

IMPACT OF POLICE MISCONDUCT

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL IMPACT OF POLICE MISCONDUCT ON COLLEGE STUDENTS:
A STUDY PROPOSAL

by

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Abstract

Increasingly, police misconduct has come into the awareness of the general population in the United States. Police misconduct is a major public health concern that has a significant impact on individuals and their communities. A well-established body of research suggests there are several impacts on targets of police violence in the United States (U.S.)—especially among marginalized groups. These impacts include: (1) *debilitating sadness*, (2) *hyperarousal/chronic fear of fatal injuries*, (3) *constant sense of helplessness*, and (4) *lack of healthy coping mechanisms* (Hawkins, 2021). Also, there is a growing body of evidence linking these factors to poor psychosocial outcomes in adult populations (Alang, 2019; Bor et al., 2018; Boyd, 2018; Hawkins, 2021) but very few studies have explored these variables in college students. For this reason, we have created a study proposal to begin to fill this gap in the extant literature.

Specifically, to examine the impact of University Police misconduct, we propose to survey SUNY Purchase students who are diverse in terms of racial/ethnic background, gender, year in college, and academic standing (i.e., GPA). Based on our hypotheses, we would expect the results to show that exposure to police misconduct is negatively correlated with psychological well-being. We would also expect that acute exposure, either directly or indirectly, to police misconduct would be positively correlated with poor academic performance (e.g., missed assignments, classes, and work). This thesis has important implications for college faculty, police officers, and clinicians treating those affected by police misconduct.

Keywords: police misconduct, mental health, college students, race, misconduct prevalence, university police, study proposal.

The Psychological Impact of Police Misconduct on College Students: A Study Proposal

According to the California Innocence Project (1999), police misconduct can be understood as illegal or unethical actions or the violation of individuals' constitutional rights by police officers in the conduct of their duties. These illegal and unethical actions exist on a continuum, ranging from misconduct to brutality. Both police misconduct and police brutality have been brought to the forefront of the American public's attention in the past few years (beginning around 2014), mostly due to a series of gruesome police killings which became well-known around the country. Most infamous is the murder of George Floyd in 2020, whose death at the hands of police officer Derek Chauvin was captured by a bystander's phone camera and shared worldwide. The footage revealed Floyd's death over a nine-minute period as Officer Chauvin pinned him to the pavement and knelt on his neck. This incident sparked outrage and protests led by the Black Lives Matter movement all over the United States in the summer of that year. However, police misconduct and police brutality have existed long before George Floyd's murder became known and are much more prevalent than the few cases that make it onto the news.

Literature Review

Prevalence of Police Misconduct

Understanding the prevalence rates of any phenomenon proves to be an arduous task. Understanding the prevalence of police misconduct is nearly impossible due to a significant lack of data. No government body in the U.S. reports public statistics of police misconduct, violence, or brutality (New York Times, 2001). The Federal Bureau of Investigation did not even collect data on use-of-force until 2019 (FBI Crime Data Explorer). Even still, the public data the Federal

Bureau of Investigation (FBI) reports only includes the percentage of agencies that send data, not the actual information on use-of-force itself. As of 2022, 63% of U.S. agencies (15,875 agencies) report their data, yet those statistics are not made available to the public. In contrast, the “Law Enforcement Officers Killed and Assaulted” annual reports boast publication tables, summaries of data, narratives of officers feloniously killed, and resource pages available for download by topic and year. Unfortunately, in order to get a handle on how common police misconduct is, researchers must rely on other, non-government-affiliated databases and reporting sources.

Mapping Police Violence is one such database, tracking police killings across America. Their data collection began in 2013, and documents the location and cause of death, as well as the victim’s name, gender, and race (when this data is available). They found that 1,141 people were killed by police in the U.S. in 2021 alone. This number is not an outlier, with the recorded average being 1,102 police killings per year. From 2013 to 2021, American police have killed a total of 9,916 people, with the most common cause of death being gunshot, followed by taser, vehicle, and physical restraint, respectively (Mapping Police Violence, 2021). The Washington Post funds another database, the *Police Shootings Database*, which has been logging fatal shootings in the U.S. since 2015. Notably, they do not record deaths as a consequence of tasers, vehicles, restraint, or any cause apart from gunshot. The Washington Post’s average number of fatal shootings per year is 998.7, and their records state in 2021 alone, 1,054 people were shot and killed by police (Police Shootings Database, 2022).

These databases, alongside a small literature of published research, helps to pinpoint which regions of the U.S. are the most plagued by police violence. In their analysis, Schwartz and Jahn (2020) found that cities in the western half of the country—including the Southwest, West, and Rocky Mountain states—and the South experienced much higher annual rates of fatal

police violence than cities in the northern Midwest and Northeast. This finding aligns with data from *Mapping Police Violence*, which finds that the three cities with the highest rates of police killings from 2016-2020 were Los Angeles, California; Phoenix, Arizona; and Chicago, Illinois. This is corroborated by The Washington Post's *Police Shootings Database*, which listed the states with the highest rate of people killed by police as New Mexico (9.8 per million people), Alaska (8.3 per million people), Oklahoma (7.8 per million people) and Arizona (7.1 per million people) between 2013-2020. Although the available research suggests the Southwest and Western U.S. are the most affected by police killings, it is not clear why. Place-specific policies are likely a major cause of the distribution of prevalence rates. For example, state and local firearm regulations, levels of racial segregation, or differences in police training and police department protocols may be partially responsible (Schwartz & Jahn, 2020). However, more research is required to determine possible correlational relationships between these variables and police misconduct rates.

Although the previously mentioned databases and studies help to fill in the gaps in official available statistics, these databases focus solely on police killings. There is no publicly available database on the prevalence of non-fatal police violence or lesser instances of police misconduct. There is a dire need for research and reporting in this area.

Racial Disparities in Police Violence

Previous research shows that a racial disparity exists within police misconduct and brutality (Bor et al., 2018; Devylder et al., 2018; Hattery & Smith, 2018). Black Americans are more likely to experience police brutality than any other ethnic group. Black people make up only 13% of the United States population, while White people make up 76% (U.S. Census

Bureau). Yet, Black Americans make up 27% of people killed by police, and are 2.9 times more likely to be killed by police than white people according to *Mapping Police Violence* (2021).

Fatal Encounters is another independent source of data on all police-related deaths. It is funded entirely by donations, run by volunteer researchers, and unfortunately stopped collecting data in 2021. Using *Fatal Encounters* and Census information, Edwards et al. (2018) provided risk estimates for White, Black, and Latino men. In addition to finding that police were responsible for 8% of homicides with adult male victims between 2012 and 2018, Edwards and colleagues confirmed a racial disparity in fatal police encounters. Black men were killed by police at a rate of at least 2.1 per 100,000 population, Latino men were killed by police at a rate of at least 1.0 per 100,000, and White men were killed by police at a rate of at least 0.6 per 100,000. Edwards et al. then calculated estimates of deaths at 2015 population levels for future years. Their models predicted that between 970 and 1,174 total men will be killed by police per year. They predicted that between 257 and 330 Black men, between 150 and 217 Latino men, and between 460 and 533 White men will be killed by police every year. The researchers' predictions for each ethnic group are accurate when compared to *Mapping Police Violence*'s 2021 statistics. Police killed 266 Black people, 188 Hispanic people, and 481 White people that year. *Mapping Police Violence* includes all genders in its database, not just men, which may skew the data slightly. Though overall, Edward et al.'s predictions are supported by the data, displaying the racial imbalance of percentage of deaths versus percentage of population.

It would be irresponsible to discuss policing and its relationship with racism without acknowledging the historical context. The racial disparity clearly observed in numerous studies reflects a context of institutionalized racism born from a history of slavery, Jim Crow, and discrimination. Modern policing can be traced back to its origin as the "Slave Patrol" with duties

including returning run-away slaves to their owners and squashing slave rebellions (NAACP, 2020). Nehemiah Caulkins, a white carpenter who worked on plantations alongside slaves wrote in his 1839 narrative, *American Slavery as it is: Testimony of a Thousand Witnesses*:

“A patrol is kept upon each estate, and every slave found off the plantation without a pass is whipped on the spot. I knew a slave who started without a pass, one night, for a neighboring plantation, to see his wife: he was caught, tied to a tree, and flogged.”

Following the Civil War, the Slave Patrol transitioned into an agency responsible for enforcing Black Codes, which were restrictive laws designed to limit Black American’s freedoms and ensure their availability as a cheap labor force after slavery. This agency further degraded the relationship between Black civilians and police. In the 1900s, police enforced Jim Crow laws and segregation, as well as working against and brutalizing Civil Rights protesters. Edwards et al. (2018) states:

“The risk of being killed in a violent interaction with the police depends not only on idiosyncratic circumstances and individuals’ choices, but also on the interplay between one’s race/ethnicity and the broader contextual environment in which policing occurs.”

This “broader contextual environment” comes from history. Today, it is no longer an issue of being suspected of being a runaway slave; it is just generally being “suspected.” In America, being non-White is “suspect” (Alang, 2018). Nix et al. (2017) conducted an analysis of implicit bias in 990 fatal police encounters from the Washington Post’s *Police Shootings Database*. Results found that civilians from “other” minority groups were significantly more likely than White civilians to have not been attacking the officer(s). Black civilians, specifically, were found to be twice as likely to be unarmed than White civilians. Nix et al.’s (2017) results

suggest that Black civilians are targeted by police, even when unarmed and not attacking. The results show support for Alang's (2018) conclusion that simply being non-White in America is "suspect."

There is another factor relating to the disproportionate police brutality committed against Black people in America: over policing. The arrest rate of Black people for disorderly conduct, drug possession, simple assault, theft, vagrancy, and vandalism is at least two times higher than the arrest rate for White people (Stevenson & Mayson, 2018). Black drivers are also more likely to be pulled over than White drivers, although this imbalance ceases to exist at night, when it is difficult to see the driver's skin color (Pierson et al., 2020). Furthermore, despite similar rates of use, African Americans are 3.5 times more likely to be arrested for possession of Cannabis (ACLU, 2018). About over policing, Alang (2018) finds, "The size of police forces in Black urban neighborhoods is neither proportional to crime rates nor similar to police force size in neighborhoods that are disproportionately White." This exaggerated presence of police in Black neighborhoods leads to increased rates of arrest and incarceration, as well as greater opportunities for police misconduct to occur.

Police Misconduct & College Students

The available literature does not deeply explore the relationship between police officers and college students, despite the fact this is a group that interacts with police often. Reaves (2015) found that 95% of 4-year colleges with more than 2,500 students in the U.S. host their own campus law enforcement agency. Among the universities that did not operate their own campus police force, 77% utilized a private security firm and 18% used local law enforcement. Reaves' (2015) results show that on the majority of 4-year college campuses, police are present

and interacting with students. Despite this, little research has been done on these interactions, which highlights the need to fill this gap in the literature.

There are notable differences between university police departments at public and private colleges. About 92% of public colleges with a campus police agency used sworn police officers, who have full arrest powers granted by state/local authority, compared to only 38% of private institutions (Reaves, 2015). Similarly, 91% of public institutions utilized armed officers, as opposed to only 36% of private colleges. The vast majority of fatal police encounters are caused by gunshot. This data suggests that there is a higher chance of exposure to police misconduct/brutality at a public institution than a private institution, due to an increased opportunity for contact with armed officers.

Of all campuses with university police, about 9 in 10 sworn officers had arrest jurisdiction beyond campus boundaries (Reaves, 2015). Of these universities, 86% of agencies had an arrest area including properties adjacent to campus, 71% included areas outside the area surrounding campus, and 70% had an off-campus arrest jurisdiction defined through an agreement with local authorities. The large arrest areas of these campuses increases the likelihood of an encounter with university police, even when not on campus.

There is a lack of research regarding the link between academic outcomes and experiences with police misconduct in college students. However, in a correlational study, Wiley et al. (2013) looked at longitudinal academic data from middle school students (of all races) in seven cities. They compared this data to the students' experiences with police in three categories: no police contact, those who were stopped by police, and those who were arrested by police. Results found that compared with having no police contact, both being stopped and being

arrested were associated with increased delinquency. The link found is only correlational, not causal, but it is one of the few studies looking at this relationship.

Del Toro et al. (2021) also addresses the possible relationship between police encounters and academic well-being in urban adolescents (age 9-15). Using self-reports of their academic standing and the nature of their previous police encounters, if any, Del Toro et al. found that Black youth and boys were more susceptible to negative police encounters. Adolescents of all races who were directly stopped by police reported lower grades and greater psychological distress. Vicarious stops (in which a friend/family member is stopped, and the adolescent is present) were correlated with lower grades for Black boys, Latinx boys, and Latinx girls. However, vicarious stops were unrelated to grades for White youth and Black girls. This study is correlational, and cannot prove a causal relationship between police stops and lower grades, but it is useful in that it studies the racial inequalities in this relationship.

Psychological Consequences

Beyond its direct impacts of injury or death, police misconduct also indirectly impacts Americans by harming mental health. Bohr et al. (2018) conducted a study to estimate the causal impact of police killings of unarmed Black Americans on the self-reported mental health of other Black American adults. With a sample size of 103,710, the researchers conducted Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) interviews and collected data about the number of recent police killings in their area using the *Mapping Police Violence* database. They found that 49% of participants were either directly exposed or exposed via news stories to one or more police killings of unarmed Black Americans within 3 months of the interview. On average, respondents experienced an average of 4.1 poor mental health days in the month prior to the interview. Further, results showed that fatal encounters of unarmed Black Americans with police

could contribute 1.7 poor mental health days per Black person per year, which totals to 55 million excess days of poor mental health. For context, diabetes is estimated to be responsible for 75 million poor mental health days of Black Americans.

Another influential study was conducted by Hawkins (2021). He ran a series of qualitative interviews with Black Americans about their direct experiences with police brutality and their exposure to media stories of police killings. In this study, Hawkins recorded his participants' impactful and authentic statements, publishing them in his work. His analysis yielded four themes: (1) *debilitating sadness*, (2) *hyperarousal/chronic fear of dying*, (3) *constant sense of helplessness* and (4) *lack of healthy coping mechanisms*. *Debilitating sadness* was the primary emotion participants expressed when talking about well-known police killings. One participant, listed as Charlie (participant's names were changed) said,

“Oh, yea bro, I was sad, I don't even know if sad is the right word. Bro, after Tamir Rice, I straight up looked at my 10-year-old brother and cried. He didn't get it and he had never seen me cry before. I couldn't do shit for legit like two to three days. I missed hella assignments, and tried to explain to professors why I was struggling.”

Charlie reveals the despair he felt about Tamir Rice, a 12-year-old African American boy who was shot and killed by police in Cleveland, Ohio. His expressions of grief and academic hardship as a result of the incident are indicative of the debilitating sadness that so many Black Americans feel when a similar story is again broadcasted on the news.

Hyperarousal/chronic fear of dying is the second theme Hawkins identified. He posits that a constant fear of significant injury or death at the hands of police prompts a state of hyperarousal. Hyperarousal is an abnormal state of increased responsiveness to stimuli that is

often seen in individuals diagnosed with Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). Luke, one of Hawkins' participants states,

“There is not a single time where I can sit in a car and hear a siren or see a cop light flash, that I'm not fearful. I get so tense. I imagine it's like what soldiers feel when they hear anything that sounds like a bomb. When I hear sirens, I start to look around and hope that someone else is around. Because if I were to get shot, I would want someone to be able to tell the truth. People are straight up dropping at the hands of police. I never want to be in that situation.”

He describes a tenseness in his body, and an elevated startle response at the sound of police sirens. His reaction to police is similar to what many war veterans experience when struggling with PTSD. His reaction and its similarity to PTSD symptoms show the severity of his hyperarousal and fear of dying in an everyday interaction with police.

The third theme identified was a constant state of *helplessness*. Analysis found that Black Americans feel powerless to police aggression, and furthermore, feel they have no control over interactions with police, no matter their tone, actions, or intentions. Another interviewee, Chad, recalls a night where he felt helpless at the hands of police:

“I'm convinced there is nothing you can do to change a cop's mind. I've seen it happen too many times. I was out on U Street with some friends when cops came up to ask us questions. Felt like an interrogation. No answer was enough. No matter what we said or did, the cops were going to assume we were up to no good. We followed every rule. ‘Yes sir, no sir,’ made no sudden movements. Kept our hands visible at all times. Did everything we were taught and still, somehow, some way, a cop ended up slamming my friend on the ground. Fractured one of his ribs. We all sat there shocked. We wanted to help him, but we knew that jumping in meant the

cop was going to shoot us. So, we just sat there, man, helpless. Waiting for my friend to be uncuffed.”

It is clear that a sense of helplessness is not only felt when watching news stories of unarmed young men killed by police. It is a reality for many people like Chad. Black people are not only exposed to stories of other people’s experiences of police brutality, but many Black people experience police brutality firsthand.

Lastly, Hawkins identified a lack of healthy coping skills in his interviewees. Taylor says,

“I don’t think we ever unpack the pain that we are going through. We are expected to be the activists, but no one ever asks if we are okay? People come to us and ask, “what do we do next?” But I need to decompress. People expect us to have all the answers and sometimes, I don’t want to give the answers. Sometimes, I don’t want to talk about brutality. When brutality happens, every Black person becomes an ambassador, people expect you to raise awareness. But that means we never get to truly cry or express our emotions. We have to suck it up and advocate.”

The vast majority of participants expressed that they never cope with these issues. A smaller percentage of interviewees found support in their friends, and an even smaller group said they had gone to a licensed mental health professional, but some said that mental health counseling was ineffective.

Current Study and Hypotheses for Proposed Study

This study seeks to explore the relationships between police misconduct, college students, and emotional and academic well-being. Based on our literature review, we hypothesize that exposure to police misconduct would be negatively correlated with

psychological well-being. We also hypothesize acute exposure, either directly or indirectly, to police misconduct would be positively correlated with poor academic performance (e.g., missed assignments, classes, and work). Through secondary analyses we would collect ourselves, we would explore the effects of race/ethnicity, age, and gender on University Police encounters.

Methods

Participants

The proposed study explores the link between police misconduct, emotional well-being, and academic performance in college students. As undergraduate researchers can rarely inquire about an individual's mental health, for this thesis we present a study proposal that could be conducted with a special dispensation granted by the Institutional Review Board. If investigators were to run this study, we could expect around 100 SUNY Purchase students as participants, with an equal split between male and female genders, and a smaller percentage of non-binary students. The participants would be of diverse ethnic/racial backgrounds, year in college, and GPA. Ages would range from 18-22 with a few older students. No minors would be permitted to participate. The participants would be recruited through a convenience sampling method and compensated with course credit.

Materials & Procedure

The following equipment and programs/research tools would be used to present questions and collect responses: Computer/phone/tablet capable of accessing the internet and Qualtrics online survey software. The survey would consist of four parts including: a) a demographic questionnaire; b) an *Experience with University Police* section; c) *The Psychological Well-Being Questionnaire*, and d) *The Academic Well-Being Questionnaire*. The demographic questionnaire

would collect age, gender, year in college, race/ethnicity, GPA, and the number of years the participant has lived on campus. All six demographic questions would be multiple choice, with a write-in option for gender, year in college, and race/ethnicity. The questions are listed in **Appendix A**.

The *Experience with University Police* section was created by the researchers proposing this study. We included a total of 15 questions, which concentrated on whether or not the individual has experienced police misconduct at the hands of University Police, and the emotions brought forth by these encounters. A definition of police misconduct from the *California Innocence Project* was given before any questions about the topic. The full set of questions is listed in **Appendix B**. Questions took the form of a statements followed by a five- or six-point Likert scale, either ranging from *1- Strongly Disagree* to *5- Strongly Agree* or from *1- Never* to *5- Always*, with an option to choose “*0- I have never had an experience with University Police.*” Some items warranted a follow up question in which the participant could elaborate on their answer in an open-ended prompt. For example:

2. University Police officers contribute positively to my feeling of safety on campus.

1- Strongly disagree

2- Disagree

3- Neutral/unsure/no experience

4- Agree

5- Strongly Agree

3. Please use this space to elaborate on your answer to Question 2. _____

The *Psychological Well-Being* section includes the WHO-5 Well-Being Index, a well-known measure of mental well-being over the previous two weeks. This index consists of five statements assessing well-being, for example, “Over the past two weeks, I have felt cheerful and

in good spirits,” each followed by a six-point Likert scale ranging from 0- *At no time* to 5- *All of the time*. These items are listed in **Appendix C**.

Lastly, participants would answer three questions about their current academic well-being in the last section, titled the *Academic Well-Being Questionnaire*. These questions utilize a five-point Likert scale with options from 1- *Strongly Disagree* to 5- *Strongly Agree* and include questions such as, “I have fallen behind/missed assignments as a result of an encounter with UPD.” All three questions can be found in **Appendix D**.

Participants would complete an informed consent form before answering any questions, and their identity would be kept anonymous. All data would be kept on a secure, password-protected computer belonging to the researcher. We estimate the survey would take 25-30 minutes to complete.

Results

In this proposed study, measures of mental and academic well-being were collected, as well as the level of acute exposure to police misconduct at the hands of University Police. For each participant, data collected from the GPA demographic question and the questions concerning missed assignments and classes in the *Academic Well-Being Questionnaire* would be used to create an “overall academic well-being” score. Data from the *Experience with University Police* section would make up a “police misconduct experienced” score. Finally, the WHO-5 Index would be scored to assess mental well-being. Reverse scoring would be necessary for the “police misconduct experienced” category such that higher scores indicate a more police misconduct experienced.

We hypothesize that exposure to police misconduct would be negatively correlated with mental health and academic performance. If this study were conducted, we hypothesize a negative correlation would be found between police misconduct experienced scores and mental well-being., as well as a negative correlation between the amount of police misconduct experienced and academic performance. As secondary analyses, we would explore the link between race/ethnicity, gender, age, and encounters with University Police. We would expect no significant difference found between age and police misconduct experienced. We would also expect gender and race/ethnicity to be correlated with police misconduct experienced levels, such that males would be more likely to experience University Police misconduct than females, and Black students would be more likely to experience police misconduct than White or Asian students.

Discussion

We hypothesize that exposure to police misconduct would be negatively correlated with mental health and academic performance. We proposed a study that has the potential to address this research hypothesis. If our results demonstrated that Black students were more likely to experience higher levels of police misconduct, this finding would be consistent with the well documented fact that Black Americans are 2.9 times more likely to be killed by police officers than White Americans (Mapping Police Violence). As well as making up 27% of deaths at the hands up police, while only making up 13% of the population. Similarly, if we found that female-identifying students were less likely to experience police misconduct than male-identifying students, this would also be well supported (Mapping Police Violence, Police Shootings Database). A negative correlation between exposure to police misconduct and mental well-being is supported by Hawkins (2021) and Bohr et al. (2018), who found a significant

impact of both direct and indirect exposure to police violence on the mental health of Black Americans. A negative correlation between academic performance and exposure to police misconduct would also be supported by previous data. Del Toro et al. (2021) found that direct police stops of adolescents aged 9-15 were associated with lower grades. Wiley et al. (2013) yielded results that found police stops and arrests of middle school students were associated with increased delinquency.

There are several limitations to this study. The first and most obvious is that no data was actually collected. If it were to be conducted, it may yield results that do not support our hypotheses. Another significant limitation is the multiple causality of mental and academic well-being. In this study, we proposed only one possible origin of poor mental and academic well-being: exposure to police misconduct. But there are infinite reasons why an individual may be experiencing mental health or academic issues, such as family matters, new medication, academic stress, or the end of a relationship.

In our proposed study of 100 SUNY Purchase students, we would be subject to sample size bias. One hundred students is a small sample size to generalize to all college students in the United States. A larger sample size, with participants from many different colleges in different areas of the U.S. would be ideal. Another problem with our sample is that it may be vulnerable to selection bias. Using a convenience sampling method, we may find that those most traumatized by police encounters might choose to not participate in the study, due to it being too emotionally taxing. We would miss those data points, and the data may reflect a lesser correlation than is actually present. The last limitation is the nature of the study itself. It is a correlational study, not an experimental trial with a control group and manipulated variables, therefore no causal

relationships can be inferred. We cannot definitively say that police misconduct would *cause* decreases in academic and psychological well-being, only that the three variables are correlated.

This research has implications for college faculty, police officers, and clinicians. A better understanding of the prevalence of University Police misconduct and the spillover effects it has on the community's mental health is essential to making positive change. College faculty can benefit from this information to better help students struggling with their assignments after an encounter with University Police. Police officers should be made aware of this data as well, in order to facilitate new protocols and/or diversity and de-escalation training. Likewise, clinicians can better understand their patients' issues with police on campus if they know what psychological impacts it may bring forth

The present study is an attempt to fill in the gaps in the literature on police misconduct and its effects on college students. Although they are very topical subjects, police misconduct, violence, and brutality are not understood very well. Most data and research articles on the subject are from the past five years, and with so few data points, it is hard to see trends over time. As previously stated, no government body publicly reports statistics on police violence, creating a desperate need for more research in this area, and more reporting from police agencies. If this study were to be conducted, it may shine light on college students, a population that interacts with police often, and who lives on campus with police officers. It would yield data that would be helpful to college faculty, police officers, and clinicians. The more we collectively know about police misconduct and violence, the stronger our methods for eradicating it.

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Appendix A: Demographic questionnaire

1. How old are you?
18-25
26-33
34-41
42-49
50 or older

2. What is your gender identity?
Male
Female
Non-Binary
Prefer to self-describe _____

3. What is your year in college?
Freshman
Sophomore
Junior
Senior
5th year or above
Other _____

4. What is your race/ethnicity?
White/Caucasian
Black/African American
Asian
Hispanic or Latino
Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
Native American or Alaska Native
Prefer to self-describe _____

5. What is your Grade Point Average (GPA) rounded to the nearest tenth?
1.5 or lower
1.6 - 2.0
2.1 - 2.5
2.6 - 3.0
3.1 - 3.5
3.6 - 4.0
4.1 or higher

6. How many years have you lived on campus at SUNY Purchase?
I have never lived on campus
I lived on campus for one year or less

I lived on campus for two years

I lived on campus for three years

I lived on campus for four or more years

Appendix B: Experience with University Police Questionnaire

In this survey, you will encounter several statements about policing on and off campus. When the University Police Department (UPD) is mentioned, please refer to the University Police *at Purchase College only*. Please read each statement carefully and indicate your answer on a scale from **1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree)**. For a few questions, the scale indicates frequency from **1 (Never) to 5 (Always)**. These will be clearly labeled. In some cases, you may be asked to elaborate on your answer. You may write as much or as little as you like.

1. I feel comfortable complying with University Police officers.

- 1- Strongly disagree
- 2- Disagree
- 3- Neutral/unsure/no experience
- 4- Agree
- 5- Strongly Agree

2. University Police officers contribute positively to my feeling of safety on campus.

- 1- Strongly disagree
- 2- Disagree
- 3- Neutral/unsure/no experience
- 4- Agree
- 5- Strongly Agree

3. Please use this space to elaborate on your answer to Question 2. _____

4. My firsthand experiences with the University Police Department (UPD) are _____ negative.

- 0- I have never had an encounter with UPD
- 1- Never
- 2- Rarely
- 3- Sometimes
- 4- Often
- 5- Always

5. Please use this space to elaborate on your answer to Question 4. _____

6. My firsthand experiences with the University Police Department (UPD) are _____ positive.

- 0- I have never had an encounter with UPD
- 1- Never
- 2- Rarely
- 3- Sometimes
- 4- Often
- 5- Always

7. Please use this space to elaborate on your answer to Question 6. _____

8. After an encounter with University Police, I feel safe.

0- I have never had an encounter with UPD

1- Never

2- Rarely

3- Sometimes

4- Often

5- Always

9. After an encounter with University Police, I feel emotionally drained.

0- I have never had an encounter with UPD

1- Never

2- Rarely

3- Sometimes

4- Often

5- Always

The next six questions (10-15) refer to police misconduct. Please use the following definition from the *California Innocence Project* when answering these questions: **Police misconduct encompasses illegal or unethical actions or the violation of individuals' constitutional rights by police officers in the conduct of their duties.**

10. I have directly experienced police misconduct by University Police.

1- Strongly disagree

2- Disagree

3- Neutral/unsure

4- Agree

5- Strongly Agree

11. I have directly experienced police misconduct at the hands of a police department off campus.

1- Strongly disagree

2- Disagree

3- Neutral/unsure

4- Agree

5- Strongly Agree

12. One or more of my loved ones/friends have experienced police misconduct by University Police.

1- Strongly disagree

2- Disagree

- 3- Neutral/unsure
- 4- Agree
- 5- Strongly Agree

13. One or more of my loved ones/friends have experienced police misconduct by a police department off campus.

- 1- Strongly disagree
- 2- Disagree
- 3- Neutral/unsure
- 4- Agree
- 5-Strongly Agree

14. Police misconduct affects my campus community.

- 1- Strongly disagree
- 2- Disagree
- 3- Neutral/unsure/not applicable
- 4- Agree
- 5- Strongly Agree

15. Please use this space to elaborate on your answer to Question 14. _____

Appendix C: Psychological Well-Being Questionnaire

16. I have experienced hyperarousal (a state of enhanced reactivity to stimuli) as a result of an encounter with UPD.

- 1- Strongly disagree
- 2- Disagree
- 3- Neutral/unsure/no experience
- 4- Agree
- 5- Strongly Agree

17. I have experienced deep sadness as a result of an encounter with UPD.

- 1- Strongly disagree
- 2- Disagree
- 3- Neutral/unsure/no experience
- 4- Agree
- 5- Strongly Agree

18. I have ____ sought mental health counseling as a result of an encounter with UPD.

- 1- Never
- 2- Rarely
- 3- Sometimes
- 4- Often
- 5- Always

19. Over the past two weeks, I have felt cheerful and in good spirits

- 0- At no time
- 1- Some of the time
- 2- Less than half the time
- 3- More than half the time
- 4- Most of the time
- 5- All of the time

20. Over the past two weeks, I have felt calm and relaxed

- 0- At no time
- 1- Some of the time
- 2- Less than half the time
- 3- More than half the time
- 4- Most of the time
- 5- All of the time

21. Over the past two weeks, I have felt active and vigorous

- 0- At no time

- 1- Some of the time
- 2- Less than half the time
- 3- More than half the time
- 4- Most of the time
- 5- All of the time

22. Over the past two weeks, I have woken up feeling fresh and rested

- 0- At no time
- 1- Some of the time
- 2- Less than half the time
- 3- More than half the time
- 4- Most of the time
- 5- All of the time

23. Over the past two weeks, my daily life has been filled with things that interest me

- 0- At no time
- 1- Some of the time
- 2- Less than half the time
- 3- More than half the time
- 4- Most of the time
- 5- All of the time

Appendix D: Academic Well-Being Questionnaire

24. I have missed work as a result of an encounter with UPD.

- 1- Strongly disagree
- 2- Disagree
- 3- Neutral/unsure/no experience
- 4- Agree
- 5- Strongly Agree

25. I have missed school/classes as a result of an encounter with UPD.

- 1- Strongly disagree
- 2- Disagree
- 3- Neutral/unsure/no experience
- 4- Agree
- 5- Strongly Agree

26. I have fallen behind/missed assignments as a result of an encounter with UPD.

- 1- Strongly disagree
- 2- Disagree
- 3- Neutral/unsure/no experience
- 4- Agree
- 5- Strongly Agree