ERRATA

p xiii, line 15: "bridges the General Introduction" for "bridges General Introduction"

p 13, line 20: "by means" for "by a means"

p 52, Table1: "A priori thematic analysis" for 'Priory thematic analysis"

p 96, line 1: "PROCEDURAL" for "PROCEDRUAL"

p 142, line 8: "will be followed by" for "will follow by"

p 146, line 4: "existing" for "existent"

p 195, line 15: "tell their full story" for "tell full story"

Procedural Justice in Victim-Police Interactions:
A Mixed Methods Study

Irina Elliott, BPsych (Hons)

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ABSTRACT

Procedural justice emphasises the fairness of methods used to achieve outcomes. Using both quantitative and qualitative methods, this study tested a relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992) in victim-police interactions and examined the impact of perceptions of procedural justice on victims' well-being. In-depth interviews were conducted with 110 people (58 females and 52 males, with ages ranging from 18 to 86 years; $M = 39.75$, $SD = 13.7$) who had reported a crime (personal or property) to the police during the previous year. Quantitative findings supported the predictions that higher perceived procedural justice would be associated with higher perceived legitimacy (obligation to obey the law), outcome fairness, and satisfaction with the contact. Procedural justice was a stronger predictor of outcome fairness and satisfaction than the realisation of a desired outcome, and a stronger predictor of legitimacy than criminal history. Qualitative findings supported these results. Moreover, higher procedural justice but not a desired outcome predicted the likelihood that victims would feel empowered by the interaction and was associated with greater well-being. Validation of victimisation experiences by the police was vitally important to victims of crime as it was seen as an indication of their value in and a broader validation from the wider community. The results provide empirical support for a group value model of procedural justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988) in that fair treatment by the police is perceived by individuals as an indication of their value and status in society. The results suggest the primary impact of procedural justice over a desired outcome on victims' sense of empowerment and well-being and perceived outcome fairness and satisfaction in victim-police interactions. It appears that

procedural justice has the potential for helping to motivate individuals with

criminal history to obey the law. Implications for evaluation of police

performance and policy development are discussed.

GENERAL DECLARATION

Monash University

Monash Research Graduate School

Declaration for thesis based or partially based on conjointly published or unpublished work

General Declaration

In accordance with Monash University Doctorate Regulation 17/Doctor of Philosophy and Master of Philosophy (MPhil) regulations the following declarations are made:

I hereby declare that this thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma at any university or equivalent institution and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

This thesis includes 2 original papers in press and 2 unpublished papers. The core theme of the thesis is the impact of procedural justice on victims' perceptions of legitimacy, outcome fairness, satisfaction, and well-being as a result of the interaction with the police. The ideas, development and writing up of all the papers in the thesis were the principal responsibility of myself, the candidate, working with the Psychology department under the supervision of Dr Stuart Thomas and Professor James Ogloff.

In the case of chapters 3, 4, 5, and 6 my contribution to the work involved the following:

Thesis chapter	Publication title	Publication status	Nature and extent of candidate's contribution
Three	Procedural justice in contacts with the police: Testing a relational model of authority in a mixed methods study	In press	Reviewed literature, designed study, collected and analysed data, prepared paper. 75%
Four	Procedural justice and victims' recovery from victimisation experiences: A grounded theory study	Submitted	As above 75%
Five	Procedural justice in victim-police interactions and victims' well-being: A mixed methods study	Submitted	As above 75%
Six	Procedural justice in contacts with the police: The perspective of victims of crime	In press	As above 75%

I have renumbered sections of submitted or accepted papers to generate a consistent presentation within the thesis.

Signed: ....

Date: ....

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

THESIS OUTLINE

This thesis reports a study that examined crime victims' perceptions of procedural justice and their impact on victims' well-being as a result of the interaction with the police. On a conceptual level, the study was guided by a relational perspective on procedural justice (Tyler & Lind, 1992) and therapeutic jurisprudence approach (Wexler, 1990). From a methodological point of view, this study employed a mixed methods approach by integrating quantitative and qualitative methods in the same study. This thesis comprises seven chapters and includes two papers in press and two papers submitted for publication in international peer reviewed journals.

Chapter One provides a conceptual framework, review of the relevant research, rationale, aims, research questions and hypotheses for the study. It begins with placing the study within the broader conceptual framework of psychological jurisprudence. Integration of the theory of procedural justice with different approaches to the construction of psychological jurisprudence is undertaken. This is followed by an overview of methodology and major findings on procedural justice in the context of policing involving general population, offenders, and victims. The rationale for the study and its aims are stated. As required by the mixed methods methodology, the research questions/hypotheses are presented separately for the quantitative strand, qualitative strand and overall study.

Chapter Two provides an overview of the methodology developed to address the research questions posed. It starts with defining the mixed methods approach and outlining philosophical assumptions and conceptual framework

for the mixed methods paradigm. The rationale for using mixed methods in the present study is provided. This is followed by an overview of the study design and its distinguishing features. An overview of the procedures and a detailed description of the sample are also provided. Finally, an overview of qualitative and quantitative data analyses by purpose of data analysis is presented.

Chapter Three includes the first paper. The paper reports findings on the validity of a relational model of authority in victim-police interactions. The chapter begins with a commentary which bridges the General Introduction and Methods sections with the first paper. The first paper (in press) is then presented.

Chapter Four includes the second paper. The paper reports findings that led to a theoretical model constructed through a grounded theory method reflecting the role of procedural justice in victims' recovery from the negative psychological consequences of victimisation experiences. The chapter begins with a commentary that bridges the General Introduction and the first paper with the second paper. The second paper submitted for publication is then presented.

Chapter Five includes the third paper. The paper provides an integration of quantitative and qualitative findings in relation to the therapeutic value of a relational perspective on procedural justice for victims of crime. The chapter begins with a bridging commentary outlining how the third paper is related to the second paper. The third paper submitted for publication is then presented.

Chapter Six includes the fourth paper. Based on the findings presented in the previous papers, the paper is intended to provide practical guidelines for improving police response to victims of crime. The chapter begins with a bridging commentary followed by the fourth paper (in press).

Chapter Seven is an integrated Discussion in which the findings presented in the four papers are jointly considered in relation to the aims of the study. Implications of the overall findings are discussed in terms of the contribution to the theory, research, and methodology. Implications for evaluation of police performance, mental health services, and policy development are presented. Future directions to advance the literature on procedural justice in the context of policing and its impact on victims' well-being are offered.

CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Procedural Justice and Psychological Jurisprudence

The concept of procedural justice in the context of law enforcement can be placed within the broader conceptual framework of psychological jurisprudence. Psychological jurisprudence refers to the theoretical framework employed to 'describe, explain, and predict law by reference to human behaviour' (Small, 1993, p. 4). Three main approaches to the construction of psychological jurisprudence have been identified: the subjective experience approach, cognitive approach, and therapeutic jurisprudence (Small, 1993).

The three approaches consider the law from different perspectives. While the subjective experience approach emphasises the role of everyday experiences of the law in understanding its meaning, the cognitive approach is focused on the role of human cognition in the functioning of the law. At the same time, therapeutic jurisprudence is concerned with the role of the law as a therapeutic agent (Wexler, 1990). The subjective experience approach and therapeutic jurisprudence are the most relevant to the concept of procedural justice in the context of law enforcement.

1.1.1 The Subjective Experience Approach and Procedural Justice

The subjective experience approach to psychological jurisprudence was developed by Petrazycki and Melton (Small, 1993). It has two distinguishing features. Firstly, it employs subjective experience of the law as a unit of analysis in understanding the meaning of the law (Petrazycki, 1955). Secondly, it considers the promotion of human values (especially dignity) as a guiding principle for the construction of psychological jurisprudence (Melton, 1989). 'Psychological jurisprudence views the promotion of human dignity as the

actual primary goal of the law… and it posits empirical psychological study as the optimal method of illuminating the conditions that are conducive to a sense of dignity' (Melton, 1990, p. 262). In this respect, a non-instrumental perspective on procedural justice – a group value model of procedural justice offered by Tyler and Lind (Lind & Tyler, 1988) and a relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992) become relevant.

The concept of procedural justice (procedural fairness is another label used in literature) was introduced into socio-legal research by Thibaut and Walker (1975). They used the concept of *procedural justice* to describe the fairness of the process by which decisions are made as opposed to *distributive justice*, that is, the fairness of the decisions themselves. Since then an impressive body of research in social, legal, and organisational settings has demonstrated that people place a significant value on the fairness of the process by which outcomes are achieved (MacCoun, 2005). Two explanations have been offered for this phenomenon: an instrumental perspective and a non-instrumental perspective.

1.1.1.1 Instrumental Perspective on Procedural Justice

According to the instrumental perspective, people value fair procedures as a means to achieve fair outcomes (Leventhal, 1976; Thibaut &Walker, 1975). For example, giving people 'voice' (Folger, 1977), or the opportunity to express their point of view during a decision-making process has been found to enhance the perceptions of procedural justice (Lind, Kanfer, & Early, 1990; Thibaut & Walker; Tyler & Bies, 1990). From the instrumental perspective, giving people voice increases the perceived fairness of the decision-making procedures as it allows individuals to exercise indirect control over the

decision itself (Lind &Tyler, 1988). Interestingly, research suggests that people care about the opportunity to express their views in a decision-making process even when they believe that their say had no influence on the decision itself (Lind et al., 1990; Tyler, 1987; Tyler, Rasinski, & Spodick, 1985). Moreover, the instrumental perspective does not explain research findings indicating that people are concerned with procedures independently of their effects on outcomes, and often fair procedures are valued more than favourable outcomes (Tyler, Boeckmann, Smith, & Huo, 1997). For example, Lind, Kulik, Ambrose, and de Vera Park (1993) found that the decision to accept the arbitration award in arbitration hearings was more strongly related to people's assessments of procedures ($\beta = .47$) than to the size of the award ($\beta = .20$).

The instrumental perspective on procedural justice is based on *a self-interest model of the person* (Lind & Tyler, 1988). According to this model, a person's major concern in interactions with others is to obtain personal gain. In the pursuit of personal gain, individuals come to realise that they can gain more through cooperation with others; however, cooperation with others often requires compromises on the part of individuals in relation to their egoistic preferences. One such compromise is the willingness to accept outcomes and procedures on the basis of their fairness rather than on the basis of their favourability. Moreover, if procedures are fair, then long-term personal gains can be expected even if short-term gains are absent. Hence, individuals focus on the fairness of procedures to obtain more favourable outcomes for themselves.

Recently, a new version of the instrumental perspective on procedural justice has emerged – *an uncertainty management theory* (Van den Bos &

Lind, 2002). According to the uncertainty management theory, fair treatment is important to people as a means of coping with uncertainties in their lives. Lind and Van den Bos (2002) argue that fair procedures function to instil confidence in individuals that ultimately they will obtain favourable outcomes and to alleviate their anxiety in relation to the possibility of unfavourable outcomes. In this respect, it has been suggested that procedural justice is especially important to victims of violent crimes who face a great deal of uncertainty in the wake of their traumatic experiences (Wemmers & Cyr, 2005). It can be seen that the uncertainty management theory reflects the self-interest model of the person and links the concern with fair procedures to the outcomes.

1.1.1.2 Non-Instrumental Perspective on Procedural Justice

A group value model of procedural justice offered by Tyler and Lind (Lind & Tyler, 1988) reflects a non-instrumental perspective. In contrast to the self-interest model of the person, the group value model emphasises the affiliative nature of human beings. Group membership is seen as a powerful aspect of people's lives with procedures playing a crucial role in defining their social identity and in-group relationships. The group value model places a special emphasis on universal values associated with group membership, especially status within the group. From the group value model perspective, procedures matter as they convey important information to individuals about their value and status in society and the status of the group to which they belong (Blader & Tyler, 2003).

According to Tyler and Lind (1992), individuals' value and status in society are reflected in the quality of their relationship with authorities. The authors extended their model beyond the decision-making process to account

for public support for authorities in general. The authors argued that public

support for authorities is determined by perceptions of procedural justice based

on non-instrumental criteria. These criteria were labelled *relational* as it was

deemed that on the basis of these criteria individuals make judgments about the

quality of their relationship with authorities. The relational criteria include four

dimensions: a) quality of interpersonal treatment, b) trustworthiness of

authorities, c) neutrality of decision-making process, and d) participation

(Tyler, 2006).

In relation to the assumptions underlying the group value model, the

most distinctive dimension is the *quality of interpersonal treatment*. Tyler and

Lind (1992) argue that the way individuals are treated on a personal level

forms the basis of the individual's judgments about their status, or social

standing. In this respect, treatment with dignity and respect, politeness, and

showing concern for the individual's rights on the part of authorities are

perceived by individuals as recognition of their value and status in society

(Tyler, 2004a).

Although the quality of interpersonal treatment is the most distinctive

dimension in relation to the assumptions underlying the group value model, the

most crucial factor in the evaluation of procedural fairness is *trustworthiness of*

authorities (Tyler, 2004a). Judgements about trustworthiness are based on the

assessments of the motives underlying actions of the authority responsible for

making decisions. Tyler (2004b) argues that the reliance on the assessments of

the motives of the authority to determine its trustworthiness can be explained

by people's lack of expertise and specialised training to make competent

judgements about the authority's actions. Individuals trust the authority if they

believe that the authority tries to do the right thing by them, cares about their needs and concerns, genuinely considers their views, and provides honest explanations of how and why particular decisions are made. In this respect, Tyler (2004a) emphasises the importance of personalised trust directed to a particular authority figure as a result of personal knowledge about this authority figure obtained through interactions.

The importance of trust is reflected in another dimension of procedural justice – *participation*. By definition, participation is similar to what Folger (1977) labelled as *voice*, or giving individuals the opportunity to express their point of view during a decision-making process. However, from the relational criteria of procedural justice perspective, individuals value the opportunity to express their point of view only if they believe that the authority is genuinely listening and considering their arguments. In such a case, individuals evaluate procedures as fair even if their arguments are rejected (Tyler, 2004a).

Finally, from the relational criteria of procedural justice perspective, the evaluation of procedures as fair is influenced by *neutrality of authorities*. Individuals evaluate procedures as fair if they believe that authorities are honest, impartial, objective, and unbiased when making decisions (Tyler, 2004a). Thus, neutrality of authorities is perceived when authorities make their decisions based on rules and facts, not personal attitudes, values, or preferences. According to Tyler (2004b), individuals focus on these criteria in evaluation of decision-making by authorities as in most cases individuals do not have expert knowledge of what legitimate outcomes are in a particular situation.

The relational criteria form the basis of *a relational model of authority* (Tyler & Lind, 1992). According to this model, perceptions of fair procedures based on the relational criteria shape the perceived legitimacy of the authority, which, in turn, encourage adherence to the rules, cooperation with and support for the authority. In the context of law enforcement, *legitimacy* is defined as the individual's obligation to obey the law, trust, and confidence in the institution of policing (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a). Tyler and Darley (2000) argue that legitimacy is a primary factor in shaping law-abiding behaviour as legitimacy reflects internalised social values of obligation and responsibility to behave appropriately. When people view law enforcement agencies as legitimate, they are internally motivated to obey the law 'because they feel it is the right thing to do' (Tyler & Darley, 2000, p. 715).

In contrast, *a deterrence model* (until recently the predominant model of law-abiding behaviour) focuses on factors external to the individual and suggests that compliance with the law is based on fear of punishment (Nagin, 1998). Although research suggests that the deterrence approach is effective in shaping law-abiding behaviour, this effect is small. For example, MacCoun (1993) reviewed studies on deterrence strategies in drug use and found that only about 5% of the variance in illegal drug use was attributed to the estimates of the likelihood of being caught and punished. Moreover, research suggests that for the deterrence strategies to be effective, the risk of punishment should be quite high (e.g., Nagin & Paternoster, 1991). Data from the United States indicate that for most crimes the risk of being apprehended and punished is low (National Research Council, 2004). In addition, the deterrence approach is highly dependent on the availability of police resources.

In this respect, the relational model of authority offers a number of advantages over the deterrence model. While the police cannot control all factors that lead people to become criminals and police resource are limited more often than not, the police have some degree of control over how they exercise their authority. Therefore, the police are in power to build legitimacy by enhancing procedural justice. Moreover, Tyler (2001) argues that fair procedures by which the police exercise their authority build trust and confidence in the institution of policing. In addition, from the relational model perspective, fair procedures convey to individuals that they are valued members of society and thus, promote the individual's identification with and commitment to societal values (Tyler, 2000). In this respect, Sunshine and Tyler (2003b) suggest that individuals whose status is uncertain in society will be more concerned with the issues of procedural justice than individuals with a secure social status. Individuals with uncertain social status will place more emphasis on fair treatment by authorities to affirm their social standing. In turn, the more individuals identify themselves with societal values, the more likely they develop feelings of obligation and responsibility to behave in accordance with societal norms and support the law and law enforcement agencies.

It can be seen that the group value model of procedural justice in the context of law enforcement offers a distinct psychological jurisprudence perspective. It reflects the two distinguishing features of the subjective experience approach to psychological jurisprudence. Firstly, the group value model of procedural justice is a value-based perspective on law-related behaviour. Secondly, it directs the study of law-related behaviour to the

feelings, needs, concerns, and experiences of people who deal with law enforcement agencies.

1.1.2 Therapeutic Jurisprudence and Procedural Justice

The concept of therapeutic jurisprudence was introduced into legal scholarship by Wexler (1990). Wexler (1992) emphasised the social nature of the law and argued that legal rules, legal procedures, and the behaviour of legal actors (such as lawyers and judges) may produce therapeutic or antitherapeutic consequences for the individuals affected by legal decisions and processes. For example, the therapeutic consequences of the insanity defence may be considered in terms of the benefits to the mental health of an offender who would have not received the required treatment in prison. On the other hand, labelling the offender insane and thus non-responsible may have the effect of making the offender believe he or she is not responsible for any future action, analogous to a self-fulfilling prophecy (Wexler, 1991), which would be antitherapeutic. Although the therapeutic jurisprudence perspective emerged within mental health law scholarship, the perspective has been extended to include the law in general. As such, therapeutic jurisprudence is defined as 'the use of social science to study the extent to which a legal rule or practice promotes the psychological and physical well-being of the people it affects' (Slobogin, 1995, p. 196).

Although therapeutic jurisprudence was concerned initially with legal rules and procedures, recently the behaviour of legal actors, including police officers, has become the focus of attention for therapeutic jurisprudence scholars (Winick, 2000). The assumption that therapeutic outcomes can be

influenced by the behaviour of legal actors brings to attention the procedural justice conceptual framework.

However, recently there have been attempts to conceptually demarcate the procedural justice framework and the therapeutic jurisprudence approach. For example, Ashford and Holschun (2006) argue that therapeutic jurisprudence does not provide clear guidance in relation to how therapeutic outcomes can be achieved and, moreover, overlooks the role of procedural justice in the evaluation of mental health system fairness. In response to this criticism, it should be noted that Wexler (1996) considered procedural justice theory as a dimension of therapeutic jurisprudence and argued for the convergence of justice and therapeutic concerns. In this respect, Wexler emphasised that the patient's dignity, trust and participation in a therapist-patient relationship provide opportunities for the patient to internalise treatment goals and therefore, maximise the achievement of therapeutic outcomes. It can be seen that on a conceptual level, the convergent point of the group value model of procedural justice and therapeutic jurisprudence is the concern with human motivation and intrinsic values.

The therapeutic jurisprudence approach has been also criticised for not addressing explicitly the question of why the law should be concerned with therapeutic outcomes (Melton, 1994). In this respect, it should be noted that Wexler never called for therapeutic concerns to be the primary focus of the law: 'Therapeutic jurisprudence in no way suggests that therapeutic considerations should trump other considerations' (Wexler, 1993, p. 21). Instead, therapeutic jurisprudence suggests that in a democratic society 'other things being equal' (Wexler, 1993, p. 21), therapeutic effects of the law on

people affected by it are desirable. This is particularly relevant to people who deal with the criminal justice system such as victims of violent crimes.

Many violent crimes meet the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual for Mental Disorders definition of a traumatic event which 'involves actual or threatened death or serious injury, or a threat to the physical integrity of self or others' and a response of 'intense fear, helplessness, or horror' (American Psychiatric Association, 2000, p. 467). As a result of their traumatic experiences, many victims of violent crimes are at risk of developing a posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Kilpatrick and Acierno (2003) estimated rates of lifetime PTSD in response to physical assault as ranging between 23% and 39% and rates of lifetime PTSD in response to sexual assault as ranging between 30% and 80%. Moreover, victims who suffer from PTSD are at a higher risk of developing psychological problems common among survivors of violent crimes such as depression, anxiety, substance abuse, low self-esteem, identity confusion, and guilt or shame (Carlson & Dutton, 2003). Even when a person is confronted with a crime that may not constitute an explicit traumatic event, such as a theft or household burglary, the negative psychological effects on the person's well-being can be significant: doubts about the benevolence of the world and the trustworthiness of people, depression, anxiety, and anger (Carlson & Dutton).

In this respect, it has been acknowledged that insensitivity of the criminal justice system to the victim's plight can contribute to or exacerbate their suffering (Herman, 2003), a phenomenon referred to as *secondary victimisation* (Symonds, 1980). For example, Campbell et al. (1999) found that rape survivors who had negative experiences with the criminal justice system

as a result of reporting rape had higher levels of PTSD symptoms than rape victims who did not report the crime or seek any help. Nevertheless, it has been also recognised that the criminal justice system has the potential to promote the well-being of survivors of violent crimes, with procedural justice being one of the key factors implicated in this process (Herman, 2003). In this respect, Herman emphasises the role of procedural justice in fostering victims' sense of empowerment.

The concept of procedural justice based on relational criteria is particularly relevant to promoting victims' sense of empowerment. The issues of participation, dignity and trust have been identified as major areas of concern for crime victims in their interactions with the criminal justice system including the police (Herman, 2003; Maier, 2008; Orth, 2002; Ullman, 1996). In addition, from the relational perspective, individuals' perceptions of treatment by authorities shape their judgements of self-worth (Tyler, 2004b). Research supports this assumption. Tyler, Degoey, and Smith (1996) found that perceptions of procedural justice based on relational criteria were directly linked to the individual's self-esteem. Moreover, from the relational perspective, fair procedures communicate to individuals that they are cared about and valued by the community. In this respect, Tyler argues that fair procedures have the potential to reaffirm crime victims' sense of his or her social status in the wake of the demeaning experiences.

Thus, therapeutic jurisprudence adds a new, 'therapeutic' meaning to the relational perspective on procedural justice. Procedural justice may be important to individuals not only because it indicates their value as members of society but also because the indication of such value itself can produce

therapeutic effects. Moreover, the concept of procedural justice based on relational criteria links a value-based perspective on law-related behaviour to therapeutic outcomes. As such, the relational model of procedural justice represents a convergent point between the subjective experience approach to psychological jurisprudence and therapeutic jurisprudence. By examining experiences of people who deal with law enforcement agencies psychological jurisprudence scholars have the opportunity to identify 'the conditions that are conducive to a sense of dignity' (Melton, 1990, p. 262) and, therefore, promote law-abiding behaviour and the well-being of people affected by legal decisions and processes.

1.2 Research on Procedural Justice in Contacts with Police

Research on procedural justice in contacts with the police can be divided into two broad categories: (1) studies that explicitly test the relational model of authority; and (2) studies that involve personal experiences with the police which are of general relevance to the concept of procedural justice including the concept of procedural justice based on relational criteria.

1.2.1 Testing the Relational Model

1.2.1.1 Overview of Methodology

Studies that test the relational model of authority in relation to policing have been conducted with general population samples by means of either a telephone or mail-back survey. The samples are large and drawn from residents of metropolitan cities in the USA. Most of the studies do not involve respondents' personal experiences with the police and are based on general evaluations of the police by the residents of a relevant city. Several studies that have focused on personal experiences with the police (Tyler, 1990; Tyler &

Huo, 2002; Tyler & Wakslak, 2004) have examined two types of contacts: calls for assistance and being stopped by police for questioning or engaging in law-breaking activity. Typically, procedural justice constructs (relational dimensions of procedural justice) have been used as independent variables to predict various outcome measures: perceived police legitimacy, compliance, satisfaction, and cooperation with the police. Usually, a composite measure of procedural justice dimensions is used as a predictor variable, which is consistent with recent guidelines in relation to general measures of justice (Hauenstein, McGonigle, & Flinder, 2001). Considering the contribution of one dimension of the justice concept, independently from the others, is likely to overestimate the predicted relationship with the criterion (Hauenstein et al., 2001). Although correlational designs employed by the studies do not allow for making definitive causal inferences, all studies have used multivariate statistical analyses (multiple regression, path analysis and structural equation modelling) to control for spurious effects, reciprocal influences and measurement errors.

Despite the statistical rigour, the construct validity of measures used to test the relational model has been questioned (Reisig, Bratton, & Gertz, 2007). Major criticism can be directed to inconsistency in operational definitions of the key latent constructs – the four relational dimensions of procedural justice. This inconsistency is reflected in varying numbers of items comprising a particular scale in different studies, inconsistent wording of the same items, varying titles of the same scales, inclusion of conceptually different items in a scale, and using global items, such as 'How often do the police treat people fairly?' (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003b, p. 158).

This is particularly relevant to the two dimensions of the relational criteria of procedural justice: quality of interpersonal treatment and neutrality of decision-making process. For example, the quality of interpersonal treatment dimension has been measured with two (Tyler, 2005; Tyler & Wakslak, 2004), three (Tyler & Huo, 2002; Tyler & Wakslak), five (Tyler & Wakslak), four and ten (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a) items. The scale has been titled *Police Respectfulness* (Tyler & Wakslak), *Quality of Treatment* (Sunshine & Tyler; Tyler & Wakslak) and *Quality of Interpersonal Treatment* (Tyler & Wakslak).

Similarly, the neutrality of decision-making process dimension has been measured with three (Tyler & Huo, 2002; Tyler & Wakslak, 2004), four (Tyler, 2005), five (Tyler & Wakslak; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a), seven (Tyler & Wakslak), and eight (Sunshine & Tyler) items. The scale has been titled *Quality of Police Decision-Making* (Tyler & Wakslak), *Police Decision-Making, Fairness of Police Decision-Making* (Sunshine & Tyler), and *Neutrality of Police Decision-Making* (Tyler). The same item of the scale has been worded: the police 'made decisions based on facts' (Tyler & Wakslak, 2004, p. 257), the police 'make decisions based on facts, not their personal biases' (Tyler & Wakslak, 2004, p. 265), and the police 'make their decisions based upon facts, not their personal biases or opinions' (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a, p. 542). Moreover, the *Fairness of Police Decision-Making* scale in the Sunshine and Tyler study and the two *Quality of Police Decision-Making* scales employed in the Tyler and Wakslak studies have items which conceptually should belong to a different relational dimension of procedural justice. The two items: the police 'clearly explain the reasons for their actions'

(Tyler & Wakslak, 2004, p. 265) and the police 'give honest explanations for their actions to the people they deal with' (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a, p. 546; Tyler & Wakslak, 2004, p. 271), although relevant to decision-making, conceptually reflect the trustworthiness of authorities dimension. Tyler (2004a) points out that individuals trust the authority if they believe that the authority provides honest explanations of how and why particular decisions are made. It should be noted that the police 'give honest explanations for their actions' item was also included in the *Quality of Treatment* scale (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a, p. 542).

This inconsistency in operational definitions of the key constructs can be partly explained in terms of evolution in understanding and conceptualisation of procedural justice in general and the relational criteria of procedural justice in particular. Initially, the major concern of procedural justice scholars was to demonstrate that fair procedures matter regardless of the outcomes. Hence, in the very first study on procedural justice and policing the measure of procedural justice consisted of one global item: 'whether the police had treated the respondent fairly' (Tyler & Folger, 1980, p. 285). Later, the focus of procedural justice scholars shifted to the definition of procedural justice. Early work in this direction on the part of the non-instrumental perspective scholars (Tyler & Lind, 1992) identified three aspects of procedures: decision-making (neutrality), interpersonal (quality of interpersonal treatment), and motive-based (trustworthiness of authorities). Tyler and Blader (2000) revised these criteria and limited the relational definition of procedural justice to two key dimensions: quality of decision-making and quality of interpersonal treatment, with the trustworthiness of

authorities dimension (motive-based trust) included in the quality of interpersonal treatment dimension.

However, later Tyler and Huo (2002) excluded motive-based trust from the definition of procedural justice and judgments about trustworthiness of authorities were conceptualised as consequences of quality of decision-making and quality of interpersonal treatment. Although a clear-cut explanation for such an approach was not provided, it can be assumed that judgments about the actual behaviour of authorities precede judgments about the motives underlying the behaviour. However, as motive-based judgements are still formed on the basis of the behaviour of the authorities, conceptually, motive-based trust, although distinct from quality of interpersonal treatment and neutrality of decision-making, should be included in the definition of procedural justice. Indeed, trustworthiness of authorities has been included as a distinct relational construct in the most recent definition of procedural justice (Tyler, 2006).

To-date, the neutrality of decision-making and quality of interpersonal treatment dimensions have been the most frequently operationalised relational constructs for measuring procedural justice in the context of law enforcement. Recently, the trustworthiness of authorities and participation dimensions have been operationalised as distinct relational constructs of procedural justice (Tyler & Wakslak, 2004; Tyler, 2005). Of the two, the trustworthiness of authorities construct has been measured more frequently. However, similarly to the neutrality of decision-making and quality of interpersonal treatment dimensions, this dimension has been measured inconsistently across studies with varying numbers of items comprising the scales. Interestingly,

trustworthiness of authorities has been the only relational construct of procedural justice that was also operationalised as a dependent variable (Tyler, 2005).

The psychometric properties of the relational measures of procedural justice have been reported in terms of internal consistency of both single scales and composite measures. The reported Cronbach's alphas are generally high (> .80) and range from .71 (Tyler & Wakslak, 2004) to .98 (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a). However, a concern has been expressed in relation to the composite measures of procedural justice which were created by combining scales measuring different latent constructs with varying numbers of items. Such an approach may produce heterogeneous composite measures which when used as predictor and criterion variables, have the potential to artificially inflate the predicted relationships (Reisig et al., 2007). Using data from a phone survey, Reisig et al. assessed the construct validity of composite measures which included procedural justice items based on relational criteria used in previous studies on procedural justice and policing. A factor analysis revealed that only two out of ten items of the original scales failed to load on the hypothesised latent construct of procedural justice. It should be noted that these two items do not feature prominently in studies that test the relational model of authority. Whereas the eight items that did load (r ranging from .50 to .86) are the core items used in the studies mentioned above.

To summarise, the existing studies that test the relational model of authority in contacts with the police are limited to general population samples and survey methods. No research exists that examined all four relational dimensions of procedural justice in a single study involving personal

experiences with the police. Despite inconsistency in how the relational

dimensions were measured in different studies, available data suggest sound

psychometric properties of these measures (construct validity and high internal

consistency) and robust statistical analyses employed.

1.2.1.2 Major Findings

The studies discussed below were identified as explicitly testing the

relational model of authority in the context of law enforcement based on the

following criteria: (a) distinct relational criteria of procedural justice used as

predictor variables, and (b) predicted outcomes (e.g., police legitimacy,

compliance with the law, cooperation with the police) reflect public support for

the institution of policing.

The most robust and consistent finding in research on procedural

justice in the context of policing is the link between procedural justice

judgments based on relational criteria and perceived police legitimacy.

Procedural justice judgments are consistently found to be more strongly linked

to police legitimacy than perceived outcome fairness or evaluations of police

performance (Hinds & Murphy, 2007; Reisig et al., 2007; Sunshine & Tyler,

2003a; Tyler, 1990, 2005; Tyler & Huo, 2002). For example, in the Sunshine

and Tyler study, beta coefficients reflecting relationships between legitimacy

and its predictors (procedural justice, distributive justice, and police

performance) were .44, .24, and .21, respectively. The disparity between

procedural justice and police performance in contributing to the assessments of

police legitimacy is particularly striking.

It should be noted that in the Australian study (Hinds & Murphy, 2007)

the difference between the assessments of procedural justice and police

performance in contributing to perceived legitimacy was small (β = .35 for procedural justice and β = .31 for police performance). Hinds and Murphy attributed these differences in findings compared to the USA studies to the overrepresentation of minority groups in the USA samples. Minority groups generally have more negative experiences with the police and thus, place more importance on procedural justice. An alternative explanation can be that the measure of procedural justice in the Australian study was not as sophisticated as measures of procedural justice in the most USA studies. Moreover, the wording of the procedural justice items in the Australian study was ambiguous. For example, the wording of the item 'Police treat people as if they can be trusted to do the right thing' (Hinds & Murphy, 2007, p. 41) makes it difficult to understand if 'they' are referred to 'police' or 'people'. This could have affected respondents' assessments of procedural justice and thus relative importance of procedural justice judgments to account for perceived police legitimacy.

Nevertheless, research indicates that minority groups in the USA do attribute more importance to procedural justice in their assessments of police legitimacy than the dominant population. For example, in the Sunshine and Tyler (2003a) study, beta coefficients reflecting relationships between legitimacy and procedural justice were .30 for white respondents, .37 for African American respondents, and .46 for respondents of Hispanic origin. These findings are consistent with the group value model of procedural justice. It can be assumed that a social status of ethnic minorities is less secure than that of the dominant population: despite anti-discriminatory official policies, in everyday life ethnic minority groups can still be experiencing prejudice and

discrimination. However, it is more striking that the relative contribution of procedural justice as a primary factor in shaping perceived police legitimacy is consistent across all ethnic minority groups (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a).

Another striking finding in relation to the link between procedural justice and legitimacy is that procedural justice judgments affect perceived legitimacy even after controlling for previous perceived legitimacy. Using a longitudinal design, Tyler (1990) analysed assessments of legitimacy of legal institutions before and after a personal contact with the police (75% of respondents) or courts (25% of respondents). Tyler found that although prior perceived legitimacy was a primary factor in accounting for subsequent perceived legitimacy ($\beta = .33$), procedural justice judgments based on the personal encounter had an independent effect on the subsequent perceived legitimacy ($\beta = .30$). These findings suggest that procedural justice judgments are important antecedents of perceived police legitimacy, and that personal experiences with the police do shape the individual's general attitudes towards the law and the police (Tyler, 2004b).

The findings that procedural justice judgments are important antecedents of legitimacy have significant implications for the relational model of authority. Interestingly, when statistical causal models are constructed to test the effects of procedural justice, generally no direct link has been found between procedural justice and such outcome measures as compliance with the law or cooperation with the police (Tyler, 1990; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003b). Instead, procedural justice judgments are associated with these variables indirectly, through legitimacy (Tyler, 1990, 2005; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a). In this respect, Tyler (2005) found that legitimacy

(institutional trust) was more strongly linked to the willingness to cooperate with the police (β = .32) than risk of sanctioning for law-breaking (β = .23), or assessments of police performance (β = .14). Outcome fairness did not have a significant effect on cooperation in this analysis. Similarly, Tyler (1990) found that legitimacy was more strongly linked to compliance with the law (β = .56) than evaluations of (satisfaction with) legal services including police services (β = .18). Interestingly, in the Sunshine and Tyler (2003a) study, police legitimacy was the only non-demographic variable that predicted self-reported compliance with the law (β = .16). Assessments of police performance, risk of sanctioning for law breaking, and distributive justice did not have a significant effect on compliance.

It should be noted that similar to the procedural justice constructs, legitimacy has been measured inconsistently in different studies, with a variety of subscales combined into an overall index. The most frequently used subscales have been *Obligation to Obey the Law* and *Trust and Confidence in the Institution of Policing*. Reisig et al. (2007) conducted a combined analysis and separate analyses for these two subscales as predictors of compliance with the law and cooperation with the police. They found that, similarly to previous studies, a combined measure of legitimacy predicted both compliance with law and cooperation with the police. However, when separate subscales were used as predictors, only the *Trust and Confidence in the Institution of Policing* predicted both compliance with the law (β =. 29) and cooperation with the police (β = .36). The *Obligation to Obey the Law* was not significantly associated with either compliance or cooperation. Distributive justice was also associated with cooperation with the police (β = .17). It should be noted that in

contrast to Tyler's (2005) and Sunshine and Tyler's (2003a) statistical data analyses, Reisig et al.'s data analysis did not include structural equation modelling.

Although the assessments of procedural justice in the context of law enforcement are associated with compliance with the law indirectly, there is a direct link between procedural justice judgments and voluntary compliance – willingness to accept decisions made by the authority (Tyler & Huo, 2002). For example, in the Tyler and Wakslak (2004) study, the three relational dimensions (neutrality of police decision-making, quality of interpersonal treatment, and trustworthiness of authorities) were directly linked to the acceptance of the decision made by a police officer in a personal encounter (β = .22, β = .37, and β = .45, respectively). These findings in conjunction with the findings that suggest the absence of the direct link between procedural justice judgments and compliance can be interpreted from the relational model of authority perspective. Tyler and Huo argue that compliance and decision acceptance differ in underlying motives. Compliance involves following orders for whatever reasons, including the fear of punishment; whereas, decision acceptance is voluntary and internally motivated. Thus, procedural justice judgments and decision acceptance may be directly linked because they are both internally motivated and have intrinsic values to the individual. In contrast, compliance by itself may be influenced by external factors. Therefore, the effect of procedural justice judgments on compliance may be dependent on whether procedural justice judgments contribute to perceived legitimacy which by itself has intrinsic values to the individual. Interestingly, research indicates (Tyler & Huo, 2002) that the effect of procedural justice on decision

acceptance and satisfaction with decision-maker is stronger ($\beta = .69$ and $\beta = .76$, respectively) when compared to the effect of distributive justice ($\beta = .12$ and $\beta = .10$, respectively).

Another variable that is directly associated with procedural justice judgments is public evaluation of (satisfaction with) police services. Tyler (2001) conducted a secondary analysis of data from previous surveys to examine factors that predicted public evaluations of legal authorities (the police and courts). Perceptions of treatment by police were found to be linked more strongly to overall evaluations of legal authorities ($\beta = .49$) than judgments about police performance ($\beta = .28$). In relation to policing, factor analysis revealed that two factors played a crucial role in police evaluation by public: performance in controlling crime and quality of treatment. Of the two, quality of treatment was a major factor accounting for 26% of the variance as opposed to 5% of the variance accounted for by the assessments of police performance in controlling crime. It should be noted that this analysis was based on a study of Oakland residents living in areas with high crime levels. Similarly, police evaluations by individuals who had personal experiences with the police were associated more strongly with quality of treatment ($\beta = .37$) than satisfactory outcome ($\beta = .26$). Interestingly, willingness to pay more taxes to support the police was associated with quality of treatment ($\beta = .36$) but not with satisfactory outcome. Similarly, procedural justice judgments in the Sunshine and Tyler (2003a) study were directly linked to citizen's willingness to give the police more power to exercise their authority ($\beta = .24$), whereas distributive justice judgments had no significant effect on this variable.

Distributive justice also appears to have little effect on individuals' judgments of fair treatment. In the Tyler (1990) study, perceptions of a procedure as being fair were associated mostly with trustworthiness of authorities ($\beta = .31$), followed by treatment with respect ($\beta = .29$), neutrality of decision-making ($\beta = .24$), participation ($\beta = .19$), and the least ($\beta = .04$) with favourability of the outcome (Tyler, 1996). Interestingly, Tyler (1990) found that despite respondents' beliefs that unfair treatment was common when dealing with the police and courts, the expectations of fair treatment by these institutions were high. Ninety percent of the respondents indicated that if they had a personal encounter with the police or courts in the future, they would be treated fairly. This highlights the importance of a personal experience as a test of the public inherent trust in the benevolence of the authorities (Tyler, 2004b).

To summarise, available research based on self-report data has consistently demonstrated a direct link between procedural justice judgments and perceived police legitimacy, which, in turn, is associated with increased compliance with the law and cooperation with the police. It appears that procedural justice judgments are more strongly linked to public satisfaction with and support for the police than assessments of how successful the police are in controlling crime or perceived outcome fairness.

1.2.2 Examining Personal Experiences with Police

Studies discussed below do not employ distinct relational criteria of procedural justice. However, these studies have examined personal experiences with law enforcement agencies and are of general relevance to the concept of procedural justice including the concept of procedural justice based on the relational criteria in the context of policing. First, major findings in relation to

the general population will be presented. This will be followed by research

findings relevant to offenders. Finally, a review of studies conducted with

victims of crime will be presented.

1.2.2.1 General Population

The first study that demonstrated the salience of procedural justice in

contacts with the police was Tyler and Folger's (1980) investigation into the

role of distributive and procedural justice in satisfaction with citizen-police

encounters. Two types of encounters were examined: calls to the police for

assistance and instances of being stopped by the police. Tyler and Folger found

that both treatment by the police and the outcome of the encounter were related

to the level of satisfaction with the police. The effect of treatment on

satisfaction was independent of either whether the police solved the

respondents' problems when they called for assistance or whether the police

issued a citation for violation of the law to the respondents who were stopped

by the police. Interestingly, for respondents who called for assistance, the

effect of the outcome of the encounter on satisfaction with the police was

stronger than the effect of fair treatment ($\beta = .51$ and $\beta = .35$, respectively).

Whereas for respondents who were stopped by the police, fair treatment had a

stronger effect on satisfaction with the police than whether the respondents

received a citation or not ($\beta = .57$ and $\beta = -.21$, respectively). A stronger effect

of fair treatment in instances of being stopped by the police compared to calls

for assistance can be explained from the group value model of procedural

justice perspective. The possibility of receiving a citation as result of being

stopped by the police can be considered a demeaning event. In such a case

individuals place more importance on procedural justice as a means of reaffirming their social status.

Similarly, in a more recent study, Johnson (2004) found that the majority of the respondents who were stopped by the police for traffic violations placed more importance on the police officer's behaviour than whether or not they received a ticket. Moreover, consistent with the group value model of procedural justice and findings in relation to the relational model of authority discussed above, the proportion of respondents who assigned more importance to police behaviour than outcome favourability was greater among people of non-white ethnicity compared to those of white ethnicity (89% and 57%, respectively).

Further support for a primary role of the process-based assessments in public evaluations of the police is provided by Bartsch and Cheurprakobkit's study (2004). They found no differences in attitudes towards the police as a function of positively-oriented contacts (e.g., reporting a crime, being a victim or witness of crime) versus negatively-oriented contacts (being arrested or receiving a citation). However, there were differences in attitudes to the police as a function of process-based assessments of the contact, such that respondents who rated their experiences as positive had more positive attitudes towards the police than respondents who rated their experiences as negative.

Moreover, Wells (2007) compared citizen's assessments of outcome-oriented aspects and interpersonal aspects of police behaviour when evaluating police officers in specific encounters (traffic accidents, being a crime victim, and receiving a citation). Wells found that interpersonal aspects of police behaviour (e.g., listening, treatment with dignity, consideration of others'

feelings) had stronger effects on citizens' evaluations of police officers than outcome-oriented aspects (e.g., police officers' professionalism). These findings support the salience of the relational criteria of procedural justice in public evaluations of the police.

Further support for the salience of the relational criteria of procedural justice in citizen-police interactions is provided by a body of research that has examined the effect of procedurally just and coercive tactics used by the police on citizens' cooperation and compliance with police requests (e.g., Mastrofski, Snipes, & Supina, 1996; McCluskey, 2003; McCluskey, Mastrofski, & Parks, 1999). Two types of compliance requests have been examined: police stop suspects and ask for identification, and police request citizens to alter their behaviour. Although these field studies have not employed distinct relational criteria of procedural justice, a number of police tactics indicators used in these studies are reflective of the relational criteria of procedural justice (e.g., police respect or disrespect, police bias). Typical findings are that tactics used by the police, which are consistent with procedural justice, are more effective in gaining citizens' compliance than coercive tactics (e.g., use of force or threat).

Moreover, disrespectful treatment by the police significantly reduces citizens' compliance (Mastrofski et al., 1996; McCluskey, 2003; McCluskey et al., 1999). For example, McCluskey found that individuals who received respectful treatment from the police were almost twice as likely to comply with police requests to alter their behaviour; whereas, individuals who received disrespectful treatment were almost twice as likely to rebel in response to such requests. Interestingly, there was no significant effect of procedural justice on compliance with police requests for identification. These findings can be

explained by the different nature of requests for identification and requests to alter citizens' behaviour. Police requests to alter citizens' behaviour involve police exercising their power to find a solution to the encountered problem. According to Tyler (2004b), individuals' reliance on process-based assessments of interactions with authorities can be explained by individuals' lack of expert knowledge of what legitimate outcomes (solutions) can be in a particular situation. In contrast, police requests for identification are more straightforward and do not generally require expert level judgments to assess their legitimacy.

1.2.2.2 Offenders

Research on procedural justice pertaining to offenders in contacts with the police is almost non-existent. The most frequently cited study is that of Paternoster, Bachman, Brame, and Sherman (1997). Paternoster et al. found that in case of domestic violence offences, perceptions of fair treatment by the police at the scene of the incident decreased the likelihood of subsequent spousal assaults. Moreover, in terms of rates of reoffending, there was no difference between offenders who were arrested but perceived that they were treated fairly and offenders who received a more favourable outcome (e.g., receiving a warning without arrest). It should be noted that out of the five items measuring procedural justice in this study three items are reflective of the relational criteria of procedural justice. The item asking whether the police listened to the offender's story as well as the victim's story reflects the neutrality of decision-making process dimension, and the two items asking if the police used force or whether the offender was handcuffed reflect the quality of interpersonal treatment dimension (treatment with dignity and

respect). These findings suggest that perceptions of procedural justice may have long-term effects on individuals' law-abiding behaviour. Similarly, in a more recent study, using longitudinal data from Australia, Tyler, Sherman, Strang, Barnes, and Woods (2007) found that perceptions of procedural justice in contacts with legal authorities, including the police, by individuals who were charged with drunk-while-driving offences were associated with increased perceived legitimacy of the law and legal authorities two years later. This, in turn, was associated with lower rates of reoffending during follow-up.

Although no research exists that focused on the perspective of a broader range of offenders on procedural justice, studies that have examined offenders' experiences during police interviews can provide valuable insight in this respect. For example, Holmberg and Christianson (2002) found that murders and sexual offenders who perceived humanitarian attitudes (e.g., being respected) from the police during the interview were more likely to make a true admission of crime than those offenders who perceived their interviewers as behaving in a dominant way (e.g., offenders felt insulted). Similarly, when asked what is the least relevant to the motivation to confess, Canadian offenders convicted of violent, property, drugs, and sexual offences indicated that it was police pressure during the interview (Des Lauriers-Varin & St-Yves, 2006). Whereas when asked what the police could do to increase the likelihood of confession, Australian sexual offenders indicated that interviewers should be compassionate, neutral, non-aggressive, and honest (Kebbell & Hurren, 2005). It can be seen that the relational criteria of procedural justice feature prominently in offenders' perceptions of treatment by the police during interviews.

Further support for the salience of the relational criteria of procedural justice in offender-police interactions is provided by Vermunt and Blaauw's (1998) study. Vermunt and Blaauw found that procedural justice judgments of offenders incarcerated in prison in relation to their contacts with the police were associated with interpersonal aspects of police behaviour (e.g., respectful and dignified treatment, politeness, honesty, and concern for the individual's rights) but not with the offenders' perceived control over the decisions made by the police.

1.2.2.3 Victims

The majority of research on victims' experiences with the police is devoted to sexual assault victims, domestic and intimate partner violence (IPV) victims. The issue of police behaviour in victim-police interactions became prominent after the identification of the secondary victimisation phenomenon. Symonds (1980) found that victims were inclined to interpret professional detachment of police officers who were investigating their case as a sign of rejection. Symonds argued that this can result in a 'second injury' to the victim in the wake of the actual victimisation experience. However, based on available research, the relationship between treatment by the police and victims' psychological well-being is not clear. Most studies that are concerned with victims' psychological well-being examined victims' experiences with the criminal justice system in general. If victims' experiences with the police were included in such studies, most often the experiences were not examined as a separate entity, rather they were included in a combined measure of victims' experiences with the legal system in general (e.g., Campbell et al., 1999).

Research findings in relation to the effect of treatment by the legal system on victims' psychological well-being are contradictory. For example, in Campbell et al.'s (1999) study of rape victims, negative perceptions of treatment by the legal system were positively associated with self-reported symptoms of PTSD ($\beta = .23$). In contrast, there was no significant association between self-reported symptoms of PTSD and rape victims' perceptions of treatment by the legal system in Frazier and Haney's (1996) study. Nevertheless, in Campbell, Wasco, Ahrens, Sefl, and Barnes (2001) study, rape victims who perceived their contact with the legal system as hurtful exhibited higher levels of self-reported PTSD than rape victims who did not rate their experiences with the legal system as hurtful. Also, in Campbell's (2006) study, the majority of rape victims indicated that they felt guilty, depressed, disappointed, and violated after their contact with the legal system.

Furthermore, in studies that specifically examined victims' experiences with the police, the impact of treatment by the police on victims' psychological well-being has not been demonstrated. Using a randomised experimental design, Rosenbaum (1987) found no significant effect of treatment by the police on victims' psychological readjustment following victimisation experiences. In this study, there were no differences in physical and emotional stress reactions between victims who were exposed to police officers who had received a victim-sensitivity training program and victims who were involved with police officers who had not received such training. Moreover, there were also no differences in other outcome measures including victims' attitudes to the police and their willingness to cooperate with the police in the future. Rosenbaum attributed these findings to the ineffectiveness of the training

program itself as further analysis revealed that there were no differences in perceptions of police behaviour between victims exposed to the trained police officers and victims who dealt with the untrained police officers.

Similarly, there was no significant association between self-reported symptoms of PTSD and the perceived quality of interpersonal treatment by the police (e.g., police detectives' concern and respect for the victims) in the above mentioned study of female rape survivors' experiences with the legal system (Frazier & Haney, 1996). Case outcome (e.g., case prosecution) was not associated with symptoms of PTSD either. Interestingly, Frazier and Haney found that victims' attitudes to the police were more positive than victims' attitudes towards the legal system in general. It could be that a positive association between victims' self-reported symptoms of PTSD and their negative perceptions of treatment by the legal system demonstrated in studies on victims' experiences with the criminal justice system may not be applicable to victim-police interactions. However, in Frazier and Haney's study the link between self-reported symptoms of PTSD and victims' perceptions of treatment by the legal system in general was also non-significant. Frazier and Haney noted that their analyses lacked statistical power due to small sample sizes, nevertheless, the authors concluded that victims' satisfaction with the legal system including the police is not necessarily related to mental health outcomes.

In contrast, other studies suggest that victims' satisfaction with the legal system and mental health outcomes are related (e.g., Campbell et al., 2001; Dobash, Dobash, Cavanaugh, & Lewis, 2000; Wemmers & Cyr, 2005). Moreover, victims' satisfaction with the legal system is related to their sense of

empowerment by and participation in the system (e.g., Erez, 1999; Kilpatrick, Beatty, & Howley, 1998), even when victims do not receive a desired outcome (Ptacek, 1999). Similarly, in a study of victims' satisfaction with the police in burglary cases, victims expressed a higher level of satisfaction when they view the behaviour of the police officer attending the scene as positive, irrespective of whether the crime was solved (Coupe & Griffiths, 1999).

Although the exact nature of the relationship between treatment by the police and victims' psychological well-being is not clear, research suggests that victims' negative experiences with the police are common. For example, in the above mentioned study of rape victims (Campbell, 2006), victims who dealt with the police without a rape victim advocate indicated that police officers were reluctant to take their report (79%), told them that their cases were not serious enough to pursue further (57%), asked them about their prior sexual history (46%), and asked them if they had responded sexually to the rape (31%). In Monroe et al.'s (2005) study of sexual assault victims, 46% of victims who filed charges against the perpetrator reported dissatisfaction with the police interview. Research also suggests that rape victims feel blamed by the police for their victimisation (Ullman, 1996). This is particularly disturbing in light of the findings indicating that one of the most common reasons for not reporting sexual victimisation is rape victims' tendency to blame themselves for being raped (Fisher, Daigle, Cullen, & Turner, 2003).

Similarly, in a study of domestic violence victims' experiences with the police (Stephens & Sinden, 2000), the most common police reactions perceived by the victims as negative were minimising the seriousness of the crime, disbelieving the victim, lack of concern for the victim, rude behaviour

and contemptuous attitudes on the part of police officers. It should be noted that the majority of the participants in this qualitative study ($n = 25$) had both negative and positive experiences with the police. Among the positive experiences were police officers listening to the victims, believing them, showing concern, being sympathetic, helpful, and treating the victim with respect. Interestingly, consistent with the Symonds (1980) findings mentioned above, although victims appreciated police officers' efficiency and professionalism when dealing with their cases, victims felt alienated by the officers' reserved attitudes and lack of affect. However, it is not clear from these findings which police behaviours, positive or negative had a greater impact on victims' psychological well-being if at all as no statistical procedures were conducted to relate victims' perceptions of treatment by the police and victims' psychological well-being.

Furthermore, contradictory findings in relation to treatment by the police have been observed in Hickman and Simpson's (2003) study of victims of domestic violence. In this study, victims who rated police behaviour as unfair during a previous domestic violence incident were more likely to report subsequent victimisation than victims who rated police behaviour during the previous incident as fair (e.g., listening to the victim, considering their views, taking the situation seriously, sincerely willing to help). It should be noted that a number of variables that may influence reporting and subsequent reporting of domestic violence victims were taken into account (e.g., financial independence, relationship length, victimisation history, seriousness of the situation including hits and injuries). Also, satisfaction with the police predicted victims' perceptions of fair treatment ($\beta = .74$) but not reporting

subsequent victimisation. At the same time, outcome preference during the previous incident (if the police arrested the offender or not according to the victim's wishes) was the strongest predictor of reporting subsequent victimisation.

The finding that unfair treatment by the police promoted cooperation with the police (in this case reporting victimisation) contradicts the assumptions of the relational model of authority and previous findings on citizen-police interactions. However, this finding can be explained by the unique position of victims of domestic violence compared to other individuals who come in contact with the police. Research on the needs of victims of domestic violence has demonstrated that these victims do not seek to punish the offender when they call the police rather they want the offender's violent behaviour to be stopped (Wemmers & Cousineau, 2005). Also, it has been suggested that police behaviour during domestic violence incidents may have significant implications for victims' sense of empowerment (Hoyle & Sanders, 2000). Empowerment of victims of domestic violence is considered to be related to their perceived ability to assert their will when dealing with the offender (Mills, 1998). Sherman and Berk (1984) found that in cases of domestic violence, if victims perceived concern and willingness to listen on the part of the police officers attending the scene of the incident, the rate of subsequent victimisation decreased compared to cases when victims felt that the police were not concerned or willing to listen. Sherman and Berk assumed that reduction in victimisation was related to victims' sense of empowerment by the interaction with the police when the police showed their concern and willingness to listen. Therefore, the finding in Hickman and Simpson's (2003)

study that victims who perceived fair treatment by the police were less likely to report subsequent victimisation can be attributed to victims' sense of empowerment as a result of the interaction, and thus their perceived ability to deal with the offender without calling the police.

By the same token, outcome preference during the previous incident may have been associated with reporting subsequent victimisation as victims learnt from their previous experience that they can exercise their choice of having the offender arrested or not, which, as it has been acknowledged, can be empowering for victims of domestic violence (Hoyle & Sanders, 2000). Research also suggests that following the victim's wishes is a powerful predictor of victims' satisfaction with the police in domestic violence cases (Buzawa, Austin, Bannon, & Jackson, 1992). Thus, victims who received outcomes according to their preferences may have been more likely subsequently to make contact with the police than victims who did not receive their outcome preference to gain a sense of empowerment from the presence of the police. Therefore, both fair treatment and outcome preference in contacts with the police may convey empowering messages to victims of domestic violence. However, the results of Hickman and Simpson's (2003) study may suggest that fair treatment can have the potential to give victims of domestic violence a broader and more long-lasting sense of empowerment than outcome preference. In this respect, some additional contextual information in relation to the reasons for reporting or not reporting subsequent victimisation in Hickman and Simpson's study would have been helpful.

To summarise, research indicates that the issues of procedural justice based on relational criteria are equally prominent in citizen-police, offender-

police, and victim-police interactions. Studies that have tested a relational model of authority in the context of policing have been conducted with general population samples by a means of either a telephone or mail-back surveys. Most studies have not considered respondents' personal experiences with the police and have been based on perceptions and general evaluations of the police by the residents of the relevant city. But most importantly, the extant research on procedural justice in the context of policing lacks the all important contextual detail that can potentially explain not only that procedural justice is important, but why it is important to individuals. Moreover, the impact of the perceptions of procedural justice in contacts with the police on victims' psychological well-being is not clear and warrants further investigation.

1.3 Rationale, Aims, Research Questions and Hypotheses

1.3.1 Rationale

Although successfully tested in the context of citizen-police interactions, a relational model of authority has never been applied to victim-police interactions. This raises the question of whether a relational model has the same validity in victim-police interactions as demonstrated in citizen-police interactions (specifically the primacy of the process-based assessments over outcome-oriented assessments in evaluation of the police). Victims compared to non-victims may have a more vested interest in the outcome of the interaction with the police due to their personal experience of the crime. Research also suggests that procedural justice is most important to citizens in police-initiated contacts, such as being stopped by police, than it is in citizen-initiated contacts, such as calling police for assistance (Murphy, 2009).

Furthermore, the extant research on the link between procedural justice and victims' well-being lacks the all important contextual detail that can potentially explain not only that procedural justice is therapeutic, but how and why it is therapeutic for victims of crime. Moreover, the research is focused on victims of specific crimes (sexual assault victims, domestic and intimate partner violence (IPV) victims) in the context of the court system. It has been acknowledged that the quality of the victim's first point of contact in the aftermath of the crime may be crucial for the victim's recovery from the traumatic experience (Miller, 1998). The police often interact with crime victims immediately or shortly after their victimisation ordeal. Therefore, the way in which police respond to victims at this early stage in the criminal justice process can have a significant impact on victims' ability to cope with and recover from the negative psychological consequences of victimisation experience.

1.3.2 Aims

Against this background, the aim of the present study was two-fold: (1) to test the validity of a relational model of authority in victim-police interactions; and (2) to examine the therapeutic value of a relational perspective on procedural justice for victims of crime. As required by the mixed methods methodology, the study had quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods research questions.

1.3.3 Research Questions and Hypotheses

The quantitative research hypotheses were: (1) there will be positive correlations between victims' perceptions of procedural justice and outcome fairness, satisfaction with the contact, legitimacy, and cooperation with the

police; and (2) higher perceived procedural justice will be associated with greater victims' well-being as a result of the interaction with the police.

The qualitative research questions were: (1) Will meanings assigned to procedural justice by victims of crime validate the assumptions of a relational model of authority? and (2) What is the role of procedural justice in victims' recovery from the negative psychological consequences of victimisation experience?

The mixed methods research questions were: (1) Will meanings assigned to procedural justice by victims of crime provide support for associations between the variables in a relational model of authority? and (2) How quantitative and qualitative results provide support for the therapeutic value of a relational perspective on procedural justice for victims of crime in the wake of victimisation experience?

CHAPTER TWO: METHODS

2.1 Mixed Methods Paradigm

The present study employed a mixed methods approach. Mixed methods has been defined as 'a type of research design in which qualitative and quantitative approaches are used in types of questions, research methods, data collection and analysis procedures, and/or inferences' (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003, p. 711). Mixed methods methodology is a relatively new development in the field of social and behavioural sciences and has emerged as an alternative to the traditional dichotomy of qualitative and quantitative methods in an attempt to overcome limitations of both approaches when they are applied independently (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). For example, although quantitative methods are instrumental in the demonstration that a particular variable will have a predicted relationship with another variable, quantitative methods cannot answer questions in relation to how and why the relationship actually takes place. By the same token, although qualitative methods can provide meaning to a set of quantitative results (Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003), qualitative methods lack statistical rigour and the ability to control for the influence of extraneous variables. Mixed methods therefore have the potential to be instrumental in the investigation of both predicted relationships and the nature of these relationships simultaneously, thereby allowing for a more complete interpretation of the phenomenon under investigation.

Nevertheless, there has been a debate within the scientific community whether qualitative and quantitative research paradigms can be mixed. Those who argue that qualitative and quantitative paradigms cannot be mixed take a

purist stance (Greene & Caracelli, 1997). The major argument of the purists is that quantitative and qualitative paradigms embody incompatible ontological (the nature of reality), epistemological (the relationship between scientific inquiry and reality) and axiological (the role of values in scientific inquiry) views. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), based on typology originally presented by Lincoln and Guba (1985), outlined major differences between constructivist (the basic paradigm of qualitative research) and positivist (the basic paradigm of quantitative research) approaches in relation to the above mentioned philosophical assumptions. Positivists believe that reality is single, objective, and fragmentable; scientific inquiry and reality are independent entities; and scientific inquiry is value free. In contrast, constructivists believe that reality is multiple, constructed, and holistic; scientific inquiry and reality are interactive entities; and scientific inquiry is value bound. In addition, the positivist research paradigm is guided by deductive reasoning which involves arguing from the general (e.g., theory) to the particular (e.g., data), whereas the constructivist research paradigm is guided by inductive reasoning which involves arguing from the particular (e.g., data) to the general (e.g., theory). Consequently, as expressed by Patton (2002): 'Inductive analysis involves discovering patterns, themes, and categories in one's data, in contrast to deductive analysis where the data are analysed according to an existing framework' (p. 453). These contrasting assumptions underlying qualitative and quantitative research paradigms form the basis of the incompatibility thesis (Howe, 1988).

In contrast to the purist stance and incompatibility thesis, those who take dialectical and pragmatic positions (Greene & Caracelli, 1997) argue that

the differences between constructivist and positivist paradigms are not necessarily incompatible. The dialectical perspective emphasises the necessity to maintain integrity of different paradigms when they combine in the same study (Greene & Caracelli, 1997) and posits that combination of different paradigms allows for a more integrated understanding of complex phenomena (Greene, 2007). The pragmatic position emphasises that the choice of methods for scientific inquiry should be guided by the nature of the research question (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). As outlined by the authors, in relation to the philosophical assumptions underlying constructivism and positivism, pragmatism encourages diverse viewpoints regarding social realities (ontology), both objective and subjective points of views, depending on the stage of scientific inquiry (epistemology), and acknowledgment that values are important in interpreting results (axiology). In addition, pragmatism encourages employing both inductive and deductive reasoning. Thus, pragmatism provides a paradigmic stance for the mixed methods research, allowing flexibility and focus on 'what works as the truth regarding the research questions under investigation' (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 342).

Against this background, the rationale for using mixed methods in the present study was as follows. Quantitative methods employed in previous research do not provide understanding of why procedural justice has such a powerful impact on perceived legitimacy, public support for and satisfaction with the police. At the same time, although successfully tested in citizen-police interactions, this model has never been applied to victim-police interactions. Employing mixed methods will allow these limitations to be addressed simultaneously in the same study. Also, current research findings in relation to

the impact of victims' experiences with the justice system on victims' well-being are inconsistent. Examination of both qualitative and quantitative aspects of the phenomenon (procedural justice) will allow for a more complete consideration and examination of the nature and potential impact of procedural justice on victims' well-being.

2.2 Overview of the Design

The specific type of mixed methods design employed for the overall study can be defined as parallel mixed methods design (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). In parallel mixed methods designs, quantitative and qualitative data are collected in a parallel fashion, either simultaneously or with some time lapse to answer related aspects of the same research question(s). A major advantage of employing mixed methods in the same study is that it 'enables researchers to simultaneously ask confirmatory and exploratory questions, thus verifying and generating theory in the same study' (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 152). Parallel mixed methods designs use qualitative and quantitative methods in independent strands to answer exploratory and confirmatory questions. Some questions that were addressed in this study were exploratory, and some questions were confirmatory. In other words, some questions were focused on generating theory inductively (the role of procedural justice in victims' recovery from victimisation experience) and others were focused on confirming existing theories (a relational model of authority in the context of victim-police interactions and a relational perspective on procedural justice). Typically, exploratory questions are answered with qualitative methods and confirmatory questions are answered with quantitative methods. The distinguishing feature of this study is that qualitative methods were used to

answer both an exploratory question (the role of procedural justice in victims'

recovery from victimisation experience) and a confirmatory question

(validation of the assumptions of a relational model of authority and a

relational perspective on procedural justice).

Another distinguishing feature of this study is that the overall parallel

mixed methods design included two components conceptualised as two mixed

methods designs within the overall mixed methods design to address two

different aims of the study. Firstly, to test the validity of a relational model of

authority in victim-police interactions an embedded mixed methods design

(Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007) was used. In an embedded mixed methods

design, one data set (typically qualitative) provides support for the other data

set (typically quantitative). In this respect, this study (see Chapter 3) examined

how meanings assigned to procedural justice by victims of crime in contacts

with the police can provide support for associations between victims'

perceptions of procedural justice, outcome fairness, satisfaction with the

contact, legitimacy, and cooperation with the police.

Secondly, to examine the therapeutic value of a relational perspective

on procedural justice for victims of crime, a triangulation convergence design

(Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007), with elements of a conversion mixed methods

design (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009), was used (See Chapter 5). A

triangulation convergence design involves converging qualitative and

quantitative findings to provide valid conclusions about the phenomenon under

investigation. In this study, a theoretical model generated through qualitative

data in relation to the role of procedural justice in victims' recovery from

victimisation experience (See Chapter 4) was used to corroborate quantitative

findings in relation to victims' well-being as a result of the interaction with the police (See Chapter 5). The distinctive feature of mixed methods research is that it requires integration of quantitative and qualitative strands of the study. The integration of quantitative and qualitative strands of this study was undertaken at the inferential stage of the study and was guided by a relational perspective on procedural justice (Tyler & Lind, 1992) and therapeutic jurisprudence approach (Wexler, 1990).

2.3 Overview of the Procedures

Participants were recruited by advertising the study at police stations, victims support agencies and community-based organisations in Victoria (a list of participating organisations is presented in Appendix A). Prior to the advertising permission letters from the participating organisations were obtained and ethical approval from the Monash University ethics committee was granted (See Appendix B). Posters and postcards (See Appendix C) were used to attract potential participants, along with simple snowballing technique using participants' recommendations to others they knew had been victims.

After approval of the study from Victoria Police, a group email was sent to the officers in charge of the participating stations explaining the purpose and nature of the research project and asking for a poster and postcards advertising the study to be displayed at the reception areas of the police stations. This was followed by a mail out of the advertising material to the police stations. In cases when officers in charge expressed interest in meeting up with the researcher, the researcher delivered the advertising material in person and engaged in a discussion of the project.

The poster invited prospective participants to take a postcard with the researcher's contact details and contact the researcher by e-mail or leave a message on the researcher's mobile phone. A private voice mail was arranged for prospective participants to listen anonymously to the information about the study and leave their contact details if they were interested in participating. A number of people chose to text the researcher. The researcher then called back the prospective participants and arranged for an interview to be conducted at Caulfield campus of Monash University. After an appointment was made, the researcher, with the permission of the participants, sent them a text reminding about the appointment the day before a scheduled interview as often participants tended either to forget about the appointment or had to change the appointment due to other pressing engagements.

The main challenge with this recruitment process was that people found it difficult to travel to Caulfield campus and preferred to be interviewed at a place they were familiar with. Caulfield campus was chosen as a place to conduct the interviews as initially victim support agencies were reluctant to provide facilities to interview participants at their places. However, after negotiations during the recruitment process and the researcher's presentations of the study at the staff meetings at the agencies, a number of case workers became instrumental in the recruitment process. These case workers volunteered to give postcards to their clients, inform them that interviews can be conducted at the agencies, answer clients' questions about the study and encourage them to participate. As a result, the rate of recruitment increased. However, the rate of recruitment was still beyond desirable as not all victims support agencies were able to provide a place for interviews and this option

was not available to people who saw advertising material at police stations. Therefore, the decision was made to give prospective participants the option of a telephone interview.

This posed two major problems. Firstly, as participants received a voucher in appreciation for their time, this would require participants to provide the researcher with their mailing address (a confidentiality issue). In addition, there was a possibility that the voucher could have been displaced on postal delivery or taken out of the mail box before it can be retrieved by the participant. To address this, when giving the option of a phone interview, the researcher explicitly warned the participant about the potential disadvantages of this method. Most chose to proceed with a telephone interview but some declined participating or selected a face-to-face interview instead. Secondly, the interview included items that required ratings and this posed a difficulty for participants to answer them over the telephone. To address this, participants were asked to draw a rating scale on a piece of paper to make it easier for them to respond. In addition, a phone interview placed a greater pressure on the researcher to elicit a depth and breadth of response from the participants without the aid of non-verbal communication (both the researcher's and the participant's body language). This was addressed by the researcher taking a special care of and paying a greater attention to the researcher's own verbal tools and verbal cues from the participants. The option of a telephone interview significantly advanced the recruitment process, which allowed successful completion of data collection.

All interviews were conducted by the researcher either face-to-face ($n = 77$, 70%) or by telephone ($n = 33$, 30%), and lasted up to one and a half hours.

Data collection took place over a 14 month period between February 2009 and April 2010.

Sampling strategies were guided by the grounded theory method but at the same time were directed at obtaining a large representative sample. In accordance with the guidelines for grounded theory sampling strategies (Creswell, 2007), initial stages of the recruitment process were directed at obtaining a homogenous sample of the participants. For that purpose, the advertising material for the study was placed at the community-based victims' organisations. These organisations run the Victim Assistance and Counselling Program funded by the Victorian Department of Justice, and the vast majority of their clients are female victims of intimate partner violence, domestic violence, and sexual assault. Later, the advertising material was placed at police stations (first in Melbourne, then in regional Victoria) to obtain a more heterogeneous and representative sample in terms of gender, age, and reported crimes. Data collection continued after saturation of the categories was achieved to obtain a large representative sample as required by quantitative methods.

2.4 Participants

In-depth, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 110 participants who had reported a crime (personal or property) to the police in the previous 12 months. The age of participants ranged from 18 to 86 years ($M = 39.75$, $SD = 13.7$). There were 58 (52.7%) females and 52 (47.3%) males in the sample. Of the 110 participants, 92 (83.7%) were Caucasian, 10 (9.1%) Asian, 3 (2.7%) Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander, 3 (2.7%) Maori, and 2 (1.8%) Black. Eighty four (76.4%) participants were born in Australia, and 26

(23.6%) were born in a country other than Australia. In relation to marital

status, 49 (44.6%) participants were never married, 36 (32.7%) were in a

married/de facto relationship, and 25 (22.7%) were divorced or separated. In

relation to the highest level of education achieved, 28 (25.5%) participants

reported that they completed secondary school, 26 (23.6%) had a higher

education degree, 19 (17.3%) had a post-school qualification without a higher

education degree, 19 (17.3%) were university students, and 18 (16.3%) did not

complete secondary school.

In regard to the reported crime, 62 (56.4%) participants did not know

the offender, and 48 (43.6%) knew the offender. When asked who was the first

person they told about the crime, 49 (44.6%) participants said the police, 25

(22.7%) family, 14 (12.7%) friends, 13 (11.8%) partner, and 9 (8.2) others.

Seventy three (66.4%) participants indicated that it was their own decision to

report the crime, 29 (26.3%) said that someone else convinced them to report

the crime, and for 8 (7.3%), reporting was a joint decision with someone else.

Fifty seven (51.8%) participants reported the crime in person, 49 (44.6%) over

the phone, 1 (0.9%) over the phone and by email, 2 (1.8%) indicated that they

preferred not to answer, and answer was missing for 1 (0.9%) participant. Fifty

(45.5%) participants reported the crime at a police station, 29 (26.3%) at the

scene of the crime, and 31 (28.2%) at other places (from home, work, etc). The

majority of the participants ($n = 81$, 73.6%) reported that they did not receive a

desired outcome as a result of the interaction with the police, while 29 (26.4%)

said that they received a desired outcome.

In regard to victimisation experience, 78 (70.91%) participants reported

having been victimised on multiple occasions. In relation to the type of crime

reported in the previous 12 months, 77 (70%) had been victims of violent crimes, including 43 (39.09%) cases of physical violence, 13 (11.82%) cases of property damage, 11 (10%) cases of threats of violence, 9 (8.18%) cases of sexual assault and child sexual abuse, and 1participant (0.91%) was a relative of a homicide victim. Non-violent crimes included 20 (18.18%) thefts, 9 (8.18%) burglaries and 4 (3.64%) cases of stalking. Comparisons with an official release of crime statistics (Victoria Police, 2010) indicated that the sample was generally representative of the people who reported a crime in Victoria in 2008/2009 in terms of overall gender composition and percentage of males and females who had been victims of crimes against the person, assault offences, and sexual offences.

In respect to their offending history, 37 (33.64%) participants reported having been charged with one offence and 24 (21.82%) reported having been charged with offences on multiple occasions. In relation to the type of charged offences, the most frequent ones were violence and drug offences, followed by theft, bad public behaviour, deception, property damage, stalking, threats of violence, breach of a legal order, and weapons offences.

2.5 Overview of Data Analyses

Qualitative and quantitative data were derived from the sample of 110 victims of crime as a result of in-depth, semi-structured interviews (Interview Schedule along with Participant Information Sheet and Consent Form are presented in Appendix D) with the participants. The quantitative data consisted of Likert-type rating scale items and were analysed using statistical procedures. The qualitative data comprised coded data derived from the rating scales items used as open-ended questions with prompts and follow-up questions to elicit a

breadth and depth of response from the participants. Type of data used to address the research questions and hypotheses were determined by the theoretical propositions from which they were derived. Consequently, the analytical procedures used to analyse quantitative and qualitative data can be distinguished in terms of the purpose of data analysis. These distinctions are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Data Analysis Procedures by Purpose of Data Analysis

Exploratory data analysis		Confirmatory data analysis	
Quantitative data	Qualitative data	Quantitative data	Qualitative data
T-test	Constant comparative method	Bivariate correlation	A priori thematic analysis
ANOVA			
Multiple regression	Open, axial, and selective coding		Open and axial coding
Logistic regression			
	Grounded theory		

The approach to the analysis of the qualitative data was simultaneously inductive and deductive by concurrently testing an existing theory (a relational perspective on procedural justice) and developing theory that was grounded in the data (the role of procedural justice in victims' recovery from victimisation experience). Consequently, the qualitative data was coded in two ways: (a) using pre-established codes suggested by the theory and the literature and (b) *in vivo codes* – using exact words of the participants to name the codes. A grounded theory with open, axial, and selective coding (Strauss & Corbin,

1990) and constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lincoln & Guba, 1985) were adopted for the inductive (exploratory) analysis. For the deductive (confirmatory) analysis open and axial coding was employed and *a priori* thematic analysis was conducted to test the assumptions of a relational perspective on procedural justice. The frequency of segments supporting the theoretical propositions as well as variants was examined. In addition to the original qualitative data, some of the quantitative data underwent multiple qualitization and was transformed back into quantitative data for the use in exploratory statistical analysis (See Chapter 5).

The exploratory analysis of quantitative data was employed to examine patterns in the quantitative data. Depending on the number of groups, t-tests and ANOVA techniques were used to examine group differences on the variables of interest. Depending on the type of criterion variable (continuous, dichotomous), hierarchical multiple regression (continuous) and binary logistic regression (dichotomous) were performed to examine predictive capacities of new potential predictors of the variables of interest after known predictors of these variables were accounted for. For the confirmatory analysis, correlational procedures were adopted based on a relational model of authority.

CHAPTER THREE: TESTING A RELATIONAL MODEL OF

AUTHORITY IN VICTIM-POLICE INTERACTIONS

3.1 Bridging Commentary

This chapter presents the first paper of the thesis. This paper addresses the first aim of the study by testing the validity of a relational model of authority in a new context – victim-police interactions. This was done by employing an embedded mixed methods design in which qualitative data set in relation to the meanings assigned to procedural justice by victims of crime was examined in terms of whether it provided support for the statistical associations between procedural justice, outcome fairness, satisfaction with the contact, legitimacy, and cooperation with the police. In addition, the meanings assigned to procedural justice by victims of crime were examined in terms of whether they provided support for the validity of the assumptions of a group value model of procedural justice.

The paper was accepted for publication by the international peer reviewed journal *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law* on the 3rd of May 2011. This journal has an impact factor of 2.136 (a 5-year impact factor is 2.469) and ranks 10 of 116 in the subject category Law (ISI Web of Knowledge, 2009).

3.2 Declaration for Thesis Chapter Three

Monash University

Declaration by candidate

In the case of Chapter Three, the nature and extent of my contribution to the work was as follows:

Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution
Literature review, design and management of the study, data collection and analysis, write up of the paper	75%

The following co-authors contributed to the work. Co-authors who are students at Monash University must also indicate the extent of their contribution in percentage terms:

Name	**Nature of contribution**	**Extent of contribution (%)**
Stuart Thomas	Co-investigator, participated in the development of the study design, reviewed the paper.	12.5%
James Ogloff	Co-investigator, participated in the development of the study design, reviewed the paper.	12.5%

Candidate's Signature		**Date**

Declaration by co-authors

The undersigned hereby certify that:

(1) The above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's contribution to this work, and the nature of the contribution of each of the co-authors;

(2) They meet the criteria for authorship in that they have participated in the conception, execution, or interpretation of at least that part of the publication in their field of expertise;

(3) They take public responsibility for their part of the publication, except for the responsible author who accepts overall responsibility for the publication;

(4) There are no other authors of the publication according to these criteria;

(5) Potential conflicts of interest have been disclosed to (a) granting bodies, (b) the editor or publisher of journals or other publications, and (c) the head of the responsible academic unit; and

(6) The original data are stored at the following location(s) and will be held for at least five years from the date indicated below:

Location(s)	**Centre for Forensic Behavioural Science, Monash University 505 Hoddle St, Clifton Hill, VIC 3068**

[Please note that the location(s) must be institutional in nature, and should be indicated here as a department, centre or institute, with specific campus identification where relevant.]

		Date
Signature 1		
Signature 2		

3.3 Procedural Justice in Contacts with the Police: Testing a Relational

Model of Authority in a Mixed Methods Study

Irina Elliott[1]*

Stuart DM Thomas[1,2]

James RP Ogloff[1,2]

[1]Centre for Forensic Behavioural Science, School of Psychology and

Psychiatry, Monash University, Melbourne, Australia

[2] Victorian Institute of Forensic Mental Health, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

*Corresponding author. Email: Irina.Elliott@monash.edu

Postal address:

Centre for Forensic Behavioural Science
Monash University
 505 Hoddle Street
Clifton Hill, VIC 3068
AUSTRALIA
Tel: +61 3 9947 2600
Fax: +61 3 9947 2650

Abstract

A relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992) emphasizes the role of procedural justice (the fairness of methods used to achieve outcomes) in public support for and evaluation of the police. Using both quantitative and qualitative methods, this study tested the model in the context of victim-police interactions. In-depth interviews were conducted with 110 people who had reported a crime (personal or property) to the police in the previous year. Quantitative findings supported the predictions that higher perceived antecedents of procedural justice would be associated with higher perceived legitimacy (obligation to obey the law), outcome fairness, and satisfaction with the contact. Antecedents of procedural justice were a stronger predictor of outcome fairness and satisfaction than the realisation of a desired outcome, and a stronger predictor of legitimacy than criminal history. Qualitative findings supported these results. It appears that procedural justice has the potential for helping to motivate individuals with criminal history to obey the law. Implications for evaluation of police performance are discussed.

Key words: procedural justice, antecedents of procedural justice, victim-police interactions, mixed methods, relational model of authority

Procedural justice in contacts with the police: Testing a relational model

of authority in a mixed methods study

Introduction

Procedural justice emphasises the fairness of methods used to achieve outcomes (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). In interactions with authorities, the fairness of the process by which outcomes are achieved may be more important than the favourability of the outcomes themselves (Lind & Tyler, 1988). A relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992) attributes these effects of procedural justice to individuals' perceptions of fair treatment as an indication of their value and status in society. A substantial body of empirical research has supported many predictions based on a relational model of authority (Hinds & Murphy, 2007; Murphy, 2009; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003b; Tyler, 2001, 2005, 2006; Tyler & Huo, 2002; Tyler & Wakslak, 2004). For example, research suggests that public support for and satisfaction with the police are based more on how the police exercise their authority than whether the police are effective in controlling crime (Tyler, 2001). Higher perceived procedural justice in contacts with the police has been also linked to increased legitimacy (internally motivated obligation to obey the law), arguably a primary factor in shaping law-abiding behaviour (Tyler & Darley, 2000).

Despite the impressive findings, quantitative methods employed in previous research may limit our understanding of why procedural justice has such a powerful impact on perceived legitimacy, public support for and satisfaction with the police. At the same time, although successfully tested in citizen-police interactions, this model has never been applied to victim-police

interactions, despite its apparent central relevance at this interface. To address these limitations, the present study employed a mixed methods approach to test a relational model of authority in victim-police interactions. Mixed methods methodology is a relatively new development in the field of social and behavioural sciences and has emerged as an alternative to the traditional dichotomy of qualitative and quantitative methods in an attempt to overcome limitations of both approaches when applied independently (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

First, a review of the literature outlining a conceptual framework for the study and highlighting relevant research findings in the context of citizen-police interactions will be presented. Next, as required by the mixed methods model, the overall content purpose of the present study, the type of mixed methods design used, the rationale for using mixed methods in the study, and a specific quantitative research question, qualitative research question, and mixed methods research question along with the hypotheses of the study will be presented. This will be followed by characteristics of the sample, procedure, quantitative and qualitative data collection tools and analyses. Finally, quantitative and qualitative findings, and integrated discussion of the findings will be presented along with theoretical, practical, and research implications.

Literature Review

The concept of procedural justice (procedural fairness and fair treatment are other labels used in literature) was introduced into socio-legal research by Thibaut and Walker (1975). They used the concept of *procedural justice* to describe the fairness of the process by which decisions are made by authorities as opposed to *distributive justice* which is the fairness of the

decisions themselves. Since then an impressive body of research in social, legal, and organisational settings has demonstrated that people place a significant value on the fairness of the process by which outcomes are achieved (MacCoun, 2005). Two explanations have been offered for this phenomenon: an instrumental perspective and a non-instrumental perspective.

According to the instrumental perspective, people value fair procedures as a means of achieving favourable outcomes (Leventhal, 1976; Thibaut &Walker, 1975). It should be noted that the limitations of the instrumental perspective is that it equates outcome favourability with outcome fairness, and does not explain research findings indicating that people are concerned with procedures independently of their effects on outcomes, with fair procedures often being valued more than favourable outcomes (Tyler, Boeckmann, Smith, & Huo, 1997). A non-instrumental perspective on procedural justice, specifically a group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988), can provide a valuable insight in this respect as it looks at the aspects of procedural justice that are not necessarily linked to outcomes.

From a group value model perspective (Lind & Tyler, 1988), procedures matter as they convey important information to individuals about their value and status in society. According to Tyler and Lind (1992), individuals' value and status in society are reflected in the quality of their relationship with authorities. The authors extended their model of procedural justice beyond the decision-making process to account for public support for authorities in general. In doing so, they argue that public support for authorities is determined by perceptions of procedural justice based on four *relational* criteria (*antecedents* of procedural justice): a) *quality of interpersonal*

treatment (treatment with dignity and respect, politeness and showing concern for individuals' rights), b) *participation* (expression of views and involvement in the decision-making process), c) *neutrality* (unbiased decision-making), and d) *trustworthiness of authorities* (Tyler, 2006). The assumptions that these four relational criteria are antecedents of procedural justice judgments have been empirically supported (Tyler, 1996). The relational criteria form the basis of *a relational model of authority* (Tyler & Lind, 1992). According to this model, perceptions of fair procedures based on the relational criteria, shape the perceived legitimacy of the authority, which, in turn, encourage adherence to the rules, cooperation with and support for the authority.

The relational model of authority has been successfully tested in the context of citizen-police interactions. The most robust and consistent finding to date has been the link between procedural justice judgments based on the relational criteria and perceived police legitimacy. In the context of law enforcement, *legitimacy* is defined as individuals' obligation to obey the law, trust and confidence in the institution of policing (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a). Antecedents of procedural justice judgments are consistently found to be more strongly linked to legitimacy than perceived outcome fairness or evaluations of police performance (Hinds & Murphy, 2007; Reisig, Bratton, & Gertz, 2007; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a; Tyler, 2005). In turn, higher perceived legitimacy is linked to compliance with the law or cooperation with the police (Tyler, 1990; Tyler 2005; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003b). In this respect, Tyler (2005) found that legitimacy was more strongly linked to the willingness to cooperate with the police than risk of sanctioning for law-breaking, or assessments of police performance.

Another variable directly associated with antecedents of procedural justice judgments is public evaluation of (i.e., satisfaction with) police services. In this respect, Tyler (2001) found that two factors played a crucial role: (1) performance in controlling crime, and (2) quality of treatment of people by the police. However, of the two, quality of treatment was a major factor, accounting for 26% of the variance as opposed to performance in controlling crime, which accounted for only 5% of the variance. Interestingly, in the context of law enforcement, research indicates that the effect of antecedents of procedural justice on satisfaction with the decision-maker is stronger when compared to the effect of distributive justice, and correlations between distributive justice and antecedents of procedural justice are higher than correlations between distributive justice and outcome favourability (Tyler & Huo, 2002). Similarly, antecedents of procedural justice judgments in the Sunshine and Tyler (2003a) study were directly linked to citizens' willingness to give the police more power to exercise their authority, whereas distributive justice judgments had no significant effect on this variable. These findings support the salience of the relational criteria of procedural justice in public evaluations of and satisfaction with the police.

A note on methodological limitations in relation to these findings should be made. Studies that have tested a relational model of authority in the context of policing have been conducted with general population samples by a means of either a phone or mail-back survey. Most of the studies did not involve respondents' personal experiences with the police and have been based on perceptions and general evaluations of the police by the residents of a relevant city. But most importantly, the extant research on procedural justice in

the context of citizen-police interactions lacks the all important contextual detail that can potentially explain not only that procedural justice is important, but why it is important to individuals.

At the same time, although successfully tested in the context of citizen-police interactions, a relational model has never been applied to victim-police interactions. This raises the question of whether a relational model has the same validity in victim-police interactions as demonstrated in citizen-police interactions (specifically the primacy of the process-based assessments over outcome-oriented assessments in evaluation of the police). Victims compared to non-victims may have a more vested interest in the outcome of the interaction with the police due to their personal experience of the crime. Research also suggests that procedural justice is most important to citizens in police-initiated contacts, such as being stopped by police, than it is in citizen-initiated contacts, such as calling police for assistance (Murphy, 2009).

Purpose, Design, Research Questions, and Hypotheses

Against this background, the purpose of this study was to test the validity of a relational model of authority in victim-police interactions. An embedded mixed methods design was used. A mixed methods design is 'a type of research design in which qualitative and quantitative approaches are used in types of questions, research methods, data collection and analysis procedures, and/or inferences' (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003, p. 711). According to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), a major advantage of employing mixed methods in the same study is that it allows the researcher to answer simultaneously confirmatory questions (e.g., demonstrate that a particular variable will have a predicted relationship with another variable) and

exploratory questions (e.g., how and why that predicted relationship actually takes place). An embedded mixed methods design is a design in which one data set provides a supportive, secondary role in a study based primarily on the other data set (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). An embedded mixed methods design requires delineation of primary and secondary aims of the research in order to denote which data set will have greater priority.

The primary aim of this study was to test a relational model of authority in victim-police interactions. It was hypothesised that there would be positive correlations between victims' perceptions of antecedents of procedural justice and outcome fairness, satisfaction with the contact, legitimacy, and cooperation with the police. A secondary aim was to examine what perceived antecedents of procedural justice in contacts with the police mean for victims of crime. The qualitative research question was: Will meanings assigned to antecedents of procedural justice by victims of crime validate the assumptions of a relational model of authority? Including qualitative methods into statistical models allows testing of the correctness of the assumptions on which the statistical models are based (Irwin, 2008). The mixed methods research question was: Will meanings assigned to antecedents of procedural justice by victims of crime provide support for associations between the variables in a relational model of authority?

Method

Participants

In-depth, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 110 participants who had reported a crime (personal or property) to the police in the previous 12 months. The age of participants ranged from 18 to 86 years (*M*

= 39.75, SD = 13.7). There were 58 (52.7%) females and 52 (47.3%) males in the sample. Seventy eight (70.91%) participants reported having been victimized on multiple occasions. In relation to the type of crime reported in the previous 12 months, 77 (70%) had been victims of violent crimes, including 43 (39.09%) cases of physical violence, 13 (11.82%) cases of property damage, 11 (10%) cases of threats of violence, 9 (8.18%) cases of sexual assault and child sexual abuse and 1participant (0.91%) was a relative of a homicide victim. Non-violent crimes included 20 (18.18%) thefts, 9 (8.18%) burglaries and 4 (3.64%) cases of stalking. Comparisons with an official release of crime statistics (Victoria Police, 2010) indicated that the sample was generally representative of the people who reported a crime in Victoria in 2008/2009 in terms of overall gender composition and percentage of males and females who had been victims of crimes against the person, assault offences and sexual offences.

In respect to their offending history, 37 (33.64%) participants reported having been charged with one offence and 24 (21.82%) reported having been charged with offences on multiple occasions. In relation to the type of charged offences, the most frequent ones were violence and drug offences, followed by theft, bad public behaviour, deception, property damage, stalking, threats of violence, breach of a legal order, and weapons offences.

Procedure

Participants were recruited by advertising the study at police stations and community-based victims' organisations in Victoria. Posters and postcards were used to attract potential participants, along with an organisation wide email circular and simple snowballing technique using participants'

recommendations to others they knew had been victims. All interviews were

conducted by the author either face-to-face ($n = 77$, 70%) or by telephone ($n =$

33, 30%), and lasted up to one and a half hours. Data collection took place

over a 14 month period between February 2009 and April 2010.

Interview Schedule

The interview schedule developed for the study included both

quantitative and qualitative items. A draft of the *pro forma* was piloted on

eight interviewees.

Demographic and Contacts with Police Information. Demographic

information included age, gender, country of birth, ethnicity, education, marital

status, source of income, and type of accommodation lived. Contacts with the

police information included number and type of charged offences if any,

lifetime number of victimizations, type of crime reported in the previous 12

months, how and where it was reported, reason for reporting, relationship to

the offender, and if participants received a desired outcome as a result of the

interaction with the police or not.

Procedural Justice Scale (PJS) was developed in this study based on

previous research to measure perceptions of antecedents of procedural justice

in victim-police interactions. Previous research used a composite measure of

four relational dimensions of procedural justice, which is consistent with

recent guidelines in relation to general measures of justice. Considering the

contribution of one dimension of the justice concept, independently from the

others, are likely to overestimate the predicted relationship with the criterion

(Hauenstein, McGonigle, & Flinder, 2001). Initially, in the present study, four

relational dimension scales comprised a 14-item measure of antecedents of

procedural justice: *Participation* (Tyler, 2005), *Quality of interpersonal treatment*, *Neutrality of decision-making*, and *Trustworthiness* (Tyler & Wakslak, 2004). In addition, one item ('Police explained reasons for their actions') was added to the Trustworthiness scale to reflect findings indicating the importance of this factor in perceptions of police trustworthiness in the context of citizen-police interactions (Tyler & Huo, 2002).

As the study progressed, it became evident that three items had ambiguous validity for victims of crime. For example, a participant gave a high rating to the item 'Police were honest' (Tyler & Wakslak, 2004), which was intended to reflect fair treatment by police. However, when asked what made her think so, the participant replied 'because they (*police*) told me straight away that they were not going to do much about my request', which the participant thought was unfair. Similarly, a participant gave a high rating to the item 'Police gave me a role in deciding how to solve my problem' (Tyler, 2005). However, when asked what made him give such a high rating, the participant said 'because they (*police*) told me to find evidence myself', which the participant thought was unfair. Also, a participant with criminal history gave a high rating to the item 'I was treated the same as anyone else would be in the same situation' (Tyler & Wakslak, 2004). However, when asked what made him think so, the participant replied 'because they (*police*) treat all victims with criminal history badly', which, again, the participant thought was unfair.

Given the ambiguity of these three statements for crime victims' perceptions of antecedents of fair treatment by police, the three items were removed from the PJS. The final version of a composite measure of

antecedents of procedural justice for the present study comprised 11 items (see

Appendix). The items are in a 7-point Likert type response format. Items are

scored in a positive direction with higher scores indicating higher perceived

antecedents of procedural justice. The scale demonstrated a high level of

internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = .96). It should be noted that a concern

has been expressed in relation to the reliance on high alpha of composite

measures of process-based policing (Reisig et al., 2007). Reisig and collegues

argue that a composite measure, even if it has a high Cronbach's alpha, may

still be heterogeneous, pointing out that alpha increases as the number of items

in the scale increases; therefore, mean inter-item correlation should be also

considered when assessing homogeneity of the scale. In the present study,

mean inter-item correlation of PJS was high (.70), providing support for the

homogeneity of the scale.

      The Legitimacy Scale (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a) is a composite

measure comprising two scales that measure perceived obligation to obey law

and trust in the institution of policing, respectively. The scale has 19 items in a

6-point Likert type response format with higher scores indicating higher

perceived legitimacy. Sunshine and Tyler reported Cronbach's alpha of the

scale as .84. In the present study, the Cronbach's alpha was .92 and mean inter-

item correlation was .36 which is slightly higher than the mean inter-item

correlation of the refined Legitimacy index (five items) developed by Reisig et

al. (2007) based on data drawn from a national telephone survey of American

adults (.33).

      The Justice Sensitivity Scale (Schmitt, Gollwitzer, Maes, & Arbach,

2005) measures how sensitively individuals react to unfair events in the role of

a victim (a victim role is distinguished from roles of perpetrator and an observer of an unfair event). According to Schmitt et al., victim sensitivity to justice is a personality trait and is different from perpetrator and observer sensitivity to justice in that victim sensitivity to justice is centred on self-protective concerns (alertness to deprivation and willingness to engage in strategies to prevent disadvantage to oneself). The scale consists of 10 items in a 6-point Likert type response format with higher scores indicating higher sensitivity to justice. Schmitt et al. examined psychometric properties of the scale. Convergent validity of the scale was demonstrated by its significant correlations with personality traits constructs that reflect self-related concerns: paranoia ($r = .32$), vengeance ($r = .29$), jealousy ($r = .58$), suspiciousness ($r = .13$), and interpersonal trust ($r = -.20$). There was also a significant correlation of the scale with Neuroticism ($r = .36$) and Agreeableness ($r = -.19$) factors of Big Five Personality Factors. Discriminant validity was demonstrated by a higher correlation of the scale with belief in an unjust world ($r = .37$) as opposed to belief in a just world ($r = .06$). Internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of the scale was reported as .89 and mean inter-item correlation was reported as .44. In the present study, Cronbach's alpha was .87 and mean inter-item correlation was .40.

Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale Form C (Reynolds, 1982) consists of 13 true-false items assessing social desirability bias (*faking good*) when responding to self-report measures.

Outcome Fairness was measured with the item 'How fair was the outcome you received from the police?' *Satisfaction with the contact* was measured with the item 'To what extent did the police do a good job dealing

with your situation?' *Cooperation with the police* was measured with the item 'If the police needed your help, how likely you would help them?' The three items asked for ratings on a 7-point Likert type response format with higher ratings indicating higher perceived outcome fairness, satisfaction with the contact and future cooperation with the police, respectively. Participants' *mood* at the time of the interview was measured with the item 'On a scale from 1 to 10, where 1 is extremely sad and 10 is extremely happy, how are you feeling at the moment?'

The quantitative measures were administered in the following order: The Legitimacy Scale, Mood at the time of the interview, PJS, Satisfaction with the contact, Cooperation with the police, Outcome Fairness, the Justice Sensitivity Scale, Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale.

Qualitative Items. Qualitative items included two types of open-ended questions which were added to each item of PJS. After participants had rated a particular item of PJS (e.g., 'Police treated me with dignity and respect'), participants were asked 'What made you give this particular rating?' and 'What does police treating you with dignity and respect mean to you?', with prompts and follow-up questions to elicit a breadth and depth of response from participants. The pro forma is available by contacting the author.

Data Analysis

Quantitative Analyses

As preliminary analyses indicated that there were significant differences in scores on the variables involved in a relational model of authority as a function of criminal history (presence or absence of criminal histories) and desired outcome (if participants received a desired outcome or

not), in order to test the hypotheses, correlational analyses were performed for the overall sample and separately for the four groups: people with criminal history, people without criminal history, people who received a desired outcome, and people who did not receive a desired outcome. Examination of scatter plots for the overall sample revealed that there was no linear relationship between cooperation and the other variables. Therefore, cooperation was excluded from further analyses.

As preliminary analyses indicated that legitimacy was affected by place of residence and education (medium effect sizes), and if people had a criminal history or not (a large effect size), a hierarchical multiple regression was performed to examine whether these variables could be used to predict legitimacy after antecedents of procedural justice were controlled for. Similarly, as preliminary analyses indicated that satisfaction and outcome fairness were affected by if people had a criminal history or not, and if people received a desired outcome or not (medium effect sizes), two hierarchical multiple regressions were performed to examine whether these variables could be used as predictors of satisfaction and outcome fairness, respectively, after antecedents of procedural justice were controlled for.

Qualitative Analysis

Components of a grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1990) and constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lincoln & Guba, 1985) were used as a means of identifying themes (meanings of antecedents of procedural justice) from ongoing data collection and analysis. Two processes of the constant comparative method (unitizing and categorizing) were employed at the initial stage of the data analysis. The

unitizing process involved dividing the data into the smallest meaningful units of information associated with the research question. The process of categorizing included organizing these units of information into categories on the basis of similarity in meaning. As the qualitative research question was confirmatory by its nature, selection, formulation, and naming of categories was done *priori* (Constas, 1992) and was based on the concepts of a relational model of authority and literature on procedural justice. To identify interview segments relevant to the theoretical propositions in question (meanings of antecedents of procedural justice), the process of open coding was employed. Open coding refers to delineating descriptive categories and subcategories based on raw data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Open coding was followed by axial coding which involves relating major categories to their subcategories. Coding was done by one of the researchers. Although the initial coding scheme was based on a deductive approach (was driven by theory), it was complimented by an inductive approach and was refined based on the raw data. The final product of the data analysis included major categories as related to the research question and extracts from data illustrating the major categories.

Results

Quantitative Findings

Preliminary Analyses

Descriptive results are presented in Table 1. The results indicated that there were no significant correlations between sensitivity to justice or social desirability and variables involved in a relational model of authority. The absence of a significant correlation between sensitivity to justice and antecedents of procedural justice provides evidence for discriminant validity of

Justice Sensitivity Scale (Schmitt et al., 2005) and Procedural Justice Scale developed in the present study. In relation to mood, examination of scatter plots revealed that there was no linear relationship between self-report indices of mood and other research variables.

In relation to demographic variables, the results indicated that age, gender, country of birth, ethnicity, marital status, source of income, type of crime reported, how (in person or by telephone) and where (police station, scene of incident, or other) the crime was reported, if the offender was known to the victim or not had no significant effect on the research variables. Two variables related to socio-economic status were found to have significant medium size effects on some of the research variables. In this respect, a one-way independent measures ANOVA indicated that level of education significantly influenced legitimacy, $F(2,107) = 5.03$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = 0.09$. Subsequent post hoc tests (Tukey's HSD) revealed that people who did not complete secondary school had significantly lower scores on legitimacy ($M = 3.16$, $SD = 0.94$) than people who had post-secondary education ($M = 3.88$, $SD = 0.88$), $p < .01$. Also, independent t-tests revealed that people who lived in public housing had significantly: (a) lower scores on legitimacy ($M = 3.14$, $SD = 1.03$) than the other participants ($M = 3.8$, $SD = 0.88$), $t(108) = -3.02$, $p < .01$, $d = 0.58$.

The variables of interest were also affected by the presence or absence of criminal histories and if participants received a desired outcome or not (See Table 2). Independent t-tests revealed that people with criminal histories had significantly lower scores on all variables involved in a relational model of authority than people without criminal histories. Independent t-tests also

revealed that participants who received a desired outcome had significantly

higher scores on all variables involved in a relational model of authority than

participants who did not received a desired outcome except for legitimacy.

Scores on legitimacy did not differ significantly between people who received

a desired outcome and people who did not receive a desired outcome.

Cooperation was excluded from the analyses as scores on cooperation were not

normally distributed for people with no criminal history and for people who

received a desired outcome.

Main Analyses

For the overall sample, the results indicated significant positive

correlations ($p < .001$) with large effect sizes between perceptions of

antecedents of procedural justice and legitimacy ($r = .53$, $r^2 = 28.09\%$),

outcome fairness ($r = .87$, $r^2 = 75.69\%$), and satisfaction with the contact ($r = $

$.91$, $r^2 = 82.81\%$). Higher perceived antecedents of procedural justice were

associated with higher perceived legitimacy, outcome fairness, and satisfaction

with the contact. The results also revealed that the correlation coefficients

between perceptions of antecedents of procedural justice and legitimacy,

outcome fairness, and satisfaction with the contact were not significantly

different between people who had criminal history and people who did not

have a criminal history, and also between people who received a desired

outcome and people who did not receive a desired outcome.

Three multiple regression analyses with criterion variables of

legitimacy, outcome fairness, and satisfaction, respectively, were performed

(See Table 3). As antecedents of procedural justice were identified as a

predictor variable of legitimacy, satisfaction, and outcome fairness in previous

research, antecedents of procedural justice were entered in the first step, and the potential new predictors were entered in the second step. As seen in Table 3, criminal history (presence or absence of criminal histories), living (living in public housing or not) and education accounted for an additional 11.7% of the variability in legitimacy after antecedents of procedural justice were controlled for, $\Delta F(3,105) = 6.85$, $p < .001$. However, of the four predictor variables, only antecedents of procedural justice and criminal history were significant predictors of legitimacy. Antecedents of procedural justice were the strongest predictor of legitimacy, accounting for 18.4% of the variability in legitimacy as opposed to 6% of the variability accounted for by criminal history.

As seen in Table 3, criminal history and desired outcome (if people received a desired outcome or not) accounted for an additional 2.2% of the variability in outcome fairness after antecedents of procedural justice were controlled for, $\Delta F(2,106) = 5.40$, $p < .01$. However, of the three predictor variables, only antecedents of procedural justice and desired outcome were significant predictors of outcome fairness. Antecedents of procedural justice were the strongest predictor of outcome fairness, accounting for 62.09% of the variability in outcome fairness as opposed to 1.54% of the variability accounted for by desired outcome. Similarly, as seen in Table 3, criminal history and desired outcome accounted for an additional 1.3% of the variability in satisfaction after antecedents of procedural justice were controlled for, $\Delta F(2,106) = 4.16$, $p < .05$. However, of the three predictor variables, only antecedents of procedural justice and desired outcome were significant predictors on satisfaction. Antecedents of procedural justice were the strongest predictor of satisfaction, accounting for 69.39% of the variability in

satisfaction as opposed to 1.06% of the variability accounted for by desired outcome.

Qualitative Findings

Five meanings of antecedents of procedural justice expressed by the participants were identified. The names of four meanings identified through a deductive approach were suggested by the literature ('value', 'instrumental', 'legitimacy', and 'cooperation'). The name of the meaning 'therapeutic', identified through an inductive approach, was provided by the researchers. The number and percentage of participants who expressed a particular meaning were calculated to identify which meaning was predominant. A particular meaning had to be mentioned at least once by a participant to be counted as a meaning expressed by this participant. The five meanings, percentage of participants who expressed a particular meaning, and extracts from the data illustrating a particular meaning are presented in Table 4.

As seen in Table 4, the value meaning was associated with participants perceiving antecedents of fair treatment by police as an indication of their value as persons and members of community. Similarly, based on perceived antecedents of fair treatment, participants believed that this: (a) sends a message that the police are able, willing, and will be doing their best to solve the case (instrumental meaning); (b) builds trust and confidence in the police, encourages them to obey the law and not to take it in their own hands, and helps them accept police decisions (legitimacy meaning); (c) helps them reduce the trauma associated with the crime (therapeutic meaning); and (d) encourages them to deal with the police in the future (cooperation meaning). The value meaning was predominant (expressed by 87 participants or 79.09%),

followed by the instrumental meaning (expressed by 75 participants or

68.18%), legitimacy meaning (expressed by 59 participants or 53.64%),

therapeutic meaning (expressed by 44 participants or 40%), and cooperation

meaning (expressed by 24 participants or 21.82%).

Discussion

The quantitative results supported the hypotheses that higher perceived

antecedents of procedural justice would be associated with higher perceived

legitimacy, outcome fairness, and satisfaction with the contact. These results

are consistent with the findings of the studies that have tested a relational

model of authority in citizen-police interactions (Hinds & Murphy, 2007;

Murphy, 2009; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a & b; Tyler, 2001, 2005, 2006; Tyler

& Huo, 2002; Tyler & Wakslak, 2004). However, the hypothesis that

perceptions of antecedents of procedural justice would be associated with

cooperation was not supported. The absence of a linear relationship between

antecedents of procedural justice and cooperation can perhaps be explained by

the way cooperation was measured in the present study. In previous studies,

questions related to cooperation were specific, e.g., 'How likely would you call

police to report a crime in your neighbourhood' (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a). In

contrast, in the present study participants were asked how likely they would

help police in general, which had a less clear meaning for some participants, as

evident by their ambiguous responses to this question.

The results also showed that antecedents of procedural justice were a

stronger predictor of satisfaction and perception of fair outcome than if

participants received a desired outcome or not. Similar to citizen-police

interactions, this suggests the primacy of process-based assessments over

outcome-oriented assessments in evaluation of the police in victim-police interactions. Interestingly, although participants with criminal history had lower scores on outcome fairness and satisfaction with the contact than the other participants, criminal history was not a significant predictor of either outcome fairness or satisfaction as a result of the interaction with the police. Moreover, although participants with criminal history had lower scores on legitimacy than the other participants, perceptions of antecedents of procedural justice were a stronger predictor of legitimacy than if participants had criminal history or not. These findings suggest that experiences of procedural justice in subsequent contacts with the police can increase previous perceived legitimacy for this population.

The qualitative results provided an insight into the validity of assumptions of different theoretical perspectives on procedural justice. In this respect, the validity of a group value model of procedural justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988) was supported. The value meaning assigned to antecedents of procedural justice by the participants was predominant and expressed by the vast majority of the participants. It is particularly striking that participants, who were unfamiliar with the concepts of a group value model, used the same words (e.g., 'status', 'valued by community') as the scholars who formulated the theory. There was also support for an instrumental perspective on procedural justice (Leventhal, 1976; Thibaut & Walker, 1975) as the instrumental meaning linking perceptions of antecedents of procedural justice to outcome was the next most frequently expressed meaning of antecedents of procedural justice after the value meaning. The results also indicated that for victims of crime, antecedents of procedural justice in contacts with the police

may have an additional meaning not yet articulated elsewhere. More than one third of the participants expressed the therapeutic meaning linking perceptions of antecedents of procedural justice to alleviation of the trauma associated with the crime.

The findings highlight the benefits of mixed methods approach employed in the present study. Firstly, qualitative data in relation to the meanings assigned to antecedents of procedural justice by the participants provided support for statistical associations between antecedents of procedural justice, perceived legitimacy, outcome fairness, and satisfaction with the contact. Both legitimacy and instrumental meanings of antecedents of procedural justice, respectively, were expressed by the majority of the participants. Based on the perceptions of antecedents of procedural justice, participants explicitly stated that this encourages them to obey the law and makes them believe that the police are competent and willing to do their best to solve the crime. In this respect, a participant said: 'I felt like I was getting the best possible outcome', although in this particular case, the police were not able to deliver a desired outcome. Secondly, qualitative data revealed a meaning of antecedents of procedural justice (the therapeutic meaning) that is not included in a relational model of authority and may be specific to victim-police interactions. Thus, using mixed methods in the present study allowed confirming existing theories, a group value model of procedural justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988) and a relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992), and generating a new theoretical proposition specific to victim-police interactions. Also, using mixed methods allowed testing the validity of the antecedents of procedural justice measure as applied to victim-police interactions. Three items

used in previous research in the context of citizen-police interactions showed ambiguous validity for victims of crime and were removed from the measure. This would have not been possible without a simultaneous inclusion of quantitative and qualitative data in the same study.

This study has several limitations that should be considered in relation to these findings. One limitation is the use of a non-random sample. In addition, in relation to the potential of procedural justice to increase legitimacy for people with criminal history, it should be noted that in the present sample, the offence history did not include most serious offences such as homicide or sexual offences. Also, this study was cross-sectional. In this respect, it should be noted than attitudes towards law-abiding behaviour do not equal actual law-abiding behaviour. Although the findings of this study provided support for a non-instrumental perspective on procedural justice, the instrumental perspective was also prominent in participants' accounts. In addition, although in this study, similarly to previous research, an implicit measure of procedural justice (namely, antecedents of procedural justice) was used, it can be argued that equating the construct of procedural justice with its antecedents may not represent a valid measure of the construct. Therefore, future research should endeavour to test a relational model of authority using explicit procedural justice judgments as a measure of procedural justice.

Nevertheless, the findings of the present study have important implications for future research, police practice, and evaluation of police performance. The results of this study suggest that procedural justice can be a powerful tool in motivating individuals including those with criminal history to obey the law. It is suggested that future research should investigate whether

there is a relationship between perceptions of procedural justice in a specific

contact with the police, perceived legitimacy, and subsequent law-abiding

behaviour for offender population, including perpetrators of serious offences.

Such an approach will require a longitudinal study. It would be beneficial to

examine why and how procedural justice in contacts with the police can help

victims reduce the trauma associated with the crime.

Finally, the results of this study suggest that procedural justice is at

least as important to victims of crime as a desired outcome. This raises the

question of the adequacy of the current police performance measures that are

heavily based on crime statistics and detection rates. The adequacy of such

performance indicators have been recently questioned (Fielding & Innes,

2006). One of the problems with current police performance measures is that

they do not adequately capture the sheer variety and complexity of what the

police do today to serve their communities. As an alternative to performance

measures based on crime statistics and detection rates, Fielding and Innes

suggest considering additional qualitative approaches to measuring police

performance.

In the context of victim-police interactions, a qualitative approach to

police performance could be in the form of a written statement from the

victims describing the impact of the interaction with the police on them. In

addition to the traditional Victim Impact Statement addressing the impact of

the crime on the victim, Wexler (2008) suggests the introduction of a Legal

System Victim Impact Statement (LSVIS) 'which should emphasize both good

and bad behaviours by various actors, beginning with the police and continuing

throughout the process' (Wexler, 2008, p. 326). According to the author, such

a statement can serve as an important expressive function for the victim and also, can be instrumental in the development of 'best practices' in the field. A template of a LSVIS in relation to victim-police interactions could be developed based on what aspects of procedural justice in contacts with the police are important to victims. While the present study has provided some guidance in this respect, more research employing a wider range of targeted recruitment strategies is needed to capture the full breadth of victim-police experiences. This avenue of development would not only serve to provide measurable indices of the breadth of contemporary police performance and practice beyond the traditional markers of high detection rates and reductions in official crime statistics, but also provide the necessary impetus for this role and positive outcomes associated with this core policing function to be more formally and systematically measured and thus acknowledged and valued by policing and community members (Elliott, Thomas, & Ogloff, 2011).

Conclusion

By employing a mixed methods approach, this study provides empirical support for predictions and assumptions of a relational model of authority as applied to victim-police interactions. It also provides empirical support for a group value model of procedural justice in that relational criteria of procedural justice judgments are perceived by individuals as an indication of their value and status in society. Moreover, the results of this study revealed a meaning of antecedents of procedural justice as expressed by victims of crime (alleviation of the trauma associated with the crime) that may be specific to victim-police interactions. Finally, the discovery of the primacy of perceptions of antecedents of procedural justice over criminal history as predictors of

legitimacy suggests the potential of procedural justice in contacts with the police for motivating individuals with criminal history to obey the law.

Acknowledgements

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Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations of Research Variables

Variable	Mean	*SD*
Procedural justice	4.83	1.76
Legitimacy	3.67	0.94
Outcome fairness	4.4	2.12
Satisfaction	4.37	2.08
Cooperation	5.76	1.79
Sensitivity to justice	3.42	1.08
Mood	6.47	2.02

Note. Procedural justice, outcome fairness, satisfaction and cooperation were measured on a 7-point scale, legitimacy and sensitivity to justice were measured on a 6-point scale, and mood was measured on a 10-point scale, with higher scores indicating higher procedural justice, legitimacy, outcome fairness, satisfaction, cooperation, sensitivity to justice, and mood.

Table 2

Procedural Justice, Legitimacy, Outcome Fairness, and Satisfaction as a function of Criminal History and Desired Outcome

Variable	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*d*
	Criminal history		No criminal history				
Procedural Justice	4.29	1.76	5.11	1.7	2.34	< .05	0.45
Legitimacy	3.11	0.87	3.96	0.85	4.88	< .001	0.94
Outcome fairness	3.6	2.06	4.81	2.04	2.94	< .01	0.57
Satisfaction	3.65	1.96	4.73	2.06	2.63	< .05	0.51
	Outcome received		Outcome not received				
Procedural Justice	5.51	1.58	4.59	1.76	-2.46	< .05	0.47
Outcome fairness	5.55	1.86	3.99	2.06	-3.6	< .001	0.69
Satisfaction	5.45	1.84	3.98	2.04	-3.42	< .01	0.66

Note. df = 108.

Table 3

Hierarchical Regressions for the Predictors of Legitimacy, Outcome Fairness, and Satisfaction

Predictor variable	R	R²Δ	Adjusted R²	β	FΔ	p
			Legitimacy			
Step 1	.533	.284	.277		42.845	.000
Procedural justice				.533		.000
Step 2	.633	.117	.378		6.850	.000
Procedural justice				.446		.000
Criminal history*				.270		.002
Living**				.105		.119
Education				.066		.437
			Outcome Fairness			
Step 1	.872	.761	.759		343.806	.000
Procedural justice				.872		.000
Step 2	.885	.022	.777		5.399	.006
Procedural justice				.826		.000
Criminal history*				.075		.108
Desired outcome***				.127		.007
			Satisfaction			
Step 1	.907	.822	.820		498.762	.000
Procedural justice				.907		.000
Step 2	.914	.013	.830		4.155	.018
Procedural justice				.873		.000
Criminal history*				.041		.317
Desired outcome***				.107		.010

Note. * 0 = criminal history, 1 = no criminal history
** 0 = lived in public housing, 1 = other
*** 0 = not received, 1 = received

Table 4

Selected Quotes Illustrating Identified Meanings of Antecedents of Procedural Justice

Meaning	Quotes
Value 79.09%	I am important worthy part of community, not just a number I am a decent member of society I feel recognition of my status and contribution to community A sense of validation from authority as a person worth treated fairly I feel valued by community as police reflect community attitudes
Instrumental 68.18%	Police show their competence as professionals Police care about the outcome Police know what they are doing and they are doing what they can Police will do their best to find offender, no cost analysis What police said will be done, they will follow up
Legitimacy 53.64%	Law and order, police integrity, confidence and trust in police Restored my faith in the system as my previous experiences were not always good Encourages me to obey the law, not to take action in your own hands Police won my trust, I respect them, I want to do right thing myself Helps accept decisions, you can believe authority, they use power responsibly
Therapeutic 40%	Helps me recover from the crime, part of healing Makes me feel strong, safe, sense of security, justice again Reduces stress, you are not on your own Gave me closure, put concerns about future similar incidents at rest I can live, I can put the crime behind me and move on and enjoy my life
Cooperation 21.82%	Makes me feel helpful, encourages cooperation Victims feel more involved to report future crimes I can depend on police in future if needed I will be more likely to call police in future I will turn to police when needed

Appendix

Procedural Justice Scale

1. Police treated me politely.
1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Not polite at all   *Extremely polite*

2. Police showed concern for my rights.
1   2   3   4   5   6   7
No concern at all   *Complete concern*

3. Police treated me with dignity and respect.
1   2   3   4   5   6   7
No respect at all   *Complete respect*

4. Police made their decisions based on facts.
1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Not at all based on facts   *Completely based on facts*

5. Police gave me a chance to express my views before making decisions.
1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Not at all gave a chance   *Completely gave a chance*

6. Police considered my views.
1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Did not consider at all   *Completely considered*

7. Police tried to do the right thing by me.
1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Did not try at all   *Extremely tried*

8. Police tried to take account of my needs.
1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Not at all tried   *Extremely tried*

9. Police cared about my concerns.
1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Not at all cared   *Extremely cared*

10. I trust the police officers who handled my case.
1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Don't trust at all   *Completely trust*

11. Police explained the reasons for their actions.
1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Didn't explain at all   *Completely explained*

CHAPTER FOUR: PROCEDURAL JUSTICE AND VICTIMS'

RECOVERY FROM VICTIMISATION EXPERIENCES

4.1 Bridging Commentary

This chapter presents the second paper of the thesis. This paper addresses the second aim of the study by examining the therapeutic value of a relational perspective on procedural justice for victims of crime. The paper builds on the paper presented in the previous chapter. As the findings in relation to the meanings of procedural justice reported in the previous chapter revealed a meaning of procedural justice (the therapeutic meaning) that is not included in a relational model of authority, qualitative data set was examined in terms of how perceptions of procedural justice based on relational criteria can help victims recover from the negative psychological consequences of victimisation experiences. This was done by employing a grounded theory method.

The paper was submitted to the international peer reviewed journal *Policing and Society* on the 1st of June 2011. *Policing and Society* is widely acknowledged as the leading international academic journal specialising in the study of policing institutions and their practices. The journal is committed to rigorous policy debate and the very highest standards of scholarship.

4.2 Declaration for Thesis Chapter Four

Monash University

Declaration by candidate

In the case of Chapter Four, the nature and extent of my contribution to the work was as follows:

Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution
Literature review, design and management of the study, data collection and analysis, write up of the paper	75%

The following co-authors contributed to the work. Co-authors who are students at Monash University must also indicate the extent of their contribution in percentage terms:

Name	Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%)
Stuart Thomas	Co-investigator, participated in the development of the study design, reviewed the paper.	12.5%
James Ogloff	Co-investigator, participated in the development of the study design, reviewed the paper.	12.5%

Candidate's Signature		**Date**

Declaration by co-authors

The undersigned hereby certify that:

(1) The above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's contribution to this work, and the nature of the contribution of each of the co-authors;

(2) They meet the criteria for authorship in that they have participated in the conception, execution, or interpretation of at least that part of the publication in their field of expertise;

(3) They take public responsibility for their part of the publication, except for the responsible author who accepts overall responsibility for the publication;

(4) There are no other authors of the publication according to these criteria;

(5) Potential conflicts of interest have been disclosed to (a) granting bodies, (b) the editor or publisher of journals or other publications, and (c) the head of the responsible academic unit; and

(6) The original data are stored at the following location(s) and will be held for at least five years from the date indicated below:

Location(s)	**Centre for Forensic Behavioural Science, Monash University 505 Hoddle St, Clifton Hill, VIC 3068**

[Please note that the location(s) must be institutional in nature, and should be indicated here as a department, centre or institute, with specific campus identification where relevant.]

		Date
Signature 1		
Signature 2		

4.3 Procedural Justice in Victim-Police Interactions and Victims'

Recovery from Victimisation Experiences: A Grounded Theory Study

Irina Elliott[1]

Stuart DM Thomas[1][2]*

James RP Ogloff[1][2]

[1]Centre for Forensic Behavioural Science, School of Psychology and

Psychiatry, Monash University, Melbourne, Australia

[2] Victorian Institute of Forensic Mental Health, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

*Corresponding author. Email: Stuart.Thomas@monash.edu

Postal address:

Centre for Forensic Behavioural Science
Monash University
 505 Hoddle Street
Clifton Hill, VIC 3068
AUSTRALIA
Tel: +61 3 9947 2605
Fax: +61 3 9947 2650

Abstract

The aim of this qualitative study was to generate a theoretical model for the ways in which crime victims' perceptions of procedural justice in contacts with the police can help them recover from the negative psychological consequences of victimisation experiences. In depth-interviews were conducted with 110 people who had reported a crime (personal or property) to the police during the previous year. Developed through a grounded theory method, the model suggests that the validation of victimisation experiences and taking action by the police are essential in addressing the negative psychological consequences of the crime – feeling violated, experiencing helplessness, and not feeling safe anymore – as means of giving victims a sense of closure, empowerment, and making them feel safer. Moreover, validation of victimisation experiences by the police was vitally important to victims of crime as it was seen as an indication of their value in and a broader validation from the wider community.

Key words: procedural justice, victim-police interactions, therapeutic jurisprudence

Procedural justice in victim-police interactions and victims' recovery from

victimisation experiences

Introduction

Over the last three decades the task of policing in modern democratic societies has expanded from the traditional narrow focus on law enforcement and crime control to one of security, safety, and harm reduction (Stenning and Shearing 2005). As a reflection of this trend, there is now a growing appreciation that 'policing has a responsibility in a democratic state to structure itself around a mission and a philosophy that prevents victimisation and mitigates the effect of victimisation on the community and individual' (Clark 2003, p. 323). This view is consistent with the principles of *therapeutic jurisprudence* – an interdisciplinary approach that is concerned with the effect of the law on the well-being of individuals affected by legal decisions and processes (Wexler 1990). The primary goal of therapeutic jurisprudence is to determine ways in which the emotional and psychological well-being of the people affected by the law, legal processes, and behaviour of legal actors (such as judges and police officers) can be enhanced (Winick and Wexler 2003). In this respect, the psychology of *procedural justice* has become influential in the therapeutic jurisprudence literature. Procedural justice refers to the fairness of the process by which decisions are made by authorities (Thibaut and Walker 1975). It is assumed that fair processes by which decisions are made will have therapeutic (beneficial for well-being) consequences for the individuals affected by them (Wexler 1996).

The present study used a qualitative method – grounded theory (Strauss and Corbin 1990) – to investigate the therapeutic value of procedural justice

(fair treatment by the police) for victims of crimes and generate a theoretical model for the ways in which crime victims' perceptions of procedural justice in contacts with the police can help them recover from the negative psychological consequences of victimisation experiences. First, a review of the literature with the focus on the therapeutic value of different conceptualisations of procedural justice with references to the relevant research in the context of victims' interactions with the legal system will be presented. This will be followed by characteristics of the sample and description of procedures that characterise a grounded theory method. Finally, the generated model presented in a grounded theory paradigm will be articulated, along with theoretical, practical, and research implications.

Literature review

The issue of police behaviour in victim-police interactions became prominent after the identification of the *secondary victimisation* phenomenon, with Symonds (1980) finding that victims were inclined to interpret professional detachment of police officers who were investigating their case as a sign of rejection. The author argued that this can result in a 'second injury' to the victim in the wake of the actual victimisation experience. The actual victimisation experience has a range of negative psychological consequences. Many victims of violent crimes are at risk of developing a posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and other psychological problems such as depression, anxiety, substance abuse, low self-esteem, guilt and shame (Carlson and Dutton 2003). Also, even when a person is the victim of a crime that does not constitute an explicit traumatic event such as a theft or household burglary, the negative psychological effects on the person's well-being can be significant;

including doubts about the benevolence of the world and the trustworthiness of people, depression, anxiety, and anger (Carlson and Dutton 2003). Indeed, it has been acknowledged that insensitivity of the criminal justice system including the police to the victim's plight can contribute to or even exacerbate their suffering (Campbell 2006, Fisher *et al.* 2003, Maier 2008, Monroe *et al.* 2005). Nevertheless, it has also been recognised that the criminal justice system has the potential to promote the well-being of victims of crime, with procedural justice being one of the key factors inherent in this process (Herman 2003).

The concept of procedural justice (procedural fairness and fair treatment are other labels used in literature) was introduced into psycho-legal research by Thibaut and Walker (1975). They used the concept of *procedural justice* to describe the fairness of the process by which decisions are made by authorities as opposed to *distributive justice* which is the fairness of the decision outcomes. Since then an impressive body of research has demonstrated that people place a significant value on the fairness of the process by which outcomes are achieved (MacCoun 2005). Two explanations have been offered for this phenomenon: an instrumental perspective and a non-instrumental perspective.

According to the instrumental perspective, people value fair procedures as a means of achieving fair outcomes (Leventhal 1976, Thibaut andWalker 1975). For example, allowing individuals the opportunity to express their point of view in a decision-making process increases the perceived fairness of the decision-making procedures as it allows individuals to have some degree of influence or indirect control over the decision itself (Lind andTyler 1988). This

perspective has its therapeutic merits when applied to experiences of crime

victims in their interactions with law enforcement. For example, in cases of

domestic violence, research suggests that following the victim's wishes in

relation to whether the police arrest the offender or not (which can be

considered a form of victim's control over the police decision) has been shown

to be a powerful predictor of victims' satisfaction with the police (e.g. Buzawa

et al. 1992). In turn, a number of studies suggest that victims' satisfaction with

the legal system is positively associated with their well-being (e.g. Campbell *et*

al. 2001, Dobash *et al.* 2000, Wemmers and Cyr 2005).

Although the instrumental perspective on procedural justice has its

therapeutic value when applied to victims of crime, a non-instrumental

perspective on procedural justice offered by Tyler and Lind, specifically a

group value model (Lind and Tyler 1988), may be the most relevant to the link

between procedural justice and victims' well-being. From a group value model

perspective, procedures matter as they convey important information to

individuals about their value and status in society. According to Tyler and Lind

(1992), an individual's value and status in society are reflected in the quality of

his or her relationship with authorities. The authors extended their model of

procedural justice beyond the decision-making process to account for public

support for authorities in general. In doing so, they argue that public support

for authorities is determined by perceptions of procedural justice based on four

relational criteria: a) *quality of interpersonal treatment* (treatment with dignity

and respect, politeness and showing concern for individuals' rights), b)

participation (expression of views and involvement in the decision-making

process), c) *neutrality* (unbiased decision-making), and d) *trustworthiness of*

authorities (Tyler 2006).The latter is seen as being the most crucial one in the evaluation of procedural fairness (Tyler 2004b), as follows: individuals trust the authority if they believe that the authority tries to do the right thing by them, cares about their needs and concerns, genuinely considers their views, and provides honest explanations of how and why particular decisions are made.

The therapeutic value of the relational perspective on procedural justice is based on the belief that communicating to individuals that they are valued and respected by society has the potential to affirm individuals' sense of dignity and self-worth (Tyler and Lind 1992). This may be particularly beneficial for individuals whose social status is uncertain, such as victims of crime (Tyler 2004a). According to a group value model (Sunshine and Tyler 2003, Tyler 2004a), when individuals' social status is uncertain, they are especially attentive to fair procedures as a means of affirming their sense of social standing. Indeed, research indicates that victims of crime place a significant value on the way they are treated by the legal system (Des Rosiers, Feldthusen, and Hankivsky 1998, Herman 2005, Jordan 2008, Wemmers, Van der Leeden, and Steensma 1995). Moreover, research suggests that higher perceived procedural justice in the context of the criminal justice system is associated with greater victims' well-being and ability to cope with the crime (Cattaneo and Goodman 2010, Wemmers and Cyr 2005).

However, the extant research on the link between procedural justice and victims' well-being lacks the all important contextual detail that can potentially explain not only that procedural justice is therapeutic, but how and why it is therapeutic for victims of crime. Moreover, the extant research has

focused on victims in the context of the court system. It has been acknowledged that the quality of the victim's first point of contact in the aftermath of the crime is crucial for the victim's recovery from the traumatic experience (Miller 1998). The police often interact with crime victims immediately or shortly after their ordeal. Therefore, the therapeutic value of procedural justice in the context of victim-police interactions has a particular significance.

Against this background, the aim of the present study was to examine the therapeutic value of a relational perspective on procedural justice and generate a theoretical model for the ways in which crime victims' perceptions of procedural justice in contacts with the police can help them recover from the negative psychological consequences of victimisation experiences.

Method

Participants

In-depth, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 110 participants who had reported a crime (personal or property) to the police in the previous 12 months. The age of participants ranged from 18 to 86 years (M = 39.75, SD = 13.7). There were 58 (52.7%) females and 52 (47.3%) males in the sample. Of the 110 participants, 92 (83.7%) were Caucasian, 10 (9.1%) Asian, 3 (2.7%) Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander, 3 (2.7%) Maori, and 2 (1.8%) Black. Eighty four (76.4%) participants were born in Australia, and 26 (23.6%) were born elsewhere. In relation to marital status, 49 (44.6%) participants were never married, 36 (32.7%) were in a married/de facto relationship, and 25 (22.7%) were divorced or separated. Twenty eight (25.5%) participants reported that they completed secondary school, 26 (23.6%) had a

higher education degree, 19 (17.3%) had a post-school qualification without a

higher education degree, 19 (17.3%) were university students, and 18 (16.3%)

did not complete secondary school.

In regard to the reported crime, 62 (56.4%) participants did not know

the offender, and 48 (43.6%) knew the offender. When asked who was the first

person they told about the crime, 49 (44.6%) participants said the police, 25

(22.7%) family, 14 (12.7%) friends, 13 (11.8%) partner, and 9 (8.2) others.

Seventy three (66.4%) participants indicated that it was their own decision to

report the crime, 29 (26.3%) said that someone else convinced them to report

the crime, and for 8 (7.3%), reporting was a joint decision with someone else.

Fifty seven (51.8%) participants reported the crime in person, 49 (44.6%) over

the phone, 1 (0.9%) over the phone and by email, 2 (1.8%) indicated that they

preferred not to answer, and answer was missing for 1 (0.9%) participant. Fifty

(45.5%) participants reported the crime at a police station, 29 (26.3%) at the

scene of the crime, and 31 (28.2%) at other places (from home, work, etc). The

majority ($n = 81$, 73.6%) reported that they did not receive their desired

outcome as a result of the interaction with the police, while 29 (26.4%) said

that they did.

In regard to victimisation experience, 78 (70.91%) participants reported

having been victimised on multiple occasions. In relation to the type of crime

reported in the previous 12 months, 77 (70%) had been victims of violent

crimes, including 43 (39.09%) cases of physical violence, 13 (11.82%) cases

of property damage, 11 (10%) cases of threats of violence, 9 (8.18%) cases of

sexual assault and child sexual abuse, and 1 participant (0.91%) was a relative

of a homicide victim. Non-violent crimes included 20 (18.18%) thefts, 9

(8.18%) burglaries and 4 (3.64%) cases of stalking. Comparisons with an official release of crime statistics (Victoria Police 2010) indicated that the sample was generally representative of the people who reported a crime in Victoria in 2008/2009 in terms of overall gender composition and percentage of males and females who had been victims of crimes against the person, assault offences, and sexual offences.

Procedure

Participants were recruited by advertising the study at police stations and community-based victims' organisations across the State of Victoria, Australia. Posters and postcards were used to attract potential participants, along with simple snowballing technique using participants' recommendations to others they knew had been victims. All interviews were conducted by one of the author (IE) either face-to-face ($n = 77$, 70%) or by telephone ($n = 33$, 30%), and lasted up to one and a half hours. Data collection took place over a 14 month period between February 2009 and April 2010.

Data collection and analysis

In accordance with the guidelines for grounded theory sampling strategies (Creswell 2007), the initial stages of the recruitment process were directed at obtaining a homogenous sample of the participants. For that purpose, the advertising material for the study was placed at the community-based victims' organisations. These organisations run the Victim Assistance and Counselling Program funded by the Department of Justice, and the vast majority of their clients are female victims of intimate partner violence (IPV), domestic violence, and sexual assault. Later, the advertising material was placed at police stations (first in Melbourne, then in regional Victoria) to

obtain a more heterogeneous sample in terms of gender, age, and reported crimes.

The interview schedule used was based on relational criteria of procedural justice employed in previous research in the context of citizen-police interactions (Tyler 2005, Tyler and Huo 2002, Tyler and Wakslak 2004). This was adapted by using open-ended questions, with prompts and follow-up questions to elicit a breadth and depth of response from participants. The interview schedule asked participants to make any comments they wished in relation to the following dimensions of police treatment: politeness, concern for rights, treatment with dignity and respect, neutrality of decision-making, expression and consideration of views, addressing needs and concerns, doing the right thing by the victim, explaining reasons for police actions, and police trustworthiness. Participants were also asked about their feelings during the interaction with the police and what meaning they assigned to different dimensions of procedural justice.

Grounded theory as postulated by Strauss and Corbin (1990) was employed as a means of data analysis. Grounded theory is a qualitative research method aimed at systematic collection and analysis of data and the construction of a theoretical model (Glaser and Strauss 1967). Data analysis began with open coding which involved developing categories and identifying their properties and dimensions by dividing the data into the smallest meaningful segments of information, attaching conceptual labels to these segments, and making comparisons among them. The language used by the participants guided the development of the conceptual labels attached to the categories. Two types of comparisons were employed: constant comparisons –

comparing segments of the data for similarities and differences, and theoretical comparisons – comparing categories in terms of their properties and dimensions (Corbin and Strauss 2008). Open coding was complimented by the researcher's reflective remarks and analytic memos. Reflective remarks included the researcher's personal reactions to participants' responses and identification of issues that required analytic attention. Analytic memos documented the development of the emerging theory.

Open coding was followed by axial coding which involved relating categories to each other. Finally, selective coding was employed, which is 'the process of selecting the core category, systematically relating it to other categories, validating those relationships, and filling in categories that need further refinement and development' (Strauss and Corbin 1990, p. 116). Criteria for a core category included: (a) its central position in relation to other categories, (b) its frequent appearance in the data, (c) its consistency with the data without enforcement, (d) its high level of abstractness, and (e) its increase in explanatory power as other categories were related to it (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Selective coding also involved the generation of propositions – statements in the form of emerging hypotheses interrelating categories of the emerging theory (Miles and Huberman 1994). The degree of support for the propositions was rated as 'strong', 'qualified', and 'contradictory', and after the next stage of data collection, which addressed equivocal data, the propositions were revised.

The following strategies were employed as a means of validating the emerged theory: peer review, checking for the researcher's bias, looking for the negative case – 'case that does not fit the pattern' (Corbin and Strauss

2008, p. 84), and member checking (feedback from the participants).

Participants who during the interview volunteered to be of further assistance

were contacted at the end of the data analysis for verification of the theory

developed by the researcher. Also, after the conclusion of data analysis, the

researcher conducted a further literature search using the core categories of the

generated theory as key words for the purpose of identifying similar concepts

articulated elsewhere in studies of victims of crime in their interactions with

the legal system and the police.

The final product of data analysis included a visual model accompanied

by a narrative story describing the interrelationship of the categories in the

model. The narrative story was structured according to the grounded theory

paradigm model (Strauss and Corbin, 1990) depicted in Figure 1. The

paradigm consists of the following components: 1) *phenomenon* – 'central

idea, event, happening, about which a set of actions/interactions is directed at

managing or handling' (Strauss and Corbin 1990, p. 100), 2) *causal conditions*

– factors that caused the phenomenon, 3) *context* – the properties of the

phenomenon along a dimensional range, 4) *strategies* – actions/interactions

directed at managing or responding to the phenomenon, 5) *intervening*

conditions – general, broad conditions that either facilitate or constrain the

strategies, and 6) *consequences* – outcomes of the strategies.

Results

The grounded theory model reflecting the role of procedural justice in

victims' recovery from the negative psychological consequences of

victimisation experiences is presented in Figure 1.

[INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE]

Causal conditions of phenomena related to victimisation experience

Three types of causal conditions that ultimately led to the development of phenomena related to victimisation experience in the wake of the crime were identified from the data. These conditions were: 1) the offender had had intruded on the victim's personal world, 2) the victim's sense of agency had been taken away, and 3) the victim had become acutely aware that a harmful other was out there.

The negative psychological consequences of all victimisation experiences were rooted in the victim's sense that someone had intruded on their personal world and damaged, destroyed or taken away something that was rightfully theirs. In this respect, participants reported:

> 'It was my home and someone invaded my personal space' (victim in a burglary case).

> 'My rights have been taken away' (victim of sexual assault).

> 'My self-esteem was in tatters' (victim of IPV).

The sense of intrusion was accompanied by the victim's sense of deprived agency: the inability to take action in the wake of the crime. Most frequently, the inability to take action was related to a sense of lost control and not knowing what to do to rectify the situation:

> 'I was in shock right after the crime, what to do?' (victim in a burglary case).

> 'After the incident I didn't have control over the situation' (victim of a hit and run accident).

In cases of IPV, a sense of lost control and not knowing what to do were related to the victim's concern about the impact of any action on children, the rest of the family, and the offender himself or herself. Also, a frequently expressed sentiment was that participants could not take action themselves to

rectify the situation as this would be against the law. For example, an assault victim reported:

> 'I could've hit back but I didn't because that would mean taking law in my hands'.

The third causal condition was related to the victim's awareness that the offender was still out there, might strike again and harm the victim or someone else. In this respect, a victim in a burglary case reported:

> 'After the break-in I couldn't sleep at night, what if they come back? Any noise outside the house made me startle'.

In some cases, the awareness that the offender may harm someone else was the primary reason for reporting a long standing crime. For example, a victim of child sexual abuse eventually reported the offender when she learnt that other girls were in immediate danger.

Phenomena resulting from intrusion, loss of agency, and acute awareness of a harmful other

The three causal conditions – intrusion, loss of agency, and acute awareness of a harmful other – resulted in three core categories of subjective phenomena related to victimisation experiences: 1) feeling violated, 2) experiencing helplessness, and 3) not feeling safe anymore.

Feeling violated was related to the victim's sense that wrong had been done to them and their hope that going to the police could help rectify the situation. In this respect, participants reported:

> 'You feel violated after crime, going to police makes you feel that you take a step to restore your dignity, you are passing off restoration of your dignity to police' (victim of violent robbery).

> 'Although they (*police*) talked politely, at the end they refused to follow up, they said "it is not worth investigating, your phone is insured and you'll get a new one from insurance company"; they should've followed up no matter what as you feel violated when something is stolen from you' (victim in a theft case).

'I feel better for reporting as I've been wronged' (assault victim).

Feeling violated was often accompanied by intense emotions of distress, frustration, self-blame (many participants felt responsible for putting themselves in the situation that led to the crime), and anger. For example, participants reported:

'I was angry about the crime when I came to the police, I felt violated' (victim in a theft case).

'Although it was a small case for them (*police*), it was very upsetting for me' (victim in a break-in car case).

In addition to feeling violated, participants experienced helplessness following victimisation experience. Helplessness was the most prominent phenomenon of victimisation experience in the context of victim-police interactions. The vast majority of the participants explicitly stated that when they came to the police, they felt helpless and that their contact with the police affected this feeling. In this respect, participants reported:

'I felt helpless when I came to the station but when I was with them (*police*), they gave me hope' (victim in a theft case).

'I expected them to do something but they said "he (*offender*) will get just a slap on the wrist", that made me feel more helpless, doubt myself if I did the right thing' (victim who reported a breach of intervention order).

'I was helpless before I came to the police, it was invasion of privacy and I couldn't fix it myself but I passed it over to the police' (victim in a car break-in case).

The third category of the subjective phenomena related to victimisation experience was associated with the victim's acute awareness that they were not safe anymore, which manifested itself in intense feelings of fear, anxiety, and sometimes horror. In this respect, participants reported:

'You get scared right after crime' (assault victim).

'I was scared, tried to stay in control but it was hard' (victim in a burglary case).

'I was terrified, he (*offender*) threatened to kill me (victim of IPV).

'They (*police*) took my statement only a week later, it was awful, I was stressed, for a week I had no protection' (assault victim).

'They (*police*) allayed my fears about identity theft, reassured that I'd done everything to protect myself' (victim in a theft case).

Context pertaining to the phenomena

Four contextual markers of victimisation experience that were related to both the causal conditions – intrusion, loss of agency, and acute awareness of a harmful other – and the resultant phenomena – feeling violated, experiencing helplessness, and not feeling safe anymore – were identified from the data. These contextual markers included: 1) victimisation significance, 2) frequency, 3) extent, and 4) intensity. Victimisation significance ranged from stolen or damaged personal belongings to grievous bodily harm, a destroyed sense of dignity, and the loss of a loved one. The frequency of victimisation experience ranged from a single instance (e.g., of a theft) to years of ongoing victimisation as in cases of stalking, child sexual abuse, and domestic violence. The extent of victimisation experience varied from only the victim being directly affected to inclusion of the victim's children and the rest of the family being directly affected as in cases of IPV. Victimisation experience also varied along the dimensional range of intensity. For example, in cases of stalking, some victims were just followed by their stalkers, other were either threatened by the stalker or as in one case, the stalker threatened to commit suicide in the victim's house. Thus, the phenomena of victimisation experience – feeling violated, experiencing helplessness, and not feeling safe anymore – were influenced by the degree of victimisation significance, frequency, extent, and intensity.

Police response strategies

Two parallel core police response strategies directed at managing the three overarching phenomena of victimisation experience were identified from the data: 1) validation of victimisation experiences and 2) taking action.

Validation of victimisation experiences

The offender's intrusion on the victim's personal world produced an intense feeling of being violated in the victims. This, in turn, led to the need for validation of their victimisation experiences. Many participants explicitly mentioned validation in relation to victimisation experience as the essence of their contact with the police. For example, participants reported:

> 'I felt validated in respect to experiencing assault, although it happened several years ago, it is still difficult, she (*police officer*) was in tuned and encouraging, she had empathy, she said you need to do it for yourself, not for us' (sexual assault victim).

> 'Police didn't validate my concern, which adds to my depression and anxiety and creates social isolation' (victim who reported threats of violence).

The following police response strategies directed at validation of victimisation experience were identified from the data : 1) acknowledgement that wrong happened to the victim, 2) unacceptance of the crime, 3) non-blaming attitudes, 4) relating to the victim as a person, and 5) empathic listening.

The first validation strategy of victimisation experience was police acknowledging that wrong happened to the victim when crime was committed: what happened to the victim is indeed a crime. In this respect, participants reported:

> 'They (*police*) acknowledged wrong happened to me, they did not fob me off, made me feel they were working for me' (victim of violent robbery).

> 'I was giving horrible details, I needed acknowledgement but I was dismissed, no acknowledgment that horrible thing happened to me' (sexual assault victim).

'I felt validated, it was a valid crime and they (*police*) were doing what they could' (victim in a theft case).

'They (*police*) were concerned, didn't show disgust, didn't push me; although he (*offender*) wasn't punished, they spend time investigating and this is important to me, they believed me, acknowledged that crime was committed' (victim of child sexual abuse).

The second validation strategy of victimisation experience was unacceptance of the crime. It was very important to the victims when police officers expressed a clear-cut personal stance of unacceptance of a particular crime: what happened to the victim is not right and should have not happened to them. In this respect, participants reported:

'He (*police officer*) was straightforward, he clearly stated his side that he didn't approve violence, I saw that he understood abuse; he believed in his work, had his own values that domestic violence is wrong and explained it to me why it is not acceptable' (victim of domestic violence).

'They (*police*) sent a clear message that bulling is not right, they said it's not ok to be bullied, it's not ok to harm me and my belongings, it was reassuring' (victim who reported threats of violence with property damage).

'They (*police*) said my rights were tramped, it's important to do something, I felt I mattered' (sexual assault victim).

'They (*police*) said it shouldn't have happened to you, no one should be treated like my boyfriend treated me, I shouldn't have to put up with such behaviour. That made me feel vindicated, they gave me confidence it's not right to be abused, it was good for my self-esteem' (victim of IPV).

The third validation strategy was non-blaming (non-judgemental) attitudes on the part of the police. In this respect, a victim in a break-in car case reported:

'Although it was a small matter, they (*police*) treated it seriously, no judgment, I felt vindicated'.

Non-blaming attitudes were particularly important to the participants who felt responsible either for putting themselves in the situation that led

to the crime or for not alerting the police promptly right after the crime.

In this respect, participants reported:

> 'I felt responsible for the theft but their (*police*) matter of fact attitude made me feel it is not a big deal, it happens often, this reduced my feeling of guilt' (victim in a theft at workplace case).

> 'I was drunk when assault happened but they (*police*) were not judgemental, they were more concerned about my well-being' (assault victim).

> 'I was apprehensive that they'll (*police*) blame me for not locking the door but they didn't, that put me at ease, I am not on my own' (victim in a burglary case).

> 'They (*police*) took it seriously, although it had happened three months ago, no blaming for late reporting, I felt it was not my responsibility, not my fault' (victim in a property damage case).

The fourth validation strategy was police responding to victims as

persons independently of the case itself. In this respect, participants

reported:

> 'Even after they (*police*) returned the stolen stuff, they found time to talk to me and reassured for the future, they talked to me as a person' (victim in a theft case).

> 'They (*police*) should've made me feel like a person but I felt like another statistic' (victim of IPV).

> 'They (*police*) made an appointment with my psychiatrist for me, usually it's a long queue but they helped get it faster, that made me feel involved as a person' (assault victim).

Police responding to the victim as a person was important to victims as

this made them feel valued as individuals. In this respect, participants

reported:

> 'They (*police*) spoke nice to me, didn't say bad about me, that made me feel valuable, what happened to me mattered' (victim in a theft case).

> 'She (*police officer*) called several times to check up on me, I felt valued, reassured, safe to continue to tell my story' (victim of sexual assault).

The fifth validation strategy was empathic listening: letting

victims express emotions and tell their story. As feeling violated was

accompanied by intense negative emotions, many victims had a pressing

need for empathic listening at the time of their interaction with the

police. In this respect, participants reported:

> 'I wanted to tell them (*police*), to get it off my chest, I realised that they can't do much but getting it off my chest brought a sense of relief' (victim in a break-in car case).

> 'I was frustrated at the offender and I was able to vent my frustration, they (*police*) didn't interrupt me and even encourage me to do that, they understood why I felt the way I felt, they had empathy' (victim of a hit and run accident).

> 'They (*police*) gave me time to tell full story, it was like catharsis as I had bottled up, hidden my feelings about the crime, it was like release' (assault victim).

> 'Listening by police is like debriefing, brings relief' (victim who reported threats of violence).

> 'It was good to see that they (*police*) were angry about what'd happened to me' (victim of violent robbery).

The salience of empathic listening for validation of victimisation

experience was further illustrated by the following response from one

participant:

> 'I was in panic but it was all paper work for them (*police*), felt crime was minimised' (victim in a theft case).

It should be noted that validation of victimisation experiences by

police had a special meaning to the participants. Several participants

reported a long standing violent crime (such as sexual assault and child

sexual abuse) at the time when, as a result of their victimisation

experiences, they were seeing a mental health professional. Some of

these participants reported the crime to the police against the advice of

their mental health professionals. When asked why it was so important to

them to tell the police and how reporting to the police is different from

telling the counsellor, a participant who reported sexual assault said:

> 'With counsellor, it is confidential, it's like shrouded in secrecy, shame'.

The salience of this sentiment can be further illustrated by the fact that many participants perceived the way police responded to them as a reflection of community attitudes. In this respect, participants reported:

> 'They (*police*) didn't care, they had more important issues like highway patrol; I felt I am not important, not needed in the community' (victim in a property damage case).

> 'My well-being was important to them (*police*). That made me feel valued as a member of society' (assault victim).

Similarly, when asked what fair treatment by police means to them, participants reported:

> 'I feel recognition of my status and contribution to community' (assault victim).

> 'I feel valued by community as police reflect community attitudes' (victim who reported threats of violence).

Taking action

In addition to validation of victimisation experience, police taking action to rectify the situation was another core police response strategy directed at managing the subjective phenomena of victimisation experience. In a way, taking action by police endorsed a validation of the victimisation experience and therefore, could be considered as a police response strategy directed at managing one of the core phenomena of victimisation experience – feeling violated. For example, an assault victim reported:

> 'I was attacked, wrong has been done to me, you want vindication, I needed to feel they (*police*) will take action'.

In addition, police taking action was directed at addressing the other two core phenomena of victimisation experience – helplessness and not feeling safe anymore.

Taking action by police was considered helpful in alleviating feelings of helplessness; as well as giving victims a sense of restored agency, power, and control. In this respect, participants reported:

> 'I felt like I was gaining back ground, it was like his (*offender's*) face on target now and my finger on the trigger, but before I came to the police, it was reverse' (victim of sexual assault).

> 'I felt more in control as they (*police*) were helping me' (victim in a burglary case).

> 'When you are on your own, no power, police represent authority, you feel the system behind you' (victim of violent robbery).

> 'They (*police*) took charge, gave me indirect power as they have power' (victim in a burglary case).

Taking action by police was also helpful in repairing the lost feeling of safety, giving victims hope that police will keep looking for the offender, and eventually the offender will be stopped. In this respect participants reported:

> 'I was given hope that nothing bad will happen as a result of my credit card being stolen as police were looking for the offender' (victim in a theft case).

> 'They (*police*) were thorough, followed up by mail, sent me a letter with a statement of findings, I felt safe as it showed that they didn't stop, they continued to investigate' (victim in a burglary case).

> 'Before (*interaction with the police*) I felt he'll (*offender*) come again, after reporting, I knew he will be punished' (victim of IPV).

Intervening conditions

Intervening conditions were broad, general conditions that acted to either facilitate or constrain a particular police response strategy in addressing the subjective phenomena of victimisation experience. Intervening conditions included: 1) community attitudes and 2) victim's relationship to the offender. Community attitudes, including family attitudes, particularly influenced the 'acknowledgement that wrong

happened to the victim' police response strategy. This strategy was

particularly important in cases of domestic violence and child sexual

abuse when victims did not get acknowledgement from the community

that what happened to them was wrong. For example, a young woman

with a disability who reported physical abuse by her father, speaking

about the impact of the interaction with the police, said:

> 'For the first time in my life it was admitted that wrong was done to me as neighbours and my family did nothing, that gave me hope'.

Victim's relationship to the offender particularly influenced the 'police

taking action' response strategy. In cases of IPV and more generally

domestic violence, at the initial contact with the police, many

participants were ambiguous about police taking action as they were

concerned about the impact of such action on children, the rest of the

family, and the offender himself. These participants needed guidance

from the police when making decisions about charging the offender. For

example, one participant, who had to call the police when her daughter's

partner became violent toward his in-laws, said:

> 'We were concerned about our daughter if we take steps, we needed reassurance from them (*police*), that we are doing the right thing. They said: "Although it's painful, you need to think of yourself, you are a nice family and you don't have to put up with him as this is not just fight in the family". I felt they were concerned and wanted to help us.'

Consequences of police response strategies

The way police responded to the participants had a powerful

impact on their well-being and ability to cope with the victimisation

experience. When their experiences with the police were negative, many

participants reported that the way police responded to them actually

increased the trauma associated with the crime. In this respect, a victim

of IPV reported:

> 'Treatment by police was as bad as the crime itself, my PTSD is probably the result of the interaction with the police'.

The majority of the participants who had negative experiences with the

police reported that they felt more helpless and powerless after the

interaction than they did before they came to the police. In contrast, for

participants who had positive experiences, the way police responded to

them was beneficial for their psychological well-being and ability to

cope with the crime. In this respect, participants reported:

> 'They (*police*) became my strength' (victim who reported threats to kill).

> 'Police gave me power' (victim of a hit and run accident).

> 'I felt I got cure' (victim in a theft case).

Similarly, when asked what fair treatment by police means to them,

several participants made explicit comments about the connection

between treatment by police and the ability to cope with crime:

> 'Treatment by police affects your feelings, how you cope with crime more than if they arrest the offender' (victim of a hit and run accident).

> 'Fair treatment by police helps with self-esteem and helps to overcome the crime (victim of domestic violence).

> 'Fair treatment by police gives you strength to cope with crime' (victim in a burglary case).

Three core categories reflecting consequences of police response

strategies directed at managing the subjective phenomena of

victimisation experience were identified from the data: 1) getting

closure, 2) empowerment, and 3) feeling safer. Validation of

victimisation experiences and taking action by police to rectify the

situation were instrumental in helping victims to resolve the feeling of

being violated by providing them with a sense of closure. In this respect,

a victim of child abuse reported:

> 'They (*police*) acknowledged it was crime as before everyone including my family ignored that, and although case did not proceed, I got closure because of the way police treated me: my nightmares gone, I have started exercising, eat better, my social relationships improved, I feel happy that I can go on with my life'.

Similarly, describing the effect of the interaction with the police

participants reported:

> 'I got a sense that I am free now to forget' (victim of sexual assault).

> 'I can live, I can put it (c*rime*) behind and move on and enjoy life (victim of a hit and run accident).

> 'I felt better about myself, it (*interaction with the police*) helped me put it (*crime*) behind me' (victim in a burglary case).

> Moreover, validation of victimisation experiences and taking

action by the police were instrumental in resolving their feelings of

helplessness by giving victims a sense of empowerment. In this respect,

participants reported:

> 'It was empowering experience, telling and being heard by police, I felt validated, respected' (sexual assault victim).

> 'They (*police*) did more than just charged my abusive boy-friend, they helped me get my life back on track, they gave me strength to break-up with him, I felt I can have a better life' (victim of IPV).

Similarly to helplessness being the most prominent phenomenon of

victimisation experience in the context of victim-police interactions,

victims' empowerment was the most prominent category in relation to

consequences of police strategies directed at managing the subjective

phenomena of victimisation experience. The salience of procedural

justice in contacts with the police for victims' sense of empowerment is

illustrated by the following quote:

> 'Although the lady from SOCA (*Sexual Offences and Child Abuse*) unit and detective said the same, that case is unlikely to proceed, the difference is that detective said that after listening and consideration, and that made all the difference for the shift in my feelings, from being annoyed when I was with the lady from SOCA unit to empowerment when I was with the detective' (victim of child abuse).

Validation of victimisation experiences and taking action by police to rectify the situation also resulted in victims' feeling safer than they did before their interaction with the police. In this respect, participants reported:

> 'They (*police*) made me think they'll do their best to find them (*offenders*), I felt safer' (victim in a burglary case).

> 'They (*police*) were concerned about my feelings and well-being, that made me feel safe, they care' (assault victim).

Similarly, when asked what fair treatment by police means to them, participants reported:

> 'It makes me strong, safe, I'm part of community' (assault victim).

> 'They'll (*police*) follow up, I will be safe (victim of IPV).

> 'World is secure place, my life is valued' (victim who reported threats to kill).

Discussion

Although a significant amount of literature that examined victims' experiences with the police and legal system is available, the present study is distinctive in its systematic examination of the therapeutic value of procedural justice in the context of victim-police interactions from the perspectives of victims of a range of different crimes. A theoretical model constructed in this study through systematic qualitative data analysis provides a framework for understanding the role of procedural justice in crime victims' recovery from the negative

psychological consequences of victimisation experiences in the context of victim-police interactions.

The present model is congruent with previous research on victims' experiences in the context of the legal system. For example, when Herman (2005) interviewed 25 victims of child abuse, sexual assault, and domestic violence about their understanding of justice, the most prominent meaning assigned to justice by the participants was gaining validation from community, which 'required an acknowledgment of the basic facts of the crime and an acknowledgment of harm' (p. 585). This is reflected in the core police response strategy 'validation of victimisation experiences' and its subcategory 'acknowledgment that wrong happened to the victim' identified in the present study. 'Community denunciation of the crime' (Herman 2005, p. 585) was also important to the victims, and this is similar to 'unacceptance of the crime' identified as a validation strategy in the present study. Similarly, the present study's categories 'acknowledgment that wrong happened to the victim' and 'closure' are reflected in the findings of Des Rosiers *et al.* (1998) study of 24 survivors of sexual assault, the majority of whom were seeking 'public affirmation of the wrong' and 'closure' (p.442) rather than monetary compensation when pursuing a legal compensation. The findings of the present study that participants perceived the way police responded to them as a reflection of community attitudes indicate that validation of victimisation experiences by the police is vitally important to victims of crime as it is seen as an indication of a broader validation from the wider community.

Moreover, the two validation strategies identified in the present study ('relating to victim as a person' and 'empathic listening') are reflected in findings of Jordan (2008) study of 14 female rape victims, who indicated that 'being seen as a person by the police' (p. 712) and 'emotional support' (p. 710) were very important to them in their interactions with the police. The findings of the present study suggest that police relating to victims as persons is important to victims as an indication of their value as individuals and members of the community, which is consistent with the assumptions of a group value model of and relational perspective on procedural justice. Finally, the model generated in the present study is consistent with the concept of victim empowerment – the most prominent concept identified in the literature on the link between victims' experiences with the legal system and their well-being (e.g. Cattaneo and Goodman 2010, Herman 2003, Winick 2000). Although a number of constructs in the present model are reflected in previous research, the unique contribution of the present study is that the model presented links constructs identified in previous research into a meaningful framework for understanding the impact of victim-police interactions on victims' recovery from victimisation experiences.

Overall, the present study suggests that reporting crime to the police may be essential for a long-term recovery from victimisation experience. Several participants who reported a long-standing violent crime had been in a care of a mental health professional for years as a result of victimisation experience, but were able to put the crime behind

them only after reporting the crime and receiving a positive response from the police, even though the police were not able to bring the offender to justice in these cases. Such a powerful impact of the interaction with the police on victims' recovery from victimisation experiences can be attributed to victims' perceptions of fair treatment by the police as an indication of validation of the victimisation experience from the wider community. This has important implications for mental health professionals treating survivors of violent crimes. However, it should be emphasised that reporting crime to the police was only considered to be beneficial when the police response was positive. The implication of this is that in cases of long-standing violent crimes, collaborative efforts between the police and mental health services may be essential. Perhaps, in such cases, a system of referrals to the police from mental health professionals could be arranged. This will be also beneficial for the police service as this will encourage victims to report long-standing crimes.

Future research should continue to explore the therapeutic value of procedural justice for victims of crime employing a wider range of targeted recruitment strategies to capture the full breadth of victim-police experiences. It may be objected that expecting police officers to take on therapeutic functions is unrealistic. However, the results of this study suggest that the police are capable and already taking on such functions, and although therapeutic aspects may not overtly be the primary focus of victim-police interactions, ultimately, justice for victims is not going to be possible without considering the impact of the justice system itself,

including victim-police interactions on victims' psychological well-

being.

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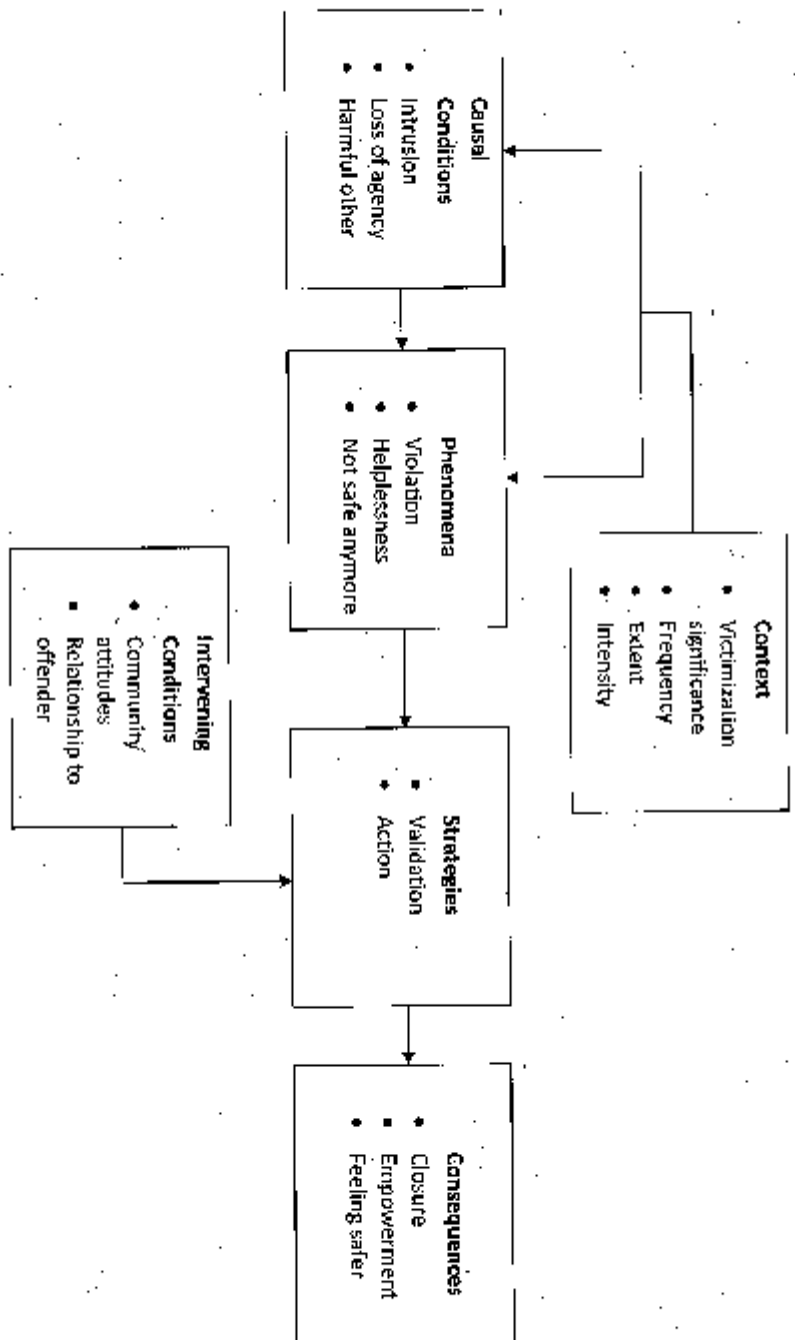
Figure 1 Theoretical Model for the Role of Procedural Justice in Victims' Recovery from Victimization Experiences

CHAPTER FIVE: PROCEDURAL JUSTICE AND VICTIMS' WELL-BEING

5.1 Bridging Commentary

This chapter presents the third paper of the thesis. This paper reports quantitative findings on the link between perceptions of procedural justice based on relational criteria and victims' well-being as a result of the interaction with the police and integrates them with qualitative findings reported in the previous chapter. The paper has a specific focus on contribution to the mixed methods methodology and provides an example of how qualitative and quantitative findings of the same study reported in separate papers can be integrated by employing a triangulation convergence mixed methods design.

The paper was submitted to the international peer reviewed *Journal of Mixed Methods Research* on the 1st of June 2011. The *Journal of Mixed Methods Research* is innovative, interdisciplinary, international journal that focuses on empirical, methodological, and theoretical articles about mixed methods research across the social, behavioural, health, and human sciences.

5.2 Declaration for Thesis Chapter Five

Monash University

Declaration by candidate

In the case of Chapter Five, the nature and extent of my contribution to the work was as follows:

Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution
Literature review, design and management of the study, data collection and analysis, write up of the paper	75%

The following co-authors contributed to the work. Co-authors who are students at Monash University must also indicate the extent of their contribution in percentage terms:

Name	Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%)
Stuart Thomas	Co-investigator, participated in the development of the study design, reviewed the paper.	12.5%
James Ogloff	Co-investigator, participated in the development of the study design, reviewed the paper.	12.5%

Candidate's Signature		Date

Declaration by co-authors

The undersigned hereby certify that:

(1) The above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's contribution to this work, and the nature of the contribution of each of the co-authors;

(2) They meet the criteria for authorship in that they have participated in the conception, execution, or interpretation of at least that part of the publication in their field of expertise;

(3) They take public responsibility for their part of the publication, except for the responsible author who accepts overall responsibility for the publication;

(4) There are no other authors of the publication according to these criteria;

(5) Potential conflicts of interest have been disclosed to (a) granting bodies, (b) the editor or publisher of journals or other publications, and (c) the head of the responsible academic unit; and

(6) The original data are stored at the following location(s) and will be held for at least five years from the date indicated below:

Location(s)	**Centre for Forensic Behavioural Science, Monash University** **505 Hoddle St, Clifton Hill, VIC 3068**

[Please note that the location(s) must be institutional in nature, and should be indicated here as a department, centre or institute, with specific campus identification where relevant.]

		Date
Signature 1		
Signature 2		

5.3 Procedural Justice in Victim-Police Interactions and Victims' Well-Being: A Mixed Methods Study

Irina Elliott[1]

Stuart DM Thomas[1 2]*

James RP Ogloff[1 2]

[1]Centre for Forensic Behavioural Science, School of Psychology and Psychiatry, Monash University, Melbourne, Australia

[2] Victorian Institute of Forensic Mental Health, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

*Corresponding author. Email: Stuart.Thomas@monash.edu

Postal address:
Centre for Forensic Behavioural Science
Monash University
 505 Hoddle Street
Clifton Hill, VIC 3068
AUSTRALIA
Tel: +61 3 9947 2605
Fax: +61 3 9947 2650

Abstract

Using a triangulation convergence mixed methods design this study examined the impact of procedural justice (fair treatment) in victim-police interactions on victims' well-being. In depth-interviews were conducted with 110 people who had reported a personal or property crime to the police in the previous year. The results indicated that fair treatment by the police can contribute to victims' sense of empowerment by making them feel valued and validated by the wider community in the wake of their experiences as crime victims, which is consistent with a relational perspective on procedural justice (Tyler & Lind, 1992). The results also suggest the primary impact of the process (procedural justice) over the outcome on victims' sense of empowerment and well-being as a result of the interaction with the police.

Key words: procedural justice, victim-police interactions, victims' well-being, mixed methods, empowerment

Procedural Justice in Victim-Police Interactions and Victims' Well-Being:

A Mixed Methods Study

Introduction

The negative psychological consequences of victimization experiences are well-documented. In this respect, it has been acknowledged that insensitivity of the criminal justice system, including the police to the victim's plight can contribute to or exacerbate their suffering. Nevertheless, it has also been recognized that the criminal justice system has the potential to promote the well-being of victims of crime, with procedural justice (fair treatment by authorities) being one of the key factors in this process (Herman, 2003). This view is consistent with the principles of *therapeutic jurisprudence* – an interdisciplinary approach that is concerned with the effect of the law on the well-being of individuals affected by legal decisions and processes (Wexler, 1990). The primary goal of therapeutic jurisprudence is to determine ways in which the emotional and psychological well-being of the people affected by the law, legal processes, and behavior of legal actors (such as judges and police officers) can be enhanced (Winick & Wexler, 2003).

This paper reports on a study that examined the therapeutic value of procedural justice in victim-police interactions. A triangulation mixed methods design was used, a design which has two distinct strands, one qualitative and one quantitative, and involves merging qualitative and quantitative data to address the same topic (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). In this study, during interviews, Likert type rating scales were used to measure the relationship between perceptions of procedural justice and victims' well-being as a result of the interaction with the police. At the same time, the items of the rating scales

were used as open-ended questions to obtain qualitative data and generate a

theoretical model for the ways in which procedural justice in contacts with the

police can help victims recover from the negative psychological consequences

of victimization experience. The paper is focused on the quantitative strand of

the study as the qualitative strand of the study is presented elsewhere (Elliott,

Thomas, & Ogloff[2], 2011).

First, a conceptual framework for the study and an overview of the

design and procedures will be presented. This will be followed by

characteristics of the sample and description of the quantitative strand data

collection and analyses. Finally, the quantitative strand findings will be

presented and integrated with the qualitative strand findings.

Conceptual Framework

Victimization experience has a significant detrimental impact on the

person's well-being. It has been well documented that many victims of violent

crimes are at risk of developing a posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and

other psychological problems such as depression, anxiety, substance abuse,

low self-esteem, guilt and shame (Carlson & Dutton, 2003). Even when a

person is the victim of a crime that does not constitute an explicit traumatic

event, such as a theft or household burglary, the negative psychological effects

on the person's well-being can be significant; including doubts about the

benevolence of the world and the trustworthiness of people, depression,

anxiety, and anger (Carlson & Dutton, 2003). It has been acknowledged that

the quality of the victim's first point of contact in the aftermath of the crime

can be crucial for the victim's recovery from the traumatic experience (Miller,

1998). The police often interact with crime victims immediately or shortly

after their ordeal. Therefore, the way police respond to victims can have a significant impact on victims' ability to cope with and recover from the negative psychological consequences of victimization experience. In this respect, the concept of procedural justice becomes relevant.

The concept of procedural justice (procedural fairness and fair treatment are other labels that have been used elsewhere) was introduced into socio-legal research by Thibaut and Walker (1975). They used the concept of *procedural justice* to describe the fairness of the process by which decisions are made by authorities as opposed to *distributive justice* which is the fairness of the decision outcomes. Since then, an impressive body of research in social, legal, and organisational settings has demonstrated that people place a significant value on the fairness of the process by which outcomes are achieved (MacCoun, 2005). Two explanations have been offered for this phenomenon: an instrumental perspective and a non-instrumental perspective.

According to the instrumental perspective, people value fair procedures as a means of achieving fair outcomes (Leventhal, 1976; Thibaut &Walker, 1975). For example, allowing individuals the opportunity to express their point of view in a decision-making process increases the perceived fairness of the decision-making procedures as it allows individuals to have some degree of influence or indirect control over the decision itself (Lind &Tyler, 1988). This perspective has its therapeutic merits when applied to experiences of crime victims in their interactions with law enforcement. For example, in cases of domestic violence, research suggests that following the victim's wishes in relation to whether the police arrest the offender or not (which can be considered a form of victim's control over the police decision) is a powerful

predictor of victims' satisfaction with the police (e.g., Buzawa, Austin, Bannon, & Jackson, 1992). In turn, a number of studies suggest that victims' satisfaction with the legal system is positively associated with their well-being (e.g., Campbell, Wasco, Ahrens, Sefl, & Barnes, 2001; Dobash, Dobash, Cavanaugh, & Lewis, 2000; Wemmers & Cyr, 2005).

Although the instrumental perspective on procedural justice has its therapeutic value when applied to victims of crime, a non-instrumental perspective on procedural justice offered by Tyler and Lind, specifically a group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988), is the most relevant to the link between procedural justice and victims' well-being. From a group value model perspective, procedures matter as they convey important information to individuals about their value and status in society. According to Tyler and Lind (1992), individuals' value and status in society are reflected in the quality of their relationship with authorities. The authors extended their model of procedural justice beyond the decision-making process to account for public support for authorities in general. In doing so, they argue that public support for authorities is determined by perceptions of procedural justice based on four *relational* criteria: a) *quality of interpersonal treatment* (treatment with dignity and respect, politeness and showing concern for individuals' rights), b) *participation* (expression of views and involvement in the decision-making process), c) *neutrality* (unbiased decision-making), and d) *trustworthiness of authorities* (Tyler, 2006).The latter is seen as being the most crucial in the evaluating procedural fairness (Tyler, 2004b) in that individuals trust the authority if they believe that the authority tries to do the right thing by them,

cares about their needs and concerns, genuinely considers their views, and provides honest explanations of how and why particular decisions are made.

The therapeutic value of a relational perspective on procedural justice is based on the belief that communicating to individuals that they are valued and respected by society has the potential to affirm individuals' sense of dignity and self-worth (Tyler & Lind, 1992). This may be particularly beneficial for individuals whose social status is uncertain, such as victims of crime (Tyler, 2004a). According to a group value model (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003; Tyler, 2004a), when individuals' social status is uncertain, they are especially attentive to fair procedures as a means of affirming their sense of social standing. Indeed, research indicates that victims of crime place a significant value on the way they are treated by the legal system (Cattaneo & Goodman, 2010; Des Rosiers, Feldthusen, & Hankivsky, 1998; Herman, 2005; Jordan, 2008; Wemmers, Van der Leeden, & Steensma, 1995).

However, current research findings in relation to the impact of victims' experiences with the legal system on victims' psychological well-being are inconsistent. On one hand, a number of studies have demonstrated that the way victims are treated by the legal system affects victims' well-being. For example, some studies of rape victims documented that negative perceptions of treatment by the legal system were positively associated with the victims' self-reported symptoms of PTSD (e.g., Campbell, et al., 1999; Campbell et al., 2001). On the other hand, in other studies (e.g., Frazier & Haney, 1996), the association between self-reported symptoms of PTSD and rape victims' perceptions of their treatment by the legal system was found to be statistically non-significant. At the same time, victims' satisfaction with the legal system is

related to their sense of empowerment by and participation in the system (e.g., Erez, 1999; Kilpatrick, Beatty, & Howley, 1998), even when victims do not receive what they consider to be a desired outcome (Ptacek, 1999). Moreover, the existing research on the link between procedural justice and victims' well-being lacks the all important contextual detail that can potentially explain not only that procedural justice is therapeutic, but how and why it is therapeutic for victims of crime.

To address these gaps a mixed methods approach is appropriate as it allows for the examination of both qualitative and quantitative aspects of the phenomenon in order to come to a valid conclusion about the nature and impact of procedural justice on victims' well-being. Against this background, the aim of this mixed methods study was to examine the therapeutic value of a relational perspective on procedural justice in victim-police interactions. As required by the mixed methods methodology, the study had quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods research questions. The quantitative strand research hypothesis was: Higher perceived procedural justice will be associated with greater victims' well-being as a result of the interaction with the police. The qualitative strand research question was: What is the role of procedural justice in victims' recovery from the negative psychological consequences of victimization experience? The mixed methods research question was: How quantitative and qualitative results provide support for the therapeutic value of a relational perspective on procedural justice for victims of crime in the wake of victimization experience?

Methods

Design

　　To answer the mixed methods research question in relation to the therapeutic value of procedural justice in victim-police interactions a triangulation convergence design was employed (See Figure 1). A triangulation convergence design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007) involves converging qualitative and quantitative findings to provide valid conclusions about the phenomenon under investigation. The triangulation convergence design guided conceptualization, experiential (methodological and analytical), and inferential stages of the study. In addition, elements of a conversion mixed design (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009) were incorporated into the experiential analytical stage of the study for the quantitative strand. A conversion mixed methods design involves transformation of one type of data into the other (qualitization or quantification of the data) and analysis of the transformed data using both qualitative and quantitative methods. To collect data to test the quantitative strand research hypothesis in relation to the impact of perceptions of procedural justice on victims' well-being Likert type rating scales items were used. To collect data to answer the qualitative strand research question in relation to the role of procedural justice in victims' recovery from victimization experience the rating scales items were used as open-ended questions with prompts and follow-up questions to elicit a breadth and depth of response from participants. The reason for collecting both qualitative and quantitative data was to corroborate quantitative results of the study with the theoretical model generated through qualitative data. Grounded theory as postulated by Strauss and Corbin (1990) was employed as a means of data

analysis for the qualitative strand. A detailed description of the qualitative strand of this study can be found elsewhere (Elliott et al.[2], 2011). Hence, only data collection and analysis for and findings of the quantitative strand of the study are presented below.

[*INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE*]

Overview of the Procedures

Participants were recruited by advertising the study at police stations and community-based victims' organisations in Victoria. Posters and postcards were used to attract potential participants, along with simple snowballing technique using participants' recommendations to others they knew had been victims. All interviews were conducted by the author either face-to-face ($n =$ 77, 70%) or by telephone ($n =$ 33, 30%), and lasted up to one and a half hours. Data collection took place over a 14 month period between February 2009 and April 2010.

Sampling strategies were guided by the grounded theory method but at the same time were directed at obtaining a large representative sample. In accordance with the guidelines for grounded theory sampling strategies (Creswell, 2007), initial stages of the recruitment process were directed at obtaining a homogenous sample of the participants. For that purpose, the advertising material for the study was placed at the community-based victims' organisations. These organisations run Victim Assistance and Counselling Program funded by the Department of Justice, and the vast majority of their clients are female victims of intimate partner violence, domestic violence, and sexual assault. Later, the advertising material was placed at police stations (first in Melbourne, then in regional Victoria) to obtain a more heterogeneous

and representative sample in terms of gender, age, and reported crimes. Data

collection continued after saturation of the categories was achieved to obtain a

large representative sample as required by quantitative methods.

Participants

In-depth, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 110

participants who had reported a crime (personal or property) to the police in

the previous 12 months. The age of participants ranged from 18 to 86 years (M

$= 39.75$, $SD = 13.7$). There were 58 (52.7%) females and 52 (47.3%) males in

the sample. Of the 110 participants, 92 (83.7%) were Caucasian, 10 (9.1%)

Asian, 3 (2.7%) Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander, 3 (2.7%) Maori, and 2

(1.8%) Black. Eighty four (76.4%) participants were born in Australia, and 26

(23.6%) were born in a country other than Australia. In relation to marital

status, 49 (44.6%) participants were never married, 36 (32.7%) were in a

married/de facto relationship, and 25 (22.7%) were divorced or separated. In

relation to the highest level of education achieved, 28 (25.5%) participants

reported that they completed secondary school, 26 (23.6%) had a higher

education degree, 19 (17.3%) had a post-school qualification without a higher

education degree, 19 (17.3%) were university students, and 18 (16.3%) did not

complete secondary school.

In regard to the reported crime, 62 (56.4%) participants did not know

the offender, and 48 (43.6%) knew the offender. When asked who was the first

person they told about the crime, 49 (44.6%) participants said the police, 25

(22.7%) family, 14 (12.7%) friends, 13 (11.8%) partner, and 9 (8.2) others.

Seventy three (66.4%) participants indicated that it was their own decision to

report the crime, 29 (26.3%) said that someone else convinced them to report

the crime, and for 8 (7.3%), reporting was a joint decision with someone else. Fifty seven (51.8%) participants reported the crime in person, 49 (44.6%) over the phone, 1 (0.9%) over the phone and by email, 2 (1.8%) indicated that they preferred not to answer, and answer was missing for 1 (0.9%) participant. Fifty (45.5%) participants reported the crime at a police station, 29 (26.3%) at the scene of the crime, and 31 (28.2%) at other places (from home, work, etc). The vast majority of the participants ($n = 81$, 73.6%) reported that they did not receive their desired outcome as a result of the interaction with the police, while 29 (26.4%) said that they did.

In regard to victimization experience, 78 (70.91%) participants reported having been victimized on multiple occasions. In relation to the type of crime reported in the previous 12 months, 77 (70%) had been victims of violent crimes, including 43 (39.09%) cases of physical violence, 13 (11.82%) cases of property damage, 11 (10%) cases of threats of violence, 9 (8.18%) cases of sexual assault and child sexual abuse, and 1participant (0.91%) was a relative of a homicide victim. Non-violent crimes included 20 (18.18%) thefts, 9 (8.18%) burglaries and 4 (3.64%) cases of stalking. Comparisons with an official release of crime statistics (Victoria Police, 2010) indicated that the sample was generally representative of the people who reported a crime in Victoria in 2008/2009 in terms of overall gender composition and percentage of males and females who had been victims of crimes against the person, assault offences, and sexual offences.

Quantitative Strand Data Collection and Analyses

Quantitative Measures

Procedural Justice Scale (PJS) was developed in this study based on

relational criteria of procedural justice employed in previous research in the

context of citizen-police interactions (Tyler, 2005; Tyler & Huo, 2002; Tyler

& Wakslak, 2004). Participants' open-ended responses in this study to three

items used in previous research to measure procedural justice in citizen-police

interactions indicated that these items had ambiguous validity for victims of

crime. Therefore, these items were not included in the final version of PJS

(Elliott, Thomas, & Ogloff[1], in press) which consisted of 11 items reflecting

the following dimensions of police treatment: politeness, concern for rights,

treatment with dignity and respect, neutrality of decision-making, expression

and consideration of views, addressing needs and concerns, doing the right

thing by the victim, explaining reasons for police actions, and police

trustworthiness. An example of an item is 'Police treated me with dignity and

respect'. The items are in a 7-point Likert type response format. Items are

scored in a positive direction with higher scores indicating higher perceived

procedural justice. The scale demonstrated a high level of internal consistency

(Cronbach's alpha = .96) and a high mean inter-item correlation (.70).

Subjective Effects scale (Orth, 2002), victims' *feelings of powerlessness*

before the interaction and *feelings of powerlessness after the interaction* with

the police were used to assess victims' well-being. These measures were

chosen because of their relevance to victims' well-being in the wake of

victimization experience. The Subjective Effects scale comprises five items

that assess the impact of victim-police interactions on victims' ability to cope

with the crime, self-esteem, optimism for the future, trust in the institution of policing, and faith in a just world. As previous research used the scale to assess the impact of the legal system, the wording of the items was slightly changed to reflect the impact of victim-police interactions specifically. The items are in a 7-point Likert type response format. Items are scored in a positive direction with higher scores indicating a more positive impact of the interaction on victims' well-being. Internal consistency of the scale was reported as .87 (Orth, 2002). In the present study, the scale demonstrated a high level of internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = .95) and a high mean inter-item correlation (.78). Victims' feelings of powerlessness before the interaction with the police was measured with the item: 'To what extent did you feel powerless before the interaction with the police?' The item asked for ratings on a 7-point Likert type response format, with higher ratings indicating a greater feeling of powerlessness. Victims' feelings of powerlessness after the interaction with the police was measured with the item: 'To what extent did you feel powerless after the interaction with the police?' The item asked for ratings on a 7-point Likert type response format, with higher ratings indicating a greater feeling of powerlessness.

The Justice Sensitivity Scale (Schmitt, Gollwitzer, Maes, & Arbach, 2005) measures how sensitively individuals react to unfair events in the role of a victim (a victim role is distinguished from roles of perpetrator and an observer of an unfair event). According to Schmitt et al., victim sensitivity to justice is a personality trait and is different from perpetrator and observer sensitivity to justice in that victim sensitivity to justice is centred on self-protective concerns (alertness to deprivation and willingness to engage in

strategies to prevent disadvantage to oneself). The scale consists of 10 items in a 6-point Likert type response format with higher scores indicating higher sensitivity to justice. Schmitt et al. examined psychometric properties of the scale. Convergent validity of the scale was demonstrated by its significant correlations with personality traits constructs that reflect self-related concerns: paranoia ($r = .32$), vengeance ($r = .29$), jealousy ($r = .58$), suspiciousness ($r = .13$), and interpersonal trust ($r = -.20$). There was also a significant correlation of the scale with Neuroticism ($r = .36$) and Agreeableness ($r = -.19$) factors of Big Five Personality Factors. Discriminant validity was demonstrated by a higher correlation of the scale with belief in an unjust world ($r = .37$) as opposed to belief in a just world ($r = .06$). Internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of the scale was reported as .89 and mean inter-item correlation was reported as .44. In the present study, Cronbach's alpha was .87 and mean inter-item correlation was .40.

Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale Form C (Reynolds, 1982) consists of 13 true-false items assessing social desirability bias (*faking good*) when responding to self-report measures. Participants' *mood* at the time of the interview was measured with the item 'On a scale from 1 to 10, where 1 is extremely sad and 10 is extremely happy, how are you feeling at the moment?'

Quantitative Analyses

Preliminary analyses were conducted to obtain descriptive statistics on research variables and check if demographic variables, individual sensitivity to justice, social desirability, participants' mood at the time of the interview, victims' feelings of powerlessness before the interaction with the police, and a desired outcome (if victims received a desired outcome or not) influenced

scores on the variables of interest. To test the study hypothesis correlations were performed between perceptions of procedural justice, victims' feelings of powerlessness after the interaction with the police, and subjective effects. As there was no linear relationship between victims' feelings of powerlessness after the interaction with the police and either perceptions of procedural justice or subjective effects, some of the data were transformed to examine if there were any group differences in scores on the variables of interest. The group differences were analyzed with one-way ANOVAs. As a result, potential predictors of subjective effects were identified and multiple regression analysis was considered. Finally, binary logistic regression was conducted to examine the impact of procedural justice and desired outcome on one of the variables obtained through the data transformation.

Prior to the multiple regression analysis, diagnostic procedures were performed to ensure there is no violation of assumptions appropriate for multiple regression models. Examination of bivariate correlations and reciprocal indicators of multicollinearity (tolerance and VIF statistics) indicated no highly correlated predictors. The Durbin-Watson tests indicated no violation of the independence of errors (residual terms) assumption. Cook's distances were less than a value of 1 and Mahalanobis distances were less than a value of 15, indicating no cases were having an overly influential effect on the regression model. Histograms of standardized residuals and plots of observed versus expected residuals for the dependent variable (subjective effects) indicated that the normality of errors assumption was met. In addition, scatterplots of standardized residuals against standardized predicted values indicated no violation of the assumption of homoscedasticity (equal variance)

of residuals. Partial regression plots checking for ouliers indicated that no unusual values were affecting the results.

Results

Quantitative Strand Preliminary Analyses

Descriptive results are presented in Table 1. In relation to demographic variables, the results indicated that age, gender, country of birth, ethnicity, marital status, education, type of crime reported, how (in person or by telephone) and where (police station, scene of incident, or other) the crime was reported, if the offender was known to the victim or not had no significant effect on the research variables. The results also indicated that individual sensitivity to justice, social desirability, victims' feelings of powerlessness before the interaction with the police, and participants' mood at the time of the interview had no significant effect on the variables of interest.

[INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE]

However, there were significant differences in scores on the variables of interest with medium effect sizes between victims who received a desired outcome from the police and victims who did not receive a desired outcome. In this respect, independent t-tests revealed that participants who received a desired outcome had significantly: (a) higher scores on procedural justice ($M = 5.51$, $SD = 1.58$) than participants who did not received a desired outcome ($M = 4.59$, $SD = 1.76$), $t(108) = -2.46$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.47$; (b) higher scores on subjective effects ($M = 5.12$, $SD = 1.54$) than participants who did not receive a desired outcome ($M = 4$, $SD = 1.71$), $t(108) = -3.1$, $p < .01$, $d = 0.60$; and (c) lower scores on powerlessness after the interaction ($M = 2.93$, $SD = 2.14$) than

participants who did not receive a desired outcome ($M = 4.35$, $SD = 2.16$),

$t(108) = 3.03$, $p < .01$, $d = 0.58$.

Quantitative Strand Main Analyses

The results indicated a significant positive correlation ($p < .001$) with a

large effect size between perceptions of procedural justice and subjective

effects as a results of the interaction with the police ($r = .90$, $r^2 = 80.82\%$).

Higher perceptions of procedural justice were associated with a more positive

impact of the interaction on victims' well-being.

Examination of scatter plots revealed that there was no linear

relationship between procedural justice/ powerlessness after the interaction and

powerlessness after the interaction/subjective effects. Further analyses

provided an explanation for the absence of a linear relationship between these

variables. Comparisons of ratings of powerlessness before and after the

interaction for each participant revealed that for some participants, ratings of

powerlessness before the interaction were higher than ratings of powerlessness

after the interaction; for other participants, ratings of powerlessness before the

interaction were lower than ratings of powerlessness after the interaction; and

at the same time, for some participants, ratings of powerlessness before the

interaction were the same as ratings of powerlessness after the interaction.

Based on these comparisons, qualitative labels were assigned to data obtained

through quantitative analysis: (1) empowerment (powerlessness decreased), (2)

powerlessness increased, and (3) no shift in powerlessness. In this way,

quantitative data was transformed into qualitative data as the assigned labels

can be viewed as patterns similar to themes (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

This qualitized data, in turn, was transformed into quantitative data: each label

was assigned a numerical code and as a result, a new quantitative variable

(*power groups*) with three levels (three groups of participants) was created.

This new variable was used as an independent variable in two one-way

ANOVAs analyses with subjective effects and procedural justice as dependent

variables, respectively, to see if there are differences between the three groups

on these variables.

The results of one-way independent measures ANOVAs indicated that

power groups significantly influenced procedural justice, $F(2,107) = 29.05$, $p <$

.001, $\eta^2 = 0.35$ and subjective effects, $F(2,107) = 38.66$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = 0.42$.

Subsequent post hoc tests (Tukey's HSD) revealed that participants for whom

the interaction with the police was empowering had higher scores on

procedural justice ($M = 5.76$, $SD = 2.8$) than participants who either became

more powerless ($M = 3.45$, $SD = 2.47$) or did not experience a shift in this

feeling ($M = 4.42$, $SD = 2.54$). Similarly, participants for whom the interaction

with the police was empowering had higher scores on subjective effects ($M =$

5.33, $SD = 1.22$) than participants who either became more powerless ($M =$

2.9, $SD = 1.4$) or did not experience a shift in this feeling ($M = 3.61$, $SD =$

1.53). However, there was no significant difference both in scores on

procedural justice and subjective effects between participants who became

more powerless and participants who did not experience a shift in

powerlessness as a result of the interaction with the police (See Figure 2 in

relation to subjective effects).

[INSERT FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE]

As the results indicated that there was a significant difference in scores

on subjective effects between participants for whom the interaction with the

police was empowering and the other two groups of the participants, the power groups variable was recorded into a new, dichotomous variable *empowerment* (empowerment/no empowerment) to examine if this new variable could be used as a predictor of subjective effects. As preliminary analyses indicated that the variables of interest were influenced by desired outcome (if participants received a desired outcome or not), a hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to examine whether procedural justice and empowerment can predict subjective effects after desired outcome was controlled for. As seen in Table 2, desired outcome significantly predicted subjective effects, accounting for 8.2% (adjusted $R^2 = .07$) of the variability. Adding procedural justice and empowerment significantly improved the prediction of subjective effects, accounting for an additional 75.5% of the variability after desired outcome was accounted for, $\Delta F(2,106) = 244.96$, $p < .001$. Thus, together desired outcome, procedural justice, and empowerment explained 83.7% of the variability in subjective effects (adjusted $R^2 = .83$). Moreover, as indicated above, when used on its own, desired outcome was a significant predictor of subjective effects. However, when desired outcome, procedural justice, and empowerment were used together as predictors, only procedural justice and empowerment were significant predictors of subjective effects. Procedural justice was the strongest predictor, accounting for 42.77% of the variability. Empowerment predicted subjective effects even after desired outcome and procedural justice were controlled for, and accounted for 2.25% of the variability.

[INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE]

As empowerment was identified as a predictor of victims' well-being as a result of the interaction with the police, binary logistic regression was

performed to examine if procedural justice and desired outcome had any impact on the likelihood that participants would feel empowered by the interaction. The overall model was statistically significant, $\chi^2(2,110) = 37.07$, $p < .001$, indicating that the model was able to distinguish between participants who felt and did not feel empowered by the interaction. The overall model explained between 28.6% (Cox and Snell R square) and 38.3% (Nagelkerke R square) of the variance. Of the two predictor variables, only procedural justice made a unique contribution to the model, recording an odds ratio (OR) of 1.07 (95% $CI = 1.04 - 1.1$, $p < .05$). This indicates that for every additional higher rating of procedural justice participants were 1.07 times more likely to feel empowered by the interaction with the police.

Discussion

The quantitative hypothesis of the study that higher perceived procedural justice would be associated with greater victims' well-being as a result of the interaction with the police was supported. This finding is consistent with previous research in the context of the criminal justice system (Cattaneo & Goodman, 2010; Wemmers & Cyr, 2005). Moreover, quantitative results indicated that although there were differences in scores on procedural justice, powerlessness after the interaction, and subjective effects as a function of desired outcome, when desired outcome was controlled for, only procedural justice and empowerment significantly predicted subjective effects as a result of the interaction with the police: victims' ability to cope with the crime, self-esteem, optimism for the future, trust in the institution of policing, and faith in a just world. Similarly, perceptions of procedural justice predicted the likelihood that victims would feel empowered by the interaction with the

police, whereas desired outcome did not have a significant impact on this variable. This suggests the primary impact of the process (procedural justice) over the outcome on victims' empowerment and well-being as a result of the interaction with the police.

The quantitative findings of this study were corroborated by the theoretical model generated through qualitative data. The generated model indicated that validation of victimization experiences and taking action by the police may help victims' recover from the negative psychological consequences of victimization experience by giving them a sense of closure and empowerment, and making them feel safer. Moreover, participants explicitly stated that treatment by police affected their self-esteem and ability to cope with the crime more than arrest of the offender. Empowerment was the most prominent concept in the generated qualitative model in relation to the impact of fair treatment by police on victims' recovery from the negative psychological consequences of victimization experience. Similarly, quantitative results indicated that victims for whom the interaction with the police was empowering had higher scores on procedural justice and subjective effects than victims who either became more powerless or did not experience a shift in this feeling.

Quantitative results also indicated that there was no relationship between subjective effects and victims' feelings of powerlessness either before or after the interaction with the police. The results of data transformation for the quantitative strand in conjunction with the generated qualitative model suggest that what affects victims' well-being as a result of the interaction with the police is not the extent of feeling powerless per se but if victims gained a

sense of empowerment as a result of the interaction or not. This is consistent with victims' empowerment being the most prominent concept in the literature on the link between victims' experiences with the justice system and their well-being (e.g., Cattaneo & Goodman, 2010; Herman, 2003; Winick, 2000).

The research questions, data analysis for this mixed methods study, and integration of the findings were guided by a relational perspective on procedural justice (Tyler & Lind, 1992) and therapeutic jurisprudence approach (Wexler, 1990). A major advantage of employing mixed methods in the same study is that allows the researcher to answer simultaneously confirmatory and explanatory questions (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). In addition to confirmation of the quantitative hypothesis of the study, the qualitative exploratory question in this study provided information in relation to the validity of the assumptions of a relational perspective on procedural justice. The qualitative model generated by the data indicated that fair treatment by the police can contribute to victims' empowerment by giving victims a sense of being valued and validated by the community in the wake of their experiences as crime victims, which is consistent with a relational perspective on procedural justice (Tyler & Lind, 1992).

Thus, the contribution of and the advantage of using mixed methods in this study are that this study provided not only empirical support for the concept of victims' empowerment both through qualitative and quantitative findings, but also provided an insight into why empowerment could be therapeutic for victims of crime. Although the concept of victims' empowerment is prominent in the literature, this concept has been used by scholars and researchers rather than victims themselves. In this study,

participants explicitly mentioned empowerment as the essence of their contact with the police. For example, a sexual assault victim reported: 'It was empowering experience, telling and being heard by police, I felt validated, respected.' Moreover, previous research measured victims' empowerment implicitly, as a combination of procedural justice and outcome measures (e.g., 'I feel the court treated me fairly and listens to my side of the story' and 'I got what I hoped for from pursuing a criminal case'; Cattaneo & Goodman, 2010, p. 491). In this study, empowerment was measured explicitly and as a separate concept, and then used both as a criterion variable and as a predictor of victims' well-being as a result of the interaction with the police. Finally, the results of this study indicate that the therapeutic value of victims' empowerment in contacts with the police is associated with victims' sense of being valued and validated by the wider community. Therefore, the quantitative and qualitative findings of this study suggest that the therapeutic value of a relational perspective on procedural justice is associated with victims' feelings of being valued and validated by the wider community in the wake of their experiences as crime victims, which gives victims a sense of empowerment.

Moreover, the study has made a unique contribution to the mixed methods methodology. Firstly, it provided a rare example of converging quantitative results with grounded theory. In addition, this study incorporated quantitative strand data transformation into a triangulation convergence design. Also, this study provided a rare example of qualitization of data obtained through quantitative analysis. Moreover, qualitization of quantitative data was performed by assigning different qualitative labels to the same data obtained

through quantitative analysis and underwent three steps. In step 1, three qualitative labels (empowerment, powerlessness increased, and no shift in powerlessness) were assigned to the data obtained through quantitative analysis (assessment of paired differences in ratings of powerlessness before and after the interaction with the police). In step 2, this qualitized data was, in turn, quantified (numerical codes were assigned to the three labels) and used in statistical analyses (ANOVAs). In step 3 (step 3 is denoted in Figure 1 by the broken arrow), assigning new qualitative labels (empowerment/no empowerment) to the data obtained through quantitative analysis in step 1 was informed by the quantitative analyses in step 2. Thus, this study provided an example of multiple qualitization of data obtained through and informed by quantitative analyses. Finally, this study provided an example of how using mixed methods can both confirm and extend a theory. In this study, qualitative strand findings provided support for the assumptions of a relational perspective on procedural justice. At the same time, both qualitative and quantitative findings provided valuable insights into the therapeutic value of a relational perspective on procedural justice for victims of crime in the wake of victimization experience.

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Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations of Research Variables

Variable	Mean	SD
Procedural justice	4.83	1.76
Powerlessness before interaction	4.87	1.7
Powerlessness after interaction	3.97	2.2
Subjective effects	4.3	1.73
Sensitivity to justice	3.42	1.08
Mood	6.47	2.02

Note. Procedural justice, powerlessness before and after the interaction, and subjective effects were measured on a 7-point scale, sensitivity to justice was measured on a 6-point scale, and mood was measured on a 10-point scale, with higher scores indicating higher procedural justice, sensitivity to justice, mood, more positive subjective effects, and a greater feeling of powerlessness.

Table 2

Hierarchical Regression for the Predictors of Subjective Effects

Predictor variable	R	$R^2\Delta$	Adjusted R^2	β	$F\Delta$	p
Step 1	.286	.082	.073		9.600	.002
Desired outcome*				.286		.002
Step 2	.915	.755	.832		244.960	.000
Desired outcome				.068		.098
Procedural justice				.786		.000
Empowerment**				.180		.000

Note.* 0 = not received, 1 = received
** 0 = no empowerment, 1 = empowerment

Figure 1 Triangulation Convergence Design with Data Transformation Incorporated into Quantitative Strand
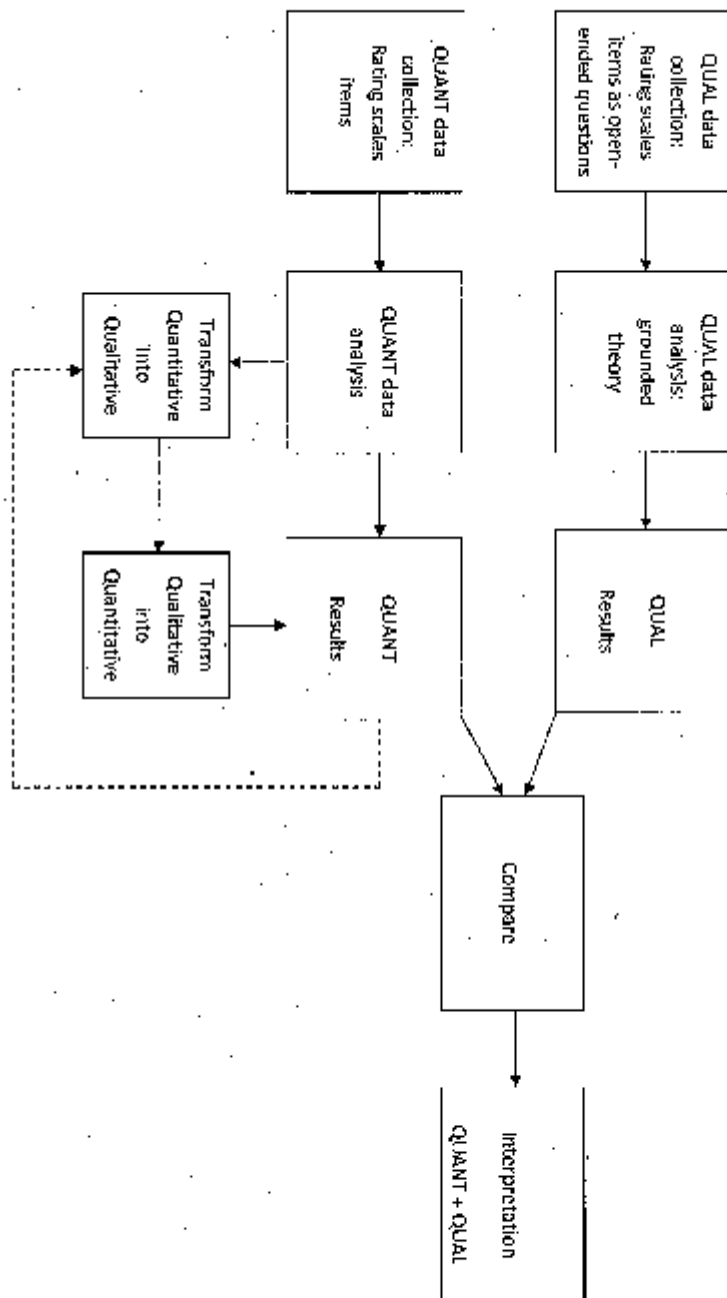
Figure 2 Well-being as a function of power groups
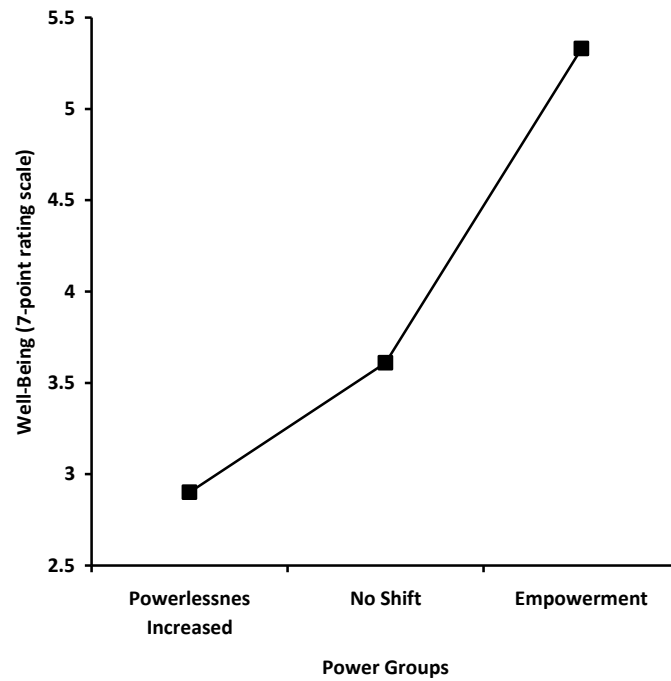
CHAPTER SIX: IMPROVING POLICE RESPONSE TO VICTIMS OF CRIME

6.1 Bridging Commentary

This chapter presents the fourth paper of the thesis. This paper highlights the implications of the findings reported in previous papers for the evaluation of police performance. In the paper, reporting of the findings presented in previous papers is targeted at the policing practitioners with the aim of providing practical guidelines for improving police response to victims of crime.

The paper was accepted by the international peer reviewed journal *Police Practice and Research* on the 2nd of June 2011. *Police Practice and Research* has a solid reputation as an international journal that presents current and innovative police research as well as operational and administrative practices from around the world.

6.2 Declaration for Thesis Chapter Six

Monash University

Declaration by candidate

In the case of Chapter Six, the nature and extent of my contribution to the work was as follows:

Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution
Literature review, design and management of the study, data collection and analysis, write up of the paper	75%

The following co-authors contributed to the work. Co-authors who are students at Monash University must also indicate the extent of their contribution in percentage terms:

Name	Nature of contribution	Extent of contribution (%)
Stuart Thomas	Co-investigator, participated in the development of the study design, reviewed the paper.	12.5%
James Ogloff	Co-investigator, participated in the development of the study design, reviewed the paper.	12.5%

Candidate's Signature		**Date**

Declaration by co-authors

The undersigned hereby certify that:

(1) The above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's contribution to this work, and the nature of the contribution of each of the co-authors;

(2) They meet the criteria for authorship in that they have participated in the conception, execution, or interpretation of at least that part of the publication in their field of expertise;

(3) They take public responsibility for their part of the publication, except for the responsible author who accepts overall responsibility for the publication;

(4) There are no other authors of the publication according to these criteria;

(5) Potential conflicts of interest have been disclosed to (a) granting bodies, (b) the editor or publisher of journals or other publications, and (c) the head of the responsible academic unit; and

(6) The original data are stored at the following location(s) and will be held for at least five years from the date indicated below:

Location(s)	**Centre for Forensic Behavioural Science, Monash University 505 Hoddle St, Clifton Hill, VIC 3068**

[Please note that the location(s) must be institutional in nature, and should be indicated here as a department, centre or institute, with specific campus identification where relevant.]

		Date
Signature 1		
Signature 2		

6.3 Procedural justice in contacts with the police: The perspective of

victims of crime

Irina Elliott[1]*

Stuart DM Thomas[1] [2]

James RP Ogloff[1] [2]

[1]Centre for Forensic Behavioural Science, School of Psychology and

Psychiatry, Monash University, Melbourne, Australia

[2] Victorian Institute of Forensic Mental Health, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

*Corresponding author. Email: Irina.Elliott@monash.edu

Postal address:

Centre for Forensic Behavioural Science
Monash University
 505 Hoddle Street
Clifton Hill, VIC 3068
AUSTRALIA
Tel: +61 3 9947 2600
Fax: +61 3 9947 2650

Procedural justice in contacts with the police: The perspective of victims of crime

Introduction

Over the last three decades radical changes have occurred in the way policing is perceived by the public and police organisations. In modern democratic societies police organisations have become increasingly been seen as a service industry rather than 'the force' (Stenning & Shearing, 2005). To reflect this trend, 'community policing' (Brogden & Nijhar, 2005) and 'reassurance policing' (Fielding & Innes, 2006) have become the new buzz words in core police practices. As a result, the task of policing has seemingly started to expand from the traditional narrow focus on law enforcement and crime control to one of security, safety and harm reduction (Stenning & Shearing, 2005). In this respect, the concept of procedural justice (the fairness of methods used to achieve outcomes) becomes relevant. Research suggests that enhancing procedural justice of the policing process may contribute to a safer community as higher perceived procedural justice in contacts with the police has been linked to increased police legitimacy and compliance with law (Tyler, 1990). Moreover, enhanced procedural justice has been linked to increased cooperation with the police (Tyler, 2005). In addition, procedural justice may have implications for the psychological well-being of people who come in contact with the police. This may be particularly relevant to victims of crimes for whom experiences of procedural justice in contacts with the police may help reduce the trauma associated with the crime. To enhance procedural justice it is therefore important to consider the perspective of the consumers of police services. This paper reports on the findings of the study that examined

perceptions of procedural justice in victim-police interactions. First, a review of the literature outlining a conceptual framework for the study and highlighting relevant research findings in citizen-police and victim-police interactions will be presented.

Review of the literature

The concept of procedural justice (procedural fairness and fair treatment are other labels used in literature) was introduced into socio-legal research by Thibaut and Walker (1975). They used the concept of *procedural justice* to describe the fairness of the process by which decisions are made by authorities as opposed to *distributive justice* which is the fairness of the decisions themselves. Since then an impressive body of research in social, legal, and organisational settings has demonstrated that people place a significant value on the fairness of the process by which outcomes are achieved (MacCoun, 2005). Moreover, research suggests that people are concerned with procedures independent of their effects on outcomes, and that often fair procedures are valued more than favourable outcomes (Tyler, Boeckmann, Smith, & Huo, 1997). The group value model of procedural justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988) attributes these effects of procedural justice to individuals' perceptions of fair treatment as an indication of their value and status in society.

According to Tyler and Lind (1992), individuals' value and status in society are reflected in the quality of their relationship with authorities. The authors extended their model of procedural justice beyond the decision-making process to account for public support for authorities in general. In doing so, they argue that public support for authorities is determined by perceptions of

procedural justice based on four *relational* criteria: a) *quality of interpersonal treatment* (treatment with dignity and respect, politeness and showing concern for individuals' rights), b) *participation* (expression of views and involvement in the decision-making process), c) *neutrality* (unbiased decision-making), and d) *trustworthiness of authorities* (Tyler, 2006).The latter factor is seen as being the most crucial one in the evaluation of procedural fairness (Tyler, 2004), as follows: individuals trust the authority if they believe that the authority tries to do the right thing by them, cares about their needs and concerns, genuinely considers their views, and provides honest explanations of how and why particular decisions are made. The relational criteria form the basis of *a relational model of authority* (Tyler & Lind, 1992). According to this model, perceptions of fair procedures based on the relational criteria, shape the perceived legitimacy of the authority, which, in turn, encourage adherence to the rules, cooperation with and support for the authority.

The relational model of authority has been successfully tested in the context of citizen-police interactions. The most robust and consistent finding to date has been the link between procedural justice judgments based on the relational criteria and perceived police legitimacy. In the context of law enforcement, *police legitimacy* is defined as individuals' obligation to obey the law, trust, and confidence in the institution of policing (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a). Procedural justice judgments are consistently found to be more strongly linked to police legitimacy than perceived outcome fairness or evaluations of police performance (Hinds & Murphy, 2007; Reisig, Bratton, & Gertz, 2007; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a; Tyler, 2005). In turn, higher perceived legitimacy is linked to compliance with the law or cooperation with the police

(Tyler, 1990; Tyler 2005; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003b). In this respect, Tyler (2005) found that police legitimacy was more strongly linked to the willingness to cooperate with the police than risk of sanctioning for law-breaking, or assessments of police performance.

Another variable directly associated with procedural justice judgments is public evaluation of (i.e., satisfaction with) police services. In this respect, Tyler (2001) found that two factors played a crucial role: (1) performance in controlling crime, and (2) quality of treatment of people by the police. However, of the two, quality of treatment was a major factor accounting for 26% of the variance as opposed to 5% of the variance accounted for by the assessments of police performance in controlling crime. Interestingly, willingness to pay more taxes to support the police was associated with quality of treatment but not with satisfactory outcome. Similarly, procedural justice judgments in the Sunshine and Tyler (2003a) study were directly linked to citizens' willingness to give the police more power to exercise their authority, whereas distributive justice judgments had no significant effect on this variable. These findings support the salience of the relational criteria of procedural justice in public evaluations of the police.

Although successfully tested in the context of citizen-police interactions, the relational model has never been applied to victim-police interactions despite its apparent central relevance at this interface. The issues of participation, dignity and trust have been identified as major areas of concern for crime victims in their interactions with the criminal justice system including the police (Herman, 2003; Maier, 2008; Orth, 2002; Ullman, 1996). Moreover, victims' satisfaction with the legal system has been shown to be

related to their sense of participation in the system (e.g., Erez, 1999), even when victims do not receive their desired outcome (Ptacek, 1999). For example, in a study of victims' satisfaction with police in burglary cases, victims expressed a higher level of satisfaction when they viewed the behaviour of the police officer attending the scene as positive, irrespective of whether the crime was actually solved (Coupe & Griffiths, 1999).

The issue of police behaviour in victim-police interactions became prominent after the identification of the *secondary victimisation* phenomenon. Symonds (1980) found that victims were inclined to interpret professional detachment of police officers who were investigating their case as a sign of rejection. He argued that this can result in a 'second injury' to the victim in the wake of the actual victimisation experience. The actual victimisation experience has a range of negative psychological consequences. Many victims of violent crimes are at risk of developing a posttraumatic stress disorder and other psychological problems such as depression, anxiety, substance abuse, low self-esteem, guilt and shame (Carlson & Dutton, 2003). Also, even when a person is the victim of a crime that does not constitute an explicit traumatic event such as a theft or household burglary, the negative psychological effects on the person's well-being can be significant; including doubts about the benevolence of the world and the trustworthiness of people, depression, anxiety, and anger (Carlson & Dutton, 2003). Indeed, it has been acknowledged that insensitivity of the criminal justice system to the victim's plight can contribute to or exacerbate their suffering (Herman, 2003; Wemmers & Cyr, 2005).

In this respect, research suggests that victims' negative experiences with the police are common. For example, in Campbell's (2006) study, victims who dealt with the police without a rape victim advocate commonly indicated that police officers were reluctant to take their report, told them that their cases were not serious enough to pursue further, asked them about their prior sexual history, and asked them if they had responded sexually to the rape. In Monroe et al.'s (2005) study of sexual assault victims, just under half of victims who filed charges against the perpetrator reported dissatisfaction with the police interview. Research also suggests that rape victims feel blamed by the police for their victimisation (Ullman, 1996). Similarly, in a qualitative study of domestic violence victims' experiences with the police (Stephens & Sinden, 2000), participants reported both positive and negative experiences in their encounters. Among the positive experiences were police officers listening to the victims, believing them, showing concern, being sympathetic, helpful, and treating the victim with respect. The most negative experiences, on the other hand, were instances where police were perceived to be minimising the seriousness of the crime, disbelieving the victim and showing a lack of concern for the victim. Interestingly, consistent with the Symonds's (1980) findings mentioned above, although victims appreciated police officers' efficiency and professionalism when dealing with their cases, victims felt alienated by the officers' reserved attitudes and lack of affect.

Research mentioned above in the context of citizen-police and victim-police interactions suggests that the relational criteria of procedural justice can provide a conceptual framework for enhancing police response to victims of crime. In the context of victim-police interactions, the relational perspective

may take on a particular significance as it may provide guidance for what the police could practically do to minimize the risk of secondary victimisation. However, this also raises the question of whether the relational model has the same validity in victim-police interactions as demonstrated in citizen-police interactions (specifically the primacy of the process-based assessments over outcome-oriented assessments in evaluation of the police). Research also suggests that procedural justice is most important to citizens in police-initiated contacts, such as being stopped by police, than it is in citizen-initiated contacts, such as calling police for assistance (Murphy, 2009). It should be noted that the extant research on procedural justice in the context of citizen-police interactions lacks the all important contextual detail that can potentially explain above and beyond that procedural justice is important, why it is important to individuals and how it can potentially be enhanced.

Against this background, the aim of the present study was to examine victims' perceptions of procedural justice in victim-police interactions to answer the following research question: What value do victims of crime place on procedural justice in contacts with the police? This study also aimed at gathering an integrated perspective on this issue from victims of different types of crime.

Method

Participants, materials and procedure

In-depth, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 110 participants who had reported a crime (personal or property) to the police in the previous 12 months. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 86 ($M = 39.75$, $SD = 13.70$). There were 58 (52.70%) females and 52 (47.30%) males

in the sample. Seventy eight (70.91%) participants reported having been victimised on multiple occasions. In relation to the type of crime reported in the previous 12 months, 77 (70%) had been victims of violent crimes, including 43 (39.09%) cases of physical violence, 13 (11.82%) cases of property damage, 11 (10%) cases of threats of violence, 9 (8.18%) cases of sexual assault and child sexual abuse and 1participant (0.91%) was a relative of a homicide victim. Non-violent crimes included 20 (18.18%) thefts, 9 (8.18%) burglaries and 4 (3.64%) cases of stalking. Comparisons with an official release of crime statistics (Victoria Police, 2010) indicated that the sample was generally representative of the people who reported a crime in Victoria in 2008/2009 in terms of overall gender composition and percentage of males and females who had been victims of crimes against the person, assault offences and sex offences.

The interview schedule developed for the study was based on relational criteria of procedural justice employed in previous research (Tyler, 2005; Tyler & Wakslak, 2004). The schedule differed from protocols employed in previous research since it was used as open-ended questions, with prompts and follow-up questions to elicit a breadth and depth of response from participants. A draft of the *pro forma* was piloted on eight interviewees, and a number of small revisions were made to clarify response options. The final schedule asked participants to make any comments they wished in relation to the following dimensions of police treatment: politeness, concern for rights, treatment with dignity and respect, neutrality of decision-making, expression and consideration of views, addressing needs and concerns, doing the right thing by the victim, explaining reasons for police actions and police trustworthiness.

Participants were also asked about their feelings during the interaction with the police and their suggestions how to improve police response to victims of crime.[1]

Participants were recruited by advertising the study at 47 police stations in Melbourne and regional Victoria, and community-based victims' organisations in Melbourne, Australia. Posters and postcards were used to attract potential participants, along with an organisation wide email circular and simple snowballing technique using participants' recommendations to others they knew had been victims. All interviews were conducted by one of the authors (IE) either face-to-face (77, 70%) or by telephone, and lasted up to one and a half hours. Data collection took place over a 14 month period between February 2009 and April 2010.

Data analysis

Components of a grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1990) and constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lincoln & Guba, 1985) were used as a means of identifying themes from ongoing data collection and analysis. Two processes of the constant comparative method (unitising and categorising) were employed at the initial stage of the data analysis. The unitising process involved dividing the data into the smallest meaningful units of information associated with the research question. The process of categorising included organising these units of information into categories on the basis of similarity in meaning. The creation and refinement of the categories was undertaken by employing open and axial coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Open coding refers to delineating descriptive categories and subcategories based on raw data. Open coding was followed by

axial coding, namely relating the categories and subcategories 'by making connections between a category and its subcategories' (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 97). The final product of the data analysis included a thematic map with main themes and subthemes and an analytical narrative with embedded extracts from data illustrating the main themes and subthemes.

Findings and discussion

In line with the relational perspective on procedural justice (Tyler & Lind, 1992), the vast majority of the participants used such words as 'relationship', 'mateship', 'connection', 'customer service' to describe what they considered to be desirable victim-police interactions. In this respect, one participant said: *'Police often take for granted their discretion in relationships with the public as there is no one else to do their job, but they should treat people as customers in community, value people'.* A thematic map representing main themes and subthemes arising is depicted in Figure 1. Two main themes were identified from these narratives: (1) police doing their best to solve the crime, and (2) police relating to victims as persons (independently of the case itself).

Doing best to solve the crime

The salience of this theme was particularly prominent in long-standing serious crimes (such as child sexual abuse and sexual assault) when participants perceived that the police had a little chance of successful prosecution of the perpetrator. Although the police were not able to bring the offender to justice in all these cases, participants reported that because of the way police responded to them, they were able to put the crime behind them

(some of them after 15 or even 30 years). When asked why this was the case, one participant said:

> *'Although they (police) knew that successful prosecution was unlikely, they still took time to investigate, found and interviewed witnesses, installed security devices at my place before they started interviewing him (the offender), that made me feel as a person worthwhile to go into such trouble'.*

This finding supports the assumption of the relational model that fair treatment from authorities indicates the value of the individual in society.

Interestingly, the major point of dissatisfaction with the police response was not the fact that the police could not find or charge the offender, or retrieve stolen property, but occurred when participants perceived that the police were not going to do much about their cases. This sentiment was particularly prominent in cases of non-violent crimes when chances of apprehending the offender were slim. Participants expressed an understanding that police often do not have time and resources to solve the crime and more or less accepted this. What they found it difficult to accept was when the police lost interest in their case in instances where there was little chance of apprehending the offender. Two major subthemes were identified in relation to police strategies directed at communicating to victims that the police will do their best to solve the crime: (1) unacceptance of the crime, and (2) following up on the case.

Unacceptance of the crime

Firstly, most participants believed that the police took their cases seriously and were prepared to take action when police officers expressed a clear-cut personal stance of the unacceptance of a particular crime. This was especially important to victims of child abuse and domestic violence. In this

respect, a young woman with a disability who reported physical abuse by her father said:

> 'He (police officer) was straightforward, he clearly stated his side that he didn't approve violence, I saw that he understood abuse. He believed in his work, had his own values that domestic violence is wrong and explained it to me why it is not acceptable. For the first time in my life it was admitted that wrong was done to me as my neighbours and family did nothing. That gave me hope, reassurance, confidence and trust in police.'

Non-blaming attitudes   A prominent subtheme with the 'unacceptance of the crime' subtheme was non-blaming attitudes on the part of the police. In this respect, one participant who had to call the police when her daughter's partner went violent at his in-laws said:

> 'They (police) said "you are a nice family, it is not your fault and you don't have to put up with him as this is not just a fight in the family". I felt that they were concerned and wanted to help us.'

Previous research also suggests that non-blaming attitudes from the police are very important for victims of crime (Campbell, 2006; Ullman, 1996).

The results of the present study provided some insights into why non-blaming attitudes on the part of the police are deemed to be so important to victims. When making their decision to report the crime, many participants were concerned if their case was bad enough to go to the police. This was particularly prominent in less serious cases, such as theft or car damage. Some participants even admitted that they were not very cooperative with the police as they felt so embarrassed about reporting such small incidents. Even in more serious cases, some participants were concerned if their injuries were bad enough to warrant the police attention. For example, one participant decided to

report an assault to the police only when his injures deteriorated and he was forced to go to hospital. In addition, no matter if the case was serious or minor, many participants felt responsible for putting themselves in the situation that led to the crime. This may, in part, explain crime victims' sensitivity to blaming attitudes. In this respect, a young male who reported his wallet stolen on the bus said:

> *'I was nervous after the crime, but the first thing they (police) said "you should've paid more attention", that made me angry as they were blaming me, not the thief. I felt they didn't really want to help me. They should've started with "what can we do for you?"*

This sentiment indicates that victims expect to be treated by the police as customers who require support and respect.

Police taking action   Another subtheme within the 'unacceptance of the crime' subtheme was police taking action. Taking action by the police was perceived by the participants as justification for their (often not easy) decision to go to the police in the first place. Although the vast majority of participants praised the police for taking prompt action, a significant proportion of those who reported stalking, property damage or threats by the person they knew (mostly a neighbour or former intimate partner) expressed their dissatisfaction with the police not taking decisive action in such cases. The general sentiment was that the police often underestimate the negative psychological impact of such crimes (*'assaults, injuries, that's different for them (police), they take them seriously'*). In this respect, a participant who reported a breach of an intervention order by her ex-partner and wanted him to be charged said:

'I got the impression that unless he (the ex-partner) has my blood on his hands,

they (police) can't do anything, the fact that he came to my place and threatened

to commit suicide is not serious enough for police to charge him'.

Another participant, who reported a brick thrown through his house window

by his neighbour, appreciated that the police gave him an incident report for

claiming insurance quickly, however the person said further:

'I understand they (police) couldn't charge him, it would be my word against

his, but they could've come out to my place so he (neighbour) would see that

police took it seriously and he wouldn't dare to do it again. But now I don't feel

safe as he might do it again.'

Following up on the case

This subtheme was particularly prominent among victims of property

crimes (theft and household burglary). The general sentiment was that the

police were very good at the initial contact (for example, at the scene of the

incident in a burglary case) but after that, they did not make enough contact to

keep victims informed about the progress of their cases. A participant said in

this respect: *'They (police) were nice but because they didn't get back to me I*

felt cheated'. Previous research also indicates that the lack of information

about the progress of their case is one of the major points of victims'

dissatisfaction with police responses (Mayhew & Reilly, 2008; Williams et al.,

2004). When asked why it was so important to them that the police kept them

informed about the progress of the case, participants said that they wanted to

be reassured that the police did not give up on their case. One participant even

suggested the police set up an Internet site so victims could track their case

progress. For the participants, it was important to know not only what the

police were doing at that point in time but also what they had done previously

and what they were going to do with respect to the incident they had reported. As one participant (who was happy with the police in this respect) said, it is important because it *'avoids doubts that police could've done something but didn't, which would've been an unpleasant, distressing feeling'*.

Relating to victims as persons

In addition to the police doing their best to solve the crime, it was very important for the victims that the police related to them as persons independently of the case itself. Several participants referred to this as *'no tunnel vision'*, the ability of the police to see beyond the case: *'There's more to their job than just solving the case, they include you as a person'*. Three major subthemes of this theme were identified: (1) letting victims express emotions and tell their story, (2) giving options, and (3) addressing consequences of the crime.

Letting victims express emotions and tell their story

The vast majority of participants thought that the police were really good at listening and letting them express emotions, which was much appreciated as there was a need to ease fear, distress and sometimes anger associated with the crime. For example, a young male who reported a household burglary said: *'They (police) were patient, they let me complain and express my emotions, that was good because I was shocked and needed to share my emotions'*. Similarly, a female victim of a hit and run accident with personal injuries expressed her gratitude to the police officers involved in her case: *'I was frustrated at the offender and I was able to vent my frustration, they didn't interrupt me and even encourage me to do that, they understood why I felt the way I felt, they had empathy'*. The vast majority of the participants also praised

police listening skills: e.g., *'eye contact'*, *'purposeful look'*, *'no fidgeting or looking away or dealing with something else at the time'*, *'letting you take your own pace'*, *'reflecting back'* what had been said by the victim. Reflecting back was particularly important for victims who had difficulty expressing themselves as this demonstrated that the police were able to find consistency in their responses:

> *'When I started waffling, they (police) gave me time to rest and I was ok. I get tired quickly and it's difficult for me to focus, I have to say two or three things before I get to the point, but they listened carefully and replied in a way I felt they understood, they compared what I said before.'*

Another participant gave credit to the police for helping him tell them what happened : *'It was difficult to explain to them (police), it took three hours, but then they drew a map of the layout of my house and that made it easier for me to explain and for them to understand'.*

Although the participants were generally satisfied with how the police listened to them, some negative comments were expressed in relation to the way the police asked questions. If the same question was repeated more than two times ('Do you want to change your statement?'), it was perceived by victims as disbelief on the part of the police. If the same question was asked in many different ways, the victims perceived that the police thought they were dishonest. Also, many participants said that they would have liked to tell the police more but were told that they had already provided enough information or it was not relevant to their case.

Giving options

Another prominent subtheme within the 'relating to victims as persons' theme was police giving options to the victims. Although the vast majority of

participants appreciated the police giving them options (to report the crime or not, report on the spot or later), in some cases the victims felt pressured by the police to do what the police wanted them to do. One participant described police pressure to get victims to do what they want them to do as *'high pressure salesmen'*. In this respect, another participant said that he was basically forced to report the crime when a plain clothes police officer happened to be at the scene of the incident and the offender was clearly identifiable. The participant shared that he was very upset at the time and did not want to talk to anyone. Describing how the police officer was trying to convince him to report the incident on the spot the participant said:

> *'He (the police officer) was very nice and it looked like he was trying to help me but it felt like someone was bugging you, trying to sell you something. He should've asked me how I felt about the reporting, not assumed that I wanted to report. I would've rather gone away and reported later if I felt like'.*

Addressing consequences of the crime

This subtheme was centred on the issues of safety and overcoming the negative psychological consequences of the crime in the wake of the victimisation experience. The vast majority of the participants thought that the police had done a good job in this respect. The participants said that they felt safer as a result of reporting the crime attributing this to the police response. The first step participants reported in overcoming the negative psychological consequences of the crime was the police normalising their experiences without trivialising them; namely acknowledging that wrong had been done to the victims (not trivialising) but emphasising that this could have happened to anyone (normalising). Information on low probability of the offender returning to the scene of the crime in burglary cases and promising to patrol the area in

cases when the car was vandalised were helpful in reassuring the victims that it would not happen again. It was also important to the victims to get reassurance from the police that they had done everything they could to protect themselves against the consequences of the crime and future similar incidents. That is why the participants really appreciated police advice on how to increase security of their dwellings or what to do to minimise identity theft when their credit cards or identity cards were stolen. Finally, the most satisfying interactions in this respect were when police officers encouraged the victims to get on with their life: *'I really appreciated that they (police) told me "don't let them (the offenders) ruin your life", it helped a lot'*. Similarly, the above mentioned young female with a disability who reported physical abuse by her father said:

> *'He (police officer) said "you were brave to report", he praised me for standing up for myself, that made me feel understood. Although it was distressing to talk about the crime, I don't want to be a victim, I was proud of myself.'*

Conclusion

The present study has provided an integrated perspective on procedural justice in victim-police interactions from victims of different crimes. The bulk of the research on victims' experiences with the police is focused on specific groups, mainly sexual assault victims and victims of domestic violence. As such, an integrated perspective may be particularly beneficial for training front line police officers who have to deal with a wide range of reported crimes.

The findings of the present study suggest that victims of crime place a significant value on procedural justice in contacts with the police. Firstly, the perception of fair treatment by the police sends a message to victims that the police are doing their best to solve the case; and secondly, fair treatment indicated that the victims were important to the police as persons

independently of the case outcome. Although the police doing their best to solve the crime can be considered as outcome-oriented aspects of victim-police interactions, it should be emphasised that the results of the present study suggest that what is of particular importance to victims is the police willingness to do their best to achieve a desired outcome. The victims believed that the police were doing their best to solve the crime if police officers expressed a genuine personal unacceptance of a particular crime which was reinforced by non-blaming attitudes and taking prompt action, and if the police followed up staying in touch and keeping the victims informed about the progress of their case. The police relating to victims as persons was important in helping the victims to alleviate the negative psychological consequences of the victimisation experience. The findings of this study provide guidance to what the police can do to minimise the risk of secondary victimisation and reduce harm associated with primary victimisation. In this respect, letting victims express their emotions and tell their full story (not only aspects directly relevant to the case) may be beneficial in releasing negative emotions and relieving the stress associated with the crime. Giving victims options may be beneficial in promoting a sense of control and power lost when crime was committed. Addressing consequences of the crime by providing practical information and encouraging victims to move on with their life may be beneficial in giving victims reassurance for the future.

Finally, the results of this study suggest that procedural justice is at least as important to victims of crime as a desired outcome. However, current police performance indicators are heavily based on crime-solving figures. The adequacy of such performance indicators as related to community policing and

reassurance policing have been recently questioned (Fielding & Innes, 2006). One of the problems with current police performance measures is that they do not adequately capture the sheer variety and complexity of what the police do today to serve their communities. As an alternative to performance measures based on crime statistics and detection rates, Fielding and Innes suggest considering additional qualitative approaches to measuring police performance.

In the context of victim-police interactions, a qualitative approach to police performance could be in the form of a written statement from the victims describing the impact of the interaction with the police on them. In addition to the traditional Victim Impact Statement addressing the impact of the crime on the victim, Wexler (2008) suggests the introduction of a Legal System Victim Impact Statement (LSVIS) 'which should emphasize both good and bad behaviours by various actors, beginning with the police and continuing throughout the process' (Wexler, 2008, p. 326). According to the author, such a statement can serve as an important expressive function for the victim and also, can be instrumental in the development of 'best practices' in the field. A template of a LSVIS in relation to victim-police interactions could be developed based on what aspects of procedural justice in contacts with the police are important to victims. While the present study has provided some guidance in this respect, this study's limitation is the absence of random sampling. Therefore, more research employing a wider range of targeted recruitment strategies is needed to capture the full breadth of victim-police experiences. This avenue of development would not only serve to provide measurable indices of the breadth of contemporary police performance and

practice beyond the traditional markers of high detection rates and reductions in official crime statistics, but also provide the necessary impetus for this role and positive outcomes associated with this core policing function to be more formally and systematically measured and thus acknowledged and valued by policing and community members.

Acknowledgements

Notes

1.The *pro forma* is available by contacting one of the authors (IE).

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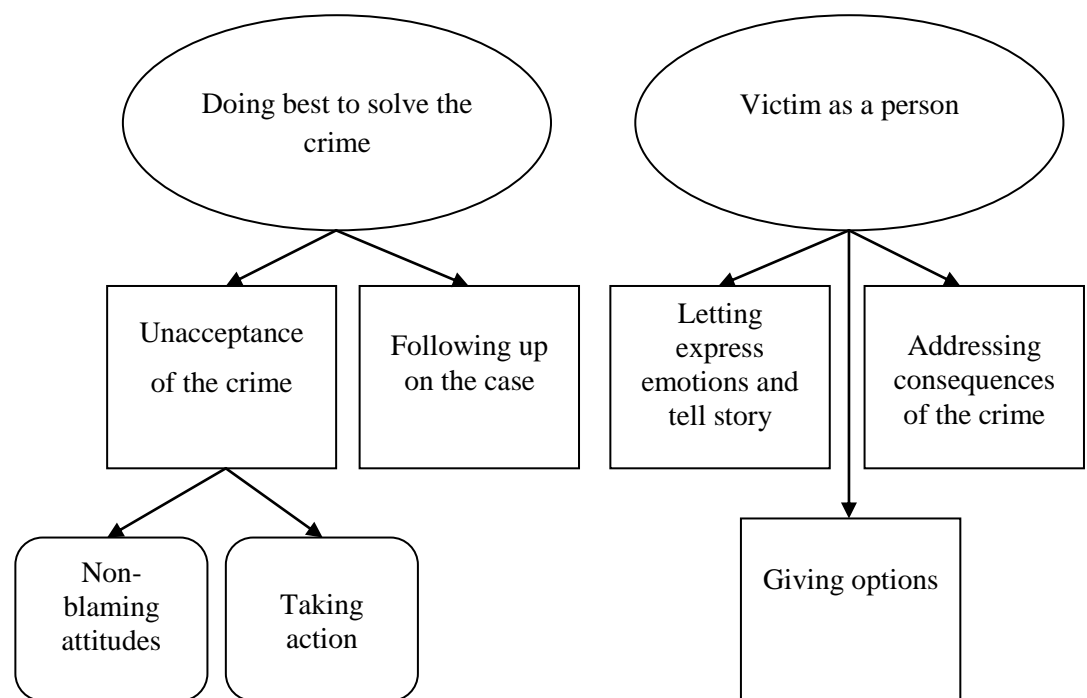
Figure 1 Thematic map representing main themes and subthemes

CHAPTER SEVEN: INTEGRATED DISCUSSION

7.1 Overview of the Main Findings

The findings of the studies presented in this thesis supported the assumptions of a group value model of procedural justice and the validity of a relational model of authority in victim-police interactions. Moreover, the findings provided support for the therapeutic value of a relational perspective on procedural justice for victims of crime in the wake of victimisation experience. The overview of the findings is given in relation to the aims of the study.

7.1.1 Study Aim One: A Relational Model of Authority

The first aim of the study was to test a relational model of authority in victim-police interactions. Both quantitative and qualitative results supported the validity of a relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992) in victim-police interactions. Quantitative results indicated that higher perceptions of procedural justice were associated with higher perceived legitimacy, outcome fairness, and satisfaction with the interaction. Moreover, although victims who received a desired outcome had higher scores on outcome fairness and satisfaction than victims who did not receive a desired outcome, procedural justice was a stronger predictor of outcome fairness and satisfaction than the realisation of a desired outcome. Whereas procedural justice had a strong relationship with legitimacy, desired outcome had no effect on this variable. These results are consistent with the findings of the studies that have tested a relational model of authority in citizen-police interactions (Hinds & Murphy, 2007; Murphy, 2009; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003a & b; Tyler, 2001, 2005, 2006; Tyler & Huo, 2002; Tyler & Wakslak, 2004).

Furthermore, qualitative results, in relation to the meanings of procedural justice as expressed by victims of crime, provided support for the statistical associations between procedural justice, perceived legitimacy, outcome fairness, and satisfaction with the interaction. Both legitimacy and instrumental meanings of procedural justice, respectively, were expressed by the majority of the participants. Participants explicitly stated that fair treatment by police encouraged them to obey the law and made them believe that the police were competent and willing to do their best to solve the crime. In this respect, one participant said: 'I felt like I was getting the best possible outcome', even through, in this particular case, the police were not able to deliver the participant's desired outcome. Moreover, the results supported the validity of a group value model of procedural justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988). The value meaning assigned to procedural justice by the participants was predominant and expressed by the vast majority of the participants. It was particularly striking that participants, who were unfamiliar with the concepts of a group value model, used the same words (e.g., 'status', 'valued by community') as the scholars who originally formulated the theory.

Interestingly, although participants who reported having a criminal history had lower scores on outcome fairness and satisfaction with the contact than the other participants, criminal history in and of itself was not a significant predictor of either outcome fairness or satisfaction as a result of the interaction with the police. Moreover, although participants with criminal histories had lower scores on legitimacy than the other participants, perceptions of procedural justice were a stronger predictor of legitimacy than if participants had criminal histories or not.

7.1.2 Study Aim Two: Therapeutic Value of a Relational Perspective on Procedural Justice

The second aim of the study was to examine the therapeutic value of a relational perspective on procedural justice for victims of crime. Both quantitative and qualitative findings indicated that perceptions of procedural justice based on relational criteria had a significant impact on victims' sense of psychological well-being as a result of the interaction with the police. Higher perceived procedural justice was associated with greater psychological well-being. Although victims who received their desired outcomes had higher scores on well-being and lower scores on powerlessness after the interaction with the police, procedural justice predicted the likelihood that victims would feel empowered by the interaction, whereas desired outcome did not. Moreover, after the potential effects of desired outcome were taken into account, only procedural justice and empowerment significantly predicted victims' sense of psychological well-being as a result of the interaction with the police: ability to cope with the crime, self-esteem, optimism for the future, trust in the institution of policing, and faith in a just world.

The grounded theory generated through the qualitative data provided valuable insights into why procedural justice had such a powerful impact on victims' psychological well-being as a result of the interaction with the police. In this respect, the validation of victimisation experiences and taking action by the police were essential in addressing the negative psychological consequences of the crime – feeling violated, experiencing helplessness, and not feeling safe anymore – as means of giving victims a sense of closure, empowerment, and making them feel safer. Moreover, validation of

victimisation experiences by the police was vitally important to victims of crime as it was seen as an indication of their value in and a broader validation from the wider community. Police response strategies directed at the validation of victimisation experiences included acknowledgement that a wrong had happened to the victim, unacceptance of the crime, non-blaming attitudes, relating to the victim as a person, and empathic listening. These findings are consistent with previous research on victims' experiences in the context of the legal system (Cattaneo & Goodman, 2010; Des Rosiers, Feldthusen, & Hankivsky, 1998; Herman, 2005; Jordan, 2008).

Interestingly, there was no statistical relationship found between victims' feelings of powerlessness after the interaction and victims' well-being as a result of the interaction with the police. Moreover, only victims for whom the interaction with the police was empowering had higher scores both on procedural justice and well-being as a result of the interaction with the police than the other participants. There were no differences in scores both on procedural justice and well-being between victims who became more powerless and victims who did not experience a shift in powerlessness as a result of the interaction with the police.

7.2 Implications

7.2.1 Contribution to Theory

Using a mixed methods approach in the present study allowed for the evaluation and confirmation of existing theories of procedural justice as well as the generation of a new theoretical proposition that may be specific to victim-police interactions. For the first time, in this study, the validity of the assumptions of two different perspectives on procedural justice – instrumental

(Leventhal, 1976; Thibaut & Walker, 1975) and relational (Tyler & Lind, 1992) – were supported by qualitative data. Notably, for the first time, this study provides support for a group value model of procedural justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988) in that fair treatment is perceived by individuals as an indication of their value and status in society. Moreover, this study provided empirical support for predictions and assumptions of a relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992) as applied to victim-police interactions. Statistical associations between higher perceived procedural justice and higher perceived legitimacy, outcome fairness, and satisfaction were supported by the qualitative data. In addition, quantitative results showed that procedural justice was a stronger predictor of satisfaction and perception of fair outcome than if victims received a desired outcome or not. Similar to citizen-police interactions, this suggests the primacy of process-based assessments over outcome-oriented assessments in perceptions of satisfaction and outcome fairness in victim-police interactions.

Furthermore, qualitative data revealed a meaning of procedural justice (the therapeutic meaning) that is not included in a relational perspective on procedural justice and may be specific to victim-police interactions. The results of this study suggest that perceptions of procedural justice based on relational criteria can have a powerful impact on victims' well-being in the wake of victimisation experiences. This is consistent with the therapeutic jurisprudence approach (Wexler, 1990; Winick & Wexler, 2003). The present study is distinctive in its systematic examination of the therapeutic value of a relational perspective of procedural justice the context of victim-police interactions. A theoretical model constructed in this study through systematic qualitative data

analysis provides a construct-focused framework for understanding the role of procedural justice in crime-victims' recovery from the negative psychological consequences of victimisation experiences.

Two concepts are prominent in the model – the validation of the victimisation experience by the police and victims' sense of empowerment as a result of the interaction. Previous research in the context of the legal system has indicated that gaining validation from the wider community is prominent in victims' understanding of justice (Herman, 2005). The present study suggests that perceptions of procedural justice in contacts with the police can give victims this sense of being validated by the wider community. The concept of victims' empowerment has been prominent in the literature on the link between victims' experiences with the legal system and their well-being (Cattaneo & Goodman, 2010; Herman, 2003; Winick, 2000). The results of this study suggest the primary impact of the process (procedural justice) over the outcome on victims' sense of empowerment and well-being. Moreover, this study suggests a link between victims' sense of being valued and validated by the community as a result of the interaction with the police and victims' sense of empowerment. Thus, this study suggests that the therapeutic value of a relational perspective on procedural justice is associated with the potential of procedural justice to send a powerful message to individuals that they are valued by the community in the wake of their victimisation experiences.

7.2.2 Contribution to Research

The present study extended previous findings on a relational model of authority in the context of citizen-police interactions to a new and distinctly important population – victims of crime. This study provided group difference

findings on the variables involved in a relational model of authority that have not been investigated elsewhere. In this respect, it was found that participants who received a desired outcome had significantly higher scores on all variables involved in a relational model of authority as compared to participants who did not received a desired outcome, except for legitimacy. It was also found that participants who had reported having criminal histories had significantly lower scores on all variables involved in a relational model of authority – procedural justice, legitimacy, outcome fairness, and satisfaction – than participants without criminal histories. Moreover, this study provided rare and unique qualitative data on crime victims' perceptions of treatment by the police from victims of a wide range of crimes that was obtained from a large and generally representative sample.

In addition, this study provided a rare insight into the perceptions of treatment by the police from people with criminal histories. In this respect, and of particular significance, is the finding that possession of a criminal history was not a significant predictor of either outcome fairness or satisfaction as a result of the interaction with the police. Also, this study introduced a new predictor of legitimacy – criminal history. The finding that perceptions of procedural justice were a stronger predictor of legitimacy than criminal history suggests that experiences of procedural justice in subsequent contacts with the police can increase previous perceived legitimacy for people with criminal histories. This finding is consistent with previous research involving the offender population (Tyler et al., 2007). The discovery of the primacy of perceptions of procedural justice over criminal history as predictors of

legitimacy suggests the potential of procedural justice in contacts with the police for motivating individuals with criminal histories to obey the law.

Furthermore, both quantitative and qualitative findings provided support for the link between procedural justice and victims' well-being demonstrated in previous research in the context of the legal system (Campbell et al., 1999; Campbell et al., 2001; Cattaneo & Goodman, 2010). Another contribution of this study is that this link was demonstrated specifically in the context of victim-police interactions in a sample of victims of a wide range of crimes. Also, this study provided empirical support for the concepts of victims' empowerment and validation. Although these concepts are prominent in the literature, they have been used by scholars and researchers rather than victims themselves. In this study, participants explicitly mentioned empowerment and validation as the essence of their contact with the police. Moreover, the findings of this study suggest that what affects victims' well-being as a result of the interaction with the police is not the extent of feeling powerless per se but if victims gained a sense of empowerment as a result of the interaction with the police or not. Similarly, the findings of this study indicated that treatment by the police has the most powerful impact on victims' well-being when it is either distinctly fair or distinctly unfair. This may account for the inconsistent findings on the link between procedural justice and victims' well-being in previous research (e.g., Campbell et al., 2001; Frazier & Haney, 1996).

7.2.3 Contribution to Methodology

The present study employed a relatively new methodological approach – mixed methods – to address the complex nature of the research questions. Previous findings on a relational model of authority have been based solely on

quantitative methods. Previous research on the link between procedural justice and victims' well-being has employed both quantitative and qualitative methods but in separate studies. This study highlighted the two major benefits of employing both quantitative and qualitative methods simultaneously. Firstly, using mixed methods allowed confirmation of existing theories of procedural justice (a group value of procedural justice, instrumental and relational perspectives on procedural justice) and generating new theoretical propositions (the therapeutic meaning of procedural justice for victims of crime and grounded theory of the role of procedural justice in victims' recovery from victimisation experiences).

Secondly, using mixed methods allowed testing the construct validity of a procedural justice measure used in previous research in the context of citizen-police interactions in a new context – victim-police interactions. Three items used in previous research showed ambiguous validity for victims of crime and were removed from the final version of Procedural Justice Scale (PJS). This would have not been possible without the simultaneous inclusion of quantitative and qualitative items/questions in the same study. Notably, the construct validity of the rest of the items was confirmed by the qualitative data. At the same time, the construct validity of the scale was also confirmed by the absence of its statistical associations with the Justice Sensitivity Scale (Schmitt, Gollwitzer, Maes, & Arbach, 2005). In addition, the PJS demonstrated a high level of internal consistency as demonstrated by Cronbach's alpha and the mean inter-item correlation. Thus, this study made a valuable contribution to the validity and reliability of a procedural justice measure as applied to victim-police interactions. Moreover, previous research

measured victims' empowerment implicitly, as a combination of procedural justice and outcome measures (e.g., Cattaneo & Goodman, 2010). In this study, empowerment was measured explicitly and as a separate concept, and then used both as a criterion variable and as a predictor of victims' well-being as a result of the interaction with the police.

The present study also contributed to the mixed methods methodology. It provided a rare example of converging quantitative results with grounded theory and incorporated quantitative strand data transformation into a triangulation convergence design. Also, this study provides an example of multiple qualitization of data obtained through and informed by quantitative analyses. In addition, this study provided an example of a mixed method sampling strategy in that it was guided by the grounded theory but at the same time was directed at obtaining a large representative sample.

Finally, this study is distinctive in that it provided rich socio-demographic data on victims of crime including information on contacts with policing services. These data were instrumental in discovering group differences on and new predictors of the variables of interest, suggesting the importance of demographic and background variables in procedural justice research in the context of victim-police interactions.

7.2.4. Implications for Policy and Practice

The present study has provided an integrated perspective on procedural justice in victim-police interactions from victims of a variety of different crimes. As such, an integrated perspective may be particularly beneficial for training front line police officers who have to deal with a wide range of reported crimes. The findings of this study provide guidance to what the police

can do to minimise the risk of secondary victimisation and to reduce
psychological harm associated with primary victimisation. In this respect, this
study highlighted distinct successes in the aspects of police work that are all
too often overlooked when evaluating police performance using standard
indices.

Moreover, the present study suggests that reporting crime to the
police may be essential for a long-term recovery from victimisation
experiences. This is particularly significant. Several participants had
been in a care of a mental health professional for years as a result of their
victimisation experience, but were able to put the crime behind them
only after reporting the crime and receiving a positive response from the
police, even though the police were not able to bring the offender to
justice in these cases. Such a powerful impact of the interaction with the
police on victims' recovery from victimisation experiences can be
attributed to victims' perceptions of fair treatment by the police as an
indication of validation of the victimisation experiences from the wider
community. This has important implications for mental health
professionals treating survivors of violent crimes. However, it should be
emphasised that reporting crime to the police was only considered to be
beneficial when the police response was positive. The implication of this
is that in cases of long-standing violent crimes, collaborative efforts
between the police and mental health services may be essential. Perhaps,
in such cases, a system of referrals to the police from mental health
professionals could be arranged. This will be also beneficial for the

police service as this will encourage victims to report long-standing crimes.

Furthermore, the results of this study suggest that procedural justice is at least as important to victims of crime as a desired outcome. This raises the question of the adequacy of the current police performance measures that are heavily based on crime statistics and detection rates. The adequacy of such performance indicators have been questioned (Fielding & Innes, 2006). One of the problems with current police performance measures is that they do not adequately capture the sheer variety and complexity of what the police do today to serve their communities. As an alternative to performance measures based on crime statistics and detection rates, Fielding and Innes suggest considering additional qualitative approaches to measuring police performance.

In the context of victim-police interactions, a qualitative approach to police performance could be in the form of a written statement from the victims describing the impact of the interaction with the police on them. In addition to the traditional Victim Impact Statement addressing the impact of the crime on the victim, Wexler (2008) suggests the introduction of a Legal System Victim Impact Statement (LSVIS) 'which should emphasize both good and bad behaviours by various actors, beginning with the police and continuing throughout the process' (Wexler, 2008, p. 326). According to the author, such a statement can serve as an important expressive function for the victim and also, can be instrumental in the development of 'best practices' in the field. In support of this assumption it should be noted that feedback from the participants of this study in relation to the research interview indicated that

they appreciated the opportunity to share their experiences and contribute to improvement of police response to victims of crime. Moreover, in cases when participants had positive experiences with the police, one of the frequent motivations for participating in the study expressed was the need to 'relive' these positive experiences. A template of a LSVIS in relation to victim-police interactions could be developed based on what aspects of procedural justice in contacts with the police are important to victims. While the present study has provided some guidance in this respect, more research employing a wider range of targeted recruitment strategies is needed to capture the full breadth of victim-police experiences. This avenue of development would not only serve to provide measurable indices of the breadth of contemporary police performance and practice beyond the traditional markers of high detection rates and reductions in official crime statistics, but also provide the necessary impetus for this role and positive outcomes associated with this core policing function to be more formally and systematically measured and thus acknowledged and valued by policing and community members.

7.3 Limitations

This study has several limitations which should be kept in mind when considering its findings. One limitation regarding the quantitative findings is the use of a non-random sample. However, comparisons with an official release of crime statistics (Victoria Police, 2010) indicated that the sample was generally representative of the people who reported a crime in Victoria in 2008/2009 in terms of overall gender composition and percentage of males and females who had been victims of crimes against the person, assault offences, and sexual offences. Another limitation is the self-report nature of the

measurement instruments. When using self-report measures, one cannot be sure how truthful participants will be in their answers. Social desirability bias can affect the way participants respond to the items. However, the absence of a correlation between the social desirability scale and other measures in this study provides an indication that social desirability may have not been an issue of central concern with this sample. This study was correlational in nature; as such, causal relationships inferred from such data cannot guarantee causality in a strict experimental sense. Thus, conclusions drawn from the results of this study are limited in this sense.

In relation to the potential of procedural justice to increase legitimacy for people with a criminal history, it should be noted that in the present sample, the offence history did not include most serious offences such as homicide or sexual offences. Also, this study was cross-sectional. In this respect, it should be noted than attitudes towards law-abiding behaviour do not equal actual law-abiding behaviour. Although the findings of this study provided support for a non-instrumental perspective on procedural justice, the instrumental perspective was also prominent in participants' accounts. In addition, although in this study, similarly to previous research, an implicit measure of procedural justice (namely, antecedents of procedural justice) was used, it can be argued that equating the construct of procedural justice with its antecedents may not represent a valid measure of the construct. However, follow-up questions to the starting-point questions reflecting antecedents of procedural justice indicated that victims' perceptions of the antecedents were closely related to their perceptions of procedural justice.

7.4 Future Research Directions

Interestingly, many participants in this study said that they did not realise how important for them, during the interaction with the police, treatment would be until the interaction itself happened. Therefore, to establish the true value of procedural justice in the context of policing, future research should continue to investigate personal experiences of procedural justice in victim contacts with the police.

Future research should also continue to explore the therapeutic value of procedural justice for victims of crime in general and the validity of the generated theoretical model of the role of procedural justice in victims' recovery from the negative psychological consequences of victimisation experiences by employing a wider range of targeted recruitment strategies to capture the full breadth of victim-police experiences. The results of this study suggest that reporting crime to the police may be essential for a long-term recovery from victimisation experiences. In this respect, it will be beneficial to examine on a larger scale the reasons and motivations of victims who report a long-standing crime and the effect that reporting can and does have on victims' psychological well-being as well as on their recovery from the negative psychological consequences of victimisation experiences.

The results of this study suggest that procedural justice can be a powerful tool in motivating individuals, regardless of previous criminal history, to obey the law. It is suggested that future research should investigate whether there is a relationship between perceptions of procedural justice in a specific contact with the police, perceived legitimacy, and subsequent law-

abiding behaviour for offender population, including perpetrators of serious offences. Such an approach will require a longitudinal design study.

7.5 Conclusion

Using both quantitative and qualitative methods, this study provided empirical support for a group value model of procedural justice and the assumptions and predictions of a relational model of authority in the context of victim-police interactions. It appears that procedural justice may have the potential to motivate individuals with criminal histories to obey the law. Moreover, both quantitative and qualitative findings suggest that perceptions of procedural justice based on relational criteria can have a significant impact on victims' well-being as a result of the interaction with the police and their ability to recover from the negative psychological consequences of victimisation experiences. The results of this study suggest the primary impact of procedural justice over a desired outcome on victims' sense of empowerment and well-being and perceived outcome fairness and satisfaction in victim-police interactions. This can be attributed to the potential of procedural justice in contacts with the police to send a powerful message to victims of crime about their value in and validation from the wider community in the wake of their victimisation experiences. As such, procedural justice in contacts with the police may be essential for victims' recovery from the negative psychological consequences of the crime. Finally, having both quantitative and qualitative findings in relation to the phenomenon adds a unique richness to the translation of the findings of this study into policy and practice.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: List of Participating Organisations

Appendix B: Approval and Permission Letters

Appendix C: Advertising materials: Poster and Card Samples

Appendix D: Participant Information sheet, Consent form and

Interview schedule

APPENDIX A

LIST OF PARTICIPATING ORGANISATIONS

Police Stations

Ballarat

Belgrave

Bendigo

Boronia

Box Hill

Brighton

Broadmeadows

Brunswick

Camberwell

Carlton

Caulfield

Chelsea

Collingwood

Cranbourne

Dandenong

Diamond Creek

Doncaster

Geelong

Eltham

Epping

Fitzroy

Flemington

Footscray

Frankston

Glen Waverly

Greensborough

Hastings

Heidelberg

Knox

Lilydale

Malvern

Melbourne East

Melbourne West

Melton

Mooroolbark

Mornington

Moorabbin

Mordialloc

Northcote

Oakleigh

Pakenham

Prahran

Preston

Richmond

Ringwood

Rosebud

South Melbourne

Springvale

St Kilda

St Kilda Road

Sunbury

Sunshine

Traralgon

Werribee

Williamstown

Victims Support Agencies and Community Organisations

Cornerstone, Dandenong

Eastern Access Community Health

Flemington and Kensington Legal Service

Health Clinic St Kilda

Mill Park Community House

Moreland Community Health Service

Mulberry House, Werribee

Sacred Heart Mission

Western Region Health Centre

APPENDIX B

APPROVAL AND PERMISSION LETTERS

Monash University Standing Committee on Ethics in Research Involving Humans (submission CF08/2401 – 2008001226)

Victoria Police Permission Letter

Victims Support Agencies Permission Letters

MONASH University

Standing Committee on Ethics in Research Involving Humans (SCERH)
Research Office

Human Ethics Certificate of Approval

Date:	9 October 2008
Project Number:	CF08/2401 - 2008001226
Project Title:	Victims' experiences with police
Chief Investigator:	Prof James Ogloff
Approved:	From: 9 October 2008 to 9 October 2013

Terms of approval

1. The Chief investigator is responsible for ensuring that permission letters are obtained and a copy forwarded to SCERH before any data collection can occur at the specified organisation. **Failure to provide permission letters to SCERH before data collection commences is in breach of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research and the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research.**
2. Approval is only valid whilst you hold a position at Monash University.
3. It is the responsibility of the Chief Investigator to ensure that all investigators are aware of the terms of approval and to ensure the project is conducted as approved by SCERH.
4. You should notify SCERH immediately of any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants or unforeseen events affecting the ethical acceptability of the project.
5. The Explanatory Statement must be on Monash University letterhead and the Monash University complaints clause must contain your project number.
6. **Amendments to the approved project (including changes in personnel):** Requires the submission of a Request for Amendment form to SCERH and must not begin without written approval from SCERH. Substantial variations may require a new application.
7. **Future correspondence:** Please quote the project number and project title above in any further correspondence.
8. **Annual reports:** Continued approval of this project is dependent on the submission of an Annual Report. This is determined by the date of your letter of approval.
9. **Final report:** A Final Report should be provided at the conclusion of the project. SCERH should be notified if the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.
10. **Monitoring:** Projects may be subject to an audit or any other form of monitoring by SCERH at any time.
11. **Retention and storage of data:** The Chief Investigator is responsible for the storage and retention of original data pertaining to a project for a minimum period of five years.

Professor Ben Canny
Chair, SCERH

Cc: Dr Stuart David Michael Thomas; Ms Irina Elliott

MONASH University

VICTORIA POLICE

Standing Committee on Ethics for Research involving Humans (SCERH)
Research Ethics and Compliance Branch
Monash University
Wellington Rd,
Clayton Vic 3800

11 August 2008

Dear Dr Houssami

Study Title: **Victims' experiences with police**

As part of its mental health strategy Victoria Police fully supports the above mentioned study which represents part of *Project PRIMeD: Police Responses to the Interface with Mental Disorder* a 5 year. $3.5M collaborative research project between Monash University and Victoria Police. partially funded by the Australian Research Council *Linkage Projects* Scheme.

The research project is designed specifically to address the four key value areas of Intelligent Policing, Confident Policing. Community Policing and Partnership Policing outlined in The Way Ahead Strategic Plan 2003-2008. This project will provide evidence based research to inform Victoria Police on its current practices. culture and outcomes which will then be used to develop and model of best practice to train and educate its members, thus addressing the Intelligent and Confident Policing value areas. Through researching current practice and undestanding the roles of all stakeholders in mental health service delivery collaborative outcomes can be developed to improve the system, thus addressing the Community and Partnership Policing value areas.

Victoria Police has committed to provide the requested data and resources to the project and strongly supports the undertaking of the project.

Yours sincerely.

Ashley M Dickinson, APM
Commander
Operations Coordination Department
    /9 / 8   /2008

Centre for Forensic
Behavioural Science

Forensicare

Centre for Forensic Behavioural Science, School of Psychology, Psychiatry and Psychological Medicine, Monash University, Victorian Institute of Forensic Mental Health, Locked Bag 10, Fairfield VIC 3078 AUSTRALIA Tel: +61 3 9495 9159; Fax: +61 3 9495 9195

Permission Letter for "Victims' experiences with police study"

15th July 2008

Irina Elliott
Centre for Forensic Behavioural Science
Monash University
Locked Bag 10
FAIRFIELD, VIC 3078

Dear Irina,

Thank you for your request to put up a poster and place postcards to recruit participants for the above-named research at Eastern Access Community Health.

I have read and understood the Explanatory Statement regarding the research and have seen the drafts of the poster and postcards, and hereby give permission for this research to be advertised at EACH.

Yours Sincerely,

Mr. Bernie Durkin
Acting GM
Specialist Regional Counselling

Moreland Community Health Service Inc.
www.mchs.org.au
ABN 24550946840

Values: • Passion   • Responsibility   • Integrity   • Diversity   • Engagement

15 August 2008

Irina Elliot
Centre for Forensic Behavioural Science
Monash University
Locked Bag 10
Fairfield, VIC 3078

Permission Letter for "Victim's experiences with police" study

Dear Irina,

Thank you for your request to put up a poster and place post-cards to recruit participants in the above named research at Moreland Community Health Service.

I have read and understood the explanatory statement regarding the research and have seen the drafts of the poster and postcards, and hereby give permission for this research to be advertised at MCHS.

Yours sincerely

Paul Newland
Director
Counselling Services
Moreland Community Health Service

from   **Sharon Read** <sharonr@wrhc.com.au>

to   Irina Elliot <Irina.Elliott@med.m

cc   Robin Gregory <robing@wrhc.c

date   16 September 2008 16:31

subject   RE: Victims' experiences with p

mailed-by   wrhc.com.au

Hi Irina,

Sorry about my delay in getting back to you.

I have read the attached documentation and am fine for you to put the posters in reception at WRHC subj
The contact for putting the posters and postcards around is RobinG@wrhc.com.au

Regards,

Sharon

Sharon Read
General Manager, Primary Care and Health Information
Western Region Health Centre.
Ph: 9362 0121
Mobile. 0409 806 987

APPENDIX C

ADVERTISING MATERIALS: POSTER AND CARDS SAMPLES

POSTER
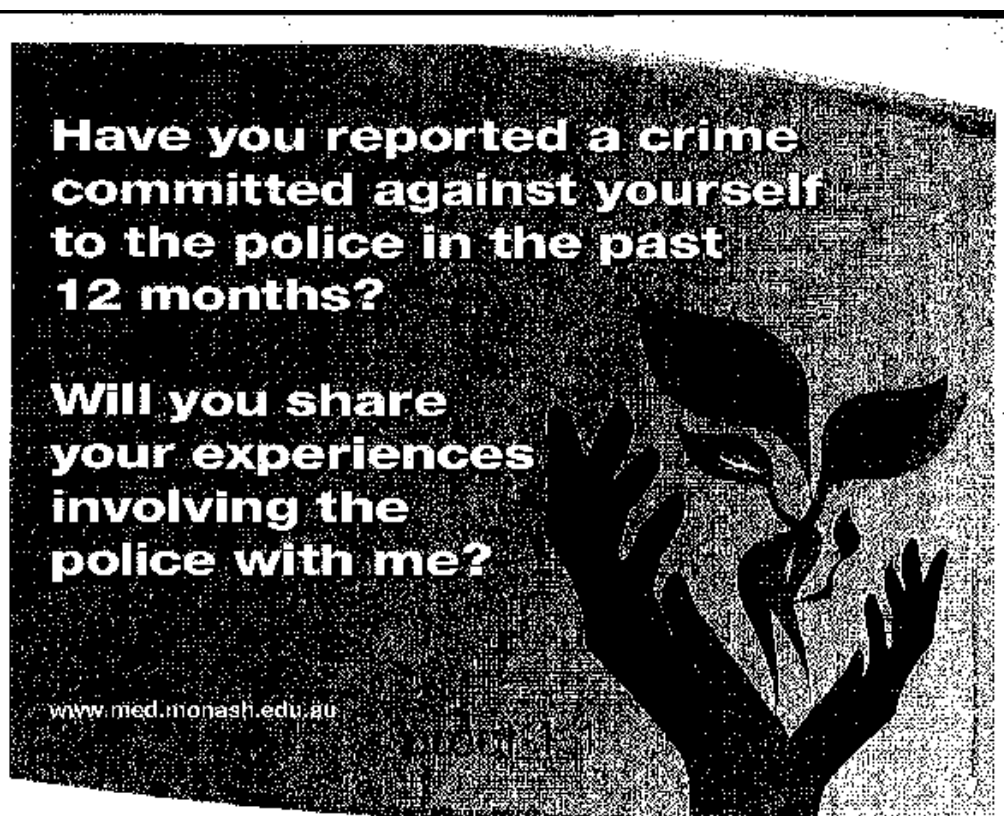
I am conducting a research project towards a PhD degree at Monash University. I am interested in crime victims' experiences with the police. Details of the crime will not be required.

In appreciation for your time, you will receive a $40 Coles voucher.

If you are interested, please take a postcard and contact me:

Irina Elliott

Telephone: 0421 852 852
Email: irina.elliott@med.monash.edu.au

Centre for Forensic
Behavioural Science

MONASH University
Medicine, Nursing and Health Sciences

CARD (FRONT SIDE)

Have you reported a crime committed against yourself to the police in the past 12 months?

Will you share your experiences involving the police with me?

www.med.monash.edu.au

MONASH University
Medicine, Nursing and Health Sciences
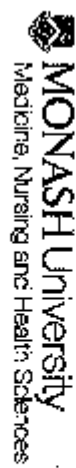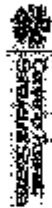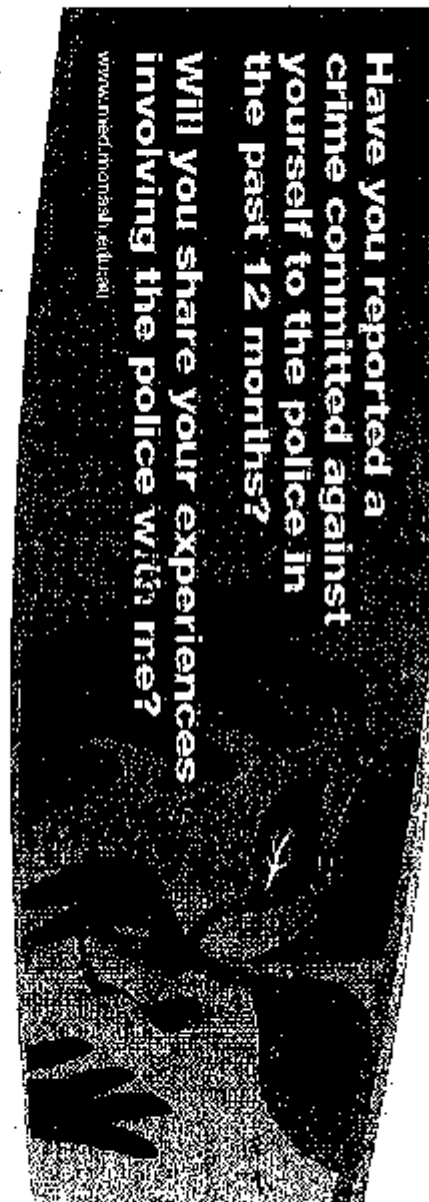
CARD (BACK SIDE)

Have you reported a crime committed against yourself to the police in the past 12 months?

I am conducting a research project towards a PhD degree at Monash University. I am interested in crime victims' experiences with the police.

An approximately one hour interview will be conducted at a time convenient for you either at Caulfield campus of Monash University, or by phone. The questions will focus on your experiences with the police. Details of the campus will be required. You are welcome to have a support person present during the interview. Information you provide will be treated as confidential.

In appreciation for your time, you will receive a $40 Coles voucher.

Contact

Irina Elliott:

Telephone: 0421 852 852
Email: irina.elliott@med.monash.edu.au

You can e-mail me, leave a telephone message for me or you can text me detailing how I can get in contact with you. This is a private voice mail and I will check it regularly, but don't worry if I don't get back to you immediately.

Go Boldy.

MONASH University
Medicine, Nursing and Health Sciences

APPENDIX D

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

CONSENT FORM

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Explanatory Statement

Victims' experiences with police

This information sheet is for you to keep.

My name is Irina Elliott and I am conducting a research project under the supervision of Dr Stuart Thomas and Professor James Ogloff at the School of Psychology, Psychiatry and Psychological Medicine, Monash University. This research is towards a PhD degree. This means that I will be writing a thesis which is the equivalent of a 300 page book. We have funding from the Australian Research Council and Victoria Police to conduct a study looking at victims' experiences with police.

In carrying out this research we will be inviting people who have reported a crime committed against them to the police in the past 12 months to take part in the project. We are hoping that a total of 100 people will take part in this project.

The aim/purpose of the research
The aim of this study is to find out what people who have been victims of crime think about the way they were treated by police. Details of the crime will not be required.

Possible benefits
We can not guarantee any direct benefits for you. We hope that the information we collect will help police officers to respond better to people who have been victims of crime.

What does the research involve?
Participation will involve an interview with a researcher and you will be asked about your feelings about the police and the law in general and about your personal contacts with Victoria Police as a result of reporting a crime committed against you in the past 12 months.

How much time will the research take?
The interview will take about 1 hour at a time suitable for you and there will be chances to stop for breaks if and when you would like.

Inconvenience/discomfort
There are only minimal risks that you will experience any distress from participating in this study. It is possible that some of the questions may cause you some minor discomfort. If you do start feeling upset, then please let the researcher know and the researcher can stop the interview and help you if needed.

Payment
You will receive a $40 Coles voucher in appreciation for your time. In addition, if required, you will be reimbursed for travel expenses.

Can I withdraw from the research?
Being in this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to participate (you do not have to take part in this study if you do not want to). If you do agree to participate but later change your mind, you can withdraw from the study until the end of the interview by saying that you do not wish to continue the interview. If you refuse to participate in the study, there will be no negative consequences for you.

Confidentiality
The information you provide to us will remain confidential and will not be given to others. There are some cases where we will have to break confidentiality, however. Examples of this would be if you told us that you wanted to hurt yourself or hurt another named person. In these cases we are obliged to report these to make sure that you and/or other people are kept safe. No names will be recorded on information that we collect from you. Any identifying information will be stored separately to the data we collect. Only members of the research team will have access to the data. The documents will be stored in a locked office at Monash University and electronic information will be stored in a password protected computer.

Storage of data
Storage of the data collected will adhere to the University regulations and kept on University premises in a locked cupboard/filing cabinet for 5 years; after that it will be disposed of in a confidential manner. A report of the study may be submitted for publication but individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report.

Counselling Services
There are a number of counselling services that are available to you if you need to talk to someone; these include Lifeline (13 11 14) and also Grief Line (9596-7799).

Results
If you would like to be informed of the general research findings, please contact Irina Elliott on 9495 9309 or Irina.Elliott@med.monash.edu.au. The findings are accessible for a period of 2 years.

If you would like to contact the **researchers** about any aspect of this study, please contact the Chief Investigator:	If you have a **complaint** concerning the manner in which this research **CF08/2401-2008001226** is being conducted, please contact:
Dr Stuart Thomas Locked Bag 10 Fairfield 3078 Email: Stuart.Thomas@med.monash.edu.au Tel: 9495-9162 Fax:9495-9195	Executive Officer Standing Committee on Ethics in Research Involving Humans (SCERH) Building 3e Room 111 Research Office Monash University VIC 3800 Tel: +61 3 9905 2052 Fax: +61 3 9905 1420 Email: scerh@adm.monash.edu.au

Consent Form

Project Title: Victims' experiences with police

Note: This consent form will remain with the Monash University researcher for their records

Chief Investigators: James Ogloff, Stuart Thomas

Participant's Name:_____

I **consent** to participate in the Monash University research project specified above. I have had the project explained to me, and the Explanatory Statement read to me, which I will keep for my records.

In participating, I understand that:

- I agree to be interviewed by a researcher about potentially sensitive material (e.g. treatment by police)

- My participation is of my free choice and that I can withdraw my consent until the end of the interview without being disadvantaged in any way

- Any data that the researcher collects for use in reports or published findings will not contain names or identifying information

- Any information I provide is confidential and that no identifying information will be disclosed in any reports on the project or to any other party

- Confidentiality will be broken if I tell the researcher that I want to hurt myself or hurt another named person

- Information given to the researchers is not covered by privilege in the legal sense

- The data collected is for research purposes

Signature:_____Date:_____

Interview Schedule

ID number:_____   Date:_____

Part 1 Background and Sociodemographics

Section 1: General background

First I would like to ask you some general questions about yourself, such as your age, or where you were born. This information helps me to understand how different circumstances influence people's experiences.

1. DOB:_____
    88 refused
    99 don't know

2. Gender:
    1   male
    2   female

3. Country of birth:_____
    88 refused
    99 don't know

4. Where do you live?

1   homeless   6   own flat/house
2   shelter/refuge   7   house/flat with family of origin
3   hostel type accommodation   8   institution
4   rented room   9   inpatient unit
5   rented flat/house   10 other_____
88 refused   99 don't know

5. Educational level:

      1 no secondary school
      2a secondary school not completed
      2b secondary school completed
      3 post-school qualification (specify)___
      4 other _____
      88 refused
      99 don't know

6. Marital status:

      1 never married
      2 married/de facto
      3 divorced/separated/widowed
      4   other_____
      88 refused
      99 don't know

7. How would you describe your ethnicity?

      1 Caucasian
      2 Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander
      3 Asian
      4 Black
      5 other_____
      88 refused
      99 don't know

8. Source of income:

      1 wage or salary
      2 pension or benefit
      3 other_____
      88 refused
      99 don't know

Section 2: Contacts with policing services

1. Have you ever been charged with an offence?

> 1 No *go to Q2*
> 2 Yes
> 88 refused
> 99 don't know

2. How many times?_____
> 88 refused
> 99 don't know

3. What was (were) the offence(s)?
> a_____
> b_____
> c_____
> 88 refused
> 99 don't know

4. Have you ever been a victim of crime? How many times?
_____

> 88 refused
> 99 don't know

5. Have you reported a crime committed against you to the police in the last 12 months?
> 1 Yes
> 2   No
> 88 refused
> 99 don't know

6. What was(were) the crime(s)? (*If more than one*, *ask*: Which one did you report to the police most recently?)
> a._____
> b._____
> c._____
> d._____
> 88 refused
> 99 don't know

7. Was/were the offender(s) known to you?

      1 No   *Go to Q11*
      2 Yes
      88 refused
      99 don't know

8. Who was the first person you told about the crime?_____
                                         88 refused
                                       99 don't know

9. Whose idea was it to inform the police?

      1   own
      2   others'_____
      3   both_____
      88 refused
      99 don't know

10. How did you report the crime?

      1   in person
      2   over the phone
      3   other_____
      88 refused
      99 don't know

11. Where did you report the crime?

      1   at the police station
      2   from home
      88 refused
      99 don't know

12. What influenced you to decide to report to the police? What did you want the police to do? Did you receive the desired outcome?

      _____
      _____
      _____
      88 refused
      99 don't know

Part 2 Legitimacy

People have different opinions about how important it is to help police officers to maintain law and order in society. The following statements are concerned with your own feelings about police and the law. Please indicate the level of your agreement/disagreement with these statements:

1. I should accept the decisions made by police, even if I think they are wrong.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

2. I should do what the police tell me to do, even when I do not understand the reasons for their decisions.

1	2	3	4	5	6

3. I should do what the police tell me to do, even when I disagree with their decisions.

1	2	3	4	5	6

4. I should do what the police tell me to do, even if I do not like the way they treat me.

1	2	3	4	5	6

5. There are times when it is ok for me to ignore what the police tell me.

1	2	3	4	5	6

6. Sometimes I have to bend the law for things to come out right.

1	2	3	4	5	6

7. The law represents the values of people in power, rather than the values of people like me.

1	2	3	4	5	6

8. People in power use the law to try to control people like me.

1	2	3	4	5	6

9. The law does not protect my interests.

1	2	3	4	5	6

10. Overall, Victoria Police is a legitimate authority and people should obey the decisions that Victoria Police officers make.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

11. I have confidence that Victoria Police does its job well.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

12. I trust the leaders of Victoria Police to make decisions that are good for everyone.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

13. People's basic rights are well protected by the police.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

14. The police care about the well-being of everyone they deal with.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

15. I am proud of the work of Victoria Police.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

16. I agree with many of the values that define what Victoria Police stands for.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

17. The police are often dishonest.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

18. Some of the things the police do embarrass us.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

19. There are many things about Victoria police and its policies that need to be changed.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

Now I would like to ask you about how you are feeling at the moment. On a scale from 1 to 10, where 1 is extremely sad and 10 is extremely happy, where would you place yourself at the moment?

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10
Extremely sad   extremely happy

Part 4 Quality of interpersonal treatment
Now I would like to ask you about your personal experiences with Victoria Police. Specifically, I am interested in your contacts with the police as a result of reporting the crime. I would like you to think of the whole process: how you contacted police to report the crime, gave a statement, how your case was investigated (including interviews with police officers) and how you were informed about the outcome of your case. Could you give your ratings based on these experiences to the following statements:

1.Police treated me politely.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Not polite at all   Extremely polite

88 refused
99 don't know

1.1 What has made you choose this particular rating?

Was there anything that police did or said? [Were they friendly? annoyed? Did they use respectful language? Could you give an example?]	Why do you think they did (said) that?	Do you think that was fair?	How did that make you feel?

1.2 How would you have liked the police to have treated you in this situation?

1.3 What does being treated politely by police mean to you?

1.4 Any other comments about being treated politely by police?

2. Police showed concern for my rights.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
No concern at all   Complete concern

88 refused
99 don't know

2.1 What has made you choose this particular rating?

Was there anything that police did or said? [Were you informed about your rights as a victim? Did you have a support person with you? Was it offered? Would you have chosen to, had you known? Could you give an example?]	Why do you think they did (said) that?	Do you think that was fair?	How did that make you feel?

2.2 How would you have liked the police to have treated you in this situation?

2.3 What does police showing concern for your rights mean to you?

2.4 Any other comments about police showing concerns for your rights?

3. Police treated me with dignity and respect.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
No respect at all   Complete respect
88 refused
99 don't know

3.1 What has made you choose this particular rating?

Was there anything that police did or said? [Did you feel your privacy was respected? Did they try not to embarrass you? not to push you around? Did you feel they were non-judgmental? Dismissive? Did you feel they were accusing you? Could you give an example?]	Why do you think they did (said) that?	Do you think that was fair?	How did that make you feel?

3.2 How would you have liked the police to have treated you in this situation?

3.3 What does treating with dignity and respect by police mean to you?

3.4 Any other comments about being treated with dignity respect by police?

Part 5 Neutrality

1 I was treated the same as anyone else would be in the same situation.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Not at all the same   Completely the same

88 refused
99 don't know

1.1 What has made you choose this particular rating?

Was there anything that police did or said? [Did you feel that they were picking on you? Did you feel they had preconceived ideas about you? Could you give an example?]	Why do you think they did (said) that?	Do you think that was fair?	How did that make you feel?

1.2 How would you have liked the police to have treated you in this situation?

1.3 What does being treated by police the same as anyone else would be mean to you?

1.4 Any other comments about being treated by police the same as anyone else would be?

2. Police were honest.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

Not at all honest   Completely honest

88 refused
99 don't know

2.1 What has made you choose this particular rating?

Was there anything that police did or said? [Were the police honest in what they said to you? Did the police do anything you thought was improper or dishonest? Could you give an example?]	Why do you think they did (said) that?	Do you think that was fair?	How did that make you feel?

2.2 How would you have liked the police to have treated you in this situation?

2.3 What does police being honest mean to you?

2.4 Any other comments about police being honest?

<u>3. Police made their decisions based on facts.</u>

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Not at all based on facts   Completely based on facts

88 refused
99 don't know

3.1 What has made you choose this particular rating?

Was there anything that police did or said? [Were the police focused on facts when making decisions in your case? Did you feel that decisions they made were influenced by their personal biases? Could you give an example?]	Why do you think they did (said) that?	Do you think that was fair?	How did that make you feel?

3.2 How would you have liked the police to have treated you in this situation?

3.3 What does police making decisions based on facts mean to you?

3.4 Any other comments about police making decisions based on facts?

Part 6 Participation

<u>1. Police gave me a chance to express my views before making decisions.</u>

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Not at all gave a chance   Completely gave a chance

88 refused
99 don't know

1.1 What has made you choose this particular rating?

Was there anything that police did or said? [Did you have an opportunity to describe your situation before the police made a decision about how to handle it? Did they give you time to comment? Reflect? Think? Did you feel they understood what you were saying? Were they good listeners? Were they patient? Could you give an example?]	Why do you think they did (said) that?	Do you think that was fair?	How did that make you feel?

1.2 How would you have liked the police to have treated you in this situation?

1.3 What does the police giving you a chance to express your views before making decisions mean to you?

1.4 Any other comments about the police giving you a chance to express your views before making decisions?

2. Police gave me a role in deciding how to solve my problem.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Not at all gave a role   Completely gave a role

88 refused
99 don't know

1.2 What has made you choose this particular rating?

Was there anything that police did or said? Could you give an example?	Why do you think they did (said) that?	Do you think that was fair?	How did that make you feel?

1.2 How would you have liked the police to have treated you in this situation?

1.3 What does the police giving you a role in deciding how to solve your problem mean to you?

1.4 Any other comments about the police giving you a role in deciding how to solve your problem?

Part 7 Trust

<u>**1. Police considered my views.**</u>

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Did not consider at all   Completely considered

88 refused
99 don't know

1.1 What has made you choose this particular rating?

Was there anything that police did or said? [Did they really listen to what you had to say? Did the believe you? Could you give an example?]	Why do you think they did (said) that?	Do you think that was fair?	How did that make you feel?

1.2 How would you have liked the police to have treated you in this situation?

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1.3 What does police considering your views mean to you?

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1.4 Any other comments about police considering your views?

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2. Police tried to do the right thing by me.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Did not try at all   Extremely tried

88 refused
99 don't know

2.1 What has made you choose this particular rating?

Was there anything that police did or said? [Did the police try sincerely to help you? Did they try to find the best solution? Were they supportive? Could you give an example?]	Why do you think they did (said) that?	Do you think that was fair?	How did that make you feel?

2.2 How would you have liked the police to have treated you in this situation?

2.3 What does police trying to do the right thing by you mean to you?

2.4 Any other comments about police trying to do the right thing by you?

3. Police tried to take account of my needs.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
Not at all tried   Extremely tried

88 refused
99 don't know

3.1 What has made you choose this particular rating?

Was there anything that police did or said? [Were the police genuinely interested in you as a person? Did they try to create a personal conversation? Did you feel they displayed a formal, non-accessible attitude? Did they tell you where you could go for any further help or advice? Were they sensitive to your needs? Did they provide for your care by someone (family member, guardian, doctor) before leaving you? Could you give an example?]	Why do you think they did (said) that?	Do you think that was fair?	How did that make you feel?

3.2 How would you have liked the police to have treated you in this situation?

3.3 What does police trying to take account of your needs mean to you?

3.4 Any other comments about police trying to take account of your needs?

4. Police cared about my concerns.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Not at all cared   Extremely cared

88 refused
99 don't know

4.1 What has made you choose this particular rating?

Was there anything that police did or said? [Did the police care about your well-being? Were they sympathetic? Indifferent? Understanding? Could you give an example?]	Why do you think they did (said) that?	Do you think that was fair?	How did that make you feel?

4.2 How would you have liked the police to have treated you in this situation?

4.3 What does police caring about your concerns mean to you?

4.4 Any other comments about police caring about your concerns?

5. I trust the police officers who handled my case.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Don't trust at all   Completely trust

88 refused
99 don't know

5.1 What has made you choose this particular rating?

Was there anything that police did or said? [Did any of the police officers show human kindness to you? did they offer you food or drink? Could you give an example?]	Why do you think they did (said) that?	Do you think that was fair?	How did that make you feel?

5.2 How would you have liked the police to have treated you in this situation?

5.3 What does trusting police officers who handle your case mean to you?

5.4 Any other comments about trusting police officers who handle your case?

6. Police explained the reasons for their actions.

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Didn't explain at all   Completely explained

88 refused
99 don't know

6.1 What has made you choose this particular rating?

Was there anything that police did or said? [Did you understand why they made the decisions they made? Did you understand why they treated you the way they did? Do you think the police gave honest explanations for their actions? Did the police state clearly arguments/evidence presented by different parties and why those were accepted or rejected? Were you kept informed about the progress in your case? Could you give an example?]	Why do you think they did (said) that?	Do you think that was fair?	How did that make you feel?

6.2 How would you have liked the police to have treated you in this situation?

6.3 What does police explaining reasons for their actions mean to you?

6.4 Any other comments about police explaining reasons for their actions?

Part 8 Feelings of powerlessness

<u>1. To what extent did you feel powerless before the interaction with the police?</u>

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Not powerless at all   Completely powerless

88 refused
99 don't know

<u>2. To what extent did you feel powerless after the interaction with the police?</u>

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Not powerless at all   Completely powerless

88 refused
99 don't know

2.1 What do you think made you feel this way?

Was there anything that police did or said? [Could you give an example?]	Why do you think they did (said) that?	Do you think that was fair?	How would you have liked the police to have treated you in this situation?

Part 9   Subjective Effects

1.What consequences did the contact with police have on your ability to cope with the crime?

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Extremely negative   Extremely positive

88 refused
99 don't know

2.What consequences did the contact with police have on your self-esteem?

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Extremely negative   Extremely positive

88 refused
99 don't know

3.What consequences did the contact with police have on how optimistically you view the future?

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Extremely negative   Extremely positive

88 refused
99 don't know

4.What consequences did the contact with police have on your trust in the institution of policing?

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Extremely negative   Extremely positive

88 refused
99 don't know

5.What consequence did the contact with police have on your faith in a just world?

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Extremely negative   Extremely positive

88 refused
99 don't know

Part 10 Satisfaction, cooperation, and outcome fairness

1. To what extent the police did a good job dealing with your situation?

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Not a good job at all   Extremely good job

88 refused
99 don't know

2. If the police needed your help, how likely you would help them?

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Not likely at all   Extremely likely

88 refused
99 don't know

3. How fair was the outcome you received from the police?

1   2   3   4   5   6   7
Not fair at all   Extremely fair

88 refused
99 don't know

Part 11 Justice Sensitivity

Please indicate the level of your agreement/disagreement with these statements:

1. It bothers me when others receive something that ought to be mine.
1   2   3   4   5   6
Not at all   Exactly

2. It makes me angry when others receive an award which I have earned.
1   2   3   4   5   6
Not at all   Exactly

3. I can't easily bear it when others profit (unilaterally) from me.
1   2   3   4   5   6
Not at all   Exactly

4. I can't forget for a long time when I have to fix others' carelessness.
1   2   3   4   5   6
Not at all   Exactly

5. It gets me down when I get fewer opportunities than others to develop my skills.
1   2   3   4   5   6
Not at all   Exactly

6. It makes me angry when others are undeservingly better off than me.
1   2   3   4   5   6
Not at all   Exactly

7. It worries me when I have to work hard for things that come easily to others.
1   2   3   4   5   6
Not at all   Exactly

8. I ruminate for a long time when other people are being treated better than me.
1   2   3   4   5   6
Not at all   Exactly

9. It burdens me to be criticised for things that are being overlooked with others.
1   2   3   4   5   6
Not at all   Exactly

10. It makes me angry when I am treated worse than others.
1   2   3   4   5   6
Not at all   Exactly

Part 11 Attitudes questions
Please indicate whether each statement is true or false in relation to you
personally:

1. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged.
T   F
2. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.
T   F
3. On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too
little of my ability.
T   F
4. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority
even though I knew they were right.
T   F
5. No matter who I am talking to, I am always a good listener.
T   F
6. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.
T   F
7. I am always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.
T   F
8. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.
T   F
9. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.
T   F
10. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from
my own.
T   F
11. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of
others.
T   F
12. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favours of me.
T   F
13. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.
T   F

Finally, is there anything else you would like to say or want me to know?

Could you tell me what made you decide to take part in this study?

Response:_____
_____
_____
_____

Thank you