONALIZED ACTIVITIES. AND YOU CAN SEE FROM THE RESULTS HERE THAT THERE WAS A POSITIVE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALIZED ACTIVITIES AND THE PROXY VARIABLE FOR QUALITY OF CARE.

- I GOT PUSHBACK AT THE TIME BECAUSE STAFFING RATIOS WERE NOT VIEWED AS A INDICATOR OF QUALITY OF CARE, HOWEVER, THE CMS IS NOW USING STAFFING RATIOS AS A QUALITY INDICATOR.

- Background
  -
    Exemplary volunteer programs
    - Baycrest Health Sciences – Toronto
      - 250 beds – 1,200 volunteers
      - Volunteers working in nearly every department
    - Elizabeth Knox Hospital and Nursing Home – Auckland, NZ
      - 248 beds – 900 volunteers/ 3 volunteer coordinators
      - Volunteers onsite 24/7 working in nearly every department



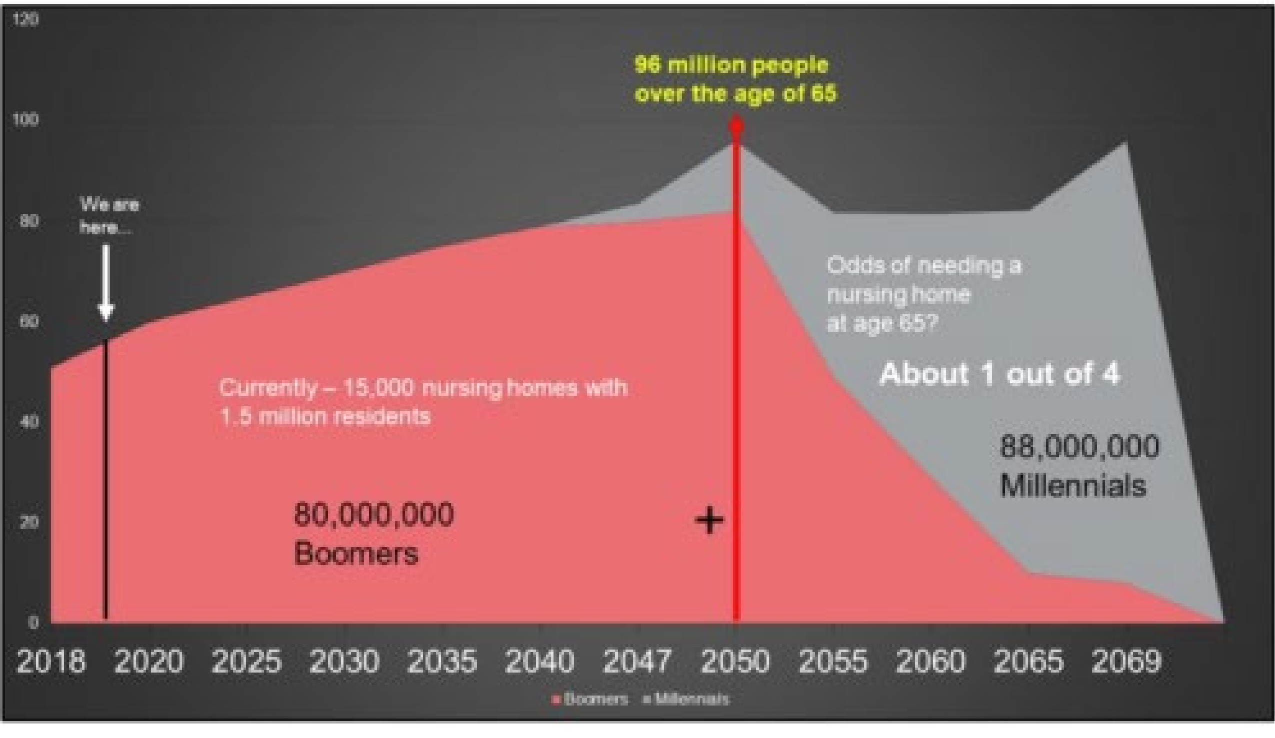
- MY VISIT TO BAYCREST HEALTH SCIENCES IN 2017 WAS INCREDIBLE.
- THEIR VOLUNTEER PROGRAM WAS PHENOMANAL. VOLUNTEERS WERE WORKING IN EVERY DEPARTMENT OF THE NURSING HOME. AND THE PROFESSIONAL STAFF IS UNIONIZED AND THERE WAS A "RESPECTFUL" COOPERATION BETWEEN THE VOLUNTEER PROGRAM AND THE UNIONS.
- I ASKED JILL WOODWARD, CEO OF ELIZABETH KNOX HOW SHE CREATED SUCH AN INCREDIBLE VOLUNTEER PROGRAM. HERE RESPONSE WAS *"I STARTED BY HIRING A GREAT VOLUNTEER MANAGER!"*
- SO ALL OF THESE EXPERIENCES CAME TOGETHER TO INSPIRE ME TO PURSUE RESEARCH INTO NURSING HOME VOLUNTEER PROGRAMS AND PRODUCING NOT JUST QUALITATIVE EVIDENCE BUT QUANTITATIVE EVIDENCE THAT VOLUNTEERS ARE INDEED IMPACTING QUALITY OF CARE OR QUALITY MEASURES.



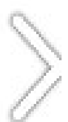
- IF YOU'RE IN THE COMPANY OF SOMEONE WORKING IN THE FIELD OF AGING, IT WON'T BE LONG BEFORE YOU HEAR THEM TALKING ABOUT THE AGE WAVE AND THE 80 MILLION BABY BOOMERS TURNING 65 AT THE RATE OF 10,000 EACH DAY.

- WHAT YOU MIGHT NOT HEAR THEM TALKING ABOUT JUST YET IS THE 88 MILLION MILLENNIALS THAT ARE NOT FAR BEHIND.

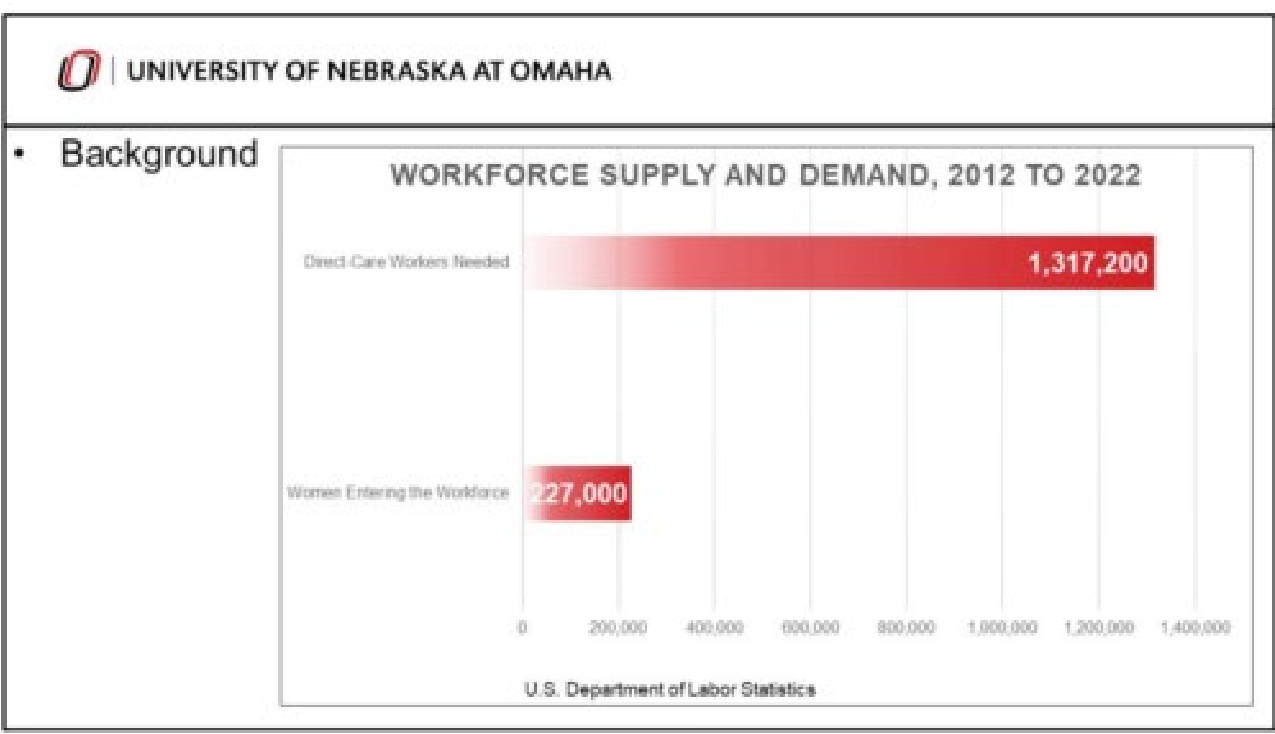
- BUT THIS GRAPH DOES NOT ACCURATELY REPRESENT THE PICTURE, BECAUSE IT IS NOT ONE WAVE AFTER ANOTHER INSTEAD IT IS ONE WAVE LAYERED UPON ANOTHER. AND SO THE MORE ACCURATE PICTURE WOULD LOOK LIKE THIS.



- AND SO RATHER THAN ONE WAVE FOLLOWING ANOTHER. YOU HAVE THIS CUMMULATIVE EFFECT AND YOU CAN SEE WHERE WE ARE NOW AND WHERE WE ARE HEADED.



- IF YOU THINK WE'RE TALKING ABOUT HEALTH CARE TODAY, COME BACK IN 2040 OR 2050 WHEN SOME 96 MILLION PEOPLE WILL BE 65 YEARS OF AGE OR OLDER!
- HOW MANY PEOPLE ARE LIVING IN NURSING HOMES TODAY: ABOUT 1.5 MILLION IN 15,000 NURSING HOMES
- HOW MANY PEOPLE WILL BE LIVING IN NURSING HOMES, IT'S HARD TO SAY BUT THE ODDS TODAY OF NEEDING A NURSING HOME AT AGE 65 ARE 1 OUT OF 4! SO YOU CAN DO THE MATH. IT'S MORE THAN SOBERING.
- IF THIS ISN'T ENOUGH TO GET YOUR ATTENTION, LET'S LOOK AT THE NEED FOR WORKERS.



- BY 2022 WE WILL NEED 1,3 MILLION DIRECT CARE WORKERS.
- THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR REPORTED THIS STATISTIC THIS WAY AND THAT IS WHY I AM SHARING IT WITH YOU THIS WAY.
- IF EVERY FEMALE, EVERY WOMAN ENTERING THE WORKFORCE WOULD DECIDE TO BECOME A DIRECT CARE WORKER INSTEAD OF A LAWYER, OR ENGINEER OR TEACHER, THAT WOULD ADD ABOUT 227,000 NEW WORKERS WHICH DOESN'T EVEN COME CLOSE TO 1.3 MILLION.
- WITH THAT THESE KINDS OF STATISTICS STARING US IN THE FACE, WE CANNOT AFFORD TO IGNORE ANY POTENTIAL RESOURCE, INCLUDING PEOPLE THAT LIVE IN OUR CITIES AND TOWNS, THAT IS VOLUNTEERS.

- Supporting Research
  - "Volunteers' experiences visiting the cognitively impaired in nursing homes: A friendly visiting program." Damanakis, et.al., 2007
    - Purpose – To explore the impact of a friendly visitor program
    - Volunteers completed three levels of training: general, special cares, and observing
    - Results
      - Decreased social isolation
      - Stimulated resident recognition and recall
      - Volunteers were persistent in their attempts to "connect" with residents
      - Volunteers wanted more training and ongoing training

PURPOSE:

TO EXPLORE THE IMPACT OF A FRIENDLY VISITOR PROGRAM

- THE NATURE OF INTERACTION BETWEEN VOLUNTEER AND RESIDENT DURING UNSTRUCTURED ACTIVITIES
- THE VOLUNTEER PERCEPTION OF THE EXPERIENCE TO INCLUDE MOTIVATION AND TRAINING
- TO "EXPLORE" THE VOLUNTEER'S PERCEPTION OF THE BENEFITS OF THE PROGRAM

Volunteers completed three levels of training

- General volunteer orientation
- Special care training (5 hours – communications, brain & behavior, ethnicity, and environment)

- Several weeks of observing residents in various activities and learning physical plant

Implementation:

- Volunteers committed to 12 weeks of visits
- Volunteers engaged residents in “unstructured” activities for 30 minutes each
- First six weeks individually mentored by the volunteer coordinator
- Second six weeks visits were made independent of volunteer coordinator

Results:
Volunteers:

- Demonstrated empathy
- Preserved resident identity
- Stimulated dialogue using prompts at hand
- Were cognizant of tone, choice of words and used appropriate touch

When asked, volunteers said they wanted:

- Quality training to give them a greater sense of mastery
- On-going training provided in a variety of formats
- Quality information that is readily accessible

- Supporting Research
  - "Training volunteers as conversation partners using "Supported Conversation for Adults with Aphasia" (SCA). Kagan, 2001
  - Purpose
    - Evaluate SCA
    - Evaluate volunteer training in SCA
  - Forty volunteers participated – 20 trained in SCA and 20 control group
  - Results
    - Trained volunteers were scored significantly higher
    - SCA was effective in improving communications

SCA involves teaching techniques that will help to reveal the competence of the patient to engage in conversation of sorts that reveals how the patient IS FEELIING AND THINKING

The purpose of this study was to:

- Evaluate the "Supportive Conversation for Adults with Aphasia (SCA) training program and test the efficacy of SCA to improve patient communication

- Test the efficacy of training volunteers in SCA

- Did the training improve the volunteer's ability to communicate with the person experiencing aphasia?

- Did the techniques improve the patient's ability to communicate?

Results
- SCA was effective in improving communication

- Volunteers trained in SCA scored significantly higher
- Ellen Hickey conducted a similar study with similar results, see Reference page
- The point of this is volunteers could and wanted to be trained for more complex tasks and had the time to do so.

Purpose

- Measure the effects of volunteer training on resident depression levels

Training

- 40 participants – 20 elders and 20 adolescents divided into two groups
- Each group had 10 elders and 10 adolescents
- Both groups received 12 hours of training over a two-day period
- One group was trained in empathetic listening and the other group was given some general information about the aging process
- Volunteers were taught, among other things, the principles of nonverbal communication, attending to content and feeling and reflective listening.

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- Supporting Research
- "The potential of volunteers to implement non-pharmacological interventions to reduce agitation associated with dementia in nursing home residents"
  - van der Ploeg, et.al., 2012
  - Purpose – Explore the potential of volunteers to provide non-pharmacological interventions
  - Volunteers from 17 care communities trained to develop "personalized" activities
  - Results
    - Volunteers developed and provided "personalized" activities
    - Staff viewed volunteers as an invaluable resource
    - Volunteers expressed desire for more quality training and resources

Purpose

- Explore the potential of volunteers to provide non-pharmacological interventions

Methodology

- Volunteers were selected 17 facilities (staff & volunteers)
- Thirty-nine volunteers participated in interviews. Most (79%) were female.
- Their mean age was 67 (range 19-90) with two-thirds aged 65 years or older.
- Volunteers were trained to learn the resident's history, likes and dislikes, and then develop personalized activities for that resident

Results

- Volunteers developed and provided "personalized" approaches to residents
- Volunteers become confidants, people who were reticent to talk with staff opened up to the volunteers – this goes to developing trust

- Over time staff came to view volunteers as an invaluable source of support
- Volunteers expressed desire for quality training and a willingness to learn new skills for interacting with residents

Additional Observations by the researchers:

- Despite a growing evidence base, it has been our experience that personalized activities are frequently not implemented in aged care facilities on a one-to-one basis.
- Preparation and implementation are time-consuming; too few staff members are available, and staff often lack training.
- As an alternative resource, older care volunteers could assist with the implementation of personalized activities.

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Theoretical Frameworks

Power (2017)
Person-Centered Care = the relationship between two people determines quality of care and quality of life

-identity
-growth
-autonomy
-security
-connectedness
-meaning
-joy

Nolan (1997; 2006)
Senses Framework = relationship-centered approach = relationships influence quality of care and quality of care influences quality of life

-security
-continuity
-belonging
-purpose
-fulfillment
-significance

Donabedian (1966)
Quality of Care is reliant on the quality of caregiving relationships, which in turn, impacts quality of life

-Structural
-Process
-Outcomes

- In his book "Dementia Beyond Disease" Dr. Allen Power presents the "seven domains of well-being:
  - Identity, Growth, Autonomy, Security, Connectedness, Meaning and Joy
  - Having our medical needs met is only a small part of person-centered care.
  - Who is in a better position to have the time to provide that level of care than the trained volunteer?

- Similarly Nolan presents person-centered care in his Senses Framework
  - Security, Continuity, Belonging, Purpose, Fulfillment, and Significance
  - Nolan takes it a step further by including all actors in the process not just focusing on the nursing resident
    - Does the caregiver feel secure?
    - Does the family feel secure?
    - Does the older adult feel secure?

- Donabedian's Model of Quality of Care:

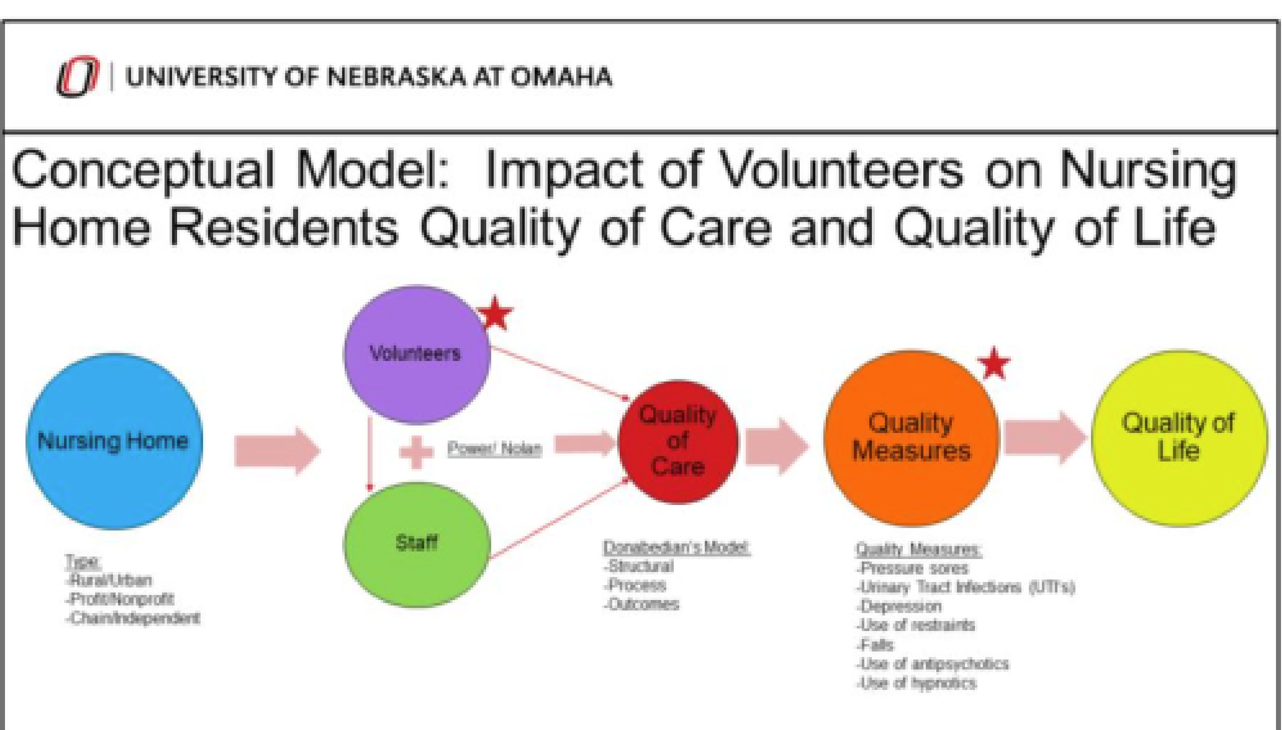
  1) structural aspects of care—or how care is organized and what

inputs are used to provide care (e.g., time, energy, and skills/capacity of caregiver),

2) process aspects of care—or how and what is actually done (e.g., technical activities, interpersonal qualities), and

3) outcomes aspects of care—or the effectiveness of caregiving efforts (e.g., satisfaction).

- The quality of caregiving relationships affects the quality of care provided and this, in turn, affects the perceptions of quality of life of older adult care receivers.



Hired staff and use of volunteers (having them and how they are used) are dependent upon the type of nursing home being looked at. Activities volunteers perform influence staff care. Staff care and volunteers have an impact on the total quality of care provided to nursing home residents. The quality of care residents receive impacts outcomes on quality measures. Therefore, quality of care and quality measures lead to quality of life.

Donabedian's Model of Quality of Care: 1) structural aspects of care—or how care is organized and what inputs are used to provide care (e.g., time, energy, and skills/capacity of caregiver), 2) process aspects of care—or how and what is actually done (e.g., technical activities, interpersonal qualities), and 3) outcomes aspects of care—or the effectiveness of caregiving efforts (e.g., satisfaction). The quality of caregiving relationships affects the quality of care provided and this, in turn, affects the perceptions of quality of life of older adult care receivers.

- Methodology
  - Hypothesis
    - The strength of the volunteer program and the activities in which volunteers engage impact quality measures.
    - Quality measures used:
      - Pressure sores
      - Urinary Tract Infections (UTI's)
      - Depression
      - Use of restraints
      - Falls
      - Use of antipsychotics
      - Use of hypnotics

- OUR HYPOTHESIS THEN IS THAT THE STRENGTH OF THE VOLUNTEER PROGRAM AND THE ACTIVITIES IN WHICH VOLUNTEERS ENGAGE, IMPACT THE NURSING HOMES QUALITY MEASURE SCORES AND ULTIMATELY THE QUALITY OF LIFE OF THE NURSING HOME RESIDENT.
- THERE ARE 18 QUALITY MEASURES. 14 OF THEM ADDRESS PEOPLE WHO WILL BE IN THE NURSING HOME FOR MORE THAN 100 DAYS AND 4 OF THEM ADDRESS SHORT STAY RESIDENTS OR THOSE PEOPLE WHO ARE IN THE NURSING HOME TO REHABILITATE AND GO HOME.
- FOR THIS STUDY, WE FOCUSED ON THE 14 LONG-STAY QUALITY MEASURES AND IN PARTICULAR, PRESSURE SORES, UTI'S, DEPRESSION, USE OF RESTRAINTS, FALLS, USE OF ANTIPSYCHOTICS AND USE OF HYPNOTICS

- Methodology
  - Measures
  - Survey was developed using the National Nursing Home Survey – 2004
    - Longitudinal study examining all aspects of U.S. nursing homes - 1995, 1997, 1999, 2004
    - The 2004 wave unlike the previous samples included data on the nursing home volunteer program
    - Questions for the Volunteer Impact Study were modeled after the NNHS – 2004

MEASURES

- SURVEY WAS DEVELOPED USING THE NATIONAL NURSING HOME SURVEY – 2004 WAVE
- THERE WERE FOUR WAVES OF THE NATIONAL NURSING HOME SURVEY - 1995, 1997, 1999 AND 2004
- UNLIKE THE PREVIOUS WAVES, THE 2004 WAVE CONTAINED QUESTIONS ABOUT THE NURSING HOME'S VOLUNTEER PROGRAM
- QUESTIONS INCLUDED:
  - HOW MANY DAYS WERE VOLUNTEERS ON SITE
  - HOW MANY VOLUNTEERS WERE PARTICIPATING IN THE VOLUNTEER PROGRAM
  - AND THEN A LIST OF ACTIVITIES IN VOLUNTEERS MIGHT BE ENGAGING FOR EXAMPLE LEADING GROUP ACTIVITIES,

- Methodology
  - Data Collection
  - Initially, the survey was distributed electronically using Qualtrics
    - The response rate was very poor!
      - Precipitated forming a focus group made up of nursing home administrators
      - The focus group recommended:
        - Rewording of certain questions
        - Collecting surveys at conferences.

- THE SURVEY WAS LOADED INTO QUALTRICS AND THEN DISTRIBUTED TO SOME 60 NURSING HOMES.
- TO OUR GREAT DISMAY ONLY THREE PEOPLE ACTUALLY COMPLETED THE SURVEY.
- IT WAS TIME TO REGROUP.
- INVITATIONS WERE SENT OUT TO ALL OMAHA NURSING HOME ADMINSTRATORS INVITING THEM TO LUNCH FOR THE PURPOSE OF DISCUSSING THE STUDY AND ASKING FOR THEIR SUGGESTIONS TO IMPROVE THE RESPONSE RATE
- THE LUNCHEON WAS ATTENDED BY FOUR ADMINISTRATORS WHO SUGGESTED REWORDING SOME OF THE QUESTIONS AND SETTING UP BOOTHS AT CONFERENCES FOR THE PURPOSE OF COLLECTING SURVEYS.

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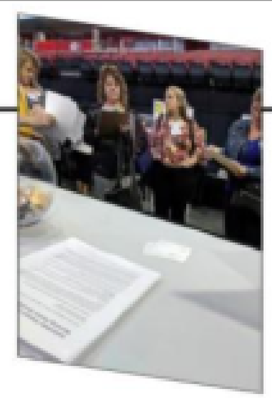
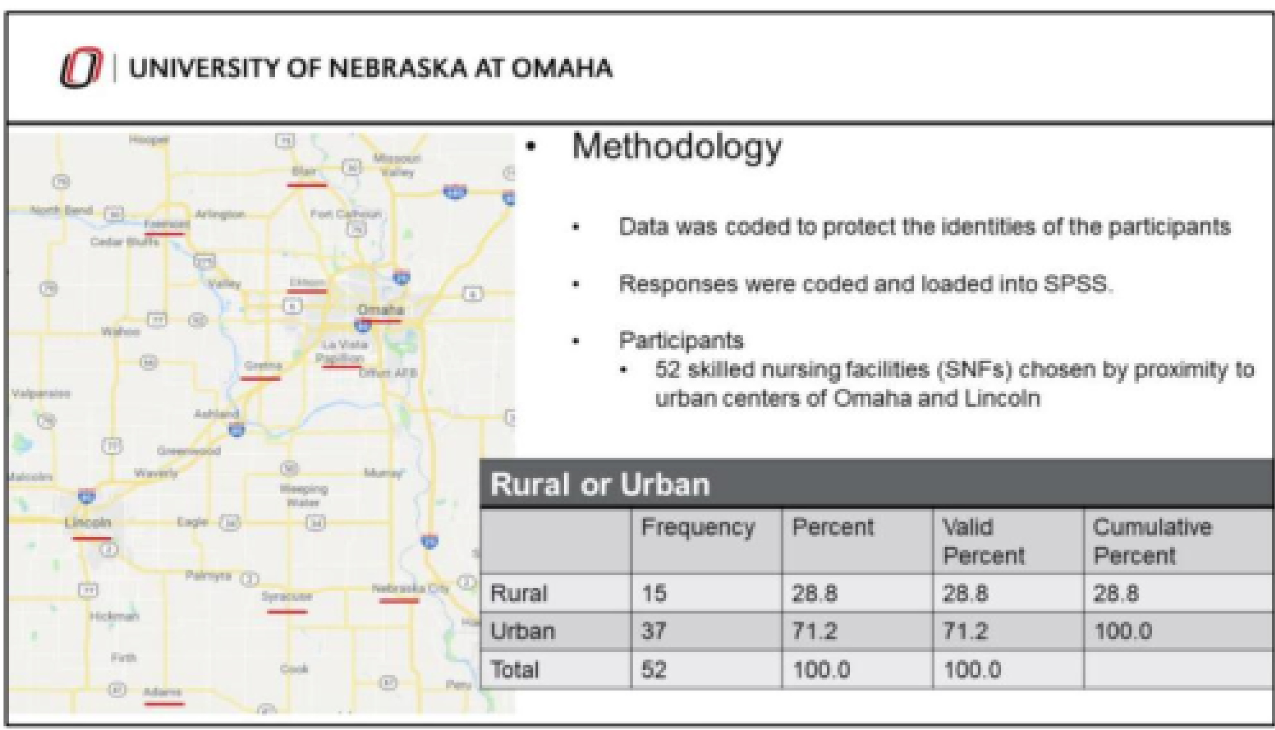


- Methodology
  - Data Collection
  - Booths were hosted at LeadingAgeNE and Nebraska Health Care Association conferences

- Response rate was greatly improved!
- Investigators made personal visits to remaining ten nursing homes that did not attend conference.

- BOTH LEADING AGE NEBRASKA AND THE NEBRASKA HEALTH CARE ASSOCIATION AGREED TO LET US HAVE BOOTHS FOR THIS PURPOSE AND TO OUR GREAT PLEASURE WE COLLECTED WELL OVER 50 SURVEYS.
- WE STILL HAD TO CHASE DOWN 10 NURSING HOMES AND WE MADE PERSONAL VISITS TO THEM TO COLLECT THE DATA.

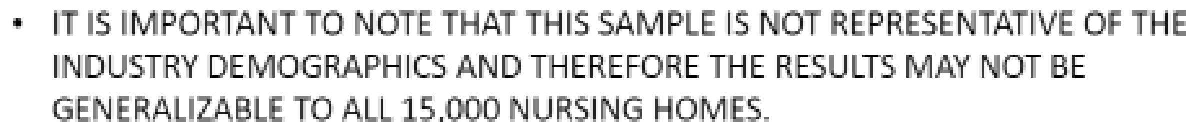


- THE MAJORITY OFTHE PARTICIPANTS WERE IN THE LINCOLN AND OMAHA URBAN CENTERS WITH A FEW OUTLIERS
- WE INCLUDED THEM IN ANY CASE FOR THE SAKE OF COMPARISON
- THERE WERE 37 NURSING HOMES IN URBAN SETTINGS AND 15 NURSING HOMES IN RURAL SETTINGS.

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT OMAHA

- Methodology
  - Participants

For-profit or Nonprofit				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
For-profit	24	46.2	46.2	46.2
Nonprofit/Govt	28	53.8	53.8	100.0
Total	52	100.0	100.0	



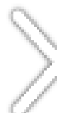
- IT IS IMPORTANT TO NOTE THAT THIS SAMPLE IS NOT REPRESENTATIVE OF THE INDUSTRY DEMOGRAPHICS AND THEREFORE THE RESULTS MAY NOT BE GENERALIZABLE TO ALL 15,000 NURSING HOMES.

- HOWEVER, THE RESULTS FROM THIS STUDY TO INDICATE THAT THESE RELATIONSHIPS BEAR FURTHER INVESTIGATION.

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT OMAHA

- Methodology
  - Participants

Part of a Chain				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
No	19	36.5	36.5	36.5
Yes	33	63.5	63.5	100.0
Total	52	100.0	100.0	



UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT OMAHA

- Methodology
  - Data Analysis
    - Data was coded and loaded into SPSS
    - Frequencies and descriptive statistics
    - Stepwise multiple regression analysis
    - A SEM was attempted but the sample size is too small

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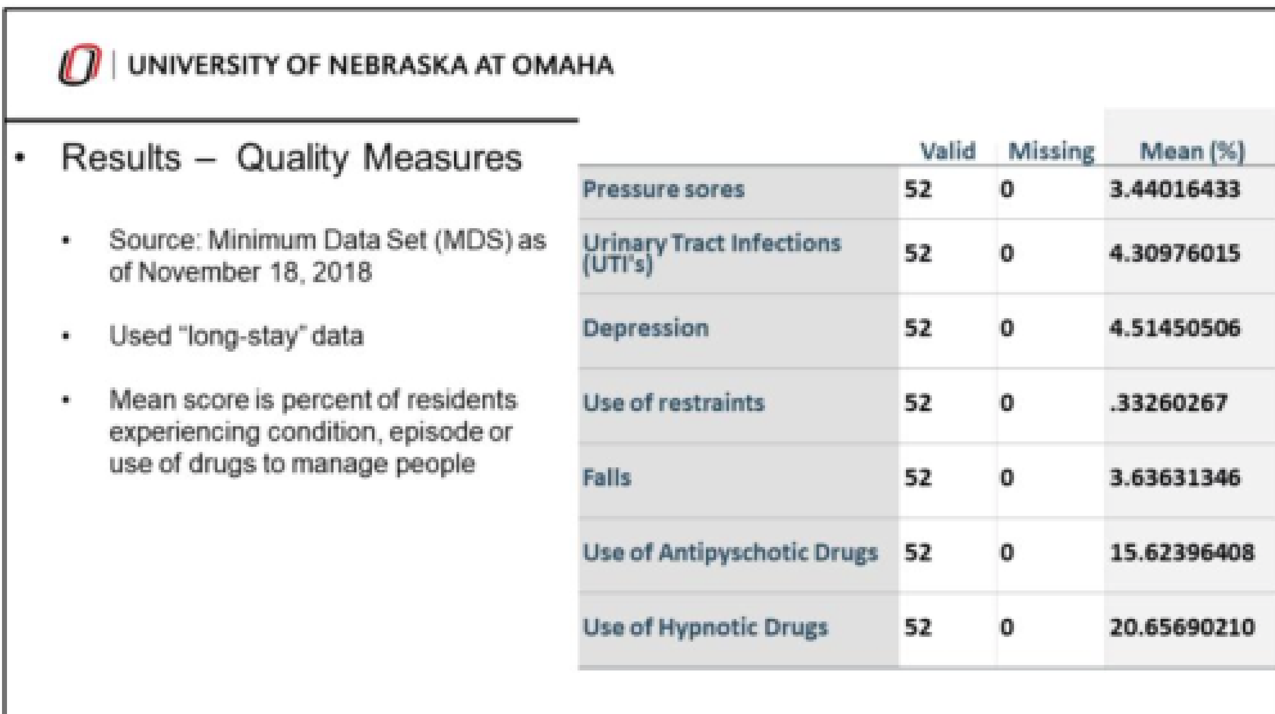


	Valid	Missing	Mean (%)
Pressure sores	52	0	3.44016433
Urinary Tract Infections (UTI's)	52	0	4.30976015
Depression	52	0	4.51450506
Use of restraints	52	0	.33260267
Falls	52	0	3.63631346
Use of Antipyschotic Drugs	52	0	15.62396408
Use of Hypnotic Drugs	52	0	20.65690210

- THE MEAN DATA IS THE PERCENTAGE OF NURSING HOME RESIDENTS THAT EXPERIENCED THESE CONDTIONS.

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT OMAHA

- Results - Volunteer Program Characteristics

	Valid	Missing	Mean
Use Volunteers	52	0	.98
Number of volunteers	46	6	51.67
Days onsite	48	4	4.990
Volunteer hours logged monthly	35	17	114.80

- IT IS IMPORTANT TO NOTE THAT 17 NURSING HOMES DID HAVE ANY NOTION AS TO HOW VOLUNTEER HOURS WERE BEING DONATED. AS A RESULT AN IMPACT ANALYSIS WOULD BE DIFFICULT TO PRODUCE.

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT OMAHA

- Results – Volunteer Activities

Meals (feeding assistance)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	44	84.6	84.6	84.6
	Yes	8	15.4	15.4	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Provides snacks/water

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	33	63.5	63.5	63.5
	Yes	19	36.5	36.5	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Assists with grooming

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	42	80.8	80.8	80.8
	Yes	10	19.2	19.2	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Assists with letter writing/reading

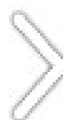
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	12	23.1	23.1	23.1
	Yes	40	76.9	76.9	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Provides companionship

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	1	1.9	1.9	1.9
	Yes	51	98.1	98.1	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Assists with group activities

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	52	100.0	100.0	100.0



UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT OMAHA

- Results – Volunteer Activities

Provides entertainment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	8	15.4	15.4	15.4
	Yes	44	84.6	84.6	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Provides clerical support

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	40	76.9	76.9	76.9
	Yes	12	23.1	23.1	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Conducts religious services

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	4	7.7	7.7	7.7
	Yes	48	92.3	92.3	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Assists with dressing

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	48	92.3	92.3	92.3
	Yes	4	7.7	7.7	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Assists with personal religious rituals

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	8	15.4	15.4	15.4
	Yes	44	84.6	84.6	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Combing hair/Doing nails

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	28	53.8	53.8	53.8
	Yes	24	46.2	46.2	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT OMAHA

- Results – Volunteer Activities

Provides transportation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	44	84.6	84.6	84.6
	Yes	8	15.4	15.4	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Assists with offsite activities

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	15	28.8	28.8	28.8
	Yes	37	71.2	71.2	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Pushes wheelchairs

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	3	5.8	5.8	5.8
	Yes	49	94.2	94.2	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Assists with evening activities

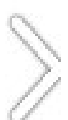
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	9	17.3	17.3	17.3
	Yes	43	82.7	82.7	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Provides other duties

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	41	78.8	78.8	78.8
	Yes	11	21.2	21.2	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Assists with weekend activities

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	9	17.3	17.3	17.3
	Yes	43	82.7	82.7	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	



| UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT OMAHA

- Results – Volunteer Activities

Assists with outdoor activities

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	12	23.1	23.1	23.1
	Yes	40	76.9	76.9	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Provides pet therapy

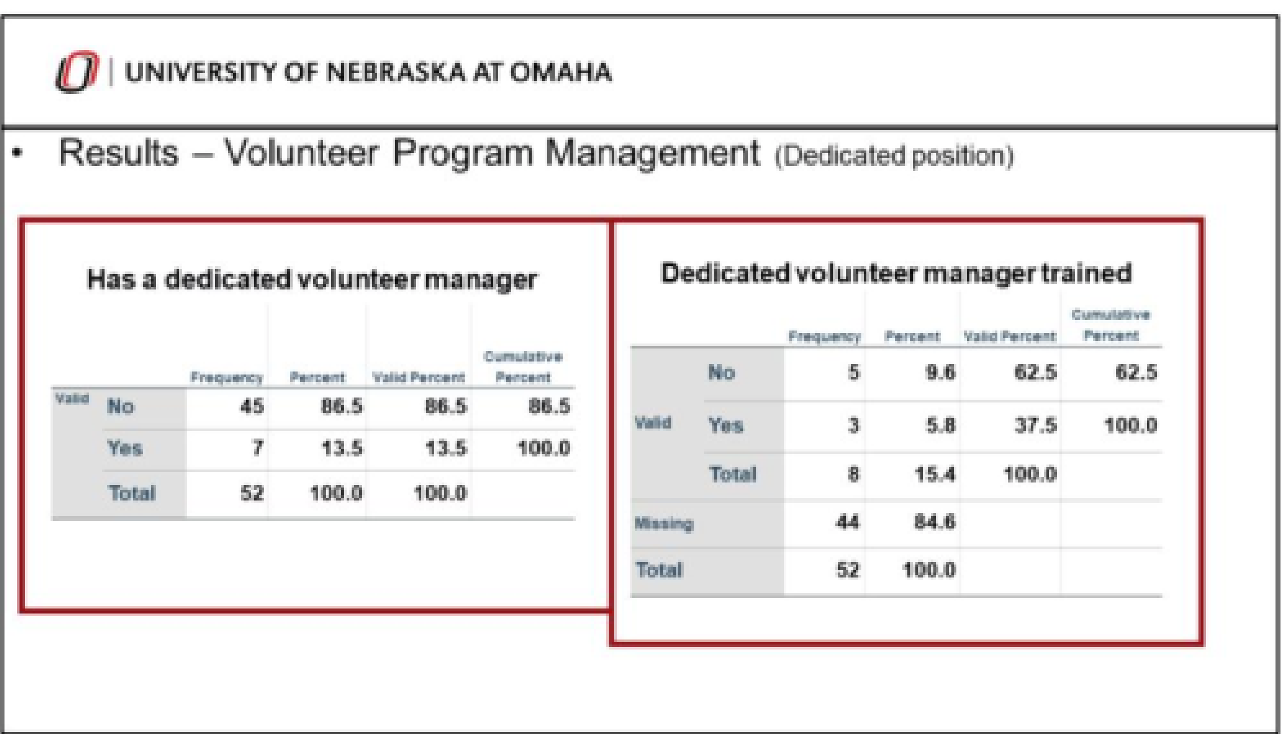
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	3	5.8	5.9	5.9
	Yes	48	92.3	94.1	100.0
	Total	51	98.1	100.0	
Missing		1	1.9		
Total		52	100.0		

Assists with gardening activities

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	17	32.7	32.7	32.7
	Yes	35	67.3	67.3	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Provides intergeneration activities

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	6	11.5	11.5	11.5
	Yes	46	88.5	88.5	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	



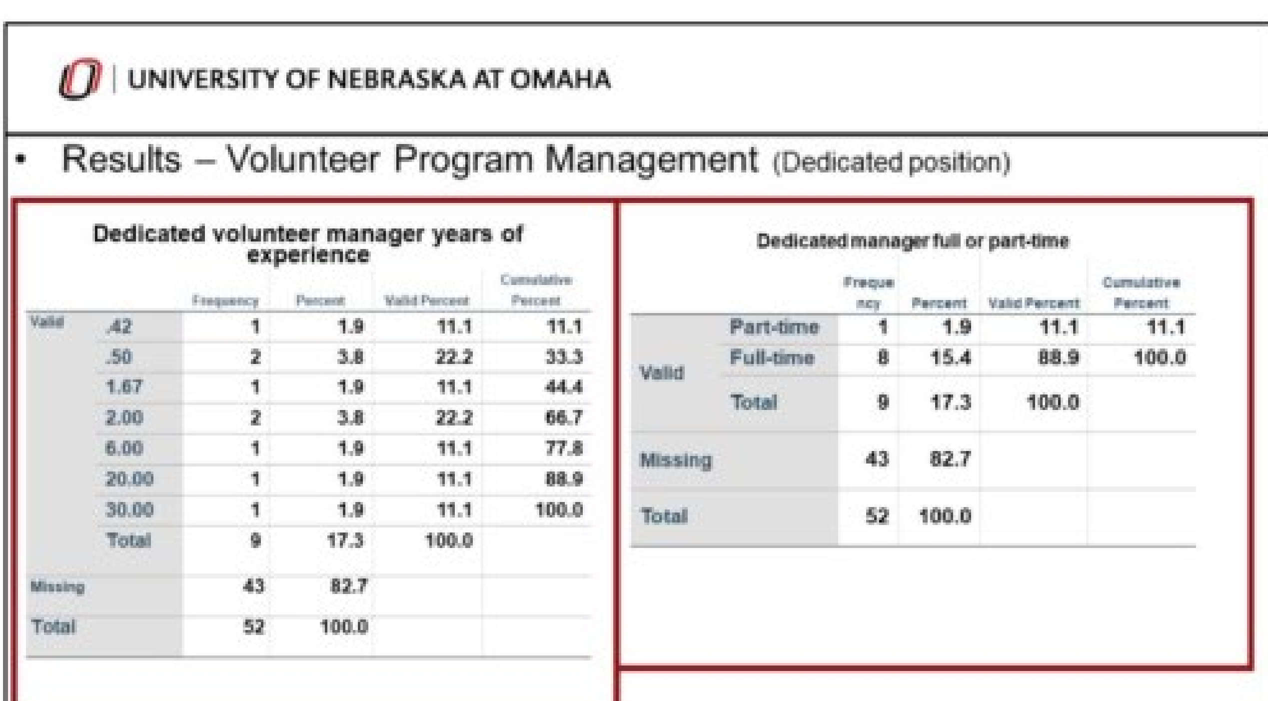
Has a dedicated volunteer manager

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	45	86.5	86.5	86.5
	Yes	7	13.5	13.5	100.0
	Total	52	100.0	100.0	

Dedicated volunteer manager trained

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	5	9.6	62.5	62.5
	Yes	3	5.8	37.5	100.0
	Total	8	15.4	100.0	
Missing		44	84.6		
Total		52	100.0		

- MOST NURSING HOMES IN THIS SAMPLE DID NOT HAVE A DEDICATED VOLUNTEER MANAGER, I.E., SOMEONE THAT IS STRICTY A VOLUNTEER MANAGER.
- MOST PEOPLE HAVE NOT RECEIVED ANY FORMAL VOLUNTEER MANAGEMENT TRAINING



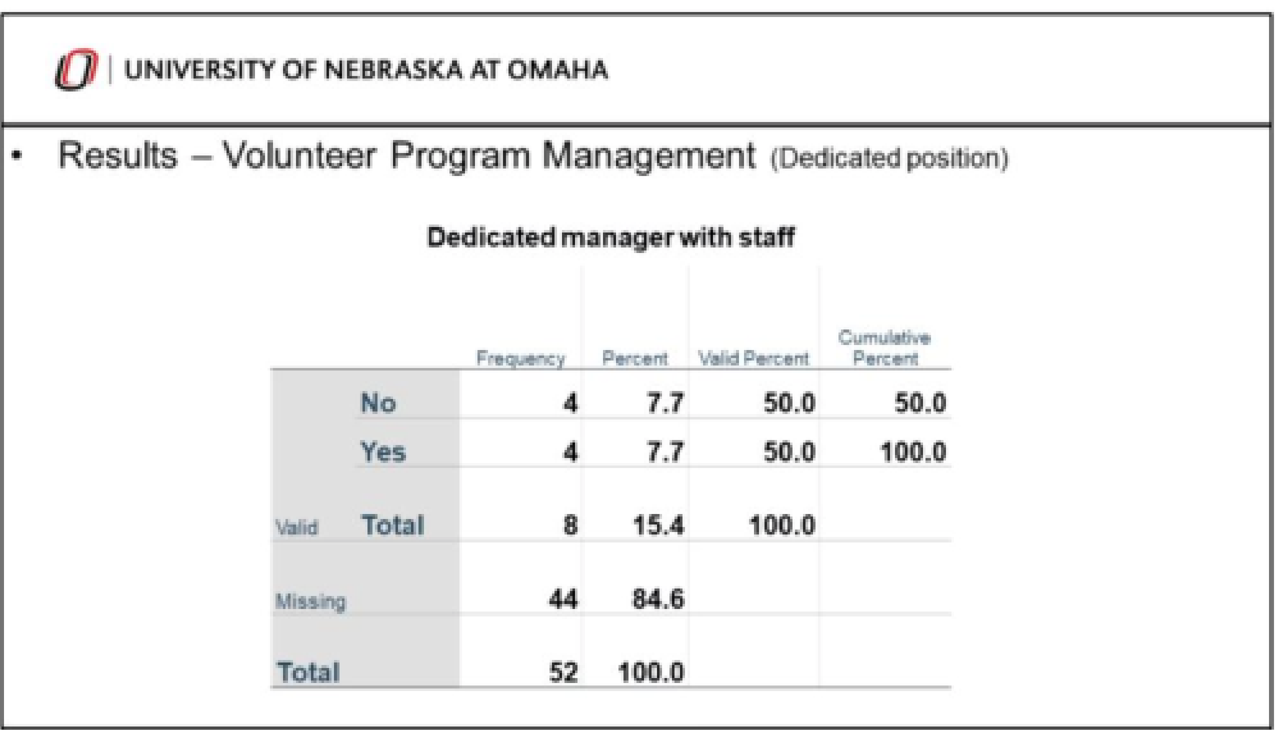
Dedicated volunteer manager years of experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	.42	1	1.9	11.1	11.1
	.50	2	3.8	22.2	33.3
	1.67	1	1.9	11.1	44.4
	2.00	2	3.8	22.2	66.7
	6.00	1	1.9	11.1	77.8
	20.00	1	1.9	11.1	88.9
	30.00	1	1.9	11.1	100.0
	Total	9	17.3	100.0	
Missing		43	82.7		
Total		52	100.0		

Dedicated manager full or part-time

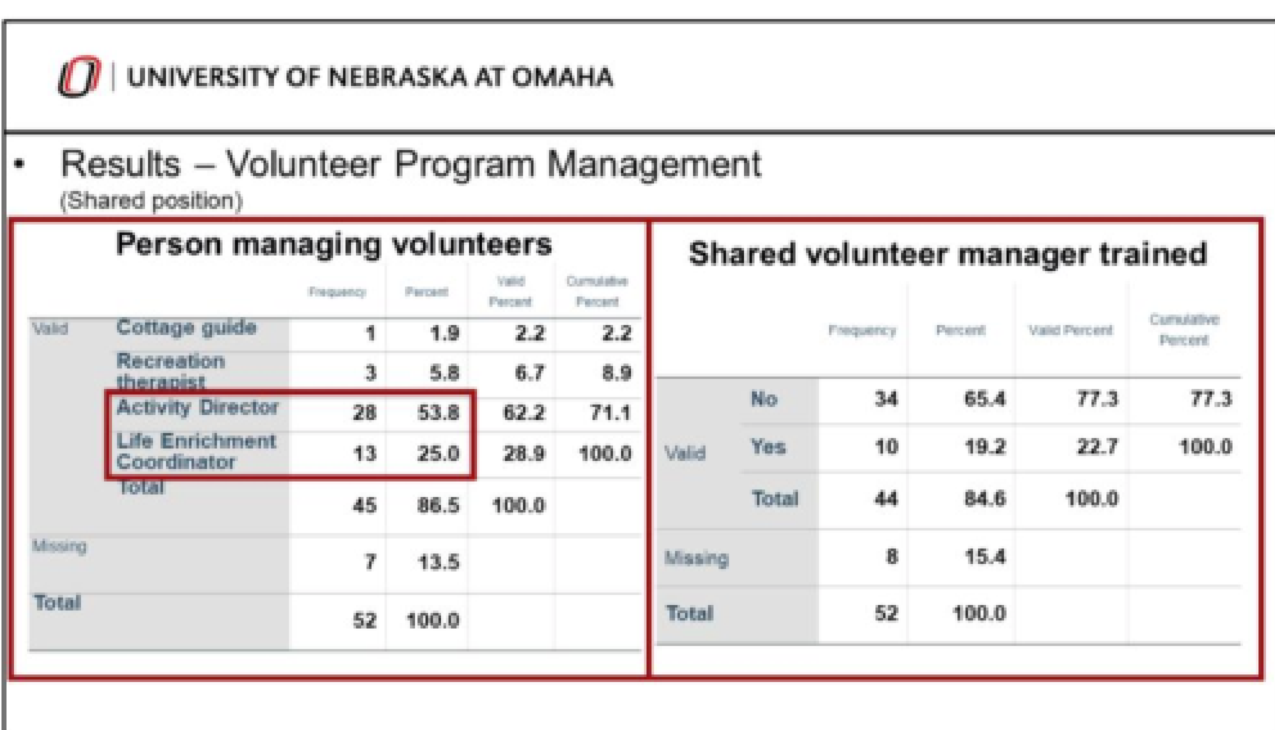
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Part-time	1	1.9	11.1	11.1
	Full-time	8	15.4	88.9	100.0
	Total	9	17.3	100.0	
Missing		43	82.7		
Total		52	100.0		

• 77.8% OF THE VOLUNTEER MANAGERS HAD 6 OR FEWER YEARS EXPERIENCE.



		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	No	4	7.7	50.0	50.0
	Yes	4	7.7	50.0	100.0
Valid	Total	8	15.4	100.0	
Missing		44	84.6		
Total		52	100.0		

- HALF OF THE NURSING HOMES THAT HAD A DEDICATED VOLUNTEER MANAGER REPORTED THEY HAD STAFF AS WELL.



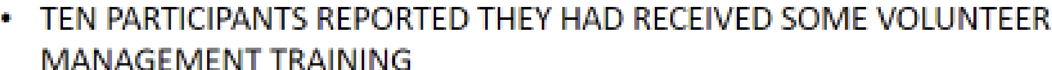
Person managing volunteers

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Cottage guide	1	1.9	2.2	2.2
	Recreation therapist	3	5.8	6.7	8.9
	Activity Director	28	53.8	62.2	71.1
	Life Enrichment Coordinator	13	25.0	28.9	100.0
	Total	45	86.5	100.0	
Missing		7	13.5		
Total		52	100.0		

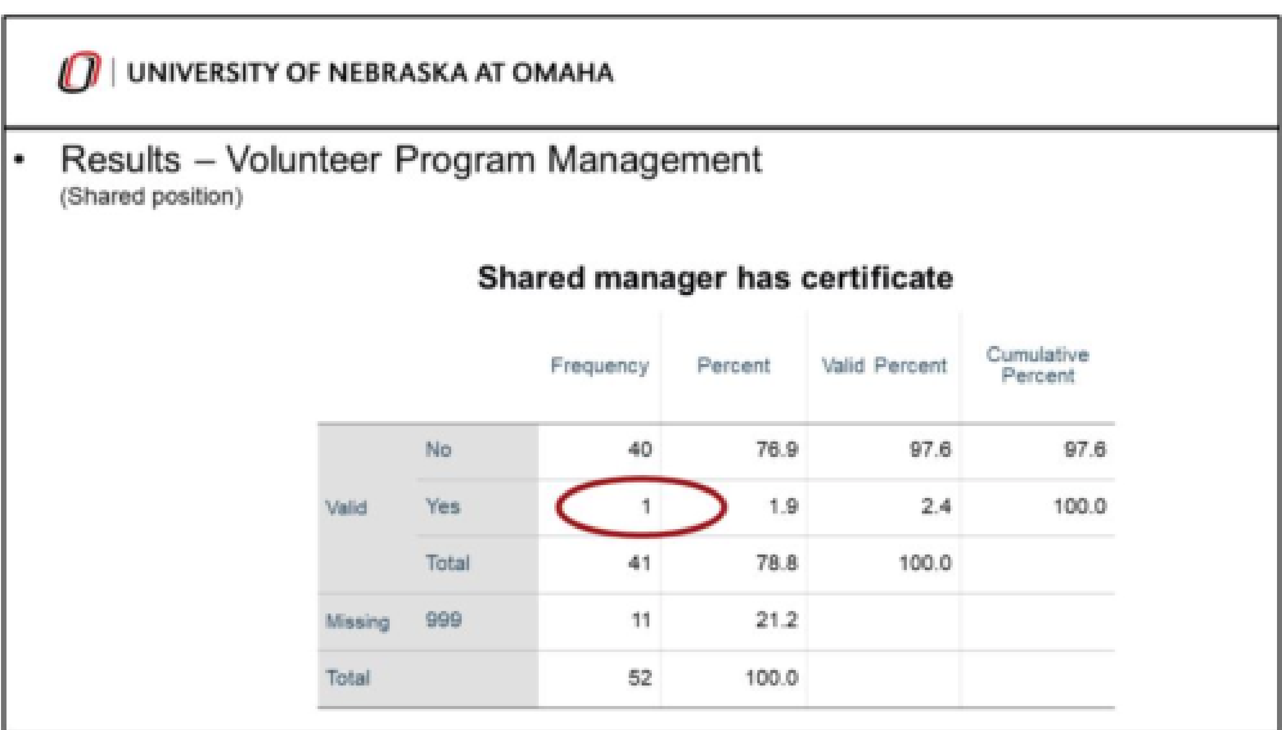
Shared volunteer manager trained

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	34	65.4	77.3	77.3
	Yes	10	19.2	22.7	100.0
	Total	44	84.6	100.0	
Missing		8	15.4		
Total		52	100.0		

- VOLUNTEER PROGRAMS IN NURSING HOMES ARE THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE ACTIVITY DIRECTOR OR LIFE ENRICHMENT COORDINATOR

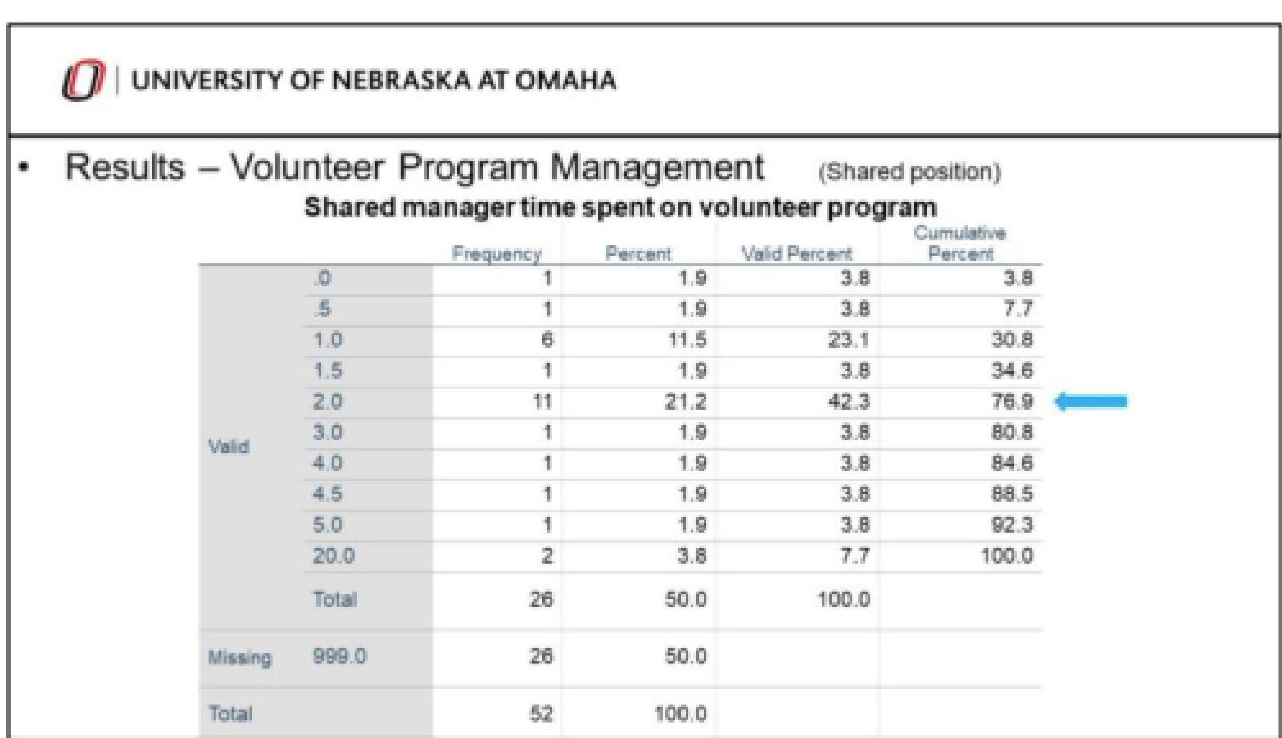


- TEN PARTICIPANTS REPORTED THEY HAD RECEIVED SOME VOLUNTEER MANAGEMENT TRAINING



		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	40	76.9	97.6	97.6
	Yes	1	1.9	2.4	100.0
	Total	41	78.8	100.0	
Missing	999	11	21.2		
Total		52	100.0		

- ONE PERSON REPORTED THAT THEY HAD A CERTIFICATE IN VOLUNTEER MANAGEMENT



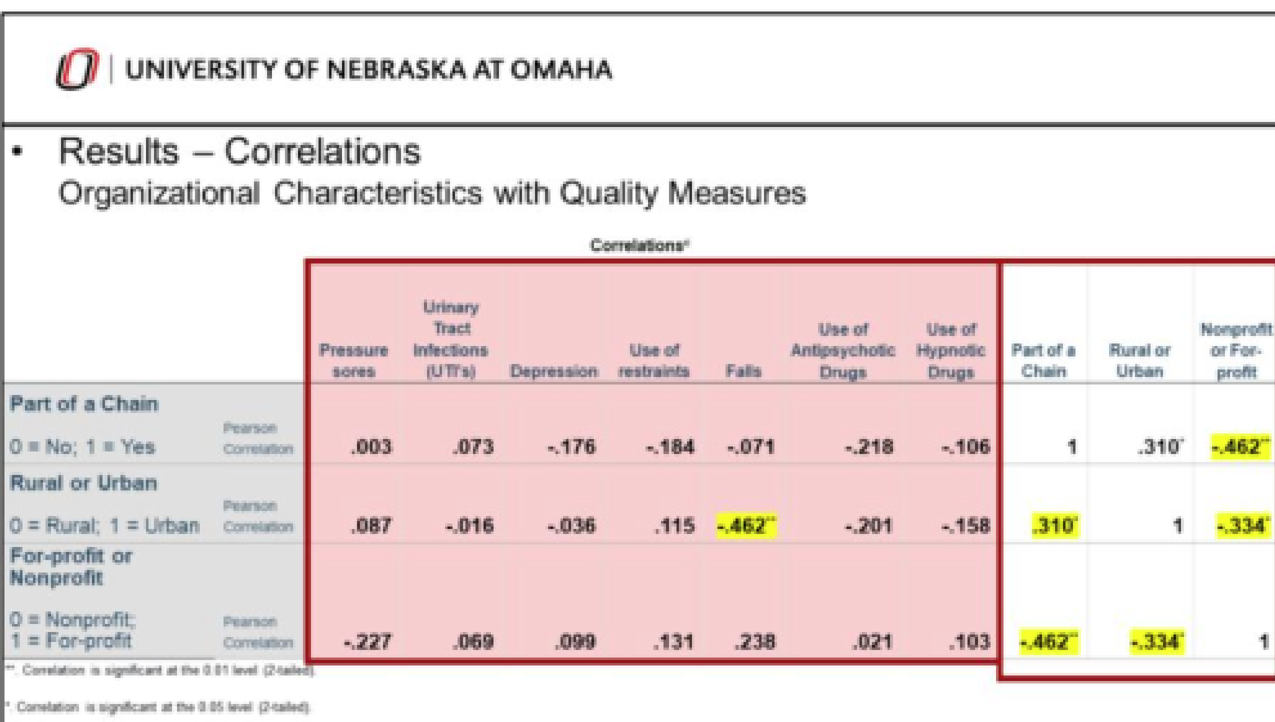
UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT OMAHA

- Results – Volunteer Program Management (Shared position)

Shared manager time spent on volunteer program

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	.0	1	1.9	3.8	3.8
	.5	1	1.9	3.8	7.7
	1.0	6	11.5	23.1	30.8
	1.5	1	1.9	3.8	34.6
	2.0	11	21.2	42.3	76.9
	3.0	1	1.9	3.8	80.8
	4.0	1	1.9	3.8	84.6
	4.5	1	1.9	3.8	88.5
	5.0	1	1.9	3.8	92.3
	20.0	2	3.8	7.7	100.0
	Total	26	50.0	100.0	
Missing	999.0	26	50.0		
Total		52	100.0		

- 76.9 PERCENT OF THE VOLUNTEER MANAGERS SPEND 2 OR LESS HOURS PER WEEK ON THEIR VOLUNTEER PROGRAMS.



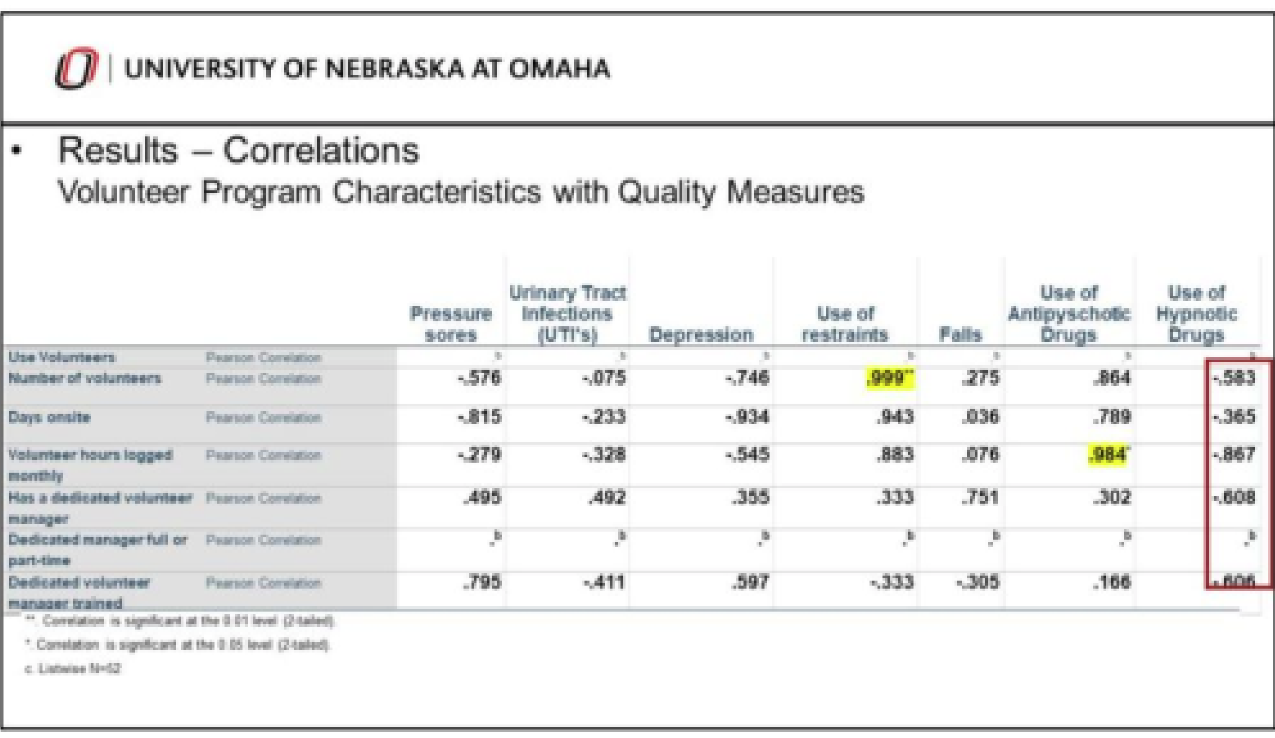
		Pressure sores	Urinary Tract Infections (UTI's)	Depression	Use of restraints	Falls	Use of Antipsychotic Drugs	Use of Hypnotic Drugs	Part of a Chain	Rural or Urban	Nonprofit or For-profit
Part of a Chain 0 = No; 1 = Yes	Pearson Correlation	.003	.073	-.176	-.184	-.071	-.218	-.106	1	.310*	-.462**
Rural or Urban 0 = Rural; 1 = Urban	Pearson Correlation	.087	-.016	-.036	.115	-.462**	-.201	-.158	.310*	1	-.334*
For-profit or Nonprofit 0 = Nonprofit; 1 = For-profit	Pearson Correlation	-.227	.069	.099	.131	.238	.021	.103	-.462**	-.334*	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

URBAN NURSING HOMES IN THIS STUDY WERE MORE LIKELY TO BE PART OF A CHAIN AND A NONPROFIT WHEREAS THE RURAL NURSING HOMES IN THIS STUDY WERE LIKELY NOT PART OF A CHAIN AND FOR-PROFIT

AS FAR AS THE QUALITY MEASURES THE ONLY SIGNFICANT CORRELATION WAS THAT OF FALLS AND SO URBAN NURSING HOMES THERE ARE LIKELY TO BE FEWER FALLS.



- Results – Correlations
  Volunteer Program Characteristics with Quality Measures

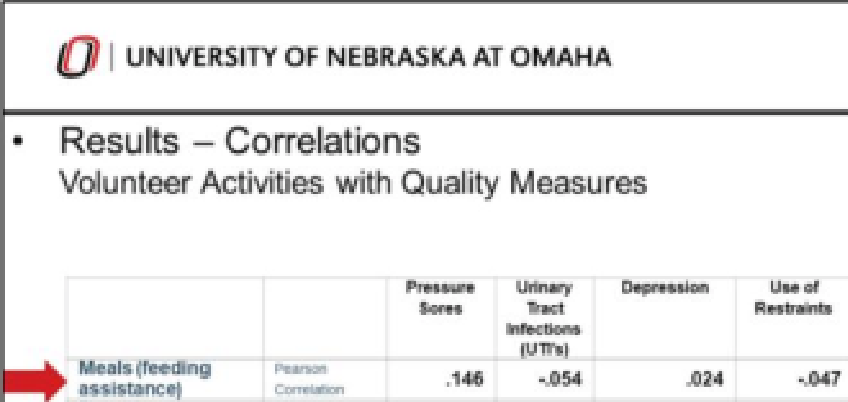
		Pressure sores	Urinary Tract Infections (UTI's)	Depression	Use of restraints	Falls	Use of Antipyschotic Drugs	Use of Hypnotic Drugs
Use Volunteers	Pearson Correlation	.[b]	.[b]	.[b]	.[b]	.[b]	.[b]	.[b]
Number of volunteers	Pearson Correlation	-.576	-.075	-.746	.999**	.275	.864	-.583
Days onsite	Pearson Correlation	-.815	-.233	-.934	.943	.036	.789	-.365
Volunteer hours logged monthly	Pearson Correlation	-.279	-.328	-.545	.883	.076	.984*	-.867
Has a dedicated volunteer manager	Pearson Correlation	.495	.492	.355	.333	.751	.302	-.608
Dedicated manager full or part-time	Pearson Correlation	.[b]	.[b]	.[b]	.[b]	.[b]	.[b]	.[b]
Dedicated volunteer manager trained	Pearson Correlation	.795	-.411	.597	-.333	-.305	.166	-.606

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

c. Listwise N=52

- THERE IS NO GOOD EXPLANATION AS TO WHY THE USE OF RESTRAINTS AND THE USE OF ANTIPSYCHOTICS WERE ALMOST PERFECTLY CORRELATED WITH THE NUMBER OF VOLUNTEERS AND THE NUMBER OF HOURS VOLUNTEERS WERE LOGGING.
- HOWEVER, PLEASE NOTE THAT UNDER THE USE OF HYPNOTIC DRUGS THAT THE TREND IS LESS USE OF DRUGS IN STRONGER VOLUNTEER PROGRAMS.



- Results – Correlations

Volunteer Activities with Quality Measures

		Pressure Sores	Urinary Tract Infections (UTI's)	Depression	Use of Restraints	Falls	Use of Antipsychotic Drugs	Use of Hypnotic Drugs
Meals (feeding assistance)	Pearson Correlation	.146	-.054	.024	-.047	.010	-.162	-.303*
Provides snacks/water	Pearson Correlation	.182	.139	-.071	-.104	.063	-.029	-.055
Assists with grooming	Pearson Correlation	-.011	-.152	.062	-.061	-.050	-.144	-.122
Assists with letter writing/reading	Pearson Correlation	-.031	.032	.215	.091	.150	-.236	-.164
Provides companionship	Pearson Correlation	.[a]	.[a]	.[a]	.[a]	.[a]	.[a]	.[a]
Assists with group activities	Pearson Correlation	.[a]	.[a]	.[a]	.[a]	.[a]	.[a]	.[a]

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

c. Listwise N=52

- MEAL ASSISTANCE IS A PERSONALIZED ACTIVITY, THAT IS FEEDING SOMEONE, ENJOYING PLEASANT CONVERSATION, AND PROBABLY RELAXED AS OPPOSED TO RUSHING PEOPLE INTO THE DINING ROOM, GETTING THEM FED, AND GETTING THE NEXT GROUP IN TO BE FED.

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT OMAHA

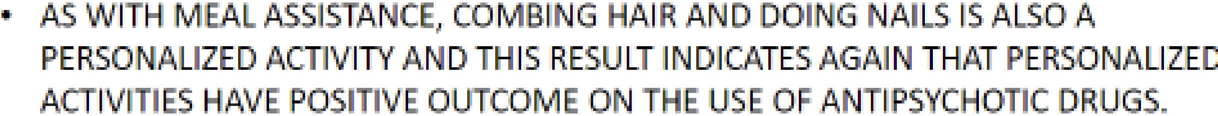
- Results – Correlations
  Volunteer Activities with Quality Measures

		Pressure Sores	Urinary Tract Infections (UTI's)	Depression	Use of Restraints	Falls	Use of Antipsychotic Drugs	Use of Hypnotic Drugs
Provides entertainments	Pearson Correlation	.067	-.067	.153	.046	.184	-.184	-.102
Conducts religious services	Pearson Correlation	.231	.207	.003	.038	-.091	.047	.158
Personal religious rituals	Pearson Correlation	-.021	-.137	-.103	.066	.133	-.214	-.054
Provides clerical support	Pearson Correlation	.231	-.166	.254	-.065	.004	.032	-.035
Assists with dressing	Pearson Correlation	.166	-.021	.088	-.053	.070	-.187	-.198
Combing hair/doing nails	Pearson Correlation	.190	-.072	-.043	.160	.047	-.433**	-.260

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

c. Listwise N=52



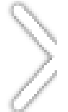
- AS WITH MEAL ASSISTANCE, COMBING HAIR AND DOING NAILS IS ALSO A PERSONALIZED ACTIVITY AND THIS RESULT INDICATES AGAIN THAT PERSONALIZED ACTIVITIES HAVE POSITIVE OUTCOME ON THE USE OF ANTIPSYCHOTIC DRUGS.

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT OMAHA

- Results – Correlations
  Volunteer Activities with Quality Measures

		Pressure Sores	Urinary Tract Infections (UTI's)	Depression	Use of Restraints	Falls	Use of Antipsychotic Drugs	Use of Hypnotic Drugs
Provides transportation	Pearson Correlation	-.027	.085	.283*	-.079	.003	-.075	-.142
Pushes wheelchairs	Pearson Correlation	.078	-.309*	.037	.025	-.099	-.031	.031
Provides other duties	Pearson Correlation	.157	-.355*	.035	.268	-.188	.201	.009
Assists with offsite activities	Pearson Correlation	.254	-.202	-.005	.102	-.154	-.057	-.176
Assists with evening activities	Pearson Correlation	.114	.000	.217	.068	-.157	-.192	-.231

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
c. Listwise N=52



- WHILE PUSHING A WHEELCHAIR MAY NOT SEEM TO BE A PERSONALIZED ACTIVITY, IF DONE PROPERLY, IT IS A PERSONALIZED ACTIVITY AS THE "PUSHER" IS TALKING WITH THE RESIDENT AS THEY TRAVEL TO THEIR DESTINATION.

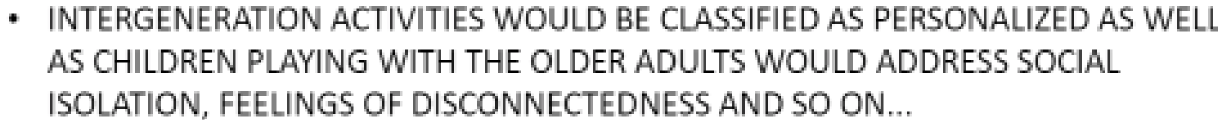
- "PROVIDES OTHER DUTIES" IS A BIT VAGUE AND REQUIRES FURHTER INVESTIGATION, NEVERTHELESS THOSE ACTIVITIES HAD A POSITIVE RELATIONSHIP WITH THE INCIDENT RATE OF UTI'S

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA AT OMAHA

- Results – Correlations
  Volunteer Activities with Quality Measures

		Pressure Sores	Urinary Tract Infections (UTI's)	Depression	Use of Restraints	Falls	Use of Antipsychotic Drugs	Use of Hypnotic Drugs
Assists with weekend activities	Pearson Correlation	.160	-.209	.158	.079	-.140	-.037	-.150
Assists with outdoor activities	Pearson Correlation	.088	.090	.275	.074	-.035	.031	-.154
Assists with gardening activities	Pearson Correlation	-.102	-.017	.086	.101	-.013	.092	.062
Provides pet therapy	Pearson Correlation	.004	-.024	.136	.037	.166	-.207	-.166
Provides intergeneration activities	Pearson Correlation	.192	-.123	.165	.060	.008	-.311*	-.300*

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
c. Listwise N=52



- INTERGENERATION ACTIVITIES WOULD BE CLASSIFIED AS PERSONALIZED AS WELL AS CHILDREN PLAYING WITH THE OLDER ADULTS WOULD ADDRESS SOCIAL ISOLATION, FEELINGS OF DISCONNECTEDNESS AND SO ON...

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- Results – Correlations

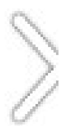
  Volunteer Activities with Quality Measures

		Pressure Sores	Urinary Tract Infections (UTI's)	Depression	Use of Restraints	Falls	Use of Antipsychotic Drugs	Use of Hypnotic Drugs
Meals (feeding assistance)	Pearson Correlation	.146	-.054	.024	-.047	.010	-.162	-.303*
Combing hair/doing nails	Pearson Correlation	.190	-.072	-.043	.160	.047	-.433**	-.260
Provides intergeneration activities	Pearson Correlation	.192	-.123	.165	.060	.008	-.311*	-.300*
Pushes wheelchairs	Pearson Correlation	.078	-.309*	.037	.025	-.099	-.031	.031

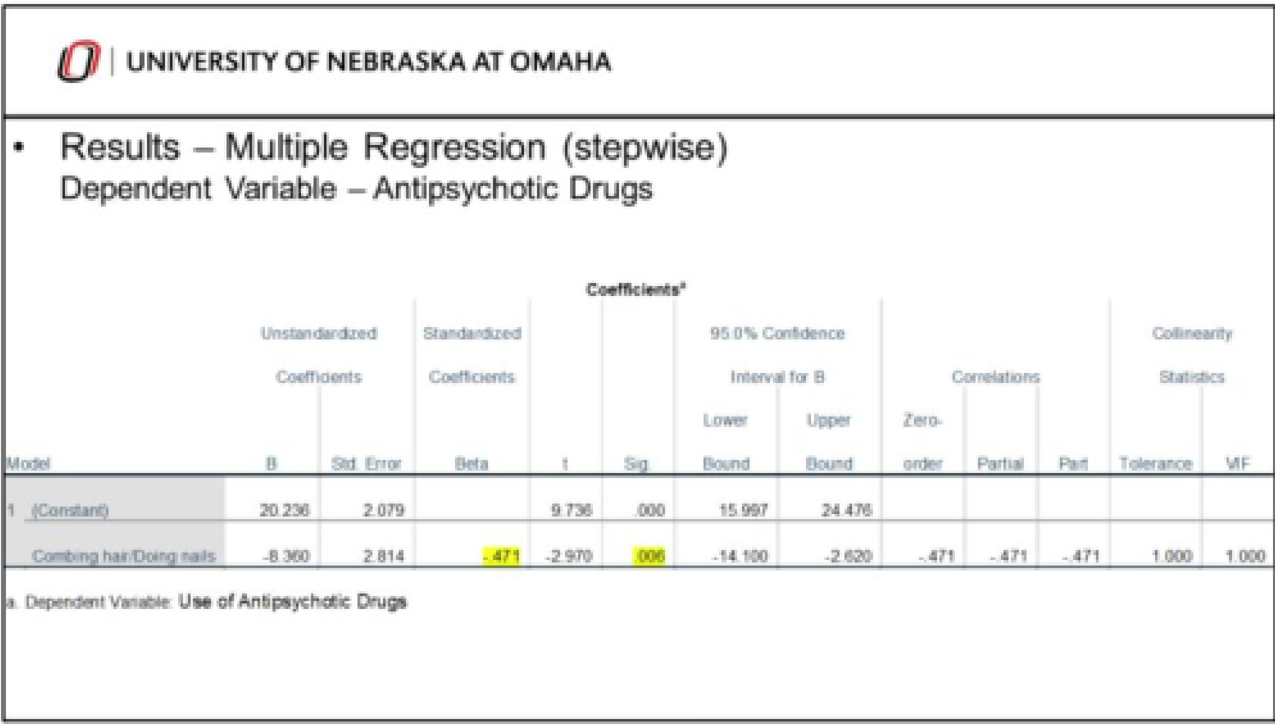
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

c. Listwise N=62



- THIS IS A SUMMARY SLIDE THEN OF THE RESULTS OF THE CORRELATIONS



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- Results – Multiple Regression (stepwise)
  Dependent Variable – Antipsychotic Drugs

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Lower Bound	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Upper Bound	Correlations Zero-order	Correlations Partial	Correlations Part	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	Collinearity Statistics VIF
1	(Constant)	20.236	2.079		9.736	.000	15.997	24.476					
	Combing hair/Doing nails	-8.360	2.814	-.471	-2.970	.006	-14.100	-2.620	-.471	-.471	-.471	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Use of Antipsychotic Drugs

- USING THE INCIDENT RATE FOR THE USE OF ANTIPSYCHOTIC DRUGS AND CONTROLLING FOR ALL OTHER FACTORS, COMBING HAIR AND DOING NAILS EMERGED AS A SIGNIFICANT INDICATOR FOR THE USE OF ANTIPSYCHOTICS
- AGAIN WE CAN'T GO TO FAR JUST YET AS FAR AS WHAT CONCLUSIONS WE DRAW BUT WE CAN SAFELY SAY A RELATIONSHIP EXISTS AND FURTHER INVESTIGATION INTO THESE RELATIONSHIPS IS WARRATED

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- Results – Multiple Regression (stepwise)
  Dependent Variable – Hypnotic Drugs

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	27.792	2.442		11.380	.000	22.811	32.772					
	Assists with offsite activities	-10.098	2.806	-.543	-3.599	.001	-15.821	-4.376	-.543	-.543	-.543	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	29.921	2.415		12.387	.000	24.988	34.854					
	Assists with offsite activities	-8.821	2.646	-.474	-3.334	.002	-14.225	-3.417	-.543	-.520	-.465	.963	1.039
	Combing hair/Doing nails	-5.677	2.277	-.355	-2.493	.018	-10.328	-1.026	-.446	-.414	-.348	.963	1.039

- USING THE INCIDENT RATE FOR THE USE OF HYPNOTIC DRUGS, AND CONTROLLING FOR ALL OTHER VARIABLES, ASSISTING WITH OFFSITE ACTIVITIES AND ONCE AGAIN COMBING HAIR AND DOING NAILS EMERGE AS INDICATORS FOR THE USE OF HYNOTIC DRUGS

- AND AS WITH THE PREVIOUS REGRESSION MODEL, WE CANNOT GO TO FAR BUT WE CAN SAFELY SAY THAT A RELATIONSHIP EXISTS AND FURTHER INVESTIGATION IS WARRATED.

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- Discussion
  - Volunteer activities influence quality measures
    - Personalized activities vs group activities seem to have the most impact on the use of psychotics
  - Volunteer program management is limited
    - Volunteer program managers were most likely not trained in volunteer management
    - Seventy-six percent of the volunteer managers spent two hours or less each week on their volunteer program
    - Seventeen volunteer managers did not know how many hours were being logged.
    - Volunteer programming was an add-on to existing duties
  - Volunteer programming needs to be taken more seriously
    - Impacts "Star Rating"
    - Acts as a conduit for attracting new workers
    - Counters the negative image of nursing homes as a place to avoid
    - Provides meaningful relief for overworked care staff

- Recommendations
  - A large scale study is needed to:
    - Further explore relationship between volunteer activities and quality of care outcomes.
    - Assess the cost-benefit of volunteer activities for nursing homes.
    - Allow for more rigorous statistical analysis, e.g., structural equation modeling (SEM).

Question?
Comments...
Ideas!

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ONCE AGAIN WE WANT TO THANK THE CENTER FOR PUBLIC AFFAIRS RESEARCH FOR AWARDING THIS GRANT THAT MADE THIS ALL IMPORTANT STUDY POSSIBLE AND IT IS OUR HOPE THAT THIS STUDY WILL PROVIDE THE IMPETUS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH.

THANK YOU!

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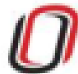
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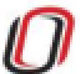
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