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Impact of Departmental Procedural Fairness on Officer Psychological Well-Being and
Engagement in Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

A Dissertation

Presented to the Faculty of the
Department Public Policy & Administration
West Chester University
West Chester, Pennsylvania

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of
Doctor of Public Administration

By

Jennifer M. Mehnert

May 2022

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Abstract

The present study investigated the impact of departmental procedural fairness on officers' psychological well-being and engagement in citizenship behaviors. An additional variable considered was the mediating impact of psychological safety on officers' psychological well-being and citizenship behaviors. The findings of this study identify internal operations of police departments as fertile ground for systemic improvements within policing.

Keywords: Procedural Fairness, Citizenship Behaviors, Psychological Well-Being, and Police.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter outlines why systemic police reform is a pressing public administration challenge that warrants evaluation and examination. While policing is often studied under the auspices of criminal justice, public administration research provides valuable insight into possible avenues for meaningful reform. An overview of previous research findings and the study results presented in this document provide practical insight public administrators can take to advance meaningful and impactful systemic reform.

Institutional Forces

The history of policing in the United States is interwoven with institutionalized racism. Directed by elected leaders to uphold systems of oppression, police have historically been used to control individuals of color and other marginalized communities (Lea, 2000; Lynch, 2011). As a public system, the institution of policing emerged as a hybrid of militaristic and public administration governance models.

Police officers who dedicate their lives to serving their communities swear an oath to “serve and protect.” Trained to protect the public with para-militaristic skills, the moral calling officers feel to protect vulnerable individuals are often in conflict with how officers are trained and the lack of organizational justice officers experience from their employer (Conti, 2011; Trautman, 2001; Wortley & Homel, 1995).

Systemic improvement of America’s policing institutions will not likely occur from within, nor will change result from personalized attacks on officers or divisive calls to defund the police. Law enforcement leaders often agree with public calls to right-size the role of law enforcement (Vermeer et al., 2020). However, such calls often lack an understanding of the social service infrastructure required to divert calls from receiving a law enforcement response.

Policing requires officers to ensure the public's safety while balancing the civil liberties of accused individuals. Individuals who choose to assume the identity of a police officer take an oath to serve and protect their communities. The Black Lives Matter movement mobilized to raise awareness and share evidence of inappropriate use of force by police officers, specifically against people of color. The presence of video evidence of unprofessional, and in some cases, criminal police encounters fueled a narrative that all police officers excessively utilize force in responding to marginalized populations.

Systemic Impacts on Officer Well-Being

Nix and Wolfe (2017) found that negative publicity focused on law enforcement reduced officers' work-related motivation. While public outcry drew necessary attention to the need for systemic police reform, public anger impacted officers' self-legitimacy, resulting in less work motivation. Reduced motivation positively correlates with reduced levels of self-legitimacy (Nix & Wolfe, 2017). Lower levels of officer self-legitimacy result in less support for community policing models and other actions desired by the public (Bradford et al., 2013; Vermeer et al., 2020). Officers with higher levels of self-legitimacy are more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors and utilize verbal de-escalation behaviors (Tankebe & Meško, 2015).

While officers become cynical from constant exposure to less than truthful individuals, the inhumanity involved in slowly choking another human to death fuels the investigation of what factors impact officers' decisions toward the public; the murder of George Floyd requires an evaluation into the factors that allowed four others to watch another officer utilize a banned chokehold for nine minutes. Identifying the variables is a critical step to determining effective interventions to prevent further loss of life of members of the public and officers.

The impact of policing on officers' mental and physical wellness is significant. Ramey et al. (2008) found that officers experience barriers to living a healthy lifestyle that could contribute

to the higher rates of hypertension and obesity than the general population. Due to the constant levels of elevated cortisol, shift schedules, poor diets, and interrupted sleep schedules, on average, police officers die 19 years earlier than their similarly situated peers (Gilmartin, 2002; Violanti et al., 2009). Police officers also experience more psychological and physical stress-based conditions (Oliphant, 2016; Violanti et al., 2016).

Policing impacts the psychological well-being of officers, which raises the question of whether the psychological well-being of officers impacts how they interact with the public. The culture of law enforcement fuels attitudes of stoicism and self-reliance, which run counter to attitudes that support the type of help-seeking behaviors necessary to address mental health concerns (Crank, 2014; Doreian & Conti, 2017). A combination of the regular exposure to traumatic events, the culture present within police departments, and a reluctance to seek mental health help are factors that likely play a role in higher rates of PTSD and suicide among police (Fox et al., 2012; Violanti et al., 2008). Additionally, effects that result in moral injury, such as violating their oath, play a role in developing PTSD (Papazoglou et al., 2020). Robinson et al.'s (1997) evaluation of the impact of job stressors within a suburban police department led to the identification that 13% of officers met the medical criteria for a diagnosis of PTSD. Fox et al. (2012) evaluated barriers to mental health care within an urban police department and identified that 40% of officers met the diagnostic criteria for at least one mental health condition. Significant rates of PTSD (24%), depression (9%), and alcohol use dependence (19%) were identified among the respondents (Fox et al., 2012).

Departmental Culture

Findings that the departmental culture police officers experience in the United States fosters higher stress levels than responding to traumatic events highlight a need to evaluate the impact of departmental culture on officers' interaction with the public (Newman & Rucker-Reed,

2004; Otis & Pelletier, 2005). Organizational justice defines how fairly employers interact with their employees (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Wolfe and Piquero (2011) found that organizational justice has three core aspects: distributive, procedural, and interactional. An element of organizational justice relates to having police departments decide the distribution of agency resources, such as pay and promotion decisions (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Distributive justice captures how fairly resources within the organization are allocated among employees. Procedural fairness assesses the process, not outcomes, used to make decisions. When supervisors provide respectful direction, free from bias, straightforward, and welcoming subordinate input as part of the decision-making process, employees are more likely to believe decisions were fair (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Previous work identified that higher levels of employee engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) lead to more desirable employee team performance (Podsakoff et al., 1997). OCBs are employee actions that go beyond the basic expectations of conduct and performance (Organ & Moorman, 1993). Organ and Moorman (1993) identified that perceived fairness impacted employee engagement in OCBs in ways that job satisfaction did not. Jafari and Bidarian (2012) determined that perceived levels of organizational justice influence employee engagement in OCBs. More specifically, research findings identified the presence of a meaningful correlation between perceived levels of procedural justice and employee engagement in OCBs (Jafari & Bidarian, 2012).

The positive impacts of increased OCBs were identified by Wolfe and Piquero (2011) in their finding that officers who believed their departments were more procedurally fair were less likely to engage in misconduct judged by fewer citizen complaints. Additionally, officers were less likely to be the subject of internal affairs investigations and disciplinary code charges (Wolfe & Piquero, 2011). In examining why these two variables correlate, Moorman et al. (1998) found

that procedural fairness functions as a proxy measure for the level of support employees feel from their employer. Law enforcement departments operate with a paramilitary command structure. Evaluation is necessary to determine the factors that will support law enforcement officers to engage with the public void of excessive use of force. Given concerns about how police interact with the public and the connection between perceived fairness and increased organizational citizenship behaviors by law enforcement, this is a critical area for further evaluation.

Police officers are sworn to protect citizens and serve their communities; however, illegal use of force is a significant issue that public leaders must address. With an established correlation between procedural fairness and citizenship behaviors, further research is necessary to evaluate the impact of psychological safety on officers' engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors and their psychological well-being (Wolfe & Piquero, 2011).

Officer Engagement with the Public

Psychological safety relates to the dynamics present within a team that enables inclusion, innovation, and accountability (Edmondson, 1999). Psychological safety serves as a proxy for trusting work environments and the level of inclusion experienced in the workplace. Previous evaluation of the impact of psychological safety on officer engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors appears to be missing from current psychological safety research. However, the research identified that the correlation between procedural fairness and citizenship actions could be entirely mediated by the high employee trust in their supervisor (Moorman et al., 1998). Findings suggest that trust and connection, as measured by psychological safety, could mediate low levels of procedural fairness, ensuring officers engage in organizational citizenship behaviors even when they believe they are mistreated.

The established correlation between officers' perceived procedural justice and increased utilization of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) call for an evaluation of the level of psychological safety present in an officer's department and the level of fairness that officers will utilize when interacting with the public. Organ and Moorman (1993) identify the relationship between employee and supervisor as playing a pivotal role in employees' willingness to act in the best interest of their employer.

As the nation calls for policy and procedural avenues to decrease unnecessary, excessive, and criminal use of force by police officers, the fields of public administration and criminal justice would benefit from further evaluation of the concepts outlined above. This study intends to investigate factors that impact officers' engagement with the public by answering several research questions.

Research Questions

- Does procedural fairness correlate with officer psychological well-being and officer engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors?
- Does the presence of psychological safety mediate levels of perceived procedural fairness?
- Are the relationships between variables impacted by demographic information, including previous participation in the community policing CIT model?

Research Implications

The conviction of Derek Chauvin in the murder of George Floyd elevated the need to examine factors that enabled a law enforcement officer to utilize a banned chokehold for over nine minutes with no intervention from fellow officers. The brutality of the encounter elevated a need to evaluate organizational factors that enable officers to use deadly force when situationally

unnecessary. Additionally, Floyd's murder highlighted the need to identify factors that prevent officers from intervening in the inappropriate actions of fellow officers.

While public protests focused on the excessive use of police force are riddled throughout history, the presence of cell phones have served to empower and educate the public with a level of information not previously available (Singh, 2017). Videos serve as evidence for actions that had previously been deemed necessary or warranted. Farmer et al. (2015) identified that members of communities of color are more likely and willing to record interactions with the police and believe that recording will decrease the potential for excessive use of force. As deadly encounters with law enforcement become accessible to the public, elected officials search for answers to keep crime rates down and restore public trust in police.

Farmer et al. (2015) find that members of the public believe recording police interactions motivate officers to engage more professionally should be evaluated. Nix and Wolfe (2017) found that negative publicity lowers officer motivation and lowers motivation levels, which produces lower self-legitimacy. The act of videotaping appears to increase police accountability. However, the unintended consequence of negative publicity is that lower levels of self-legitimacy are critical when considering Tankebe and Mesko's (2015) finding that officers with higher self-legitimacy levels are more likely to engage in verbal de-escalation than threaten force.

Public calls for police reform often fixate on the visible actions of specific officers rather than the systemic factors that enable and promote violations of the moral code. Reactionary calls to "defund the police" or eliminate qualified immunity serve to polarize the public rather than promote meaningful change. Advancing systemic change requires a comprehensive assessment of the factors that enable officers to engage in actions that violate the very oath they risk their lives to uphold. An evaluation of the impact of procedural fairness on officers' psychological

well-being and organizational citizenship behaviors presents an opportunity to identify concrete actions that can improve both individual and departmental performance (Farh et al., 1990; Myhill & Bradford, 2013).

Newman and Rucker-Reed (2004) identified a lack of organizational justice as the most significant stressor for police officers. However, the knowledge that officers identify departmental factors to be more stressful than responding to the public was identified by multiple other researchers (Brown & Campbell, 1990; Crank & Caldero, 1991; Kroes, 1976). As a result of these findings, it is reasonable to predict that workplace cultures that make decisions in a manner that officers perceive to be fair will employ officers who experience workplace less stress and report higher levels of contentment and satisfaction with their lives.

Hypothesis 1. Procedural fairness perceptions will be positively related to police officers' psychological well-being.

Highlighted research identified a direct result between the level of procedural fairness present within police departments and the degree of procedural fairness officers display when interacting with members of the public. As a result of this finding, it is reasonable to predict that those police departments with higher levels of procedural fairness will have officers who report higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviors when interacting with the public.

Hypothesis 2. Procedural fairness perceptions will positively relate to police officer engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors.

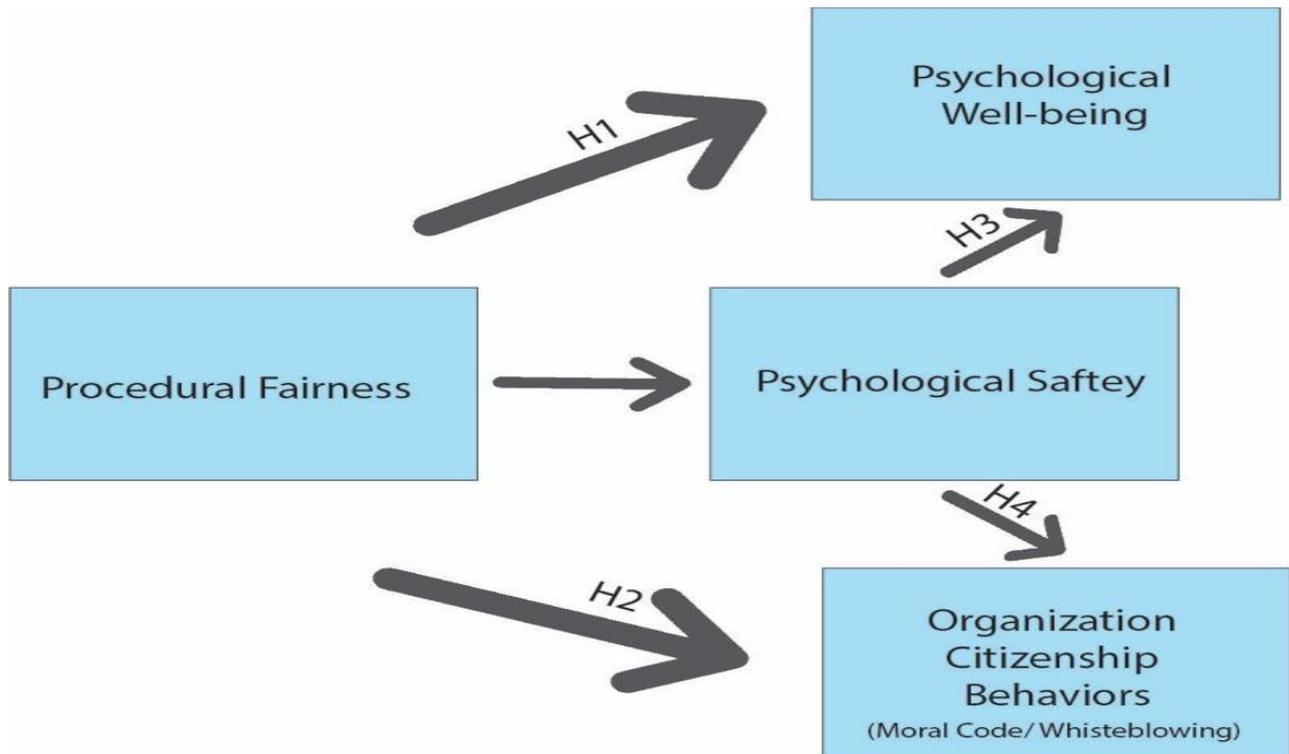
Procedural fairness is a component of organizational justice theory that considers the impact of processes used to distribute resources, make decisions, and supervisors' managerial approach on an entity's culture. The same procedural fairness factors that positively impact officers' well-being play a role in developing psychological safety. Agencies with higher levels

of procedural fairness resulting in lower levels of officer stress will likely also have higher levels of psychological safety.

Hypothesis 3. The relationship between procedural fairness perceptions and police officer well-being will be mediated by psychological safety.

The positive correlation between higher levels of procedural fairness and officers' engagement in organizational citizenship behavior has been identified. Given that procedural fairness is an aspect of workplace culture, it is reasonable to assume that higher levels of procedural fairness and psychological safety will increase rates of enactment of organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 4. The relationship between procedural fairness perceptions and engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors will be mediated by psychological safety.



Dissertation Overview

As an outline of this document, Chapter 2 presents an overview of peer-reviewed published research findings that define the theories related to identified variables and identify validated tools to measure procedural fairness, psychological well-being, organizational citizenship behaviors, and psychological safety. Chapter 3 reviews the research design and the methods used to conduct this research, and chapter four presents the data gathered in this study. Chapter 4 provides a detailed outline of this study's findings. As with all research, the implications for theory and practice are critical outcomes. Chapter 5 shares the implication of the identified findings on public administration operations and the body of existing research on departmental avenues for systemic improvement within policing.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter highlights previous public administration research findings identifying factors that impact employee engagement and performance. Theories developed to explain employee behaviors that impact employee conduct, including organizational justice, include psychological well-being, organizational citizenship behaviors, and the presence of team psychological safety. These variables have previously been identified as correlating to employee actions in various organizational settings.

Organizational Justice and Procedural Fairness

A culture of protection and secrecy is built on the recognition that officers' lives are dependent on the willingness of their fellow officers to assist with critical incidents, preventing comprehensive evaluation of the aspects responsible for conduct unbecoming of an officer (Kappeler et al., 1999; Trautman, 2001). A critical component in developing an agency's culture is the process utilized to make decisions. Organizational justice is a framework used to evaluate the presence of equity and fairness in decisions made by leadership (Greenberg, 1990). An element of organizational justice relates to having police departments decide the distribution of agency resources, such as pay and promotion decisions (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Wolfe et al. (2016b) identify that organizational justice has three core aspects: distributive, procedural, and interactional. Distributive justice relates to how fairly resources within the organization are allocated among employees. Procedural fairness is specific to the process used to make decisions. When supervisors provide respectful direction, free from bias, straightforward, and welcoming subordinate input as part of the decision-making process, employees are more likely to believe decisions were fair (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Interactional justice relates explicitly to how supervisors communicate with their employees. Supervisors who communicate with politeness and honesty are more likely to develop a positive

relationship with that employee. Each element of organizational justice impacts employee trust in organizational leadership (Triplett & Loh, 2018; Wolfe & Nix, 2016a).

The degree to which employees feel the processes used to make decisions are fair has a more significant impact on employee attachment to their employer than the outcomes of those decisions (Aryee et al., 2002; Wat & Shaffer, 2005). The realization that process matters more than outcome elevates the importance of procedural fairness. It is significant to identify that the procedural and organizational fairness present within a police agency impacts officers' attitudes toward their departments and how officers engage with the public (Bradford & Quinton, 2014; Nix & Wolfe, 2017). The role of organizational justice is vital because it directly impacts work performance. It is also significant because procedural fairness plays a substantial role in developing trust (Wolfe & Nix, 2016a).

Furthermore, officers who view their departments as fair are also more likely to trust their departments. Rawl (1971) summarized procedural fairness as treating employees with dignity. The perceived lack of organizational justice or fairness directly impacts the attitudes and actions of police officers (Nix & Wolfe, 2017). There is also a positive correlation between officers who think their department operates with procedural fairness and officers' who commit fewer rule violations when interacting with the public (Van Craen & Skogan, 2017; Wolfe & Piquero, 2011).

Self-legitimacy relates to the inner confidence that an individual holds in their role as a police officer and the perceived value expressed by the public. Officers' attitude toward self-legitimacy increases their willingness to work with the public, demonstrate less intent to use force and minimize the impact of perceived procedural injustices by a supervisor (Wolfe & Nix, 2016a). Agency fairness impacts officers' self-legitimacy, and officer self-legitimacy impacts

officers' willingness to engage with the public to utilize more procedural fairness (Bradford & Quinton, 2014).

The level of perceived organizational justice found within officers' departments impacts officers' levels of self-legitimacy. Nix and Wolfe (2017) determined that lower levels of self-legitimacy were present when officers believed their departments mistreated some employees. The perceived lack of organizational justice, specifically procedural fairness, directly affects police officers' attitudes and actions (Nix & Wolfe, 2017). Leaders whose actions result in lower officer self-legitimacy negatively impact their officers' ability to engage with the public positively (Tankebe, 2010). Wolfe and Nix (2016a) identified that officers who felt supervisors made promotion decisions, addressed complaints, and engaged with officers in ways that were not fair were significantly less likely to work with community members to solve crimes. Therefore, departments with less procedural justice produce officers less willing to engage in citizenship behaviors when interacting with the public (Van Craen & Skogan, 2017). It is important to note that increased self-legitimacy correlates with less intent to use force when interacting with the public (Tankebe & Mesko, 2015).

Interestingly, self-legitimacy has a mitigating impact on officers' performance even when they view their department as procedurally unjust (Bottoms & Tankebe, 2012). The ability for self-legitimacy to positively counteract the injustices they experience within their department is dependent on the positive value expressed for their role by the public (Bottoms & Tankebe, 2012). As officers experience less support from the public, the departments' cultures play an increased role in officers' decision-making and approach to engaging with citizens.

Psychological Safety: Definition and Characteristics

Organizational psychologists have engaged in complex analyses of the individual and group factors that impact an agency's culture. Grounded in an understanding that the fear of

uncertainty is a typical response among employees, researchers sought to identify actions that would enable individuals' willingness to take interpersonal risks in the workplace, especially during uncertainty and change (Schein & Bennis, 1965).

Psychological safety is a theoretical framework related to an organizational culture that enables employees to take personal risks to support the desired outcomes of their employers (Edmondson, 2019; Edmondson & Lei, 2014). Psychologically safe environments are workplaces where employees feel safe to take interpersonal risks, engage in candid and transparent communications, and feel supported even when creative problem-solving approaches fail. (Edmondson, 2019; Edmondson & Lei, 2014). Early work on psychological safety focused on the importance of employee voice in the workplace. Edmondson (2002, 2003) found that psychological safety increases employees' willingness to express concerns about current practices, suggest innovative approaches, and identify actions that may harm the entity.

Psychological safety fosters an environment where employees feel invested, engaged and do not fear failure at the expense of innovation (Edmondson, 2019; Edmondson & Lei, 2014). Observational data determined the significant cultural differences between hospitals with high and low medical errors. Edmondson (2003) found that subordinates' willingness to raise concerns decreased medical error rates and increased the successful implementation of new practices in medical settings. Identifying the communication approaches necessary to increase subordinate's comfort to highlight problems provide avenues to reduce fears that employees would be embarrassed or retaliated against for expressing concerns. Employees' willingness to engage in candid and transparent communication depended on the presence of interpersonal trust. The correlation between direct communication and interpersonal trust highlighted these factors as critical for developing psychological safety (Edmondson, 2002, 2003). These findings were significant because all variables except agency culture were similar across medical settings.

Edmondson (2002) also noted that changing communication patterns could not happen simply by doctors asking for more feedback. Building inclusive environments that supported open and candid expressions of employee voice required a *co-created* process in which a shared investment to promote change is present (Edmondson, 2019). This finding highlights the critical need to intentionally develop psychologically safe environments rather than make declarative statements that welcome all voices and opinions. Edmondson (2019) found that employees will not share their candid perspectives when invited to do so if the environment does not feel safe from interpersonal risk.

Organizational-level research on the impact of psychological safety has identified several outcomes produced by psychological safety in workplaces. For example, Huang et al. (2008) evaluated the effect of psychological safety on employee skill acquisition. They surveyed 100 research and design professionals at 60 corporations to assess the impact of psychological safety on team performance. Huang et al. (2008) found that psychological safety impacts team performance. It was also determined that team learning mediates the impact of psychological safety on team performance. The correlation between psychological safety and team performance suggests that candid and transparent communication directly affects the team's success. Tucker et al. (2007) evaluated workplace factors that aided the implementation of new medical practice models. Their outcomes identified psychological safety as a necessary component for implementing new approaches (Tucker et al., 2007). Tucker et al. determined that employees in psychologically safe environments were more willing to engage in behavior that supported agency success. Choo et al. (2007) evaluated the role of psychological safety on knowledge acquisition among one large software firm. Psychological safety is a factor that aids in knowledge acquisition, creativity, and risk-taking (Choo et al., 2007).

As previously identified, psychological safety within a work culture plays a significant role in the operations of that entity. Leaders can engage in actions that foster psychological safety or negatively impact its presence. Without a clear understanding of the predictors for the development of psychological safety and the consequences resulting from the lack of safe work environments, entities may struggle with low morale, high turnover, and reduced employee productivity. Edmondson also addresses the connection between performance standards and psychological safety. Psychological safety should be seen as a framework in which employees are motivated and supported to meet high standards and improve agency performance (Edmondson, 2019). Connecting interpersonal trust, psychological safety, and the role of candid conversations play a foundational role in developing more productive and supportive work environments. The importance of candor in the workplace also correlates to psychological safety. Employees will not believe the environment is free from interpersonal risk if engagement approaches do not support sharing their candid opinions and constructive feedback (Edmondson, 2019).

Predictors of Psychological Safety

Interpersonal trust is identified as a predictor of psychological safety; thus, understanding the factors impacting the development of trust in the workplace is essential. Attachment theory suggests that individuals seek closeness to others to protect themselves from potential harm (Luke et al., 2020). Attachment theory is at the core of the human experience. We each seek connections that will provide us with protection from physical or emotional harm. While Bowlby (1973) originally proposed three types of attachment styles, more recent work has identified attachment theory through various dimensions of high and low attachment (Luke et al., 2020). Different attachment styles influence connections between individuals, which mitigate perceived interpersonal risk (Luke et al., 2020).

Attachment theory helps to explain further the complicated challenge of developing group trust. Employees are most likely to create trusting relationships with coworkers who do not hold any perceived power over their employment and avoid the vulnerability of developing trusting relationships with supervisors who can impact their employment status. High attachment avoidance in workplace culture negatively impacts workers' attitudes and actions. Employee work attachment has been associated with reduced job satisfaction, job performance, perceived leader effectiveness, and turnover (Stephens et al., 2011).

Clark (2020) found that psychological safety ensures that employees feel safe to take risks, are supported to fail bravely, and are empowered to challenge commonly held assumptions. Having employees who are fully vested in helping to find solutions is the desired outcome for employers. Furthermore, psychological safety influences employees' willingness to take the level of interpersonal risks necessary to support their employer's work without the fear of negative response or retribution. Edmondson (1999) found that creating psychological safety is a shared process in which employees commit to candid communication, transparency, and a willingness to move past interpersonal fear.

Interpersonal dynamics play a central role in developing a psychologically safe workplace (Edmondson, 2019). A leader's positive work engagement on psychological well-being indicates that supervisors who displayed positive attitudes toward accomplishing work tasks impacted subordinates' job satisfaction and increased psychological capital (Zhao & Xie, 2020). Zhao and Xie (2020) found that psychological capital was demonstrated by higher optimism, confidence, resiliency, and enthusiasm.

The ability to trust the intentions and actions of coworkers and supervisors is another critical component of the development of psychologically safe environments. Two types of trust impact the workplace. Interpersonal trust exists between two employees, while group trust is co-

created and shared by a larger group of individuals. Interpersonal trust strengthens the bond between two individuals, while group trust increases the connection among a larger group of individuals. Edmondson (1999) found that the existence of interpersonal trust can both add to and detract from efforts to build psychologically safe environments. Suppose interpersonal trust comes at the cost of group trust. In that case, its presence harms the development of psychological safety within the work environment. Interpersonal trust can lead to environments that feel exclusionary to employees not included in that network of relationships. Interpersonal trust between employees and their supervisors can improve work performance by increasing their comfort in working together. In contrast, interpersonal trust among frustrated employees can fuel the presence of a negative sub-culture within the entity (Edmondson, 2019).

These findings highlight the need for meaningful collaboration that focuses on developing interpersonal trust within workplaces. Determining factors that influence the development of trust and developing plans to increase group trust is paramount for managers. Research findings highlight the critical role that interpersonal trust plays in workplace interactions. Interpersonal trust fuels increased connections between individuals, allowing them to work more effectively together by engaging in more open communication (Huxham & Vangen, 2013). Trust in the workplace promotes innovation, inclusion, and conflict resolution (Edmondson, 2019). As employers rely on collaboration, the need to extend trust across the culture of the entire entity is a pressing concern. Moving beyond interpersonal trust to group trust allows collaborative action (Agranoff, 2007).

The difference between negativity and candor is that candor elevates an individual's truth without ulterior motives and is void of hostile intent (Edmondson, 2019). Engagement in negative conversations about the agency, coworkers, or supervisors prevents the presence of psychological safety (Edmondson, 2019). Employees who engage in unproductive complaining

rather than sharing candid feedback build a culture of distrust and insecurity. Edmondson's theory that psychological safety must be co-created speaks to the destructive impact that office gossip and constant negativity in the workplace have on an entity's culture, explicitly fostering psychological safety (Edmondson, 2019). While interpersonal trust often develops more easily, psychological safety cannot grow in a workplace where group trust is nonexistent (Edmondson, 2002, 2003).

Triplett and Loh (2018) evaluated the impact that work locus of control had on the development of psychological safety, including examining the moderating role of interpersonal trust. A study involving construction workers in Australia evaluated the interaction between feeling control over their work and psychological safety with the mitigating impact that trust had on those variables. Triplett and Loh (2018) found a correlation between work locus of control and psychological safety. The more external control an employee experienced in completing their work, the less psychological safety they reported experiencing (Triplett & Loh, 2018). Additionally, interpersonal trust was found to significantly moderate the impact of external locus of control on the presence of psychological safety (Triplett & Loh, 2018). These findings show the importance of cultivating interpersonal trust as a component, but not excluding group trust. Trust between individuals helps support the presence of shared psychologically safe.

The benefits of significant social connection among coworkers correlate positively with employee physical and mental well-being (Stephens et al., 2011). Stephens et al. (2011) determined that trusting coworker relationships decreased employee turnover. Connections with coworkers serve as a predictor of employee performance because building interpersonal trust and attachment among employees increases productivity and employee well-being (Luke et al., 2020). Prior research has shown that employee work attachment positively correlates with psychological safety and often develops because of similar factors necessary to create

psychologically safe environments (Crawshaw & Game, 2015; Farmer et al., 2015; Molero et al., 2013).

Research findings highlight that interpersonal trust plays a critical role in positive workplace interactions (Huxham & Vangen, 2013). Interpersonal trust fuels increased connections between individuals, allowing them to work more effectively and take more significant risks in suggesting new approaches. Trust in the workplace promotes innovation, inclusion, and dispute resolutions, making it a key component of psychological safety (Edmondson, 2019). When interpersonal trust is high and positive attachments are present, employees are more likely to task risks, invest more energy in task completion, share information and ideas, and work collaboratively (Edmondson, 2002, 2003).

While interpersonal trust is critical to high-performing entities, the ability of a workplace to move beyond interpersonal trust to the presence of group trust allows collaborative action to occur (Agranoff, 2007). The role trust plays in fostering collaboration is significant for police departments. Officers must often respond to critical incidents knowing their lives could depend on the information provided to them by their fellow officers.

Mao et al. (2019) evaluated the impact of self-serving leader behavior and employee attitudes toward those leaders on the development of psychological safety. A time-lagged study of 166 leaders evaluated the interaction effect of leader competence and self-serving behaviors on levels of psychological safety as perceived by 514 employees. Mao et al. (2019) found that leader competency was positively associated with psychological safety while self-serving leader behavior was negatively related to psychological safety. Additionally, high leader competency positively interacts with non-self-serving behavior, increasing psychological safety and significantly impacting employee performance (Mao et al., 2019).

Inclusive leadership has been identified as an additional characteristic impacting the presence of psychological safety in the workplace. Leader inclusivity, defined as intentional action on the part of leaders to seek and value the input of employees in the completion of tasks (Carmelia et al., 2010), is a crucial aspect of inclusivity is positivity, as negative or dismissive attitudes decrease employee engagement. Carmelia et al. (2010) used a 9-item measure to have employees assess supervisors for openness, availability, and accessibility. A positive correlation was found between inclusive leadership, psychological safety, and employee involvement in creative work. A positive association was also found between psychological safety and employee involvement in creative work (Carmelia et al., 2010). Due to operational limitations, promoting inclusivity is critical but complex in some work environments. In these situations, leaders face additional challenges in fostering inclusive workplaces. Carmelia et al. (2010) suggest that leaders utilize inclusive approaches with their subordinates.

Yang (2020) evaluated the impact of workplace fun on increased creativity and enhanced psychological safety. An evaluation of hotel employees in China determined a statistically significant positive relationship between workplace fun and employee creativity. Additionally, workplace fun and psychological safety were positively related, including psychological safety and employee creativity (Yang, 2020). Allowing employees to engage in entertaining, fun, social, and relationship-enhancing workplace activities enhanced psychological safety (Yang, 2020).

While Edmondson (2019) identified that psychological safety is co-created, determining whether leaders or employees play a more significant role in creating psychologically safe workplaces has been evaluated in various studies. A two-year longitudinal study of factors influencing psychological safety that included daily survey responses collected from 238 individuals found that the leader's communications and the effect of team member interactions

were so highly correlated that they should be considered as one variable in the evaluation of psychological safety. This finding suggests that what a leader does and how employees perceive those actions are so interwoven that these two variables' impact should be considered a single variable (Edmondson & Mogelof, 2005). Edmondson and Mogelof (2005) also found that the effect of team members' interpersonal interactions plays such a significant role that the two components should be considered a single variable.

Identification of the significant impact of interpersonal interaction led Edmondson and Mogelof (2005) to identify that before psychological safety can be experienced at the group level, candor, trust, and inclusivity must first be shared between individuals. Edmondson and Mogelof (2005) explored the barriers to the development of psychological safety at several different levels. Psychological safety can differ significantly between and within companies, as determined after reviewing longitudinal survey data collected from 26 innovation teams operating in seven companies. Assessing the impact of the five core personality traits, the only variable associated with psychological safety was neuroticism (Edmondson & Mogelof, 2005). Their evaluation determined that individuals with higher levels of neuroticism reported a lower level of psychological safety. This correlation identified a relationship between levels of anxiety and negativity as barriers to the development of workplace trust.

Cherniak et al. (1983) add to the conversation about barriers to psychological safety by suggesting that individuals form a belief about the level of psychological safety present within an entity or a specific team; future interactions will not likely change the level of trust present within interpersonal relationships. The rationale for this barrier to building psychological safety is that once an individual forms an opinion about the psychological safety of an environment, they tend to notice and remember events that validate their original belief (Cherniak et al., 1983).

Collins and Smith (2006) evaluated the role of environment-focused HR practices on employee commitment and developing a climate of trust. While their research was not specifically on psychological safety, the evaluation did evaluate the variable of workplace trust. Collins and Smith (2006) found a statistically significant impact on the development of trust occurred due to the implementation of environment-focused HR practices. These findings identify HR departments as partners in the development of workplace trust. However, most police agencies that operate at the municipal, county, or even state levels do not have access to an HR professional whose role includes implementing HR best practice models.

As outlined above, psychological safety provides a framework to build inclusive and innovative entities. When present, employees are engaged in collective problem-solving, open communication, candid dialogues about disagreements, and trust in their coworkers. When it is absent, employees are reluctant to offer innovative ideas, more likely to leave or burnout, and less likely to trust the intentions of their leader. A negative and divisive climate can develop when psychological safety is not present. This type of culture develops because employees seeking interpersonal safety focus on developing interpersonal trust to the detriment of group trust. Ironically the safety employees seek is directly destroyed by investing their energy in interpersonal trust by utilizing negativity as a tool to build that trust.

Impact of Procedural Fairness on Psychological Safety in Police Departments

Bandura's (1977) Social Learning Theory suggests that supervisors play a significant role in creating an environment subordinates perceive as fair. The more inclusive supervisors are to listening to diverse opinions, the higher levels of engagement employees display. Supervisors who make decisions using procedural fairness can model that decision-making style for their subordinates. By modeling those decisions should be fair, supervisors demonstrate how officers would ideally respond to the public (Haas et al., 2015). An entity that expects its officers to

respond to the public with fairness, but does not treat its officers fairly, expects officers to enact an approach that has not been modeled.

Procedural fairness and trust are key predictive variables given the predictive role that interpersonal and group trust plays in developing psychological safety. A culture of perceived fairness directly affects how employees view and engage with their supervisors (Adams, 1963). Officers who do not believe their supervisor is fair will likely not report high levels of trust in their agency. If officers see the procedure used to determine promotion decisions as fair, officers' engagement in citizenship behaviors is likely to increase (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Lower levels of trust result in reduced workplace engagement, as demonstrated by behaviors such as open communication, transparency, and candid dialogue. In a field where officers need to trust their lives in the hands of fellow officers, the development of psychological safety becomes paramount.

Van Craen (2016) offers a workplace relations framework to understand the predictors of trustworthy police actions. This theory is grounded in three conditions necessary for police officers to act in trustworthy ways. Officers' trust in both citizens and their immediate supervisor directly correlates to their trust in agency leadership (Van Craen, 2016). Secondly, the trust officers have in their department and supervisor directly influences the amount of trust officers express toward the public. If an officer is more likely to trust a member of the public, they are more likely to engage cooperatively with that individual. Finally, Van Craen (2016) states that perceived internal procedural justice leads officers to utilize more external procedural justice. This work relations theory suggests a straightforward correlation between how officers are treated by their employers and how they will treat the public (Haas et al., 2015). Wolfe et al. (2016b) identify that fairness in promotion decisions significantly predicts employee trust in police departments.

Officers who believe that decisions made by their supervisors are procedurally fair are more likely to trust their employer (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; Van Craen, 2016). Haas et al. (2015) define procedural fairness as decisions based on ‘neutrality, respect, voice, and accountability. Supervisory actions that are believed to build trust are outlined as consistent behaviors, acting with integrity, sharing control, open communication, and displaying concern (Whitener, 1997). Whitener (1997) exchange relationship framework outlined that trust is developed over time because of the exchange of social benefits/rewards. Displaying trust in an employee while engaging with them honestly and kindly provides social rewards. A supervisor’s ability to provide employees with social rewards is not expensive or complicated. However, within the culture of policing, respect, kindness, and trust are not uniformly displayed by self-serving law enforcement leaders (Mao et al., 2019).

Officers who feel their departments or supervisors are procedurally fair are more likely to engage in conduct that supports the agency, such as demonstrating more fairness when interacting with the public and greater adherence to agency policies and protocols (Tankebe, 2014). These findings stress the direct correlation between how police departments treat their officers and officers treat the public (Tankebe, 2014). These findings identify that if an officer trusts their department, they are more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors with the public. Police leadership can enhance the performance of their officers simply by engaging in greater procedural fairness and transparency. The reverse is also true. The decision by police leaders not to operate with procedural fairness directly harms the public.

As the public protests officer use of force cases, there is a pressing need to evaluate multiple ways to reduce the use of force. Officers’ relationships with their supervisors and departments hold significant potential for increasing citizenship behaviors and decreasing the use of force. An officer’s perceived procedural injustices by supervisors increase the lack of trust in

their department, resulting in greater levels of officers' misconduct and less investment in the agency's stated goals (Haas et al., 2015; Van Craen, 2016). It is important to restate that self-legitimacy has a mitigating impact on officers' performance even when they view their department as procedurally unjust (Bottoms & Tankebe, 2012). The perceived public value directly impacts self-legitimacy for the role of policing. In communities that value the presence and role of law enforcement, levels of self-legitimacy will be higher. However, self-legitimacy is negatively impacted by departments that operate with lower levels of procedural fairness and strong distrust from the public.

As the national calls out for strategies that will decrease the use of unnecessary force, the relationship between the internal cultures of police agencies and how police engage with the public is a critical area for further study. Reform efforts have focused on addressing excessive use of force at the officer level. Calls to eliminate qualified immunity focus responsibility for bad actors within the profession solely on individual officers. Organizational theory suggests that approaches that focus on officers' conduct alone will fail to produce meaningful reform. It is reasonable to hypothesize that departments that increase procedural fairness will decrease citizen complaints.

Psychological Well-Being of Police Officers

Police culture has traditionally rewarded toughness, compliance, and stoicism (Crank, 2014). While there is significant exposure to stressful and traumatic events, police culture has not historically promoted help-seeking behaviors among officers (Cohen et al., 2019; Williams et al., 2010). Officers must move from incident to incident without protocols that suggest their well-being is a consideration. Police officers experience higher Post-Traumatic Stress Syndrome (PTSS) rates and depression resulting from the psychological toll of chronic exposure to trauma

and stressful events (Cohen et al., 2019). Rates of substance use disorders and suicidality are higher among police officers (Oliphant, 2016; Violanti et al., 2009).

On average, police officers die nineteen years earlier than their similarly situated peers (Gilmartin, 2002). Gilmartin correlates officers' premature deaths to various negative work-related factors impacting officers' physical and psychological well-being. The duties of policing expose officers to traumatic events, exhaustion, poor diets, heightened stress hormones, personal danger, public scrutiny, and unpredictable work schedules, often leading to work/family conflicts.

Psychological well-being is a component of positive well-being that focuses on fulfillment and purpose. Several factors impact the psychological well-being of officers. Prolonged exposure to stress and heightened cortisol levels affects an officer's mental and physical health (Gilmartin, 2002). These factors impact officers' psychological well-being and physical health, impacting how they see the world around them (Gilmartin, 2002). The required repeated pattern officers experience going from calm to chaos impacts officer burnout and disassociation, sleep patterns, and operating in a continual hyper-vigilant state (Gilmartin, 2002). Living in a hyper-vigilant state can result in officers' over responding to situations. The heightened state of hyper-vigilance can make it difficult to determine the appropriate risk level for any given situation.

Consistently exposed to death, victimization, tragic accidents, and threats to their safety, law enforcement officers' views of the world are constructed by these negative experiences (Gilmartin, 2002). Evaluating the factors that impact officers' well-being, Violanti et al. (2016) identified that higher rates of suicidality among law enforcement officers correlate with increased levels of hopelessness. In evaluating factors that increased hopelessness among law enforcement officers, administrative stress and lack of organizational support correlated with

increased hopelessness, but the job-related danger was not (Violanti et al., 2016). These findings highlight the lack of support officers' experience from their departments and unwarranted administrative reviews that foster more hopelessness than any other aspect of their employment. Of particular significance, Violanti et al. (2016) determined that levels of hopelessness among officers increased to the highest level within the study as the level of organizational support from the department decreased. These findings, which identify that organizational justice and procedural fairness directly impact officers' hopelessness levels, identify the need to evaluate these areas as aspects of officers' psychological well-being.

The daily demands of policing negatively impact officers' physical and mental health. Cohen et al. (2019) found that police officers are routinely engaged in situations that increase their stress levels and release cortisol into the body. Police officers present with a higher risk of cardiovascular disease and other adverse health outcomes (Ramey et al., 2008). Ramey et al. (2008) utilized survey data to evaluate the factors that impacted police officers' risk of cardiovascular disease, focusing on work-related factors that negatively impacted officers' physical well-being. Health risk factors determined to be directly associated with aspects of policing included irregular work hours, lack of predictable routine, and fatigue (Ramey et al., 2008). Not only does policing negatively impact an individual's physical well-being, but it also leaves officers too drained to engage in health promotion activities. Officers identified fatigue as a significant factor that made it harder for them to engage in health promotion activities such as exercise and healthy eating (Ramey et al., 2008).

Martinussen et al. (2007) evaluated factors resulting from officer burnout and found a statistically significant relationship between burnout and officers' physical and psychological well-being. One of the primary factors impacting officer burnout was maintaining work/family balances (Martinussen et al., 2007). When exploring issues that affect officers' psychological

well-being, it is essential to consider what wellness strategies support officer engagement versus what situations promote officer *burnout*. Burnout can result when there are multiple demands on an officer, such as work overload, agency expectations, and supervisory conflict, resulting in officers feeling exhausted and unsupported (Lee & Ashford, 1996). Engaged officers have optimistic attitudes, while officers experiencing burnout are cynical, detached, and exhausted (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

A higher rate of mental health conditions suggests the need to evaluate coping mechanisms' impact on officers' psychological and physical well-being. Officers who reported higher levels of work stress also said they utilize increased escaping behaviors (sleeping, substance use, emotional withdrawal) rather than dynamic behaviors (talking to others, problem-solving, exercise) as a coping mechanism (Burke, 1994). Considering these findings together would indicate that the utilization of escaping coping mechanisms exacerbates stress of work/family imbalances that fuel burnout.

Newman and Rucker-Reed (2004) identified events contributing to officer burnout among police officers in England that differed from officers in the United States. English officers ranked factors impacting burnout into three levels. The first two tiers included traumatic events involving death as the most severe and the potential for violence resulting in injury and exposure to victims as the second tier (Newman & Rucker-Reed, 2004). The final tier was exposure to victims of sexual violence. Studies of police officers in the United States identified aspects of their work culture as the most prominent negative stressor (Newman & Rucker-Reed, 2004). Their finding that workplace culture has the most significant impact on officers' well-being suggests a correlation between psychological safety in the workplace and psychological well-being. It also raises the importance of organizational justice, specifically procedural fairness within police departments.

In addition to the demands of the job and the stigmatized attitudes toward seeking help, training intended to increase officers' resilience and assist them in managing the physical and psychological aspects of policing that are associated with adverse health outcomes is not uniformly provided by police agencies (Tuckey et al., 2012). Police culture does not promote help-seeking behaviors among officers making prevention efforts even more critical (Cohen et al., 2019; Williams et al., 2010). Highlighting the importance of officer wellness requires police leadership to evaluate the culture present within their department and its impacts on its officers (Cohen et al., 2019).

Newman and Rucker-Reed (2004) identified that police officers in the United States cite the culture of their police departments as their most significant employment stressor. It is profound that a profession of individuals who run towards violence, chaos, and the potential for serious bodily harm are more negatively impacted by how their employer treats them than the significant risks they face every day. Given the significant psychological stressors that officers face in the field, their departments could be a mitigating variable that reduces rates of officer suicide, PTSS, substance use disorders, cardiovascular disease, divorce, and hopelessness. Based on the high rates of undesirable medical events and the direct impact workplace culture has on officers' psychological well-being, it is reasonable to suggest that workplace psychological safety is critical for police officers.

Impact of Workplace Psychological Safety on Officer Psychological Well-being

Law enforcement officers in the United States have identified that the most significant stressor relates to the culture present within their department. Shane (2010) identified that law enforcement officers work in authoritarian, para-militaristic environments where they experience high stress due to limited procedural control and high procedural accountability. Many agency cultures in law enforcement are built on bureaucratic and hierarchical leadership that does not

engage rank and file officers in decision-making (Walker, 2008). This leadership style leads to low morale, general job dissatisfaction, and increased stress levels. High levels of workplace stress result in multiple adverse outcomes on officers' psychological and physical well-being (Shane, 2010).

The hierarchal nature of police departments means that agency leaders can either promote or discourage actions that support officers' physical and psychological well-being (Kumar, 2016). Cohen et al. (2019) state that police leaders build supportive and inclusive cultures where all officers feel heard and supported.

It is impossible to address officer wellness without addressing the impact of police agencies' leadership and culture on officers' well-being. Officers identified several issues related to their department's operation that impacted their physical health, including negative engagement with their supervisors, inconsistent discipline, lack of positive engagement from peers, and family conflicts from lack of work/life balance (Ramey et al., 2008). The challenge of making immediate decisions in life-threatening situations that align with the agency's policies was identified as a factor that impacts the level of stress experienced by officers (Ramey et al., 2008). This stress has only increased with cell phone videos and the ability of an officer's supervisor and the public to evaluate every action taken during a critical incident.

Administrators' leadership styles guided by self-interest rather than officers' well-being create environments more harmful to officers' well-being than any other aspect of policing (Cohen et al., 2019). Efforts to decrease officers' reluctance to seek help exist; there is still a clear need for police leadership to promote the importance of addressing the psychological toll that policing takes on the wellness of officers. Highlighting the importance of officer wellness also requires police leadership to evaluate the culture present within their department and its impacts on its officers (Cohen et al., 2019). The establishment of a clear intention for leadership

that all officers who retire from their department will do so physically and mentally well could fuel reform efforts and culture change capable of increasing the psychological safety of law enforcement agencies (Cohen et al., 2019).

Shane (2010) found that organizational stressors have a statistically significant relationship with police performance. Utilizing two separate evaluation tools and controlling for demographic differences, Shane (2010) found that law enforcement officers' performance decreases as organizational stressors increase.

Zheng et al. (2015) found that ethical leadership directly impacts employee well-being. This finding helps explain why law enforcement leaders' morality and ethical decision-making impact officers' psychological well-being. Policing requires officers to engage in moral judgments continually to perform the duties of their role. The enactment of the law is not uniform and equal. Instead, officers are often given subtle and overt directions about which laws to uphold and which law violations to ignore by leadership (Papazoglou et al., 2020). The lack of universal adherence to legal expectations may require officers to compromise morally. Sworn to uphold the law, unequal enactment of legal expectations can foster moral injury in officers (Papazoglou et al., 2020). Jinkerson (2016) defines moral injury as a type of psychological trauma that produces shame and significant guilt, leading to officers questioning their core beliefs. Moral injury occurs when individuals violate their moral convictions or witness someone close to them doing so (Papazoglou et al., 2020). Like a moral injury, moral distress relates to the psychological turmoil that individuals experience when what they believe is "right" and what police policy or their supervisor requires them to do is not in agreement. Officer psychological well-being is impacted by moral injury and moral distress. These experiences increase officers' vulnerability to developing depression and anxiety disorders (Santa Maria et al., 2019).

As the nation calls for police reform, researchers should consider the impact of procedural fairness and workplace psychological safety on officers' psychological well-being. Developing approaches that decrease officers' stress levels and increase officers' engagement in positive behaviors would likely help achieve less excessive use of force events. More profoundly, it is not unreasonable to hypothesize that departments with higher procedural fairness and psychological safety levels will have officers who report higher levels of psychological wellness.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) are defined as the work-related tasks completed by employees that are discretionary and for which there is no additional reward (Farh et al., 1990). OCBs advance the entity's work, but they also enhance employees' willingness to deal with frustrations, delays, and other undesirable, but not significant, events in the workplace (Lin, 2014). Employee activities such as volunteering for a new project, supporting administrative initiatives, helping a coworker, or mentoring a new employee are considered OCBs. These actions are not specific to the employees' required tasks, but they support the entity's overall mission and demonstrate workplace commitment.

The five components of OCBs are "sportsmanship, conscientiousness, altruism, courtesy, and civic virtue" (Jafari & Bidarian, 2012, p. 1816)). Jafari and Bidarian (2012) evaluated the relationship between organizational justice and OCBs by surveying 250 randomly selected employees. Their results found that employee engagement in OCBs correlated with employees' perceptions of the utilization of organizational justice in their workplaces. Jafari and Bidarian (2012) identified procedural fairness correlated with organizational citizenship behavior. Various demographic factors were evaluated as part of this assessment, all of which were determined to have no meaningful mitigating impact on citizenship behaviors. These findings articulate that

organizational justice and procedural fairness play a predictive role in enacting organizational citizenship behaviors (Jafari & Bidarian, 2012).

Alhor et al. (2021) advanced the inclusion of civility by law enforcement officers as a factor impacted by organizational citizenship behaviors. Alhor et al. (2021) evaluation of officers in the Gaza Strip found that organizational justice increased the enactment of civility in responding to the public among surveyed officers. This evaluation did not specifically advance a definition of organizational citizenship behaviors that was inclusive of officers engaging in whistleblowing activities. However, the findings related to civility identified the desire to preserve the reputation of the institution of policing as a motivator (Alhor et al., 2021). The conclusion that organizational citizenship behaviors are motivated by a desire to protect the reputation of police entities provides a framework in which to consider whistleblowing actions as organizational citizenship.

Building trust within workplace cultures and increasing officers' willingness to call out bad actors within their ranks is a complicated challenge. Given the lack of whistleblowing among officers, accurate data on police misuse of force is difficult to identify. The inability to evaluate trends within excessive use of force cases limits the ability to take systemic and individualized action to prevent further excessive use of force. However, the available data related to the use of force encounters disproportionate results in civil rights complaints filed against police departments by people of color (Holmes, 2000). Walker and Katz (2005) identified that greater police scrutiny among disenfranchised populations occurs in the name of community protection. Officers' fundamental dependence on one another for personal safety during critical incidents fuels a code of silence that prevents the removal of bad actors from the profession.

Trautman (2001) identifies that the code of silence is stronger in police climates than in civil environments. Given the potential risks officers face, the code of silence builds a sense of solidarity and mutual protection among officers (Kappeler et al., 1999). Police subculture serves as another variable preventing whistleblowing actions. Crank (2014) cited fear of loss of autonomous decision-making as another reason officers elected not to report excessive use incidents. Concerns over increased public scrutiny serve as another deterrent for officers. Given the significant psychological burden that administrative practice lacking procedural fairness has on officers, fear of additional punitive reviews by the public serves as a further deterrent not to report the conduct of other officers.

Rothwell and Baldwin (2007) found that supervisory status was the variable most positively correlated with an officer's willingness to engage in whistleblowing reporting. Officers who held supervisory roles were more willing to engage in whistleblowing action. This finding makes sense as supervisors do not have the same level of dependence on the goodwill of other officers as patrol officers. Patrol officers respond to events at which the assistance of other patrol officers can be lifesaving. The potential for coworker alienation for non-supervisory officers poses a significant personal risk. Beyond supervisory rank, the other variables influencing the desire to engage in whistleblowing included team cohesion and personal friendships (Rothwell & Baldwin, 2007). Rothwell and Baldwin (2007) note that willingness to report fellow officers is more likely to occur when a department has a friendly and ethical culture.

The presence of a fair and ethical culture would likely be identified as a culture with high organizational justice and psychological safety levels. The factors necessary to increase organizational citizenship behaviors, including whistleblowing behavior, are likely the same actions required to decrease excessive use of force.

Psychological Safety and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

The engagement in more organizational citizenship behaviors would likely increase police and community relations. Wolfe and Piquero (2011) identified that officers who believed their departments were more organizationally fair were less likely to engage in misconduct judged by fewer citizen complaints, internal affairs investigations, and disciplinary code charges. Holding the goal of decreasing officers' misuse of force, the connection between perceived fairness, increased citizenship behaviors, and psychological safety appears a critical area to evaluate.

Strain theory (Hinduja, 2007) suggests that strain in the workplace can generate powerful negative emotions. These negative emotions can directly impact how an officer interacts with the public. When supervisors do not enact an approach to develop trust with their subordinates, work strain can result in negative emotions that fuel a hostile attitude among employees (Hinduja, 2007). The institutional theory of generalized trust suggests that the more trust an officer feels toward their supervisor, the more generalized trust they will feel toward the public (Van Craen, 2016). These two theories highlight the importance of trust and inclusion in the workplace. Both interpersonal and group trust must be present for a workplace to be psychologically safe. When both types of trust are present, officers' behavior will likely result in the utilization of OCBs.

Blumberg (1994) found that a department's operational policies and beliefs influenced officers' use of excessive force. This finding correlates with other evaluations that identified workplace stressors as the most significant factor in officer stress levels (Newman & Rucker-Reed, 2004). Increasing the presence of organizational justice and the variables necessary to promote psychological safety appears to decrease officers' misuse of force and increase the willingness of officers to engage in whistleblowing.

Role of Police Training

Procedural fairness and organizational citizenship behaviors utilize critical thinking and collaborative problem-solving skills. The public administration debate is whether police officers should utilize discretion and critical thought or adhere to departmental standard operating procedures that limit discretion in officers' decisions (Baro & Burlingame, 1999). Kelling and Moore (1988) identified that efforts during the Progressive Era to professionalize law enforcement focused on improving officers' professionalism. Reform efforts intentionally sought to keep the role of police departments focused on responding to a narrow scope of public safety and community protection tasks (Baro & Burlingame, 1999; Slovak, 1987). These early efforts intentionally defined a limited scope for the engagement of police officers with community members (Gourley, 1962).

There is little evidence that suggests that the prevalent para-militaristic process of cadet training built on a framework of degradation, humiliation, and hyper-masculinity to indoctrinate cadets into the subculture of policing prepares officers for the current demands of modern policing (Conti, 2011; Van Maanen, 1972; Wortley & Homel, 1995). Conti (2011) found that police academies often struggle to effectively educate police officers about the full scope of their duties; however, they successfully fuel the dangerous paradigm of "us against them" by ensuring officers no longer hold a civilian identity.

Conti (2011) draws attention to the significant underlying theme present within police academy training, the intentional transformation of individuals into officers. The established indoctrination process alters the core identity of officers by removing their civilian identity. Cadets are socialized to no longer see themselves as civil community members (Conti, 2011) and encouraged to find belonging among other police officers. Any assertion that police training does

not intentionally create a shared identity among cadets is both factually and operationally inaccurate.

Unlike the process to prepare individuals to enter other occupations, police academies intentionally use stressful, violent, and degrading approaches to create a normative culture among new officers (Conti, 2011). When police officers are trained in an academy setting versus educated in a higher education setting, the potential exists that training enhances a paramilitary mindset and increases the "us against them" sense of police solidarity (Baro & Burlingame, 1999; Skogan et al., 2015).

Police training changes the identities of cadets and changes their view of the world as a mostly safe place. Lynch (2011) highlights that most of the time that cadets spend in police training focuses on skills necessary to survive the threat presented by community members to prepare officers with the mentality that community members pose a constant risk to their survival. With a heavy focus on firearm skills, physical control tactics, non-lethal weapons, and bio-hazards risks, new officers prepare for duty in a manner that stresses the potential for significant bodily harm (Lynch, 2011). This approach to police training fosters the development of a world view that community members are all dangerous, and exercising physical control ensures personal safety (Langan et al., 2001).

By investing a majority of time in these skills, police academies fail to allocate an appropriate amount of time to the skills officers should be using daily, including interpersonal relations and de-escalation skills (Bykov, 2014; McCory, 2000). In addition, placing a heavy focus on the use of force and combatant community members prevents officers from developing the skills necessary to respond to a high percentage of calls for service (Bradford & Pynes, 1999; Skogan et al., 2015).

Traditional police academies operate to instill adherence to approved approaches to handling situations, not to foster critical problem-solving skills. By engaging in directive training, police academies fail to develop officers' problem-solving skills (McCory, 2000). The failure to develop officers' situational judgment skills leads some scholars to conclude that the current manner of law enforcement instruction misaligns with the highly subjective nature of the profession (Sereni-Massinger et al., 2015).

Critical thinking is the ability to self-evaluate certain opinions and assumptions and then deconstruct those beliefs before determining which action to take (Philly, 2005). Critical thinking includes self-evaluating how certain opinions and assumptions are formed and deconstructing those opinions before taking action (Philly, 2005). Self-evaluation of implicit bias is a critical thinking skill developed with practice and is related to an officers' ability to de-escalate tense situations (Huckman & Reaves, 2006). Given the significant stress police officers are often under when making split-second decisions, building strong critical thinking skills is an essential component of preparing individuals to police communities (Gutshall et al., 2017)

Doreian and Conti (2017) found that police academies do not afford officers the opportunities to strengthen their critical thinking skills; instead, academies actively prevent cadets from developing their perceptive skills by forcing them to accept the beliefs of academy staff. Lynch (2011) found that police academies fail to provide cadets with the very skills that members of the public value most.

Some police leaders advocate that the paramilitary approach to law enforcement education is necessary to prepare them for the field; however, evidence suggests that developing officers' critical thinking skills would enhance their knowledge acquisition. For example, Norman and Schmidt (1992) determined that when medical students were presented with new

material with an approach requiring critical thinking skills, they retained more of the knowledge associated with the lesson.

Intimidation approaches in law enforcement training run counter to the philosophical approach that serves as the foundation of collaborative engagement models such as community policing (Chappell, 2006). The hyper-masculinity present within these approaches also continues the profound level of gender discrimination that remains prevalent within the current police culture (Haar, 2001; Prokos & Padavic, 2002). Self-evaluation of implicit bias requires critical thinking skills developed with education and practice (Huckman & Reaves, 2006). Building a more inclusive police culture will remain challenging until police academies stop re-enforcing messages of superiority.

Carter and Sapp (1992) identified that cadets with a history of college attendance were more tolerant of individuals with diverse backgrounds and displayed greater empathy. Additional evaluations on the impact of higher education on officers' actions found that officers with a college education were more open to change and had better communication skills (Vodicka, 1994). Additional outcomes credited to college-educated officers included that their actions were less likely to result in them being a respondent in a complaint or civil case alleging inappropriate actions (Carter & Sapp, 1992; Kappeler et al., 1999).

The need to build critical thinking skills led to national efforts to develop criminal justice degree programs as an avenue for police education before widespread police-controlled training mechanisms evolved (Cordner, 2016). Recognizing the importance of interpersonal and conflict resolution skills, the federal government provided significant funding to increase the education level of law enforcement officers by funding institutions of higher education to create criminal justice programs (Morn, 1995). A significant impediment to officers' attainment of college degrees was the structural barriers between departmentally controlled police training and

academically controlled police education (Baro & Burlingame, 1999). The academic field of criminal justice evolved as a mechanism to provide educational degrees to aspiring police officers. However, Corder (2016) argues that policing should not be a subset of criminal justice programs. Instead, policing has evolved to the point where it is a distinct enough profession that an academic degree focused solely on policing is warranted (Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Sklansky, 2011).

Corder (2016) claims that traditional criminal justice programs failed to build the skills needed for law enforcement, making way for police academies that focus almost exclusively on the physical demands of policing. Corder (2016) states that criminal justice programs have become deeply entrenched within academia. Still, they have shifted their focus too far from police education to playing a meaningful role in educating law enforcement officers. Corder (2016) proposes creating police science-focused graduate programs to educate police leadership as an avenue to transforming police academies.

Training and certification of police officers is a process outlined at a state level. However, national accreditation standards advanced by CLETA reported that as of 2016, the average length of police academies was 840 hours, with training on violent tactics consuming an average of 168 hours (Lynch, 2011). Reaves (2016) found that in addition to the 840 on violent tactics, an average of 9 hours focused on conflict management, 10 hours on community engagement/collaboration, and 12 hours on problem-solving skills.

Perhaps most concerning to community advocates is that police officers have routinely little de-escalation training. Gilbert (2017) identified Massachusetts as the state with the highest required de-escalation training hours, with only four mandated hours.

The other blatantly missing issue from the academy's curriculum is implicit bias (Lynch, 2011). CLETA determined that the nationwide average is 12 hours of instruction to address

human relations and cultural competency issues (Reaves, 2016). Based on data present in the COPS Office 21st Century Policing Forum, only 24 states addressed bias. Only seven states provided detailed information on how many hours of training were provided on which types of bias (Lynch, 2011). The lack of comprehensive bias training for law enforcement officers is critical.

While there remains a need for officers to be trained in the use of firearms, high-speed driving, non-lethal control strategies, and arrest processes, there is an equal need for police officers to be transformed into critical thinking, dynamic problem-solvers adequately equipped to exercise sound situational judgment (Bykov, 2014; Lynch, 2011). The United States Department of Justice created the Office of Community Oriented Policing (COPS) in 1986 to provide funding to support the implementation of community-oriented policing approaches (Sadd & Grime, 1995). When appropriately implemented, community policing models promote a more inclusive, equitable, and flexible approach to policing that engages community members as partners, not adversaries (Micucci & Gomme, 2005). This grass-roots approach to policing stems from the concept that police can best protect and serve a community if they work with and are connected to the community they serve. community-oriented policing models require police officers to be trained in critical thinking skills that promote problem-solving, interpersonal relationship development, and enhanced de-escalation abilities (Bradford & Pynes, 1999).

Reform efforts aiming to advance community policing models stress the importance of increased citizen engagement in police operations, oversight, and officers empowered to utilize situational judgment and critical thought rather than established policies in responding to calls for service (Baro & Burlingame, 1999). Sadd and Grime (1995) identify that officers' level of academic education is an essential factor for officers' success within the framework of community-oriented policing.

Summary

Previous studies on factors impacting police officer engagement with the public and officers' well-being have produced meaningful results. The established correlation between the independent variables of procedural fairness, psychological well-being, and organizational citizenship behaviors provides valuable information for public administrators and police leaders. Findings to date have not considered the possible mediating impact of psychological safety on either psychological well-being or engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors.

Evaluating current police training approaches and priorities provides valuable insight into how government systems prepare officers to engage with the public. The juxtaposition of the type of skills the public believes officers should hold versus what is valued and provided within police training academies illuminates concrete changes public administrators and police leaders could make. It appears likely that completion of training associated with a community-oriented policing model could impact officers' scores on procedural fairness, psychological well-being, organizational citizenship behaviors, and psychological well-being.

Beyond evaluating the correlation between procedural fairness and psychological well-being and engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors to answer hypotheses one and two, this study will investigate the mediating impact of psychological safety on the relationships between variables to answer hypotheses three and four. Recognizing that dependent variables such as age, rank, duration of employment, education, and departmental jurisdiction could provide additional insight into departmental differences, this study will evaluate potential differences.

Chapter 3: Data and Methodology

This chapter considers the impact of procedural fairness on officer psychological well-being and officer engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors. Additional evaluation considers whether low levels of procedural fairness are mediated by psychological safety. This chapter will provide a detailed review of the hypothesis of this study, the process by which data was acquired, method utilized for evaluating accuracy, and detailed sample information. Testing of each of the four hypotheses will occur through presenting collected data.

Research Questions

- Does procedural fairness correlate with officer psychological well-being and officer engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors?
- Does the presence of psychological safety mediate levels of perceived procedural fairness?
- Are the relationships between variables impacted by previous participation in the community policing CIT model?

Hypotheses

- Hypothesis 1. Procedural fairness perceptions will be positively related to police officers' psychological well-being.
- Hypothesis 2. Procedural fairness perceptions will positively relate to police officer engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors.
- Hypothesis 3. The relationship between procedural fairness perceptions and police officer well-being will be mediated by psychological safety.
- Hypothesis 4. The relationship between procedural fairness perceptions and engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors will be mediated by psychological safety.

Data Collection

An anonymous internet-based data survey collection instrument was distributed utilizing a snowball sampling strategy to police officers across the United States. Given the culture in policing, an anonymous informed consent release requires officers to affirm that their survey completion is entirely voluntary without collecting any identifiable information. The identity of all officers responding is unknown to the researcher. The consent statement stressed the complete confidentiality of individual identities. The intent was for officers to feel comfortable providing truthful responses without fear that their answers could be attributed to them. The inclusion of demographic questions permitted response comparison by age, department size, rank, and whether officers hold a certification in the best practice community-policing model, crisis intervention teams (CIT).

The survey tool was distributed using the network of law enforcement officers known to the researcher utilizing a snowball sampling technique to reach additional officers. This sampling method was selected due to a belief that officers would be more comfortable answering questions about their department and own well-being if the request came from an officer who had already completed the survey. This research was approved by West Chester University's Institutional Review Board protocol: IRB-FY2021-213.

Instrument

The research question and hypotheses require the assessment of four different variables. The survey instrument designed for this evaluation included fifty-four questions taken from four separately validated research tools and seven demographic questions. The entire survey included 61 questions. All four instruments have been validated and were selected to address a different aspect of the stated hypothesis.

Procedural fairness was measured utilizing a fifteen-question questionnaire developed by Neihoff and Moorman (1991). The tool utilizes a 5-point Likert scale, with 75 representing the highest possible level of assessed procedural fairness. Previous studies have determined the findings using questions from the tool as reliable to assess levels of procedural fairness (Moorman et al., 1998; Organ & Moorman, 1993).

Diener (2009) laid a framework for assessing well-being. Ryff's (1989) survey instrument was utilized to assess psychological well-being (PWBS). While there is increased validity related to the longer tools initially developed by Ryff (1989), the shortened eighteen-question tool was utilized to aid in a higher response rate (Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Seifert, 2005). McDowell (2010) identified tools for self-perceived well-being. The instrument utilized for this study assessed individuals on various well-being factors, including personal individual attitude, worldview, and focus on individual growth. The tool was scaled by respondents utilizing a 7-point Likert scale. Higher scores demonstrate higher levels of psychological well-being, with 126 being the highest possible score derived from this instrument. The results from Ryff's PWBS tool have been determined to be valid and suitable to use in assessing psychological well-being (Abbott et al., 2010; Bayani et al., 2008)

For this evaluation, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) were measured utilizing a fourteen-question tool (Farh et al., 1990). Higher scores indicate higher rates of self-reported engagement in OCBs. The tool utilizes a 5-point Likert scale, with 70 representing the highest level of engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors. Questions addressed the domains of altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, courtesy, and sportsmanship. This tool's validity has been informed by the work of several studies (Farh et al., 1990; MacKenzie et al., 1993; Podsakoff et al., 1997).

The seven-question psychological safety assessment tool developed by Edmondson (2019) captured respondents' answers using a 7-point Likert scale, with higher scores representing higher levels of psychological safety. The survey scores are used to calculate each officer's psychological safety index score. The researcher completed a certification in assessing psychological safety using Edmondson's tool, which provided instruction on calculating psychological safety index scores.

Response Sample

A total of one hundred and eighteen officers responded to the anonymous online survey instrument during the 3-month window in which the survey instrument was open for data collection. Responses to each question were combined, by variable, to calculate a single score for each office for the variables of procedural fairness, psychological wellbeing, organizational citizenship behaviors, and psychological safety. Table 1 titled demographic information of respondents summarizes the demographic information collected.

Table 1*Demographic Characteristics of Survey Respondents*

Characteristics	<i>n</i>	%
Age		
Under 30	8	6.8
30-50	77	65.3
Over 50	33	28.0
Length of Service		
Under 10	25	21.2
10-20 years	44	37.3
Over 20	49	41.5
Education Level		
High School	22	18.6
Associate	24	20.3
Bachelor	54	45.8
Masters/Doctorate	18	15.3
Position		
Line/Detective	65	55.1
Supervisor	34	28.8
Administrator	19	16.1
Jurisdiction		
Municipal	48	40.7
County	32	27.1
State/Federal	38	32.2
Size		
Under 20 Officers	19	16.1
20-30	33	28.0
51-300	32	27.1
300-600	31	26.3
Over 600	3	2.5
CIT Certification		
Yes	61	51.7
No	57	48.3

For each variable, higher scores represent higher levels for the tested variables. The highest possible score for procedural fairness is 75, psychological well-being 126, organizational citizenship behaviors 70, and psychological safety 100. The mean score for each instrument provides information related to the standard deviation present within officers' scores. Table 2 identifies the mean officer scores and the standard deviation for each of the four variables.

Table 2*Mean Variable Scores (N = 118)*

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation
Procedural Fairness	45.99	16.17
Psychological Wellbeing	96.66	9.19
Organizational Citizenship	51.85	5.05
Psychological Safety	63.81	16.45

As this research evaluates correlations between three variables and the potential mitigating impact of a fourth variable, understanding the demographic differences present in the four collected data provides an overview of the data collected.

Sixty-five percent of responding officers were between 30 and 50, with only 6.8% under 30 and 28% over 50. To assess differences by age, means scores by age were compared. Table 3 identifies the mean officer scores and the standard deviations for each of the four variables by the respondent's age.

Table 3*Variable Scores by Respondent Age*

Age		Mean	Std. Deviation
Under 30 (n = 8)	Procedural Fairness	46.00	14.94
	Psychological Wellbeing	98.25	6.58
	Organizational Citizenship	51.12	3.83
	Psychological Safety	60.96	23.71
30-50 (n = 77)	Procedural Fairness	43.98	15.84
	Psychological Wellbeing	95.90	8.97
	Organizational Citizenship	51.22	5.20
	Psychological Safety	63.66	16.64
Over 50 (n = 33)	Procedural Fairness	50.66	16.69
	Psychological Wellbeing	98.03	10.22
	Organizational Citizenship	53.51	4.68
	Psychological Safety	64.87	14.31

The length of time an individual serves as a law enforcement officer is another demographic feature that was evaluated. Forty-one percent served as a law enforcement officer for more than 20 years, with 37.3% serving for 10-20 years and 21.2% serving under ten years. Table 4 identifies the mean officer scores and the standard deviations for each of the four variables by the length of service as a police officer by the respondent.

Table 4

Variable Score by Length of Service

Length of Service		Mean	Std. Deviation
Under 10 (n = 25)	Procedural Fairness	45.44	12.65
	Psychological Wellbeing	97.56	8.38
	Organizational Citizenship	50.32	4.67
	Psychological Safety	59.51	17.16
10-20 (n = 44)	Procedural Fairness	44.29	15.73
	Psychological Wellbeing	95.27	9.28
	Organizational Citizenship	50.97	5.47
	Psychological Safety	65.25	18.31
20+ (n = 49)	Procedural Fairness	47.79	18.15
	Psychological Wellbeing	97.44	9.53
	Organizational Citizenship	53.42	4.47
	Psychological Safety	64.72	14.12

Collecting information on the roles held by survey respondents was essential to answering the research question. Officers with no supervisory decision-making role, line officers (patrol), or detectives comprised 55.1% of respondents. Officers serving supervisory roles (such as sergeants and corporals) were 28.8% of respondents. The remaining 16.1% of officers served an administrator function within their department. Table 5 identifies the mean officer scores and the standard deviations for each of the four variables by the rank/role held by the respondent.

Table 5*Variable Scores by Role*

Position		Mean	Std. Deviation
Line officer/detective (<i>n</i> = 65)	Procedural Fairness	42.93	14.41
	Psychological Wellbeing	96.55	9.44
	Organizational Citizenship	50.80	4.95
	Psychological Safety	62.32	16.57
Supervisor (<i>n</i> = 34)	Procedural Fairness	42.44	15.84
	Psychological Wellbeing	96.85	8.79
	Organizational Citizenship	51.55	4.67
	Psychological Safety	65.24	18.04
Administrator (<i>n</i> = 19)	Procedural Fairness	62.78	12.08
	Psychological Wellbeing	96.68	9.51
	Organizational Citizenship	56.00	4.02
	Psychological Safety	66.38	12.89

Kane and White (2009) identified lower educational levels for officers terminated by the NYPD for the use of force. Therefore, considering the level of educational achievement of the sample respondents adds another factor worthy of consideration. No respondent reported less than a high school diploma, with 45.8% of respondents having earned a bachelor's degree, 20.3% an associate degree, 15.3% had earned a master/doctorate, and 18.6% did not advance beyond a high school. Table 6 identifies the mean officer scores and the standard deviations for each of the four variables by the highest academic held by respondent.

Table 6*Variable Scores by Highest Academic Degree*

Academic degree		Mean	Std. Deviation
HS (n = 22)	Procedural Fairness	45.45	14.08
	Psychological Wellbeing	96.22	8.37
	Organizational Citizenship	50.86	4.63
	Psychological Safety	61.87	15.02
Assoc. (n = 24)	Procedural Fairness	47.41	18.45
	Psychological Wellbeing	99.58	8.41
	Organizational Citizenship	51.37	5.41
	Psychological Safety	61.73	18.39
Bachelor (n = 54)	Procedural Fairness	44.42	15.61
	Psychological Wellbeing	95.53	8.74
	Organizational Citizenship	52.09	5.46
	Psychological Safety	62.47	15.95
Master/Doc (n = 18)	Procedural Fairness	49.44	17.62
	Psychological Wellbeing	96.66	12.03
	Organizational Citizenship	53.00	3.66
	Psychological Safety	73.05	15.03

Recognizing that the jurisdiction of a law enforcement agency could be impacted by the jurisdiction served, respondents were asked to identify the type of department where they were employed. Forty-seven percent of the sample worked for a municipal department, 32.2 percent for a state/federal department, and 27.1 worked for a county law enforcement agency. Table 7 identifies the mean officer scores and the standard deviations for each of the four variables by the employer's jurisdiction.

Table 7*Variable Scores by Jurisdiction*

Agency Type		Mean	Std. Deviation
Municipal (n = 48)	Procedural Fairness	52.06	15.51
	Psychological Wellbeing	98.00	8.81
	Organizational Citizenship	53.60	4.70
	Psychological Safety	64.83	16.87
County (n = 32)	Procedural Fairness	43.75	17.02
	Psychological Wellbeing	98.25	8.87
	Organizational Citizenship	51.56	3.88
	Psychological Safety	67.02	14.54
State/federal (n = 38)	Procedural Fairness	40.21	13.85
	Psychological Wellbeing	93.63	9.42
	Organizational Citizenship	49.89	5.66
	Psychological Safety	59.82	17.03

Law enforcement departments range from one to two people departments with thousands of officers. Respondents were asked to identify department size to measure the impact of department size on the identified dependent variable. It is important to note that 28% of the sample worked for a department that employed between 20 and 50 officers. 27.1% had between 51 and 300 officers, and only 15.3% worked for departments that employed less than 20 officers. Table 8 identifies the mean officer scores and the standard deviations for each of the four variables by department size.

Table 8*Variables Scores by Size of Department*

Departmental		Mean	Std. Deviation
Under 20 (n = 19)	Procedural Fairness	54.68	15.43
	Psychological Wellbeing	97.36	10.26
	Organizational Citizenship	55.10	4.02
	Psychological Safety	71.10	11.96
20-50 (n = 33)	Procedural Fairness	49.84	17.39
	Psychological Wellbeing	98.39	8.17
	Organizational Citizenship	52.57	4.56
	Psychological Safety	66.60	16.89
51-300 (n = 32)	Procedural Fairness	41.78	14.13
	Psychological Wellbeing	93.81	10.42
	Organizational Citizenship	50.81	5.51
	Psychological Safety	56.50	17.14
300-600 (n = 31)	Procedural Fairness	40.83	14.79
	Psychological Wellbeing	96.87	7.98
	Organizational Citizenship	50.19	4.74
	Psychological Safety	64.45	16.00
Over 600 (n = 3)	Procedural Fairness	46.66	16.50
	Psychological Wellbeing	101.33	8.32
	Organizational Citizenship	51.66	6.02
	Psychological Safety	58.50	6.56

Research efforts focused on decreases in the use of force often reference community-oriented policing models. Crisis Intervention Teams (CIT) is a best practice community-policing model designed to divert people with mental illness from justice system involvement.

Requirements to participate in the CIT program include officers volunteering to be involved and completing a 40-hour training immersion week that provides both in-depth knowledge and skill development related to mental health. As such, CIT-certified officers can be presumed to have mental health skills and knowledge. Given the evidence that community-policing models provide officers with critical thinking and problem-solving skills, holding a community-based policing

model certification is an additional demographic worthy of evaluation. The survey sample is nearly equally divided, with 61 respondents being CIT certified and 57 not holding a CIT certification. Table 9 identifies the mean officer scores and the standard deviations for each of the four variables by whether they are a certified CIT officer.

Table 9

Variables Scores by CIT Certification

CIT Certification		Mean	Std. Deviation
Yes (n = 61)	Procedural Fairness	47.47	15.70
	Psychological Wellbeing	96.50	8.97
	Organizational Citizenship	52.16	5.20
	Psychological Safety	63.83	14.44
No (n = 57)	Procedural Fairness	44.40	16.64
	Psychological Wellbeing	96.82	9.50
	Organizational Citizenship	51.52	4.91
	Psychological Safety	63.80	18.49

Chapter 4. Results and Discussion

This study collected survey responses from 118 police officers between August and November of 2021 to assess the impact of departmental procedural fairness on respondents' psychological well-being and their engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors, with additional consideration afforded to the mediating impact of psychological safety. This chapter evaluates the accuracy of each of the four previously presented hypotheses.

Findings for First and Second Hypothesis

The relationship between procedural fairness and psychological wellbeing was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity for the data used to answer hypothesis one.

A small correlation was found between the two variables, $r = .212$, $n = 118$, $p = .021$, with higher levels of procedural fairness being correlated with higher levels of officer psychological wellbeing. Procedural fairness helps explain 4% of the variance in psychological wellbeing scores.

There is a significant correlation between the two variables, $r = .556$, $n = 118$, $p = .0001$, with higher levels of procedural fairness being correlated with officers' increased engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors. Procedural fairness explains 30% of the variance in organizational citizenship behaviors.

A medium correlation between psychological well-being and organizational citizenship behaviors, $r = .383$, $N = 118$, $p = .0001$ was identified. Psychological well-being helps to explain 14% of the variance in respondents' organizational citizenship scores. Table 10 shows the correlations between variables that depict procedural fairness, psychological well-being, and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Table 10*Correlation Between Variables (N = 118)*

	1	2	3
1. Procedural Fairness	—	.212*	.556**
2. Psychological Wellbeing	.212*	—	.383**
3. Organizational Citizenship	.556**	.383**	—

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Additional evaluation related to demographic characteristics was conducted to gain insight into the impact of procedural fairness; after evaluating the variables by dependent variables, findings based on the jurisdiction of department and role held warrant discussion.

Jurisdiction of Police Agency. A split file correlation test was conducted to understand the relationships between procedural fairness, officer psychological wellbeing, and organizational citizenship behaviors by type of law enforcement department.

Municipal Departments. The existence of a relationship was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity.

No significant correlation was found. $r = .205$, $n = 48$, $p = .163$, on the relationship between procedural fairness and psychological wellbeing for officers employed in municipal departments.

A strong, positive correlation was found between procedural fairness and organizational citizenship behaviors, $r = .597$, $n = 48$, $p = .0001$. Procedural fairness helps explain 34.8% of the variance in respondents' organizational citizenship scores.

A significant, positive correlation, $r = .420$, $n = 48$, $p = .003$, existed between psychological wellbeing and organizational citizenship behaviors. Psychological well-being

explains 17% of the variance in respondents' organizational citizenship scores.

County Departments. The existence of a relationship was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity.

No significant correlation was found. $r = .224$, $n = 32$, $p = .217$, on the relationship between procedural fairness and psychological wellbeing for officers employed in county departments.

A strong, positive correlation was found, $r = .593$, $n = 32$, $p = .001$, on the relationship between procedural fairness and organizational citizenship behaviors. Procedural fairness helps explain 34.8 % of the variance in respondents' organizational citizenship scores.

No significant correlation, $r = .090$, $n = 32$, $p = .623$, was found between psychological wellbeing and organizational citizenship scores for county law enforcement departments. upper level.

State and Federal Departments. The existence of the relationship was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity.

A strong, positive correlation exists. $r = .514$, $n = 38$, $p = .001$, on the relationship between procedural fairness and psychological wellbeing for officers employed in state and federal departments. Procedural fairness explains 26% of the variance in respondents' psychological well-being scores.

A strong, positive correlation was found, $r = .415$, $n = 38$, $p = .010$, on the relationship between procedural fairness and organizational citizenship behaviors. Procedural fairness helps explain 17 % of the variance in respondents' organizational citizenship scores.

A strong, positive correlation, $r = .427$, $n = 38$, $p = .007$, was found between

psychological wellbeing and organizational citizenship scores for state and federal law enforcement departments. Psychological well-being explains 18% of the variance in respondents' organizational citizenship rates. Table 11 depicts the correlation between variables based on the departmental jurisdiction of officers.

Table 11

Correlation Between Variables by Jurisdiction

Agency Type		1	2	3
Municipal (n = 48)	1. Procedural Fairness	—	.205	.597**
	2. Psychological Wellbeing	.205	—	.420**
	3. Organizational Citizenship	.597**	.420**	—
County (n = 32)	1. Procedural Fairness	—	-.224	.539**
	2. Psychological Wellbeing	-.224	—	.090
	3. Organizational Citizenship	.539**	.090	—
State/federal (n = 38)	1. Procedural Fairness	—	.514**	.415**
	2. Psychological Wellbeing	.514**	—	.427**
	3. Organizational Citizenship	.415**	.427**	—

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

The recent prosecution of junior police officers who did not intervene in the criminal act of their superior officer raises the question of how the rank of an officer impacts the correlation between procedural fairness and the desired behavior of officers. Evaluating the impact of the position held within a department on correlations between the three variables could help direct training and operational advances. Understanding the correlation between variables is especially critical given that law enforcement entities strictly adhere to a para-military governance model.

Impact of Role Held. A split file correlation test explored the correlation between the three variables to understand the relationships between procedural fairness, officer psychological

well-being, and organizational citizenship behaviors by the position held within the department.

Line Officers and Detectives. The existence of a relationship was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity assumptions.

No significant correlation was found. $r = .135$, $n = 65$, $p = .282$, on the relationship between procedural fairness and psychological wellbeing for line officers and detectives.

A strong, positive correlation was found between procedural fairness and organizational citizenship behaviors, $r = .416$, $n = 65$, $p = .0001$. Procedural fairness helps explain 16.8 % of the variance in respondents' organizational citizenship scores.

A significant, positive correlation, $r = .320$, $n = 65$, $p = .009$, existed between psychological wellbeing and organizational citizenship behaviors. Psychological well-being explains 10% of the variance in respondents' organizational citizenship scores.

Supervisors. The existence of a relationship was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity assumptions.

A positive correlation was found. $r = .384$, $n = 34$, $p = .025$, on the relationship between procedural fairness and psychological wellbeing for officers employed as supervisors. Higher procedural fairness scores have a 14% correlation with higher psychological wellbeing scores.

A strong, positive correlation was found, $r = .512$, $n = 34$, $p = .001$, on the relationship between procedural fairness and organizational citizenships behaviors. Procedural fairness helps explain 26 % of the variance in respondents' organizational citizenship scores.

A significant, positive correlation, $r = .551$, $n = 34$, $p = .001$, was found between psychological well-being and organizational citizenship scores for supervisory individuals.

Psychological well-being explains 30% of the variance in supervisors' organizational citizenship scores.

Administrators. It is important to note that this sample only includes 19 responses. The existence of relationship was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity.

No correlation was found. $r = .356$, $n = 19$, $p = .134$, on the relationship between procedural fairness and psychological wellbeing for department administrators.

A strong, positive correlation, $r = .678$, $n = 19$, $p = .001$, was found on the relationship between procedural fairness and organizational citizenships behaviors. Procedural fairness helps explain 45.9% of the variance in respondents' organizational citizenship scores.

A strong, positive correlation, $r = .535$ $n = 19$, $p = .018$, was found between psychological wellbeing and organizational citizenship scores for law enforcement administrators. Psychological well-being explains 28.6% of the variance in respondents' organizational citizenship rates. Table 12 identifies the correlation between the three tested variables by respondents' position within their department.

Table 12*Correlation by Position Held*

Position		1	2	3
Line officer/detective (n = 65)	1. Procedural Fairness	—	.135	.416**
	2. Psychological Wellbeing	.135	—	.320**
	3. Organizational Citizenship	.416**	.320**	—
Supervisor (n = 34)	1. Procedural Fairness	—	.384*	.512**
	2. Psychological Wellbeing	.384*	—	.551**
	3. Organizational Citizenship	.512**	.551**	—
Administrator (n = 19)	1. Procedural Fairness	—	.356	.678**
	2. Psychological Wellbeing	.356	—	.535*
	3. Organizational Citizenship	.678**	.535*	—

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Certification in Community Policing CIT Model. After testing the hypothesis considering additional demographic information, an evaluation of the correlation between the three variables for CIT certified officers identified an interesting finding. Procedural fairness scores do not correlate with officers' psychological well-being scores for CIT certified officers. However, the two variables correlate for officers who are not CIT certified.

No correlation was found, $r = .057$, $n = 61$, $p = .665$, on the relationship between procedural fairness and psychological well-being for CIT certified officers. However, a significant, positive correlation was identified between these variables for non-CIT certified officers, $r = .366$, $n = 57$, $p = .005$. Procedural fairness helps explain nearly 13 percent of the variance in respondents' psychological well-being scores.

A strong, positive correlation, $r = .536$, $n = 61$, $p = .001$, was found on the relationship between procedural fairness and organizational citizenships behaviors for CIT certified officers, and for non-CIT certified officers, $r = .575$, $n = 57$, $p = .001$.

A strong, positive correlation, $r = .357$, $n = 61$, $p = .005$, was found between

psychological well-being and organizational citizenship scores for CIT certified officers, and for non-CIT certified officers, $r = .416$, $n = 57$, $p = .001$. Psychological well-being explains nearly 13% of the variance in organizational citizenship behaviors for CIT officers and 17 percent for non-CIT officers. Table 13 identifies the differences in correlations between the three variables for officers who hold certification in the community-policing model, CIT, compared to officers who are not CIT-certified.

Table 13

Correlation Based on CIT Certification

CIT Certification		1	2	3
Yes ($n = 61$)	1. Procedural Fairness	—	.057	.536**
	2. Psychological Wellbeing	.057	—	.357**
	3. Organizational Citizenship	.536**	.357**	—
No ($n = 57$)	1. Procedural Fairness	—	.366**	.575**
	2. Psychological Wellbeing	.366**	—	.416**
	3. Organizational Citizenship	.575**	.416**	—

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

While the specific reasons a correlation exists between procedural fairness and psychological well-being for non-CIT officers and not for CIT officers are unknown. This finding suggests a hypothesis worthy of investigation is whether increased comfort discussion mental health, and knowledge of activities that promote wellness are protective factors from the lack of departmental procedural fairness.

Third and Fourth Hypotheses

This study's third and fourth hypotheses are related to identifying the potential mediation impact that team psychological safety might have on the relationships between procedural fairness, psychological well-being, and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Partial correlation explored the relationship between procedural fairness and

organizational citizenship behaviors while controlling for psychological safety. Preliminary analyses ensured no violation of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity assumption. The presence of psychological safety was determined not to play a mitigating impact between officers' procedural fairness and psychological well-being or organizational citizenship scores. The levels of correlations varied only slightly when controlling for the mitigating impact of psychological safety.

Prior to controlling for psychological safety, a small correlation was found between the two variables, $r = .212$, $n = 118$, $p = .021$, with higher levels of procedural fairness correlated with higher levels of officer psychological wellbeing. When controlling for psychological safety, the change in correlation was not statistically significant, $r = .208$, $n = 118$, $p = .025$.

There is a large correlation between the two variables, $r = .556$, $n = 118$, $p = .0001$, with higher levels of procedural fairness being correlated with officers' increased engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors. When controlling for psychological safety, the change in correlation was not statistically significant, $r = .557$, $n = 118$, $p = .0001$.

A medium correlation between psychological well-being and organizational citizenship behaviors, $r = .383$, $n = 118$, $p = .0001$ was identified. When controlling for psychological safety, the change in correlation was not statistically significant, $r = .382$, $n = 118$, $p = .0001$. Table 14 evaluates the mediating impact of procedural fairness on psychological well-being and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Table 14*Evaluation of Mediating Impact of Psychological Safety (N = 118)*

Control Variables		1	2	3
-none ^a	1. Procedural Fairness	1.000	.212	.556*
	2. Psychological Wellbeing	.212	1.000	.383*
	3. Organizational Citizenship	.556	.383	1.00
PSafety	1. Procedural Fairness	1.000	.208	.557*
	2. Psychological Wellbeing	.208	1.000	.382*
	3. Organizational Citizenship	.557	.382	1.00

a. Cells contain zero-order (Pearson correlations)

Mediating Impact of Psychological Safety by CIT Status. Given the previously highlighted finding that CIT certification impacts the correlation between procedural fairness and psychological well-being, an evaluation of the relationship between the identified two variables, controlling for psychological safety, appears warranted to compare CIT and non-CIT certified officers.

No correlation was found, $r = .057$, $n = 61$, $p = .665$, on the relationship between procedural fairness and psychological wellbeing for CIT certified officers. When controlling for psychological safety there is no statistically significant change, $r = .064$, $n = 61$, $p = .630$.

Previous evaluation identified a significant, positive correlation was between procedural fairness and psychological well-being for non-CIT certified officers, $r = .366$, $n = 57$, $p = .005$. When controlling for the impact of psychological safety on the relationship between procedural fairness and officers' psychological well-being for non-CIT officers, there is only a statistically small change in the relationship between the two variables, $r = .389$, $n = 57$, $p = .003$. Table 15 identifies the lack of any mediating impact by psychological safety when evaluating officer responses based on CIT certification.

Table 15*Mediating Impact of Psychological Safety Based on CIT Certification*

CIT	Control Variables		Procedural Fairness	Psychological Wellbeing	Organizational Citizenship
Yes (<i>n</i> = 61)	-none- ^a	Procedural Fairness	1.000	.057	.536
	Psy.	Procedural Fairness	1.000	.064	.536
No (<i>n</i> = 57)	-none- ^a	Procedural Fairness	1.000	.366	.575
	Psy.	Procedural Fairness	1.000	.389	.577

a. Cells contain zero-order (Pearson) correlations.

Chapter 5. Discussion and Conclusions

This chapter will outline the main findings, study limitations, implications for practice, and suggestions for further research. This study aimed to identify the impact of procedural fairness on officers' psychological well-being and their engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors when responding to calls to the public. An additional investigation occurred into the role of psychological safety in mediating the impact of lower levels of procedural fairness on officers' psychological well-being and engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors. Presented hypotheses anticipated that lower rates of procedural fairness would produce lower officer scores for psychological well-being and engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors. Two additional hypotheses suggested that psychological safety would mediate the impact of lower levels of procedural fairness on officer well-being and engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors.

A critical barrier to identifying meaningful avenues for police reform is ensuring that researchers are culturally competent in their approach to law enforcement culture. Holding the role of a police officer is an identity that impacts one's daily living and infringes on individuals' personal life far more than many other professions. Gilmartin (2002) highlights the significant changes to attitude, mental health, and psychical wellbeing that law enforcement officers experience. Research into systemic police reform that operates void of a genuine understanding of police culture risks capturing only pieces of critical information. Given the ever-changing public's attitude toward the police, law enforcement is a closed community that does not freely share thoughts with outsiders (Chemerinsky, 2001; O'Malley, 1997; Rothwell & Baldwin, 2007). The validity of this study is increased due to the fact it was conducted by an individual connected to the law enforcement community through non-profit employment and board service, officer

wellness legislative campaigns, and previous employment with NYC's Office of the Criminal Justice Coordinator.

Discussion of Findings

This study provides important information related to the impact of departmental culture on the actions of police officers. Procedural fairness was found to correlate with officer psychological well-being and officer engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors. These findings replicate the outcomes of previous research on the interaction of these variables within the field of policing. Identification that psychological well-being, in addition to procedural fairness, impacts officers' engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors enhances attention on psychological well-being away from solely an employee wellness concern to a police reform strategy. This study's finding that certification in a community-policing model mediated the impact of procedural fairness on officers' psychological well-being is an exciting finding that warrants additional investigation.

The finding that CIT plays a mediating role between procedural fairness and psychological well-being is unexpected especially given the hypothesis that psychological safety would serve as a mediator was determined inaccurate. Previous research regarding the mediating impact of psychological safety has identified that psychological safety plays a critical role in team performance. No previous research was identified in the literature specific to the mitigating impact of psychological safety on procedural fairness within the field of policing. This study determined that psychological safety does not appear to have statistical significance on the relationships between procedural fairness and officer psychological well-being or organizational citizenship behaviors. These findings counter a large body of research conducted within the business sector.

Police reform has traditionally been a divisive issue within America's two-party political system. The juxtaposition of law enforcement support as a conservative issue and police reform as a democratically held, soft-on-crime approach has stalled any meaningful police reform for decades. Determining the correlation between departmental procedural fairness and the actions of law enforcement officers provides valuable information on promising avenues for institutional change within the fields of policing and public administration.

Researchers have previously identified the significant impact procedural fairness has within an entity on employees' actions. More specifically, previous studies have identified a correlation between procedural fairness and psychological well-being as well as procedural fairness and engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors of law enforcement officers

Building upon previous efforts, this research study hypothesized that procedural fairness perceptions would positively correlate with officer psychological well-being. This research identified that higher levels of procedural fairness resulted in higher levels of officer psychological well-being. Fairness was responsible for 4% of the increase in psychological well-being scores. An evaluation of the type of agency was performed when looking further to understand the impact of procedural fairness on officer well-being. Interestingly, when examining the relationship between the two variables for law enforcement officers employed by a state or federal agency, there was a strong, positive correlation with procedural fairness, explaining 26% of the difference in psychological well-being scores. There was no correlation between the two variables for officers employed by municipal or county departments.

When considering the role held by officers, there was no correlation between procedural fairness and psychological well-being for line officers and detectives or administrators. A

significant correlation exists for supervisors with higher procedural fairness scores explaining 14% of psychological well-being score increases.

This study also evaluated the degree to which procedural fairness correlated with engagement by a police officer in organizational citizenship behaviors as a second hypothesis. This study found that higher levels of procedural fairness result in higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviors, with procedural fairness responsible for 30% of the variance in organizational citizenship scores.

Understanding the difference between department jurisdictions produces insight into administration strategies. A significant, positive correlation was identified, with 17% of the variance in well-being scores attributed to the procedural fairness for officers working in municipal departments. For county law enforcement officers, the correlation was responsible for 34.8% of the variance and 17% for state and federal officers.

Further investigation of the different levels of correlation was conducted based on the role an officer held. Procedural fairness explained 16.8% of the variance for line officers and detectives. It explained 26% of the variance for supervisors and, particularly noteworthy, 45.9% of the variance for administrators. These findings confirm the previously identified correlation between the degree of organizational fairness experienced by an officer and the fairness utilized by the officer when interacting with members of the public.

While not a component of an identified hypothesis, the correlation between psychological well-being and organizational citizenship behaviors identified a medium-level correlation with psychological well-being resulting in 14% of the variance in officers' organizational citizenship behaviors. Evaluating that finding by departmental jurisdiction, psychological wellbeing was responsible for 17% of the variance in organizational citizenship behaviors in municipal

departments and 18% in state or federal departments, with no correlation between these two variables within county departments.

When considering the role held by an officer, psychological well-being explains 10% of the variance for line officers and detectives, 30% for supervisors, and 28.6% of the variance in organizational citizenship behaviors for administrators. These findings suggest that as the level of discretionary decision-making increases, the mental well-being of the officer plays an increasingly significant role in the way they engage with the public. These findings justify officer wellness policies and programs as strategies to increase officers' engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors.

The impact of psychological safety has been researched in diverse industries internationally. However, no identified research utilized the psychological safety assessment tool developed by Dr. Amy Edmondson on law enforcement officers. This study evaluated two hypotheses related to psychological safety. The first was that psychological safety would mediate the impact of lower levels of procedural fairness on officers' psychological well-being. The second hypothesis was that higher levels of psychological safety would mediate the impact of lower levels of procedural fairness on engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors.

This study found that psychological safety did not mediate between departmental procedural fairness and psychological well-being. Additionally, psychological safety was determined not to mediate the impact of department procedural fairness on officers' engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors. Upon examining the impact of psychological safety as an intervening variable, no correlation with either dependent variable existed.

While contrary to the original hypothesis, the finding of no correlation suggests that positive relationships among fellow officers do not mitigate the impact of lower levels of procedural fairness on psychological wellbeing or officers' engagement in organizational

citizenship behaviors. A significant finding is identifying that the level of psychological safety an officer feels does not correlate with increased psychological well-being or increased engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors.

The lack of a meaningful correlation between the three variables and psychological safety identifies a significant difference from research conducted on the impact of psychological safety within other industries. Most frequently researched in medical and for-profit industries, psychological safety has been identified as a critical variable for creating high-performing teams.

The unexpected finding present in this evaluation is that certification in the community-policing model, crisis intervention teams (CIT), mediates the impact of lower levels of procedural fairness on officers' psychological well-being. Procedural fairness does not correlate with psychological well-being scores for CIT certified officers; however, procedural fairness helps explain nearly 13 percent of the variance in respondents' psychological well-being scores. At the same time, there is not a meaningful correlation between procedural fairness and psychological well-being for both CIT and non-CIT certified officers. There is a meaningful correlation for both CIT and non-CIT officers specific to the impact of psychological well-being on engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors. Psychological well-being explains nearly 13% of the variance in organizational citizenship behaviors for CIT officers and 17 percent of the variance for non-CIT officers.

These findings identify several factors that can help to inform meaningful systemic improvement in the field of policing. It is an important finding that 40-hours of training in a community-policing model serves as a protective factor against low levels of departmental procedural fairness. This finding highlights a need to evaluate current approaches to police training. The tactical focus of police training must shift to policies that promote fairness and engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors.

Avenues for Systemic Improvement

Pickett and Ryon (2017) outline the importance of due process reforms within policing, and the findings of this study add another voice to calls for departmental leadership changes. By carefully evaluating the finding of this study on factors that impact officers' actions, meaningful reform avenues appear. The most significant finding is the critical need to create departmental cultures that enact procedural fairness. Building upon the foundation of previous work, this study strengthens calls for police leaders to understand the components of organizational justice and take immediate action to implement internal policies that respect the importance of procedural fairness. As the nation calls for changes in how police officers interact with the public, police leaders must initiate reform focused on how they interact with their officers.

The findings of this study support the creation of police education focused on problem-solving, de-escalation, and related skill development. Previously discussed calls for policing majors within academic settings provide one avenue for the skill-building of future officers. The development of such majors should be given careful consideration by post-secondary criminal justice departments willing to require the level of class instruction necessary to engage in significant skill-building activities.

Given the lack of skill-building education within the approaches used to train current police officers, the creation of state-issued certification in community policing presents another avenue to operationalize the findings of this study. The principles of community-oriented policing provide fertile ground for maintaining public safety while preventing the use of force incidents. Critical thinking, community linkages, and de-escalation are core aspects of community policing models. Engel et al. (2020) evaluated the outcomes of a small group of officers who received sixteen hours of de-escalation-focused skill-building in Kentucky, and Goh (2021) conducted a similar evaluation on the outcomes of the same training intervention. Engel

et al. (2020) identified that officers who completed the 16-hour course received 26% fewer civilian complaints, used force 28% less often, and showed a 36% reduction in officer injuries. Goh (2021) evaluated the impact of the 16-hour course on officer engagement in one New Jersey city. Findings identified a potential 40% decrease in the use of force situation by the officers trained in de-escalation compared to officers in other large departments. These findings support the development of a state-issued certification that empowers the officers with the skills necessary to utilize increased organizational citizenship actions.

A core aspect of community-oriented policing is the involvement of community members in the education of law enforcement officers. The divide between the public and the police is intentionally forged during police academies across the country and only serves to prevent meaningful collaboration. Best practice models such as children's advocacy centers (CAC) and crisis intervention teams (CIT) rely on collaborative engagement between mental health, law enforcement, and advocates to ensure that child sexual abuse victims and individuals experiencing a behavioral health crisis respectively receive a specialized response that includes services from several professionals including law enforcement. These best practice models provide fertile ground for evaluating the components necessary to chart a new police/community relations path.

Limitations

While this body of work aims to identify critical factors that motivate the actions of police officers, there are several limitations. The ability to engage police officers in a survey specific to the culture of their department runs counter to the paramilitary command culture within which officers operate daily. The small size of the sample, 118 officers, is also a limitation of the presented findings. The self-report nature of the survey instrument is another

significant limitation of the data collected. Self-report data is not as reliable as collecting information from other sources.

The survey included many questions, and officers might not have viewed an investment of time as providing any tangible positive benefit. These concerns appear legitimate given that several of the findings echoed in this work have previously failed to produce any meaningful change in calls for police departments' implementation of organizational justice, especially procedural fairness.

The sampling method and approach led to national engagement of officers from different size agencies and significant participation of all three targeted police jurisdiction groups. However, using snowball sampling does result in sampling bias as it is a non-probability sampling approach. Non-probability sampling may prevent these results from being fully generalizable to the entire law enforcement population.

While the sample size is small, other factors increase the likelihood that the responses gathered represent accurate opinions of officers. The request to complete the survey stemming from fellow officers was necessary due to officers' reluctance to share beliefs outside of their closed networks. Paoline (2003) identified a policing culture of loyalty to one's fellow officer as both a cultural expectation and a survival necessity. Goldstein (1990) identified that police sub-culture is so significant that ignoring its impact on officers has led to the failure of many police reform efforts. A strong culture of loyalty makes researching attitudes present within policing potentially more challenging. Hunt (1984) identified that police officers often view researchers as spies. Horn (1997) furthered the understanding of researchers as spies within law enforcement culture by identifying the association is more frequent when the researchers are women. Halsey (2004) determined the development of a deep understanding of police culture can aid researchers in their work and that gaining an understanding of police culture requires an ongoing connection

with police officers. The law enforcement organizational culture and the use of an anonymous survey tool distributed using a snowball approach resulted in officers asking other officers to complete the tool and, by doing so, likely resulted in more truthful responses because officers elected to participate due to intrinsic motivation.

Further Research

Several findings in this body of work highlight the need for additional study. Specifically, evaluation of training and participation in a best-practice community-policing model on the impact of departmental procedural fairness on officers' psychological well-being and engagement in organizational citizenship would further advance knowledge on the impact of engagement in a community-policing model on police interactions with the public. Such a study would also identify differences in procedural fairness at police agencies that enact community-policing models versus those that do not. The identification that departments that implement community-policing models operate with greater levels of procedural fairness would provide compelling evidence for systemic change.

Concluding Thoughts

Motivated by a desire to understand the factors that cause some officers to interrupt another officer's use of excessive force while others are compliant with such actions, this study engaged in an examination of the departmental culture. This work identified departmental procedural fairness's role in officers' psychological well-being and engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors.

When considering the entire sample, a statistically small correlation was present between the level of perceived procedural fairness and officers' psychological well-being scores. Lower procedural fairness scores correlated with lower psychological well-being scores for officers. While the correlation was small, this outcome confirmed the first hypothesis of this study.

Evaluating this finding by sample demographic information, a statistically significant difference was identified within the level correlation. For officers who held certification in the community-policing model, CIT, there was no identified correlation between procedural fairness and psychological well-being. Interestingly, there was a significant correlation between procedural fairness and officer psychological well-being scores for officers who did not hold CIT certification. This finding was not anticipated and suggested that further research on the impact of community policing on officers' psychological well-being is warranted.

A significant correlation was identified between procedural fairness and organizational citizenship behaviors. This finding identified a clear relationship between how fair a department treats its officers and how fair officers then treat the public and confirmed the second hypothesis of this study. The strong connection between procedural fairness and organizational citizenship behaviors creates an urgent call for transparent, fair, and consistent application of departmental policies and leaders capable of ensuring officers are treated with respect. These findings call into question police reform efforts focused on punitive actions against all officers, such as eliminating qualified immunity.

This study's third and fourth hypotheses suggested that the level of team psychological safety experienced by an officer would lessen the impact of lower levels of procedural fairness. These hypotheses aimed to identify whether immediate supervisors and coworkers could lessen the impact of procedurally unfair departmental culture. This study determined that psychological safety does not play a statistically significant role in lessening the impact of departmental procedural fairness on officers. While the finding proved hypotheses two and three wrong, it is a significant finding for this body of work. The level of psychological safety present with teams operating in other emergency-response fields, such as hospital care, has been determined as critical to patient outcomes. This finding suggests that investing in individual leadership training

rather than departmental culture transformation will not produce the desired results of officers who respond to the public with increased fairness.

The unexpected finding of this study is a medium level of correlation between psychological well-being and officer engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors. While the two variables were individually impacted by procedural fairness, they also positively impacted each other. Officers who have higher psychological well-being scores also have higher utilization of organizational citizenship behaviors. The identified correlation between officer psychological well-being and engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors is evidence that taking care of the well-being of officers should be a key aspect of any police reform effort.

This study provides data capable of impacting the national discourse related to police reform by identifying meaningful avenues for systemic changes that benefit officers and the communities they serve.

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Appendix A
IRB Approval



Office of Research and Sponsored Programs | West Chester University | Ehinger Annex
West Chester, PA 19383 | 610-436-3557 | www.wcupa.edu

Aug 14, 2021 9:11:08 AM EDT

To: Jennifer Mehnert
Department: Public Policy and Administration

Re: Exempt - Initial - IRB-FY2021-213 Factors Impacting Law Enforcement Officers Actions

Dear Jennifer Mehnert:

Thank you for your submitted application to the WCUPA Institutional Review Board. We have had the opportunity to review your application and have rendered the decision below for Factors Impacting Law Enforcement Officers Actions.

Decision: Exempt

Selected Category: Category 3.(i)(A). Research involving benign behavioral interventions in conjunction with the collection of information from an adult subject through verbal or written responses (including data entry) or audiovisual recording if the subject prospectively agrees to the intervention and information collection.

The information obtained is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the identity of the human subjects cannot readily be ascertained, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects.

If there are any questions, please don't hesitate to reach out to irb@wcupa.edu

Sincerely,
WCUPA Institutional Review Board

IORG#: IORG0004242
IRB#: IRB00005030
FWA#: FWA00014155

Appendix B

Recruitment Email

Hello,

The reason I am reaching out is because I am a Doctoral Candidate at West Chester University in the field of Public Administration. My dissertation focuses on the role that departmental processes and procedures have on the mental health and actions taken by law enforcement officers.

Research suggests that the degree of fairness shown to a police officer by his/her department has a direct impact on how officers engage with community members as well as how they feel about themselves. Given the increasing rates of suicide among law enforcement, it is important to evaluate all possible factors that impact officers' wellbeing and actions.

I was wondering if you would be willing to participate in a short survey for this project. I think your experience and expertise would serve to enhance the credibility of my dissertation. You will remain anonymous. I am asking law enforcement officers across the country to participate in this completely anonymous survey instrument that includes questions about department procedural fairness, officer wellbeing, organizational citizenship behaviors and the psychological safety officers feel within their departments.

If you are interested, please find a link to the survey. I don't expect the survey to take any longer than 10-12 minutes to complete. This project has been approved by the WCU IRB protocol.

Thank you,

Jenna Mehnert Baker

Appendix C

Participant Informed Consent

Project Title: Factors Impacting Law Enforcement Actions

Investigator(s): Jenna Mehnert Baker; Kristen Crossney

Project Overview:

Participation in this research project is voluntary. The research is being conducted by Jenna Mehnert Baker as part of her Doctoral Dissertation to assess the impact of departmental organizational justice, specifically procedural fairness, on the psychological wellbeing of police officers and officers' engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors. Your participation will take about 15 minutes.

This survey is being distributed to law enforcement officers nationwide by a variety of police serving entities. Survey responses will be collected until December 16, 2021. This research will allow officers to share their perspectives on the levels of procedural fairness and psychological safety present within their police departments. Most policymakers have a limited understanding of the dynamics present inside police departments. Significant attention has been devoted to evaluating the actions of individual officers without evaluating the systems within which officers operate. This research will assess the predominate themes present in law enforcement entities across the country.

By completing this survey, you are affirming that your participation in this study is completely voluntary. To ensure complete confidentiality, you will not be asked to sign a consent form. If at any time while taking the survey, you no longer wish to participate simply exit the survey. Any incomplete surveys will be discarded and not considered during the evaluation process.

Officers who self-identify as wanting to talk about the survey may reach the researcher at JM152426@wcupa.edu. You may ask Jenna Mehnert Baker any questions to help you understand this study.

Appendix D

Survey Instrument

Demographic information

Please identify which option best describes you:

- 1) Age Range:
Under 30
30-50
Over 50

- 2) Years as sworn law enforcement officer:
Under 10
10-20
Over 20

- 3) Rank:
Line Officer/Detective
Supervisor
Administrator

- 4) Education level:
High School
Associate's degree
Bachelor's degree
Masters/Doctorate

- 5) What type of law enforcement agency do you work for?
Municipal
County
State or Federal

- 6) How many officers are employed by your department?
Under 20 officers
20 to 50 officers
51 to 300 officers
300 to 600 officers
over 600 officers

Are you a certified Crisis Intervention Team (CIT) officer?
Yes or No

Procedural Fairness

Hiring, promotion and firing decisions at my department are made in an unbiased manner.

Agency leadership makes sure that employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.

To make job decisions, agency leadership works to collect accurate and complete information.

After making a decision or announcement, agency leadership provides clarification and additional information when requested by employees.

After making a policy or procedural change these decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.

Promotion decisions at my department are made in a standardized, fair, and transparent manner.

When decisions are made that impact my job, agency leadership treats me with respect and dignity. (Interactive justice)

When decisions are made that impact my job, agency leadership deals with me in a truthful manner. (Interactive justice)

When decisions are made about my job, agency leadership shows concerns about my rights as an employee. (IJ)

Agency leadership offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job. (IJ)

When making decisions about my job, agency leadership offers explanations that make sense to me. (IJ)

I feel quite confident that agency leadership will always treat me fairly.

I believe my agency leader is innovative and inclusive in their approach to guiding the department.

I trust that agency leadership/command staff are honest and transparent in how they manage the department.

I have complete faith in the integrity of my supervisor.

Psychological Well-being

“I like most parts of my personality.”

“When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out so far.”

“Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them.”

“The demands of everyday life often get me down.”

“In many ways I feel disappointed about my achievements in life.”

“Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me.”

“I live life one day at a time and don't really think about the future.”

“In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.”

“I am good at managing the responsibilities of daily life.”

“I sometimes feel as if I've done all there is to do in life.”

“For me, life has been a continuous process of learning, changing, and growth.”

“I think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how I think about myself and the world.”

“People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others.”

“I gave up trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago.”

“I tend to be influenced by people with strong opinions.”

“I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships with others.”

“I have confidence in my own opinions, even if they are different from the way most other people think.”

“I judge myself by what I think is important, not by the values of what others think is important.”

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

I willingly help other officers when they have multiple calls or complicated situations without being directed to do so. (Altruism)

I have put myself in harm's way to protect my fellow officers. (Altruism)

When there is a new officer in my unit, I let them know I am always willing to help them out. (Altruism)

Every day I work to protect all members of the public. (Civic virtue)

I utilize all other options available to me before using force when responding to a call. (Civic Virtue)

I enjoy working with community members to address neighborhood safety issues. (Civic Virtue)

I voluntarily attend non-mandatory events to help boost my department's public image or enhance the agency culture. (Conscientiousness)

Through my actions, I work to diligently uphold the core values of my department. (Conscientiousness)

There are times during my shift when I attend to personal issues. (Conscientiousness) (reversed)

I would cover for another officer if they committed a minor rule violation. (Courtesy) (reversed)

When I have a disagreement with a fellow officer or supervisor, I take time to cool off before speaking to the individuals with whom I had the conflict. (Courtesy)

If I witnessed another officer use unnecessary, but not excessive, force, I would discuss my observations directly with them. (Courtesy)

Even when frustrated by internal decisions, I act in ways that support the leadership of my department. (Sportsmanship)

When I am frustrated by the decisions made by my department's leadership, I do not talk with other officers to complain. (Sportsmanship)

My department's leadership does the best it can for officers with the limited resources it has available (Sportsmanship).

Psychological Safety (Modified from Dr. Amy Edmondson's Psychological Safety 7- questions)

If you make a mistake at my agency, it is often held against you.

I can bring up problems and tough issues with my supervisor.

Sometimes employees within my department are rejected for being different.

It is safe to provide input in problem-solving or offer a different perspective at my department.

It is difficult to ask officers at my department for help.

No one at my department would deliberately act in a way that undermines my efforts.

My unique skills and talents are valued and utilized by my department.