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Cultural Competence and Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions of Criminal Justice Students: A Survey Methods Approach

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CULTURAL COMPETENCE AND MOTIVATION TO CONTROL PREJUDICED

REACTIONS OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE STUDENTS:

A SURVEY METHODS APPROACH

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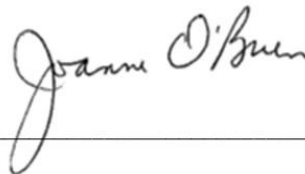Molloy College

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ABSTRACT

CULTURAL COMPETENCE AND MOTIVATION TO CONTROL PREJUDICED REACTIONS OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE STUDENTS:
A SURVEY METHODS APPROACH

Implicit bias and discrimination in the police department can lead to devastating effects for people of color in racially diverse urban and suburban areas. However, there is very little research on the racial attitudes and assumptions that aspiring police recruits and other criminal justice professionals have about people of color who reside in inner cities and diverse communities. This study focused on assessing cultural awareness and motivation to control prejudiced reactions in a self-selected group of criminal justice undergraduate college students to see what bias they may have prior to entering the police department. Students completed a survey that included the following measures: (a) a demographic questionnaire, (b) Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire (CC); and (c) The Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale (MCPR). A sample population of 38 students completed the online survey. The researcher conducted descriptive and inferential statistics to answer the research questions that guided this study. The results indicated a positive relationship between the CC and the MCPR; the motivation to control the prejudiced reaction increased as cultural competence increased. Furthermore, CC accounted for 33% of the variance in MCPR, indicating that enhanced cultural awareness contributes to lower levels of biased reactions. The participants' more diverse experiences in terms of exchanges with people from other cultures and races could explain this enhanced CC. The scores on both scales were also compared by gender, ethnicity, and place of origin, where both CC and MCPR scores were significantly higher for female students than males. This quantitative study contributes to the field by

identifying potential gaps in criminal justice education that could be used to enhance the

cultural competency of future police officers and other criminal justice professionals who serve

communities of color. The researcher included ideas for future research.

Keywords: Policing, Education, Cultural Competence, Implicit Bias, Diversity

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my departed loved ones: My mother, Mildred DeMola, RN, my grandparents, Percy and Carrie Lambert, my brother Keith, my uncles, Frederick and Herbert, and cousin, Mildred Patricia Lambert, cousin.

I am so grateful for the support of my children, grandchildren, great- grandchildren, extended family, and dear friends. I am indebted to Charles E. Coleman, Retired Lieutenant, NYPD, Professor Emeritus, New York City College of Technology and City University of New York who has served as my mentor since 1977. Thank you for your continued support and unconditional love.

I also want to express my gratitude to the New York Police Department, City of New York, where I was fortunate to serve for many years. These experiences in the New York City Police Department guided my research and will continue to enhance future studies.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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CHAPTER ONE

Two Nassau County police officers surrounded my car as I prepared paperwork in a predominantly White suburban neighborhood. These officers approached my vehicle after exiting their police cars. With hands on their revolvers, they stated they responded to someone's call about a Black person parked in front of their house. On another occasion, when investigating a White police candidate in a gated community in New York City, I was challenged by a White resident with a Doberman Pincher who asked me how I got through the gate. I identified myself, and he retreated. In this instance, the White candidate I investigated was arrested for racial slurs and beating up a Black transit worker weeks after this incident.

As a retired Black female detective, I served in the New York Police Department (NYPD) for 26 years, including 18 years assigned to the Applicant Processing Unit. I witnessed my fellow police officers of color and myself being mistreated and victimized because of the color of our skin. Were these incidents examples of implicit bias? Were they indicators of discrimination and prejudice? Does police recruit training need to be improved to decrease the number of these incidents directed at the police and communities of color? These experiences inspired me to pursue a doctoral degree focused on social justice and to conduct research on cultural competency and motivation to control prejudiced reactions of college students majoring or minoring in a criminal justice degree program.

The effect of discrimination, prejudice, and implicit bias is devastating for people of color in urban areas and racially diverse suburban communities. Police candidates, like other people in service professions, have racial biases. This bias is reflected in disproportionate stops by police, in many cases, just for being a person of color (Eterno et al., 2016). Being victimized daily because of skin color and ethnicity affects community members' attitudes toward police.

The constant "stop and frisk" tactics are unique to people of color in urban areas and haunt humanity's existence, especially for Black males. A recent federal district court decision found that the NYPD engaged in unconstitutional policing. The court found that officers stopped young men of color and that most of those detained were innocent of any wrongdoing: "Pressure on lower-level officers emanating from headquarters was found to be responsible for these practices" (Eterno et al., 2016, p. 181). These problems likely stem from a mismatch between the number of police officers of color who serve communities that have primarily Black and Brown residents.

My experience with police recruitment events in the city and with my fraternal organization, The Guardians, have shown me that recruiting people of color into the profession is difficult. The low interest in enrollment from persons of color is often related to (a) minor infractions and negative interactions with White police officers, (b) the lack of trust toward White police officers by persons of color, (c) people of color experiencing mistreatment and lack of professional attitudes when spoken to by White police officers, and (d) having peers and family members who discourage a career in policing (Hallenberg, 2017). Members of my family became police officers because of my encouragement. I followed my uncle into the police department, and I inspired younger generations to become police officers. I also grew up in New York City and have lived there my entire life. I firmly believe that living in racially diverse communities, understanding the culture, and being sensitive to diverse areas fosters tolerance and empathy in potential police officer applicants. From my experience, these urban and suburban police applicants are more likely to be passionate about policing, be aware of their own implicit biases, and act in less prejudiced or racially discriminating ways.

After being a part of applicant processing for numerous years, I found that the group most affected and discouraged from policing are people of color, particularly males. Realizing that more people of color who reside in the city should be a part of the police department became evident. However, the Department of Personnel disqualified people of color from the applicant processing pool because the police applicant was either unqualified in some part of the investigation, placed on review, or dropped out of the investigative process. These discriminatory patterns must change if we want to improve racial representation in police candidate recruitment and hiring practices. The other aspect that must change is how urban and suburban police candidates are educated about racial and cultural biases when serving communities of color before they enter the police department. In this study, I surveyed a group of undergraduate criminal justice students in the New York metro area to examine their cultural competency and motivation levels to control prejudice and biased reactions against people of color. My goal was to study a group of criminal justice students, some of whom will enter the police academy after graduation, to see what bias they may have prior to entering the police department and to inform future academy training.

Statement of the Problem

Even after attaining a college degree, police recruits often lack the knowledge and insight about the history, culture, and achievements of people of color living in the urban and suburban areas they serve. Being unfamiliar with ethnic and racial groups may cause police recruits to fear people of color because of their lack of education or exposure to diverse communities (Kaste, 2020). Such lack of knowledge restricts policing in urban and suburban communities of color, creating gaps in communication and interactions while serving people of color (Chappell, 2008; Shipton, 2011). Police applicants recruited from outside of diverse communities are disadvantaged, as they often lack the preparedness to work with people of

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different cultures and racial backgrounds. These disadvantages stem from limited exposure to people of color, lack of education about cultural awareness, negative attitudes, assumptions, and implicit bias and prejudices toward people of color (Sleeter & Carmona, 2017). Shortcomings in preparation may impact the recruits' quality of interactions and reactions to situations involving people who live in the inner cities and racially segregated suburban communities (Sleeter & Carmona, 2017).

According to Nosek et al. (2011), there have been dramatic changes in explicit attitudes and stereotypes of African Americans: "The pre-civil rights era to the early 21st century in the United States with negative stereotypes about African Americans is declining, and attitudes are becoming increasingly egalitarian" (Nosek et al., 2011, p. 152). However, implicit biases against Blacks remain. According to the Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2019), implicit bias indicates prejudice and stereotypes that are not intentional and often involve groups such as African Americans, women, and specific sexual orientation communities. Even with the belief that equality exists in the United States, people of color experience stereotyping daily. Such experiences tend to be historical for African Americans and are enacted in discriminatory and stereotypical ways, particularly for African American Blacks (Nosek et al., 2011). These experiences, paired with the current events of people of color who have been labeled negatively within their communities, have led me to pursue my dissertation topic.

When comparing the United States population by race and the police departments' makeup, there is an underrepresentation of Black and Latinx police officers. Similarly, when comparing New York City's and Nassau County's population to the NYPD and Nassau County Police Department, similar trends can be noted for Black and Asian police officers (see Table 1.1).

Table 1.1

Police Departments and the United States Population Disparities by Race

	White	Black	Latinx	Asian	Native American	Total
U.S. Population [1]	76.3%	13.4%	18.5%	5.9%	1.3%	328,239,523
U.S. Police Department [1]	72.6%	12.2%	11.6%	6.11%	0.6%	97,001
NYC Population [2]	32.1%	24.0%	29.1%	13.9%	0.4%	8,336,817
NYC Police Department [3]	46.7%	15.2%	29.1%	8.9%	0.1%	34,184
Nassau County [4]	62.0%	11.0%	17.0%	9.0%	0.1%	1,300,000
Nassau Police Department [5]	82%	08.0%	08.0%	0.7%	0.02%	*2,400*

Sources:

[1] Management and Administrative Statistics (2016)
[2] U.S. Census Quick Facts (2019)
[3] New York Police Department (NYPD.org)
[4] Nassau County
[5] Nassau County Police Department

The diverse U.S. population, which consists of various races, ethnic groups, cultures, and religions, is approximately 328 million (United States Census, 2019). Table 1.1 shows the populations of Whites nationally compared to that of people of color. The table also shows the differences in White police officers to that of people of color. Specifically, there is an underrepresentation of Blacks, Latinx, and Asians as police officers in law enforcement agencies. With the ever-growing population of color currently at 40% (Budiman, 2020) in the United States and even higher numbers in urban communities such as New York City, police recruits' preparedness to work with people of color is imperative.

The NYPD describes police-recruit training at the police academy as "state of the art." Their program is recognized and used as a model for police training nationally and globally (NYC.gov, n.d.). The police recruits are trained skillfully and prepared effectively on shooting techniques, traffic enforcement, terrorism, community involvement, technology, law, tactical defense, and professionalism in their role as police officers (NYC.gov, n.d.). While the training focuses on practical skills and aspects of policing, some believe that it does not fully address cultural awareness and sensitivity or discuss biases that police officers may hold, which are necessary to understand and address the needs in diverse communities.

One example of diversity training for police officers includes a drive-through on a police bus into various neighborhoods within the five boroughs of New York City, where the community's population is diverse by different races, ethnic groups, religions, and social statuses. In December 2011, a four-day sensitivity training program at the Apollo Theatre in Harlem, New York, titled "Advancing Community Trust" introduced diversity to new police department members (Gupta & Yang, 2016). In 2015, the NYPD used the police academy lecture hall to educate police officers about historical events concerning race and religion. During these events, the NYPD showcased two movies. One documentary focused on Emmett Till, a 14-year-old killed in the South by Whites who felt he stepped out of line by whistling at a White female. This act of violence was false and cost Emmett Till his life. The other documentary highlighted the life of Anne Frank, a White Jewish female who was a victim of the Holocaust. She was imprisoned in a German concentration camp for over two years. These events are examples that can be used when educating police officers about the history of discrimination and racism. Using these examples, the NYPD attempted to sensitize police officers to the issues of race and religion.

In-service training at the Sensitivity Unit at the police academy, which continues after completion of the police academy, is still not enough to complete any initial education focused on cultural competence preparedness. The seminars focused on policing in diverse communities, cultural awareness, and urban areas sensitivity often showed films portraying cultural differences, role-playing, and ethnic slurs that were not tolerated and found offensive by police officers. These seminars are presented to seasoned police officers with many years of experience. In many instances, these officers have cemented some negative attitudes and stereotypes concerning urban communities, and changing their opinions is difficult through in-service training. Therefore, training is vital at the onset of their policing career to positively impact their training. Police agencies also recognize a need to recruit a diverse pool of applicants (Gupta et al., 2008).

Moon et al. (2018) examined the need for intercultural competence assessment and training among police officers. In their study, political and social upsets involving police interaction with people of color in diverse communities showed a lack of training focused on cultural competency. The research was limited to where assessment standards are studied concerning intercultural training for police officers. Moon et al. (2018) felt that a questionnaire called the Intercultural Development Inventory would identify individual cultural differences that police officers adhered to and how intercultural competence training could be focused on by measuring cultural competency within police departments.

Cultural sensitivity is a concept related to *cultural competence* and "the willingness, ability, and sensitivity required to understand people with different backgrounds" (Finnish Institute of Health and Welfare, n.d.). In policing, fostering culturally respectful interpersonal skills depends on education; however, this learned skill mandates understanding the population they are swearing to serve. Kirk Burkhalter (2020), a New York Law School law professor and a

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former NYPD detective, stated that the police academy training should be extended to two years.

He felt that the curriculum should focus on enhancing police recruits' education to prepare them for the society they would serve. It should be considered a career in policing and not just a job.

Elntib and Milincic (2020) studied what motivated individuals to focus on a career in policing in developed and underdeveloped countries. They found that despite the dangers involved, this career was able to serve those in need, gratifying self-satisfaction, benefits, job security, and the prestige associated with policing. The variable age indicated that one's family encouraged and motivated young people to become police officers.

Incidents of police brutality against Blacks continue to be an issue. Some argue that it can be related to officers' cultural awareness and implicit biases as expressed through discriminatory acts. For example, Pegues and Mintz (2019) researched 150 police departments in large cities throughout the United States with police training focusing on unconscious biases and race among seasoned police officers. These investigative reporters sought answers about adequate implicit bias training for police officers. Their study found that approximately 69% of the law enforcement agencies responded, stating they have training that concentrates on unconscious biases and race. Over 57% of the agencies with the bias training noted that they implemented it after Michael Brown's death caused by a White officer in Missouri in 2014. Responses from police officers varied; some found policing difficult, others reported some success with implicit bias training, and others felt the course damaged their morale. Overwhelmingly, Pegues and Mintz (2019) determined that implicit bias training had some success, depending on how the instructors teach the curriculum to police recruits.

Experienced police officers tend to be reluctant to change their style of policing. There is limited literature explicitly addressing cultural awareness and sensitivity training preparedness

of police recruits to work in urban areas and diverse communities (Brownstein, 2019). Police recruits often lack exposure, experience, and familiarity with ethnic and racial groups and are associated with their primary education (Kaste, 2020). In the NYPD, Kaste's study (2020) on implicit bias training found that it contributed to changing minds but not necessarily behaviors. Specifically, Kaste focused on the police officers of White, Black, and Latinx backgrounds working in urban areas. Cognitive behavior and actions are directly linked to preconceived conditions and prior learned behaviors. Implicit biases are difficult to discard. Police officers in urban areas confront these implicit biases, often resulting in malicious behavior and confrontations. Nosek et al.'s (2011) study acknowledged that implicit bias may result in these negative behaviors.

Police recruits' lack of cultural awareness may directly affect their social perceptions, judgments, and their reactions to any given action. Greenwald and Banaji (1995) introduced *implicit attitude*, which refers to the concept as inaccurately identified and relating to prior experiences that may be positive or negative. Perhaps police recruits formulate their attitudes concerning diverse communities and policing as justifiable because of past predisposed experiences or exposure to prejudices and biases.

Overwhelmingly, there is a lack of police of color compared to Whites. With many White officers serving urban communities, being educated about race, religion, ethnicity, and sexual orientation is necessary for today's climate. Police recruits must understand and respect differences within societies and harmoniously serve communities.

Theoretical Framework

This study's theoretical framework is the implicit social cognition theory, also known as implicit bias. *Implicit bias* is positive or negative behavior associated with an individual's attitudes or stereotypes affecting action that may be unconsciously determined. These

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unconscious actions are deemed involuntary by individuals and without intent and knowledge. Banaji and Greenwald (1995) first defined the term in 1995. The theory states that implicit bias has unconscious tendencies; there is no clear way to correct implicit bias behavior. They researched to test this theory. In an interview with Renee Montagne (2016), Banaji revealed that she pressed a key to identify a Black profile with a negative interaction. When she tried to change her response positively, it was difficult to react positively. Interacting negatively with a particular race reinforces negative responses. Banaji found herself a victim of her experiment and had difficulties changing what she knew as implicit bias. She stated during the interview that her finger froze when she attempted to change her response to indicate a "black face with good things" (Montagne, 2016). Implicit bias tends to occur over a lifetime and is associated with race, ethnic groups, gender, and age. These biases come about through various sources, such as experiences in life, social media, and direct influences.

According to the Kirwan Institute for the Study of Race and Ethnicity (2015), implicit biases are pervasive. Social cognition predicts the processed social interaction and may determine how an individual feels about others. The perceptions of impartiality and implicit biases are connected and supported by different mental constructs. Implicit biases are not always in order of what is known to be correct, and they are favorable within in-groups, which is a sense of belonging. Implicit biases exist in in-groups and are malleable, meaning they are adaptable to the technique of de-biasing because of the complexity of the brain. Acts that define implicit biases, attitudes, and stereotypical behaviors are reversible with particular treatments associated with de-biasing.

Bartlett (2017) questioned if implicit bias is measurable. He connected several statistical facts; when individuals tested for implicit bias using the Implicit Association Test (IAT), the behavior results are found to be racist or prejudiced. In his study, he noted that

Blanton et al. (2009) also found issues with measuring implicit bias, but the correlation between implicit bias and a particular behavior was not significant. Nosek et al. (2011) found that the measurements of human behavior indicate empirical values. However, Blanton believed that measuring implicit bias lacks reliability and validity among scientists. Singal (2017) implied that IAT should not be considered accurate when used as a tool to measure racism. The impact on today's society and the wide use of the IAT has not illustrated conscious or unconscious behavior changes. Regael (2011) suggested that even though the IAT was popular for many years, its validity and reliability are questionable. He noted that in the testing of college students at California State University, where validity and reliability were measured, reliability gained strength when the test became familiar to the students. With the current state of society, the challenge of identifying implicit bias and measuring constructs that consistently promote behavior that is conscious or unconscious of race is a considerable variable.

Being judgmental in particular circumstances and, in some instances, in policing shows insights into the behavior identified as implicit bias. However, less is known about whether aspiring police in criminal justice programs are given adequate and effective education on cultural sensitivity and awareness of implicit racial bias, which could lead to less racial profiling and inequitable incidents with police based on race (Brandl, 2020; Burkhalter, 2020).

Purpose of the Study

This study filled that gap in the literature by surveying a group of criminal justice college students on their cultural competency and motivation levels to reduce prejudiced reactions. Specifically, this study focused on how prepared the soon-to-be police officers and other criminal justice professionals are for their work with diverse communities. The cultural competency preparedness and racial attitudes of the police recruits were compared across gender, ethnicity, or place of origin to examine potential bias based on these characteristics.

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This study identified the extent to which particular criminal justice students foster cultural competence and racial attitudes concerning people of color in diverse communities. I used a quantitative survey methodology to analyze the results of the survey questions given to the diverse group of criminal justice students. The Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire (CCSAQ) was designed "to identify the organization's cultural competence training needs in such areas as (a) improving service delivery to culturally diverse populations; (b) identifying cross-cultural strengths that currently exist within an organization, system, or network of professionals; and (c) focusing on beneficial training topics for providers of services" (www.pathwaysrtc, n.d.)

Examining the cultural competency of criminal justice students can help inform police academy in sensitivity training, specifically targeting the gaps in their understanding to prepare the police force for the challenges and nuances of working with diverse members of society. Communities with a high concentration of people of color often lack the exact representation in the police department, contributing to further division between them. Urban areas exist nationally, and the diversity of their police department does not reflect the demographics of their communities. Trainer (2016) indicated that the NYPD is one policing agency that has extended its recruitment to communities of various races, religions, sexual orientations, and cultures; however, many police academies are not as versed in this preparation. Police departments nationwide continue to fall short of the number of people of color recruited for the police department and who are a vital part of serving diverse communities.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided my study:

1. What is the extent of cultural competence and motivation to control prejudiced reactions of criminal justice undergraduate students?

2. Are there differences in the levels of cultural competence and motivation to control prejudiced reactions among criminal justice students by gender, race, and place of origin?

3. Does cultural competency predict the extent of motivation to control prejudiced reactions?

I hypothesized that criminal justice students who are male, White, and reside outside the perimeters of urban neighborhoods will have lower cultural competence scores and lower motivation to live and work in urban areas.

Research Methods

Because limited studies are looking at the cultural competency and racial biases among criminal justice students aspiring to become police and other criminal justice professionals, this study used quantitative survey methodology to investigate cultural competence and biases. According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), survey methodology measures the strengths and weaknesses of the information collected in the survey. This methodology helped gain insight into the different levels of cultural competency and motivation levels by gender, race, and place of origin.

Research Design

Creswell and Creswell (2018) defined survey research design as self-reported evaluations focusing on racially-activated attitudes. The results of the representative sample can be further generalized to a larger population. Through the survey approach, I examined various aspects of the criminal justice students regarding their background, attitudes, and knowledge related to cultural competence and racial attitudes preparedness. The focus on a diverse

population of students' backgrounds included demographic dimensions such as race and ethnicity, gender, and urban/suburban upbringing.

The Setting of the Study

The study occurred at a suburban liberal arts college with a strong Catholic faith and tradition. Although the students enrolled at the college were 56% White, middle-class students, student and faculty diversity has increased over the past 10 years. In Fall 2021, NCES reported that 44% of the students in attendance identified as Black, Latinx, or Asian.

I conducted the research during the Fall 2021 and Spring 2022 semesters. The criminal justice students had access to computers and laptops for survey completion in a secure classroom setting. I obtained written approval from the criminal justice chairperson to conduct this study. The college granted IRB approval, and I received student consent.

I acknowledged on the consent form that the study is confidential. All participants were anonymous volunteers who completed the survey at will. The volunteers could withdraw from participation at any time, without penalty or reflection on their current degree program or future criminal justice careers.

In criminal justice coursework, the instructors introduce students to the criminal justice system, policing, and other criminal justice careers. The college courses are similar to those students will take in the police academy.

Police academy training for police recruits typically focuses on the following elements: (a) technology, (b) tactical ability, (c) terrorism, (d) community policing, (e) training at the shooting range, (f) educational courses, and (g) methods to safely de-escalate hostile situations. Class sizes are dependent on the city's budget and can range from as small as 100 to 1,000 police recruits.

Participants

I recruited the participants in this study from criminal justice courses. The non-random purposeful sampling aimed to recruit a sample of 80 to 100 participants. The participants in this study were volunteers and informed about the importance of research and their service to urban and diverse communities. The students were also made aware that they would not be pressured in any way or mandated to remain in the study. Being candid concerning all aspects of the study ensured the volunteers' continuation, resulting in the outcome I sought from the targeted population.

Procedures

The survey indicates cultural competence and how well-prepared students are to work in urban and diverse neighborhoods and communities. The students who volunteered to participate in this study completed a baseline survey about cultural competence and implicit bias. Following the completion of the survey measures, I analyzed the data regarding their attitudes. The students typically took 15 to 20 minutes to complete the survey.

The students completed the surveys at the college during Fall 2021 and Spring 2022. I administered the surveys electronically using a survey online platform, SurveyMonkey. The survey results were analyzed using SPSS, a statistical software program. The survey responses were stored securely after students completed them at college, and the processing of the survey commenced upon completion of the study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Instruments

I used the following measures in this study: (1) a demographic questionnaire, (2) Cultural

Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire (Mason, 1995), and (3) The Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale (Dunton & Fazio, 1997).

The demographic questionnaire included 17 questions related to race, ethnicity, age, religion, sexual orientation, and place of residence. The place of residence indicated the length of time the person resided there. Additionally, I asked participants to include the number of times and why they have visited New York City in the past three months (e.g., a sports game, museums, social event, medical reasons, education). Please note that this study occurred during the COVID-19 pandemic and may have decreased the frequency of visits to New York City. The survey consisted of 17 questions that the students answered.

The CCSAQ focuses on the attitudes related to cultural awareness and aims to assess how knowledgeable individuals are about cultural differences. The CCSAQ consists of a total of 36 questions and includes the following sub-scales: (a) Cultural Awareness with 12 questions, (b) Knowledge with 13 questions, and (c) Skills with 12 questions. The four-point Likert-type scale responses are *never*, *sometimes/occasionally*, *reasonably often/pretty well*, and *always/very well*. The Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions (Dunton & Fazio, 1997) was developed in response to the need to measure explicit racial attitudes. The scale consists of 17 questions with two subscales: (a) Restraint to Avoid Dispute, which captures emotional responses and feelings related to external social pressures, and (b) Concerned with Acting Prejudiced, which focuses on the motivation to act in an unprejudiced way. The extent of the agreement was measured on a Likert-type scale from –3 (*strongly disagree*) to +3 (*strongly agree*). The reliability of the scale, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, was .81. The validity of the scale was also well established.

Significance of the Study

This study is significant because it examined college students' attitudes toward a criminal justice career in urban or suburban and diverse communities. These college students' attitudes can reflect how they will perform as police officers in a predominately diverse population. Enhanced cultural competence and preparedness among future police officers are essential in neighborhoods with diverse populations. When there is mistrust within the communities where police have demonstrated a lack of respect for people of color the rendering of adequate police service is hampered and limited. Police officers and the communities they serve benefit from adequate training in cultural preparedness and sensitivity. Understanding any unconscious, implicit biases and prejudices that police recruits may have been paramount for the police department and the communities they serve. After the police applicants are sworn in as police recruits, bringing attention to these biases can enhance training, cultural preparedness, and sensitivity.

This survey may modify the qualifications necessary to become police officers within urban areas by requiring additional educational attainment or specific training focused on policing. The extent of training at the police academy might also be considered six months to a year, with more attention given to diverse communities.

Limitations

Police academy classes depend on allocating funds from the city's budget. Accordingly, the number of police candidates changes and affects how many will be sworn in as police recruits. It is difficult to convince college students to become part of a research study that involves implicit biases and reveals any prejudices that may uncover conflicts with their police academy studies. Police recruits were apprehensive, and it was challenging to convey to them that the study was confidential, and that their participation would improve their knowledge

concerning cultural preparedness and sensitivity. Police recruits focus on their longevity as they hope to complete the training successfully. Acknowledging implicit bias, the lack of cultural awareness, and sensitivity concerning people of color in diverse communities by taking part in a study could reveal the police recruits' actual feelings about people of color in urban areas. Police recruits could fear the loss of their career as police officers. Defending my research and establishing a large pool of participants was my goal; this led to the findings selected for this study. Engaging, building, and demonstrating trust allowed the participants to complete my research, which was feasible and had not been previously challenged, as cultural competence preparedness, sensitivity, and implicit bias of future police recruits.

I conducted this research during the COVID-19 pandemic, which may have limited the number of students recruited to participate in the study. The focal college is a suburban region outside the city limits. The students who volunteered to participate may not reflect those outside the city in other regions or urban settings.

Students who volunteered in this study do so for the length of the college semester. The students who reside outside of New York City were needed to validate my study. Therefore, the generalization of the results will pertain only to the students who remain in the group studied. I hope the results of this research will lead to improvements in cultural competence preparedness, sensitivity, and implicit bias among police recruits who do not live in urban areas.

Summary

A career in policing demands a particular mindset. Police applicants should be mindful of the areas they will be serving. Being educated about urban areas will likely result in police recruits who are less likely to be biased and have negative assumptions and preconceived attitudes. Being knowledgeable about the diverse communities is an asset and will enhance their relationship within urban communities.

Definition of Key Terms

Bias – Biases are based on prejudice and stereotypes that individuals have formed against others and are associated with race, religion, sexual orientation, ethnic group, or place of national origin. Biases are usually negative, prejudicial, and can be learned (Basirico et al., 2021; Schaefer, 2016).

Communities of color – A group that consists of members with less power than the majority racial group (Schaefer, 2016).

Community – A community is located in a geographic area that grants people a sense of belonging and interdependence (Basirico et al., 2021; Schaefer, 2019).

Culture – An attachment of people to their particular place of origin, which acknowledges and encompasses customs, symbols, material possession, perceptions, norms, symbols, behavior, and attitudes (Andersen, 2017; Schaefer, 2019).

Discrimination – A denial of individual and group equal rights and opportunities based on biased, presumed characteristics and how one behaves (Andersen, 2017; Schaefer, 2019).

Ethnic groups –Groups of people identified by their national place of origin and may be linked by language, customs, and religion (Basirico, 2021; Schaefer, 2016).

Police recruits – Individuals who applied and completed a police officer examination and additional requirements to become police officers before entering the police academy (NYC.gov).

Probationary police officer - A police recruit who has completed the police academy training and is assigned to serve in the Police Department. The probationary police officer status lasts for five years. (NYC. gov)

Prejudice – Negative attitudes placed on all people in a specific ethnic or racial group (Schaefer, 2016).

Racial attitudes - Basic assumptions about attitudes as they relate to race and ethnicity. By *attitude*, we refer to "a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of an object" (Schuman et al., 1997, p. 1). Also, "Race typically involves socially constructed perceptions of phenotypic differences. Variation in skin color and tone, hair texture, eye shape, and other facial features, while ethnicity refers to variations in language, attire, aspects of self-present action, and other cultural behaviors" (Sasson & Bobo, 2014, p. 527).

Socioeconomic status (SES) – Social classes based on employment, income, and educational attainment (Schaefer, 2019).

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

Urban police departments have historically been unsuccessful in recruiting and preparing all police officers to serve people of color who reside in the inner cities (Chappell, 2008; Shipton, 2011). The problem is threefold: (a) there is a lack of culturally relevant education during college and police recruit–training programs; (b) there is often a lack of exposure to racial, cultural, and religious diversity when aspiring police officers grow up; and (c) police officers tend to not represent the diversity of residents living in urban areas. Because of their lack of cultural education and experience, many police recruits do not understand the communities they may be assigned to in the inner cities. Depending on their own demographics and upbringing, preconceptions about urban area residents may inhibit their ability to serve in these neighborhoods effectively. Therefore, I designed this study to measure cultural competence and motivation to control prejudiced reactions of criminal justice students who may choose to become police recruits. This study is timely and important, as the number of police killings of unarmed Black men and women continues to rise (Byrd & Roda, 2020). The results of the study can assist police departments by showing the cultural competency levels of aspiring police recruits and uncovering potential gaps in understanding, with the goal of improving the training that recruits receive before going out into the field.

In terms of education levels, the number of police recruits with a degree has increased (Kimberling, 2020). Technical skills and knowledge are necessary for police recruits to expand their responsibilities in diverse urban communities, with the demands of policing in this increasingly changing, scholarly society (Gardiner, 2015). The NYPD, among many other police departments in other countries, encourages police officers to obtain higher education and more community involvement in hopes that the relationship between police and communities of

color will improve (Paterson, 2011). Paterson's international study indicated that having police officers with higher education is valued because it prepares officers with a greater awareness of community-training concerns.

In addition to college education, police departments must also offer courses in their curriculum to educate police officers about different races, cultures, religions, and ethnic relations because it is crucial to strengthening relationships between police and communities of color and decreasing violent and deadly incidents at the hands of police. A better understanding of inner cities will occur when police departments improve the curriculum to educate police recruits. The curriculum should reflect the history of multiple cultures in the urban areas where police officers will be serving. Police recruits who better understand race and different ethnic groups can create a cooperative relationship with the residents of the urban communities they serve.

What is lacking in police culture right now is both an understanding of racial, ethnic, and cultural diversity, as well as a deep exploration of police officers' own implicit biases related to race and class (Byrd & Roda, 2020). An education that includes social science courses before and during the police recruits' training process eliminates or resolves negative preconceptions of people of color in urban neighborhoods and communities (Chappell, 2008). For example, Chappell's study pointed out that police recruits who have a college education are more successful in community policing. Community policing is a strategy that spends less time on enforcement and more time on services that lead to lower crime rates, such as "better selection of police recruits, ongoing cultural sensitivity training and evaluation, and progressive policies and practices to change how police interact with the public" (Byrd & Roda, 2020, n.p.). This study supports the fact that a college education, coupled with explicit training on cultural

awareness, would increase the acceptance of a diverse, multiracial society, enabling police officers to recognize better and respect diversity.

Research has consistently shown that the future of police recruit training should include courses in social and human behavior, race, and ethnic relations, with an emphasis on race and ethnic culture, families, culture, domestic violence, and the history of the people that reside in urban areas (Chan, 1996; Miller & Fry, 1976; Hundersmarck, 2009). Generally, police academies' curriculum includes criminology, psychology, forensics, computer science, international policies and affairs, and methods to combat criminal activities locally and abroad (Paterson, 2011). Likewise, the New York City Police Academy has a rigorous curriculum, and its guidelines for police training are followed globally (nyc.gov). However, their patrol guide does not contribute to a kinship with the community since it does not demonstrate an accurate profile of people in diverse communities (nyc.gov). In other words, police recruits lack familiarity with populations in urban communities, which are people with whom they interact and serve.

Indeed, many police recruits bring implicit biases and anti-Black sentiments with them to the department. These stereotypes include that people of color are uneducated, do not want to work, and are criminals (Williams, 2012). As Williams (2012) noted, "All cultures have important values that can contribute to a better society, and it is in our communal best interest to discover and implement these hidden insights" (pp. 1-2). With a curriculum focusing on diverse communities, police recruits can better understand race and ethnic groups within urban areas. However, a lack of communication between police and the community has been a constant problem within the city's history where policing is concerned, so adjusting any negative attitudes and continually retraining police officers should be the priority (Roberg & Bonn, 2004). This chapter explains the implicit bias and cultural competency framework that guides

this study. Then, I explain the application requirements and training process given to NYPD, Nassau County police recruits, and criminal justice students who may be potential police recruits. Last, the literature review covers the debate on higher education requirements for police officers, police training to meet the needs of diverse communities and the importance of police and community relationships.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework I have chosen for this study is implicit bias and cultural competence. Professionals working in service industries may be well-intentioned but are often not trained to work with diverse communities. Implicit bias theory is associated with social cognition or the perception of others. *Implicit bias* is the "thoughts and feelings about social groups that can influence people's perceptions, decisions, and actions without awareness" (Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, 2019). Meanwhile, Hall (1996) defined *cultural competency* as "the willingness, ability, and sensitivity required to understand people with different backgrounds" (p. 1).

The research on implicit bias and policing is limited, even though it is widely known that some police officers associate people of color with suspicious behavior without warrant (U.S. Department of Justice, 2015). One study, "Principle Policing Procedural Justice and Implicit Bias Training" (n.d.), measured implicit bias in law-enforcement leaders in California. The study used pre- and post-surveys on implicit bias before and after receiving the training. The results of the study showed that implicit bias was misunderstood, which not only suggests that the training program was ineffective but also that police leaders are not adequately prepared to train police recruits for their work with communities of color. Melissa Garcia (2018), a tenured teacher, gives her opinion about implicit bias. She is profoundly aware of how students are judged by their race, socioeconomic status, how they may be dressed, and what is expected

prior to students' first encounter with teachers. This defines implicit bias among educators who engage learners at various stages of their academics. This subconscious mindset unknowingly predicts the success or failure at critical stages of their academic growth (Garcia, 2018). Re-thinking my educational growth as a BIPOC student, I identify with being labeled negatively. It is devastating to realize how implicit bias is experienced lifelong by BIPOC students knowingly and unknowingly.

Police officers must be held accountable for actions that are considered "biased policing." The International Association of Chiefs of Police (20202) described *Biased policing* as "discrimination in the performance of law enforcement duties or delivery of police services, based on personal prejudices or partiality of agency personnel toward classes of individuals based on specific characteristics" (p. 2). The International Association of Chiefs of Police focused on continuous training to ensure "bias-free policing," which would contain "legal aspects and psychology of bias" (p. 2). Components of the training considered changes in the police officers' "attitudes, knowledge, and behavior" and considered retraining if there was no indication of changes in the police officer biases. Police officers need to recognize behavioral changes during particular instances when confronted with diverse groups, various demographics, and encounters during their tours of duty.

This quantitative study allowed me to evaluate the attitudes and preconceived assumptions that criminal justice students and possibly police recruits have about people residing in urban areas. Survey data were collected to determine the mindsets of criminal justice students from various geographical areas and how they understand policing in an urban city. It explored bias, racism, and labeling as it relates to culturally diverse communities. This study aimed to identify why particular behaviors, actions, and attitudes might occur between police officers and diverse communities.

NYPD and Nassau County Training and Requirements for Appointment

The New York City Department of Personnel establishes the application qualifications for the NYPD. Individuals can take the exam at 17 1/2 to 35 years of age. However, for appointment into the Department, the applicant must be at least 21 years old. The applicant must have 60 college credits and achieve a 2.0 GPA. Two years in the military service and being honorably discharged are also weighted the same as the 60 college credits. Citizenship in the United States is required. Applicants must live in the surrounding counties, including the City of New York, 30 days before being hired and have a New York State Driver's License. Applicants are eliminated from the process if they have any convictions of felonies, domestic violence, or poor work habits. Police recruits have a five-year probationary period, which brings them to top pay (nyc.gov).

The Citywide Administrative Service in the City of New York for Police Officers established the written examination. Once the applicant passes the test with achieved scores and is considered for this position, the hiring process begins. The applicant must pass a series of hiring processes. The examination series consists of a medical, psychological, written, oral, extensive background investigation, and physical agility test before becoming a police officer.

Surrounding counties and rural areas require fewer qualifications; however, they also offer fewer benefits than the NYPD. The NYPD describes its training as superior because of the curriculum required during nine months of training at the "state-of-the-art" police academy (nyc.gov). Police recruits are trained professionally by seasoned police officers. The curriculum includes police science, self-defense, firearms, curbing criminal activity, law, social sciences, diverse communities, and cultural awareness (nyc.gov). Recruits role-play situations they may face during patrol. Role-playing consists of domestic violence, shots fired, robberies, burglaries, and birthing (nyc.gov).

Before graduating from the police academy, the recruits are assigned to a police precinct with a field training officer for approximately three weeks. During this segment of their training, police recruits patrol various communities they will serve. The actual involvement of learned role-playing may take place during this time. NYPD is unique in the type of training that takes place in nine months. The police recruits earn 32 college credits, an opportunity to experience training similar to that of the military in a modern facility.

NYPD training is intense, lasting over nine months in the police academy in Flushing, Queens, New York. Police recruits focused on becoming professional police officers for the City of New York. NYPD describes its training as follows:

> The Police Academy provides them with the latest technology, education, and tactical knowledge to enhance their ability to protect the lives, rights, property, and dignity of all New Yorkers and visitors. Recruit and in-service training focus on influential community policing, de-escalation, communication skills, safe tactics, and the privilege of serving the nation's most diverse population. With the increased threat of terrorism, the Police Academy also provides recruits and in-service personnel with the latest counterterror methodologies. These include highly specialized curricula, such as intelligence gathering, active-shooter training, and counter-surveillance. (nyc.gov)

Criminal justice students at the focal college experience similar courses: Constitutional Law and Legal Issues (an understanding of the criminal justice system nationally), Research Methods in Criminal Justice (the ability to understand how technology has resolved the complexity of criminal acts locally, nationally, and globally), Ethics and Morality in Criminal Justice (being able to understand the scope of real-life experiences), and Violence in American Society (the definition of violent crimes that cause physical harm or death).

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Notably, according to the Commissioner for Equity and Inclusion, current research indicates that implicit bias is being introduced to the NYPD police recruits (nyc.gov, 2021). In comparison, suburban Police Departments such as Nassau County, NY, have fewer requirements for appointment to their agency. Police recruits must:

complete in the required written examination and pass additional screening procedure:

- be legal residents of Nassau County, Suffolk County, Westchester County, or one of the five boroughs of New York City at the time of appointment and maintain residency

- be at least 17 but less than 35 years of age on the date of the written exam.

- be citizens of the United States at the time of appointment.

- submit a background investigation before the appointment.

- possess a valid New York State driver's license at the time of appointment.

- anyone with a felony conviction may be excluded from being a Nassau County Police Officer.

- No college education is required to take the written examination; however, 32 credits of a college education are required for appointment. (pdcn.org)

As of June 1, 2021, the Nassau County Police are housed in their police academy on the Nassau County Community College Campus (NCPD Center for Training and Intelligence, 2021). According to a 2021 Newsday report, however, "6,539 Black people tried to become police officers on LI. Only 67 were hired" (Baumbach, 2021). This shows that the appointment process is discriminatory toward Black people.

The NYPD and Nassau County Police Department have different requirements before being appointed police recruits. The length of training, number of college credits, and the

starting salary are different. While the NYPD requires "nine-month training, 60 college credits, or two years of active military, and starting pay is $42,500" (nyc.gov), the Nassau County Police Department has a "seven-month training, 32 college credits and starting pay is $35,000" (pdcn.org).

Literature Review

Research has suggested that police are better prepared to serve diverse communities after earning a college degree and receiving cultural competency training in the police academy. However, many police agencies do not require degrees, and some do not offer their recruits antibias training. Paterson (2011) questioned whether colleges or police academies would be a better fit for adequately educating and training police recruits. He concluded that the curriculum needs to be tailored to the communities that police will serve. For this reason, some advocate for a broader educational experience and are proponents of higher education for potential police officers before their admittance into the police academy (Chappell, 2008). Roberg and Bonn (2004) wrote that there has been a debate about higher education for police officers for over a century without a clear consensus on what is required. Today, many police recruits enter the academy with a four-year degree or credit units equal to an associate's degree in a particular discipline. Instead of a degree, random courses can also amount to the police agency's established qualifications as a part of specific requirements for entry into the police academy (nyc.gov).

Some state agencies offer incentives for police officers to obtain a college degree. Roberg and Bonn (2004) conducted a study in California that involved police officers and the use of incentives offered by the state to continue their education. Roberg and Bonn concluded that additional education resulted in police officers rising in ranks and better understanding various communities and political issues. They argued against required educational attainment

because "minority recruits" would be reduced in the recruitment process as they lack an associate's or bachelor's degree or enough credit in any accredited college courses. However, their study revealed that 39 African American applicants applied for the police officer's position, and nine of them earned a four-year college degree. The assumption is that many people of color do not have some college or a college degree; however, many do.

Recruits who achieve higher education before appointment to the police academy, given the appropriate courses, also may discard the influence of media and learned biases (Fekjaer et al., 2014). In the mid-1990s, the New York City Police Academy instituted college credits as a qualifying factor to be an applicant. However, before these requirements, many New York City residents who applied to the police department had some college credits, if not a degree.

Although knowledge about urban communities may have negative connotations, Fekjaer et al. (2014) noted that due to the complexity of society today, new police recruits who reside outside the city's perimeters may experience a real shock as re-socialization on the city streets occurs. Re-socialization is the discarding of one particular behavior and instituting another. In this case, recruits must discard their biases, prejudices, and preconceived notions about inner-city communities (Schaefer, 2017). However, Fekjaer et al. (2014) concluded that even with higher educational attainment, in-service training, or field training, higher education would eventually become mandatory for police recruits to be re-socialized once they are on patrol.

Gardiner (2015) felt that college-educated police officers in culturally diverse communities are more flexible when adjusting to societies' needs. In turn, necessary policing skills become more effective on patrol. Chappell (2008) found that female and male recruits who obtained higher education did well in what they learned about community policing. However, when comparing the previous method of studying community policing, the

differences were not significant. Rydberg and Terrill (2010) recommended further research on how higher education affects police performance and behavior.

Ultimately, police recruits need to understand the importance of education, cultural awareness, and sensitivity in urban communities before and during their police academy training. A deeper learning approach to diversity in urban areas is critical in understanding people of color and their differences (Shipton, 2011). Diverse communities would welcome police officers with better education and understanding of urban life to develop and improve working relationships. However, hiring practices do not address the cultural awareness and preparedness that diverse communities are owed (Hundersmarck, 2009). Within these diverse settings, the police department must focus on a curriculum reflecting education, cultural awareness, and sensitivity concerning the population it serves.

Police Training to Meet the Needs of Diverse Communities

Police recruits should understand why there is a lack of trust between them and the urban community they will serve. There is a need for police recruits to realize that social behavior within families and diverse groups has various exchanges that may be similar or different, no matter the income level or the social environment in which one resides (Chappell, 2007). Labeling people of color as poor, uneducated, and criminal is presumptuous and indicates particular prejudices linked to race and ethnic groups. However, recognizing earned achievements, social status, income levels, education attainment, and social settings eliminates stereotypes associated with urbanites (Sleeter & Carmona, 2017).

Policing in an urban community becomes more effective when it focuses on the public safety of those residing in the communities (Fekjaer et al., 2014). A positive relationship between police and communities is a continuous process. Police officers have a generalized

profile and a reputation documented by history and reinforced by the media. Negative

assumptions create a low reputation for police officers by many community members.

Furthermore, community relations and policing are essential in our society, especially in dense

populations (Fekjaer et al., 2014).

The Police Executive Research Forum (2015) suggested that better communication in

communities would "eliminate mistrust, curtail the use of force, lessen misconduct by police,

reduce legal allegation of racial discrimination, prejudice, racial profiling, and bias". There is a

need for a bridge between the police and the community. According to Rydberg and Terrill

(2010), knowledge about diversity, culture, religion, and ethnicity is insufficient when police

officers communicate with residents in urban communities. Greater communication would

create a bond between the youth and educational facilities in the community. Community

leaders will forge a pipeline to understand the differences and similarities of what urban

communities want and need, particularly when relating to the police (Rydberg & Terrill, 2010).

More recently, educational attainment and policing in urban communities have been

challenged in numerous ways. Because of social media, any indication of negative policing in

urban communities does not stay locally but travels throughout the city, nationally, and globally.

As a result, the consequences of social media use result in more negativity for urban

communities and policing relationships. This negativity gives the impression that specific

communities or community groups are dysfunctional, and policing consistently negatively

responds to these communities. In actuality, policing results in more positive interactions within

the community than negative encounters (Hundersmarck, 2009).

Effective policing describes many aspects of the role of policing in culturally and

diverse societies (Chappell, 2008). Understanding this new role of policing requires a particular

type of education and is necessary when preparing police recruits for a complex career in

becoming police officers in urban communities. The police recruits must realize that any prior

negative assumptions concerning particular community groups must not resume once they begin

policing (Chappell, 2008). The police recruits must be re-socialized about every member of an

urban population's concerns, no matter the racial, cultural, or diverse backgrounds in the

community they patrol (Roberg & Bonn, 2004). Social media could effectively promote positive

interactions with policing and communities. However, this does not occur often enough to build

trust between police and community members.

Police Education and Training

Police education and training are changing in the United States and globally. Cordner

(2011) documented how police departments worldwide have created agencies that mirror the

changing world by incorporating technology, practicing different policing skills, and becoming

more professional. Another aspect that is changing is community policing practices.

Hundersmarck's (2009) study of the relationships between police recruits and their field training

officer indicated the importance of being in communities on patrol. A senior police officer

skilled in training police recruits uses practical activities to prepare them for their duties. This

type of hands-on training identified how police recruits used their "problem solving and critical

thinking skills" (Hundersmarck, 2009, p. 30). A scenario involving various situations possibly

encountered in the field was also highly rated by the police recruits. The study also found that

police recruits with prior exposure to policing, such as being an explorer, civilian worker in the

police department, or a police cadet (a college student interning in the police department), were

more relaxed and engaging in this scenario training.

According to Hundersmarck (2009), *Community Oriented Policing* is a teaching model

for policing used by the field training officer utilized when working with recruits and has

previously been used by other policing agencies. It is associated with critical thinking and

"community" policing (Hundersmarck, 2009, p. 30). Community police demand a particular type of police recruit—one educated and trained to understand the demographics of the areas they may be assigned to patrol. Another study by Gardiner (2015) examined education and policing in California. California encourages police officers to seek higher education by generating incentives for this purpose. Gardiner found that police officers who possess higher education had a better understanding of the community's culture, which positively impacted the community. Other criteria may contribute to the professionalization within policing.

Roberg and Bonn (2004) examined the debate concerning higher education and policing. They found that local police departments with a small number of police personnel did not require as much education as larger urban police departments needed. The complexity of large police departments and society's demands required advanced technology, homeland security, domestic terrorism, and policing in the community. In today's large police agencies, education is a requirement, and a social and technological component must guard against terrorism and global conflicts. Large police agencies also offer salary, benefits, and early retirement.

When seeking promotion, police recruits with college degrees succeeded in rank more than those without degrees and were aware that responsibilities changed at various police ranks (Roberg & Bonn, 2004). Higher education is associated with policing because of the change in skills required for the job, including a four-year college degree required to become a police candidate in the near future. Adequate training in the police academy that reflects the population's needs and a four-year college degree in police or social sciences will prepare police officers to serve diverse communities better. Rydberg and Terrill (2010) recommended further research on how higher education affects police performance and behavior. Williams and Deutsch (2016) found that more mature and college-educated police recruits tend to

communicate better in communities, whereas young police recruits are more aggressive in their roles as authoritarians.

Community Relationships

Rydberg and Terrill (2010) focused on the impact of police officers attaining higher education and how it impacts the number of arrests and the amount of force used during a physical encounter when making an arrest. The authors used questionnaires, observations, and interviews with officers in Florida and Indiana. Rydberg and Terrill also rode with officers on patrol to experience the officers' various encounters with the community. Variables used to observe the police recruits included race, gender, and educational attainment. Variables used with suspects were the type of arrest being made, such as drugs, alcohol, felonies, or lower offenses and their age, gender, and encounters with police. Rydberg and Terrill (2010) examined the use of force when making an arrest with the police officers' education level. They found that police officers who had attained higher education were better at using critical thinking and positive interaction with community members. Moreover, police officers with college degrees were less likely to use force when making an arrest. Rydberg and Terrill found that less or more force was not significant when measuring police officers' educational levels. They also concluded that the benefits of higher education were adequate but were not necessarily enough to be a requirement for policing; other requirements should be considered, such as the military.

Rydberg and Terrill (2010) also mentioned the correlation between community policing and education and the demand for professionalism. They examined the violence that took place over a period and focused on the effectiveness of policing in communities and the ability of police to utilize problem-solving techniques that identified community residents. The implementation of community policing provides recruits with more significant knowledge of

urban communities. Because of community policing, residents' diversity became critical in training and educating police recruits and officers.

Since the inception of policing, training has changed because society has evolved dramatically. Police recruits are considered professional, skilled, and able to perform because of their training in the police academy and in the communities they serve. However, training for police recruits and in-service training related to diversity and urban communities needs to improve (nyc.gov).

Training policy for police recruits is similar to a semi-military organization. The training process has two components: (1) six to eight months of classroom and tactical teaching by veteran police officers and civilian instructors and (2) teaching highly technical skills associated with the elimination of crime, insight into terrorism, law, community relations, and other related studies (nyc.gov).

Conclusion and Significance

Cultural competence, preparedness, sensitivity, implicit bias, and policing in urban communities require specific academic attainment, professional skills, and the ability to serve in urban areas where communities of color reside. Specific integration of social science courses that define critical aspects of social intervention, interaction, and social issues involving urban communities is taught in the police academy (Rydberg & Terrill, 2010). A review and revision of the policy academy curriculum focused on cultural awareness, sensitivity, and policing in urban areas would explore how community policing can be more sensitive to communities' needs in particular locations (Hundersmarck, 2009). Education and community policing play a significant role in maintaining a positive relationship between police and those they serve. Indeed, the research included in this chapter has shown that community policing is critical if the goal is to promote good relationships and restore community trust in the police. There is an

increasing demand to change police culture because of the police killings of unarmed Black men and women in the United States. This study adds to the understanding of whether police are receiving the cultural competency training they need in criminal justice programs to serve diverse communities of color with minimal bias and racism.

CHAPTER THREE

Research Methodology

This chapter describes the quantitative survey methods used to examine criminal justice students' cultural awareness and implicit biases. There is very little research on the attitudes and assumptions that aspiring police recruits and other criminal justice professionals may have about people of color who reside in inner cities and diverse communities. This study focused on assessing cultural awareness and motivation to control prejudiced reactions of possible police recruits enrolled in college pursuing criminal justice careers. This quantitative study contributes to the field by identifying the potential gaps in criminal justice education that could be used to enhance the readiness of future police officers to interact with and serve underprivileged communities.

Research Problem

Many police officers who work in the inner cities and serve BIPOC communities lack the history and achievements of people of color who reside in these areas, and some do not adequately serve these communities (Chappell, 2008; Shipton, 2011). As a result, their attitudes about communities of color may impact their abilities to react to situations involving their members. Therefore, it is critical to train future police officers, raise their awareness and sensitivity when working with diverse communities, and decrease potential biases they might have. Designing a curriculum that educates police officers about diversity in the inner cities should include race, culture, religion, and ethnic relations as vital to various communities.

The diversity of today's society within urban cities and communities of color presents challenges to policing in these areas. There is limited literature focused on cultural awareness and sensitivity training preparation for future police officers (Brownstein, 2019). When paired

with limited exposure and knowledge about various racial and ethnic groups, it leaves the police recruits vulnerable to biased behaviors (Kaste, 2020). According to Schaefer (2016), to better serve urban areas, it is imperative to be knowledgeable about cultural differences in an organization that consists of cultures with particular values, beliefs, norms, emotions, aspirations, attitudes, languages, and religions because this creates a mosaic that describes communities in urban areas. Therefore, police departments must educate police recruits to understand and respect diversity and be culturally sensitive to the needs of the communities they serve.

Theoretical Framework

This study's theoretical framework is the implicit social cognition theory (Banaji & Greenwald, 1995). The theory is better known as an *implicit bias*, which Banaji and Greenwald defined as a positive or negative behavior associated with an individual's attitudes or stereotypes, affecting action that may be unconsciously determined. These unconscious actions are deemed involuntary by individuals and without intent and knowledge, and because of that, there is no clear way to correct the implicit bias behavior. Implicit bias tends to occur over a lifetime and is associated with race, ethnic groups, gender, and age. These biases come about through various sources, such as experiences in life, social media, and direct influences. One suggested technique to offset implicit bias includes de-biasing (Banaji & Greenwald, 1995).

There is much criticism of the construct of implicit bias, as it is challenging the Implicit Association Test (IAT) to measure (Barlett, 2017; Singal, 2017). One of the most popular and widely used IATs still lacks reliability and validity at the common scientifically acceptable levels (Regael, 2011). However, it does not prevent researchers from using it. For the purpose of this study, I adopted the measure of motivation to control prejudiced reactions (Dunton & Fazio,

1997), as it has more stable psychometric qualities and relates to the motivation behind biases, which are more actionable than just the knowledge about them.

Purpose of the Study

This study fills that gap in the literature by examining the cultural awareness and implicit biases of criminal justice students. Specifically, this study focused on how prepared the soon-to-be police officers are for their work with diverse communities. The cultural competency preparedness and racial attitudes of the police recruits were compared across factors such as gender, ethnicity, or place of origin to examine potential bias based on these characteristics. I used quantitative survey methodology to analyze the results of the survey questions given to the diverse group of students. This study identified the extent to which particular students foster cultural competence and racial attitudes concerning people of color in diverse communities.

The U.S. Census (2015) indicated that even though approximately 36,000 police officers are assigned to the NYPD, the diverse population of New York City needs representation within the agency (nyc.gov). The population of New York City consists of over nine million people, with more than 200 languages spoken (New York City Planning Board, 2015). It is essential that future police officers possess the tools and knowledge to work within diverse settings and communities.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided my study:

1. What is the extent of cultural competence and motivation to control prejudiced reactions of college students in the criminal justice program?

2. Are there differences in the levels of cultural competence and motivation to control prejudiced reactions among college students by gender, race, and place of origin?

3. Does cultural competency predict the extent of motivation to control prejudiced reactions?

Research Methodology and Design

This study used the quantitative methodology, which is best to examine the patterns and relationships between demographic variables with those measuring cultural competency and motivation to control prejudiced reactions to address the gaps in the literature, especially in relation to cultural competency and racial biases among criminal justice students. I implemented a survey research design to execute the study. According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), survey methodology measures the strengths and weaknesses of the information collected.

By administering a survey design focused on the cultural competence of college students, additional individual variables can be further explored to learn about participants' backgrounds and compare them across different categories. The quantitative survey study allowed for sampling of a larger population to generalize the results (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This is beneficial because the population represents a diverse group of students.

The survey design provided several qualities that fit this research study. I was able to collect the questionnaire survey immediately after completion. I drew the sample population from a diverse group of criminal justice students. The selected group did not indicate their names on the demographic information scale of the cultural competence questionnaire. Administering this survey questionnaire and using the two *t*-test scoring enabled me to study the outcome promptly (Analytics Vidhya, 2019; Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Setting of the Study

The survey took place at a suburban liberal arts college. In seeking approval for my research at the college, I informed the IRB that the criminal justice students would complete the

survey in less than one hour. After receiving the necessary permissions, I visited the college to recruit participants. During the visits, I introduced the study, collected the informed consents, and administered the electronic survey. I conducted the study in a secure classroom or auditorium setting, where students could access computers and laptops.

Participants

Participants in this study were college students admitted to the suburban college used in this study. The criminal justice program during the fiscal year ranged from 80 to 100 students. The sample size formula was applied to determine the required sample size to estimate the true mean within a given margin of error and a given confidence interval finite population correction to the sample size calculation. This formula takes into account the population size provided, so for smaller populations, the required sample size needed to estimate the population mean is reduced. Below is the finite population formula:

$$n = N * n_0 / (N + n_0 - 1)$$

where n is the required sample size needed to estimate the true mean, N is the population size, and n_0 is the required sample size found from the initial calculation in the formula above. I calculated the sample size using a population size of 80, a margin of error of 5%, and a confidence level of 95%, which resulted in a target sample size of 67 participants. The nonrandom purposeful sampling aimed to recruit a racially and ethnically diverse sample of approximately 70 participants, depending on the incoming class size, and met the 95% confidence interval with a 5% error based on the Intellectus Statistics sample size calculator.

The participants in this study were all criminal justice students who volunteered and were informed about the importance of research and their service to urban and diverse communities. I told the students that they would not be pressured in any way or mandated to remain in the study.

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Being candid concerning all aspects of the study ensures the authenticity of the volunteers' responses, resulting in the outcome this researcher sought from the targeted population. The participants had the option of a lottery incentive in the form of three $50 gift cards randomly selected from all those who participated in the study.

Instruments

The following measures, found in Appendix A, were used in this study: (1) a demographic questionnaire, (2) Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire (Mason, 1995), and (3) The Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale (Dunton & Fazio, 1997). The demographic questionnaire included 17 questions related to race, ethnicity, age, religion, sexual orientation, and place of residence. The place of residence indicated the length of time the person resided there. Additionally, the questionnaire asked participants to include the number of times and for what reason they have visited New York City in the past three months (e.g., a sports game, museums, social event, medical reasons, education). The decreased visits due to the COVID-19 pandemic may have skewed the data.

Mason (1995) from The Research and Training Center on Family Support and Children's Mental Health at Portland University originally developed the CCSAQ. It was then further adopted by the Canadian Institute. The CCSAQ focuses on the attitudes related to cultural awareness and aims to assess how knowledgeable individuals are about cultural differences. The
CCSAQ consists of a total of 36 questions and includes the following sub-scales: (a) Cultural Awareness with 12 questions, (b) Knowledge with 13 questions, and (c) Skills with 12 questions. The 4-point Likert-type scale responses are *never*, *sometimes/occasionally*, *reasonably often/pretty well*, and *always/very well*.

Dunton and Fazio (1997) developed The Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions in response to the need to measure explicit racial attitudes. The scale consists of 17 questions and with two subscales: (a) Restraint to Avoid Dispute, which captures emotional responses and feelings related to external social pressures, and (b) Concerned with Acting Prejudiced, which focuses on the motivation to act in unprejudiced ways. The extent of agreement was measured on a Likert-type scale from –3 (*strongly disagree*) to +3 (*strongly agree*). The reliability of the scale, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, was .81. The validity of the scale was also well established.

Data Collection

The data for this study were collected during the Fall 2021 and Spring 2022 semesters to capture the attitudes and knowledge students bring in relation to cultural competency and motivation to control prejudiced reactions. Participants were given informed consent prior to the collection of data, and I addressed any questions at that time. I asked participants to create an identification number based on their first and last name initials and day of birth (e.g., Carole Byrd will have the following ID: CB17). This way, no name is included in the survey, but the results are based on this identification number.

The data were collected electronically using the SurveyMonkey program. I saved the data in a password-protected cloud-based folder accessed only by the researcher and the dissertation co-chairs.

Data Analysis

The collected data were downloaded from the original SurveyMonkey server and converted into an SPSS file. Next, I cleaned the data to include labels for each variable, measurement level, and any transformation of data necessary to conduct the analyses addressing

the research questions. Once data were ready for analysis, I examined the demographic characteristics to describe the study participants.

I generated the descriptive statistics of mean and standard deviations as well as percentages to answer the first research question about the extent of cultural competence and motivation to control prejudiced reactions of potential police recruits in the criminal justice program.

The third question looked at differences in the levels of cultural competence and motivation to control prejudiced reactions of criminal justice students by gender, race, and place of origin. Here, I tested the hypothesis using a statistical independent sample *t*-test. The hypothesis using this method indicated if there is no difference (null) or if there is a difference (alternate). The null hypothesis can be rejected at a 95% confidence interval, which is the range between upper and lower values viewed in the data. The *t*-test allows for determining the significance between two groups, while the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) determines the significance of more than two groups.

In this study, I analyzed the variables to determine any significance when using the two *t*-tests for measuring police academy training considering cultural awareness (Analytics Vidhya, 2019; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). I generated the *t*-tests and ANOVAs for the overall sample as well as compared by gender, race/ethnicity, and place of origin.

I used quantitative survey methodology to analyze the results of the survey questions given to the diverse group of criminal justice students. The CCSAQ was designed "to identify the organization's cultural competence training needs in such areas as (a) improving service delivery to culturally diverse populations; (b) identifying cross-cultural strengths that currently exist within an organization, system, or network of professionals; and (c) focusing on beneficial training topics for providers of services" (pathwaysrtc.edu, n.d.).

To address the research questions, I analyzed data using statistical procedures such as descriptive statistics, independent sample *t*-tests, correlations, and linear regressions. This chapter summarizes the findings based on the responses of the participants in relation to their scores on cultural competency and motivation to control the prejudiced reactions and compare them by gender, ethnicity, and place of origin.

Survey Responses

I collected data online using the SurveyMonkey web-based platform. The data collection took place in December 2021 and February 2022. All the students enrolled in the criminal justice major or minor in the selected college received an email invitation from the chair of the program to participate in my study. To encourage students to participate, I also visited the criminal justice courses in both the fall and spring semesters to introduce and recruit participants for this study. The first wave of data collection included 30 participants, and an additional 19 completed the study in February. Due to ongoing pandemic restrictions, not all students were physically present in the classroom, and although I sent email reminders to all students, the efforts to increase the response rate did not yield high results.

The original sample size was calculated using a population size of 80, a margin of error of 5%, and confidence level of 95%, which resulted in a target sample size of 67 participants. Due to the obstacles faced during the data collection, I recalculated the sample size using a larger margin of error of 10%. For the generalizability of the results to the larger population, there needed to be 44 participants.

A total of 49 participants responded to the survey. There were six students who were not part of the criminal justice major or minor. An additional five respondents completed only the demographic section of the study and therefore were removed from further analyses. The total

sample included 38 participants. The sample in this study fell below the target sample size of 44 and resulted in a margin error of 11.6%, which limits the generalizability of the results to the larger population.

Due to the sensitive nature of the survey questions related to potential bias when interacting with people of other cultures, ethnicity, or sexual orientation, the survey questions had an option where participants could skip questions if they wished. This resulted in some missing data. I applied a statistical process to replace missing data with substituted values using the multiple imputation approach to address the missing data.

To prepare data for the analysis, I took the following steps to clean the data: (a) doublechecked for outliers, (b) recoded reverse-coded variables, and (c) recoded variables to include subcategories for comparison analyses. I hypothesized that criminal justice students who are male, White, and those residing outside the perimeters of urban neighborhoods would have lower cultural competence scores and lower motivation to live and work in urban areas.

Validity and Reliability

Validity and reliability are essential to any quantitative study and its generalizability. The reliability pertains to the consistency of the measure, where the results of the same measure should stay relatively the same if no intervention is considered (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The measures included in this study present an acceptable rate of .80 Cronbach's alpha, indicating that the instrument measures the concept or construct with great consistency. This study's reliability measures the survey design's degree of accuracy, giving the same results when using the methodology. The questionnaire's accurate response is determined when the same results exist when comparing the survey (Roberts, 2010).

Validity pertains to the accuracy of the precise measurements of the concepts or constructs (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The small sample size might be a threat to the internal validity. Another threat to validity might be related to Hawthorne's effect (2013), which pertains to the social desirability of the participants within the study context. Under this effect, participants who know they are observed or receive additional attention might report enhanced results or changed behavior, undermining the study results.

Limitations

The study's limitations are that the participants may not be truthful by avoiding any biases when responding to the survey design. The sample size is significant for this research, and the diversity of students according to race, gender, and residence. Criminal justice students may choose not to take the survey because of COVID-19 barriers or before college graduation. These factors may alter the outcome of the study.

Ethical Considerations

The dissertation's ethical segment involves college and IRB within my learning institution. The IRB is federally regulated and safeguards the participants from human rights violations. This researcher filed the proper documents to conduct this study with IRB and abided by the rules and regulations stipulated by the agencies (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The participants' identities remain confidential other than noting that they are college students, and a particular identification number is only known to this researcher. This identification number or label allows the survey to be reliable and valid. I used the following dependent variables in my study: age, gender identity, race, ethnic group, religion, and where they reside. The college and the chairperson of the criminal justice program consented to the study. They

were informed about the type of survey design and the questions asked. I provided a copy of the survey and assured that the research would not interfere with the students' schedules.

I also consulted with the co-chairpersons concerning introducing and administering the survey. The format for giving the survey occurred during the semester of attendance. This set format enabled me to distribute, administer, and collect the study completed within a given period. The number of volunteers during this study was timed and recorded. Those who chose to leave the study could do so without recourse. The data were collected during the semester and before graduation. The participants got the opportunity to opt-out at any time. These processes reinforce the validity, accurately support the data and reliability, and demonstrate the study's consistent results and findings. College students are at least 18 years of age and deemed consensual when asked to participate in this research.

My findings will be kept five to 10 years at my educational institute and then shredded (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). My dissertation reflects the results of my survey design.

Conclusion

This study indicated how and why education, cultural awareness, sensitivity, and policing in urban communities require specific training and educational skills to serve inner-city communities successfully and without bias (Rydberg & Terrill, 2010). This study adequately addressed the need for a curriculum in the police academy that is inclusive and reflects the diversity in which police officers serve. In the next chapter, I explain the results of this survey research study.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results

The purpose of this study was to examine the cultural competency and motivational levels among students majoring in criminal justice who intend to pursue a career in law enforcement. Specifically, this study focused on how prepared the soon-to-be police officers and other criminal justice professionals are for their work with diverse communities. The cultural competency preparedness and racial attitudes of future police recruits were compared across gender, ethnicity, and place of origin to examine potential bias based on these characteristics. This study measured the extent to which particular criminal justice students foster cultural competence and racial attitudes concerning people of color in diverse communities. The

Descriptive Statistics

I asked participants to provide demographic characteristics to learning more about their backgrounds and exposure to people of diverse cultural, racial, and socio-economic backgrounds. Table 4.1 indicates the summary statistics calculated for each interval and ratio variable. I calculated frequencies and percentages for each nominal variable.

Frequencies and Percentages

All participants in this study were enrolled in the criminal justice major or minor ($n = 38$, 100%). Half of the participants stated they would like to become police officers upon completing the program. The majority of the participants chose on their own to pursue a career in policing ($n = 22$, 57.89%) rather than being encouraged by others.

Females ($n = 26$) consisted of 68.42% of the sample. More than half of the sample consisted of White or Caucasian participants ($n = 22$, 57.89%). The majority of participants

were single (n = 34, 89.47%). Many participants had traveled internationally (n = 25, 65.79%)

and self-reported residing in a diverse community where many neighbors are of different racial

and cultural backgrounds (n = 30, 78.95%). In the description of their circle of friends, the most

frequently observed category was that some were of different cultural and racial backgrounds (n

= 24, 63.16%). Frequencies and percentages are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Frequency Table for Nominal Variables

Variable	%	n
Criminal Justice Major or Minor		
Yes	38	100.00
Missing	0	0.00
Would like to be a police officer		
Yes	19	50.00
No	19	50.00
Gender		
Female	26	68.42
Male	12	31.58
Race/Ethnicity		
White or Caucasian	22	57.89
Black or African American	4	10.53
Hispanic or Latino	8	21.05
Another race	4	10.53
Social Status		
Single	34	89.47
Cohabiting	2	5.26
Married	2	5.26
Missing	0	0.00
Traveled Internationally		
Yes	25	65.79
No	13	34.21
Missing	0	0.00

Variable		*n*
Reside in Diverse Community		
Yes	30	78.95
No	4	10.53
Not sure	4	10.53
Circle of Friends		
All of them look like me and share my cultural and racial backgrounds	5	13.16
Some of them are of different cultural and racial backgrounds	24	63.16
Most of them are of different cultural and racial backgrounds	8	21.05
Other	1	2.63
Encouragement to pursue a police career by		
Self	22	57.89
Family	3	7.89
Friend	1	2.63
Other	1	2.63
Not a career choice	6	15.79

Note. Due to rounding errors, percentages may not equal 100%.

The observations for how many languages participants speak fluently other than English had an average of 0.45 ($SD = 0.72$, $SE_M = 0.12$, Min = 0.00, Max = 3.00, Skewness = 1.70, Kurtosis = 2.66). Both the skewness and kurtosis values reflected a symmetrical, normal distribution of responses (Westfall & Henning, 2013). The summary statistics can be found in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

Summary Statistics Table for Interval and Raio Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	SE_M	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
Languages spoken	0.45	0.72	38	0.12	0.00	3.00	1.70	2.66

I conducted the following analyses to answer the two research questions of assessing the extent of cultural competence and motivation to control prejudiced reactions among criminal justice students and examine if there are differences in the levels of cultural competence and motivation to control prejudiced reactions among criminal justice students by gender, race, and place of origin.

Two-Tailed Independent Samples t-Test of Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reaction by Race

I conducted a two-tailed independent samples t-test to examine whether the mean of the total score on the Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale (MCPR Total) was significantly different between the White ($n = 22$) and People of Color ($n = 16$) categories of Race.

Assumptions

Normality. I conducted Shapiro-Wilk tests to determine whether MCPR Total could have been produced by a normal distribution for each category of Race (Razali & Wah, 2011). The result of the Shapiro-Wilk test for MCPR Total in the White category was significant based on an alpha value of .05, $W = 0.88$, $p = .031$. This result suggests that MCPR Total in the White category is unlikely to have been produced by a normal distribution. The result of the ShapiroWilk test MCPR Total in the People of Color category was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $W = 0.90$, $p = .083$. This result suggests that a normal distribution cannot be ruled out as the underlying distribution for MCPR Total in the People of Color category. The ShapiroWilk test was significant for the White category of Race, indicating the normality assumption was violated.

Homogeneity of Variance. I conducted Levene's test to assess whether the variance of MCPR Total was equal between the categories of Race. The result of Levene's test for MCPR

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Total was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $F(1, 31) = 3.40$, $p = .075$. This result

suggests it is possible that the variance of MCPR Total is equal for each category of Race,

indicating that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met.

Results

The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was not significant based on an

alpha value of .05, $t(31) = -0.92$, $p = .363$, indicating that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

This finding suggests the mean of MCPR Total was not significantly different between the

White and People of Color categories of Race. The results are presented in Table 4.3. A bar plot

of the means is presented in Figure 4.1.

Table 4.3

Two-Tailed Independent Samples t-Test for MCPR Total by Race

Variable	White		People of Color				
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*d*
MCPR Total	75.18	12.45	78.38	6.29	−0.92	.363	0.32

Note. $N = 33$; degrees of freedom for the *t* statistic $= 31$; *d* represents Cohen's *d*.

Figure 4.1

The Mean of MCPR Total by Levels of Race with 95% CI Error Bars
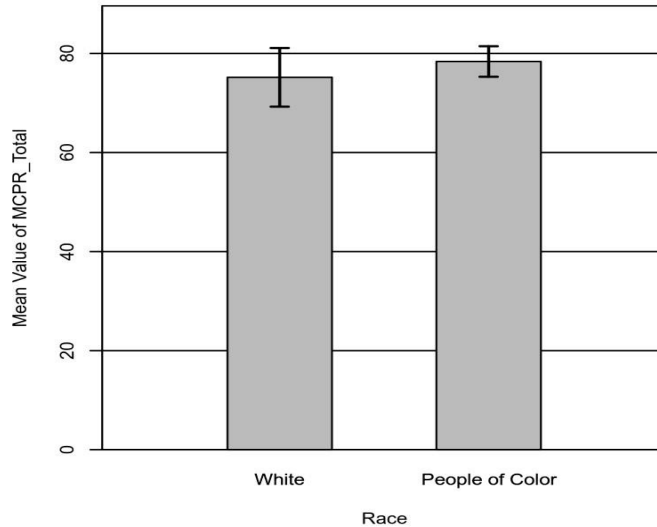
Two-Tailed Mann-Whitney U Test

I conducted a two-tailed Mann-Whitney two-sample rank-sum test to examine whether there were significant differences in the MCPR total between the levels of Race. The two-tailed Mann-Whitney two-sample rank-sum test is an alternative to the independent samples t-test but does not share the same assumptions (Conover & Iman, 1981). There were 17 observations in the White group and 16 observations in the People of Color group.

Results

The result of the two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $U = 132.5$, $z = -0.13$, $p = .899$. The mean rank for group White was 16.79, and the mean rank for group People of Color was 17.22. This suggests that the distribution of MCPR_Total for group White (*Mdn* = 80.00) was not significantly different from the distribution of MCPR_Total for the People of Color (*Mdn* = 78.00) category. Table 4.4 presents

the result of the two-tailed Mann-Whitney *U* test. Figure 4.2 presents a boxplot of the ranks of

MCPR Total by Race.

Table 4.4

Two-Tailed Mann-Whitney Test for MCPR Total by Race

	Mean Rank				
Variable	White	People of Color	*U*	*z*	*p*
MCPR Total	16.79	17.22	132.50	−0.13	.899

Figure 4.2

Ranks of MCPR Total by Race
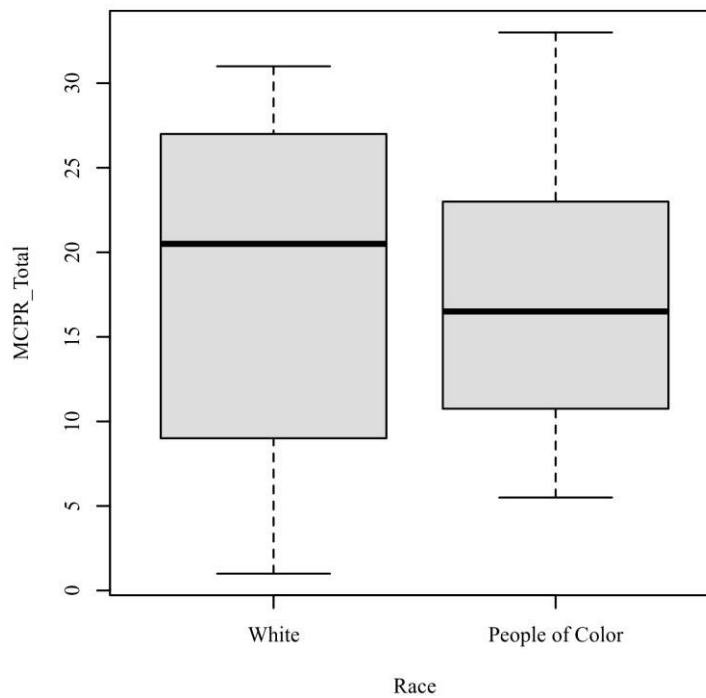
Two-Tailed Independent Samples t-Test of Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reaction by Place of Origin

      I conducted a two-tailed independent samples t-test to examine whether the mean of MCPR Total was significantly different between the City/Suburbs ($n = 14$) and Town/Rural ($n = 24$) categories of Place of Origin.

Assumptions

      Normality. I conducted Shapiro-Wilk tests to determine whether MCPR Total could have been produced by a normal distribution for each category of Place of Origin (Razali & Wah, 2011). The result of the Shapiro-Wilk test for MCPR Total in the City/Suburbs category was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $W = 0.94$, $p = .501$. This result suggests that a normal distribution cannot be ruled out as the underlying distribution for MCPR Total in the City/Suburbs category. The result of the Shapiro-Wilk test for MCPR Total in the Town/Rural category was significant based on an alpha value of .05, $W = 0.88$, $p = .016$. This result suggests that MCPR Total in the Town/Rural category is unlikely to have been produced by a normal distribution. The Shapiro-Wilk test was significant for the Town/Rural category of Setting, indicating that the normality assumption is violated.

      Homogeneity of Variance. I conducted Levene's test to assess whether the variance of MCPR Total was equal between the categories of Setting. The result of Levene's test for MCPR Total was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $F(1, 31) = 0.06$, $p = .815$. This result suggests it is possible that the variance of MCPR Total is equal for each category of Setting, indicating that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met.

Results

      The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $t(31) = 0.41$, $p = .686$, indicating that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. This finding suggests the mean of MCPR Total was not significantly different between the

City/Suburbs and Town/Rural categories of Setting. The results are presented in Table 4.5. A bar plot of the means is presented in Figure 4.3.

Table 4.5

Two-Tailed Independent Samples t-Test for MCPR Total by Place of Origin

| Variable | City/Suburbs | | Town/Rural | | | | |
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*d*
MCPR Total	77.62	9.12	76.15	10.61	0.41	.686	0.15

Note. N = 33; degrees of freedom for the *t* statistic = 31; *d* represents Cohen's *d.*

Figure 4.3

The Mean of MCPR Total by Levels of Setting with 95% CI Error Bars
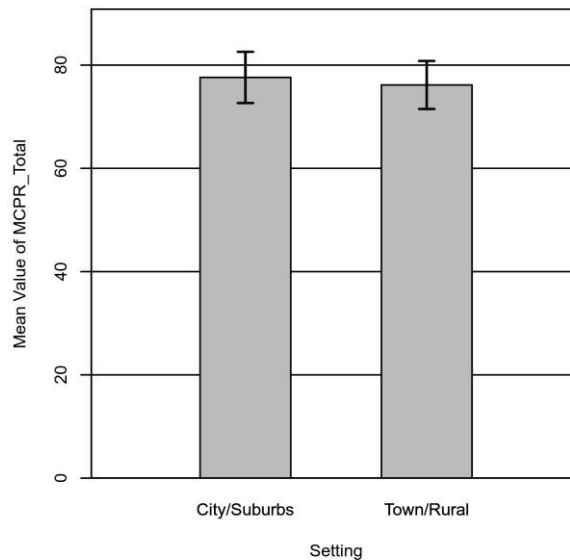
Two-Tailed Mann-Whitney U Test

I conducted a two-tailed Mann-Whitney two-sample rank-sum test to examine whether there were significant differences in MCPR Total between the levels of Setting. The two-tailed Mann-Whitney two-sample rank-sum test is an alternative to the independent samples *t*-test but

does not share the same assumptions (Conover & Iman, 1981). There were 13 observations in group City/Suburbs and 20 observations in group Town/Rural.

Results

The result of the two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $U = 138$, $z = -0.30$, $p = .767$. The mean rank for group City/Suburbs was 17.62, and the mean rank for group Town/Rural was 16.60. This suggests that the distribution of MCPR_Total for group City/Suburbs (*Mdn* = 78.00) was not significantly different from the distribution of MCPR_Total for the Town/Rural (*Mdn* = 78.00) category. Table 4.6 presents the result of the two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test. Figure 4.4 presents a boxplot of the ranks of MCPR Total by Setting.

Table 4.6

Two-Tailed Mann-Whitney Test for MCPR Total by Setting

Variable	Mean Rank		U	z	p
	City/Suburbs	Town/Rural			
MCPR Total	17.62	16.60	138.00	–0.30	.767

Figure 4.4

Ranks of MCPR Total by Setting
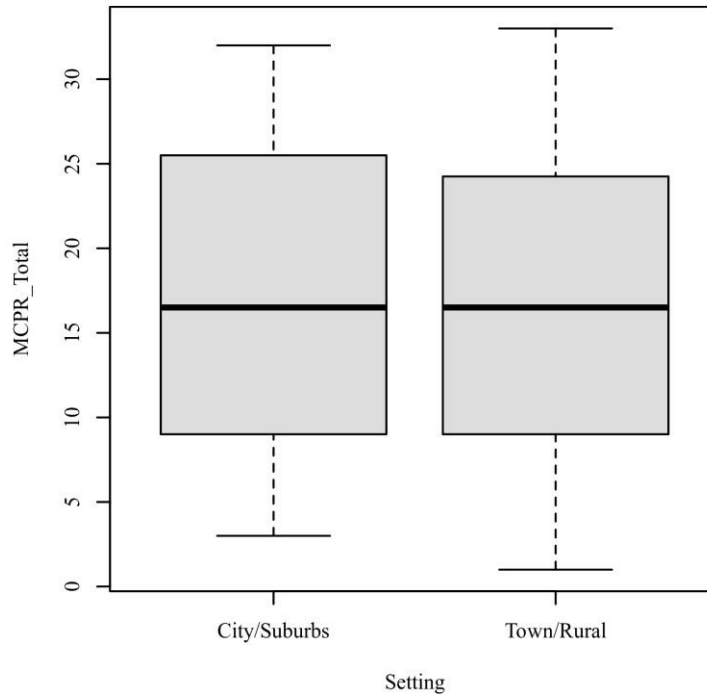
Two-Tailed Independent Samples t-Test of Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions by Gender

I conducted a two-tailed independent samples *t*-test to examine whether the mean of MCPR Total was significantly different between the Female ($n = 26$) and Male ($n = 12$) categories.

Assumptions

Normality. I conducted Shapiro-Wilk tests to determine whether the MCPR Total could have been produced by a normal distribution for each category of gender (Razali & Wah, 2011). The result of the Shapiro-Wilk test for MCPR_Total in the Female category was significant based on an alpha value of .05, $W = 0.87$, $p = .006$. This result suggests that MCPR Total in the Female category is unlikely to have been produced by a normal distribution. The result of the Shapiro-Wilk test MCPR Total in the Male category was not significant based on an alpha value

of .05, $W = 0.85$, $p = .051$. This result suggests a normal distribution cannot be ruled out as the underlying distribution for MCPR Total in the Male category. The Shapiro-Wilk test was significant for the Female category of q0004, indicating that the normality assumption is violated.

Homogeneity of Variance. I conducted Levene's test to assess whether the variance of MCPR_Total was equal between the categories of q0004. The result of Levene's test for MCPR_Total was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $F(1, 31) = 0.01$, $p = .925$. This result suggests it is possible that the variance of MCPR_Total is equal for each category of q0004, indicating that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met.

Results

The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test was significant based on an alpha value of .05, $t(31) = 2.14$, $p = .040$, indicating that the null hypothesis can be rejected. This finding suggests that the mean of the MCPR Total was significantly different between the Female and Male categories of q0004. The results are presented in Table 4.7. A bar plot of the means is presented in Figure 4.5.

Table 4.7

Two-Tailed Independent Samples t-Test for MCPR_Total by q0004

Variable	Female		Male		t	p	d
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*			
MCPR_Total	79.04	9.32	71.40	9.66	2.14	.040	0.81

Note. $N = 33$; degrees of freedom for the t statistic $= 31$; d represents Cohen's d.

Figure 4.5

The Mean of MCPR_Total by Levels of q0004 with 95% CI Error Bars
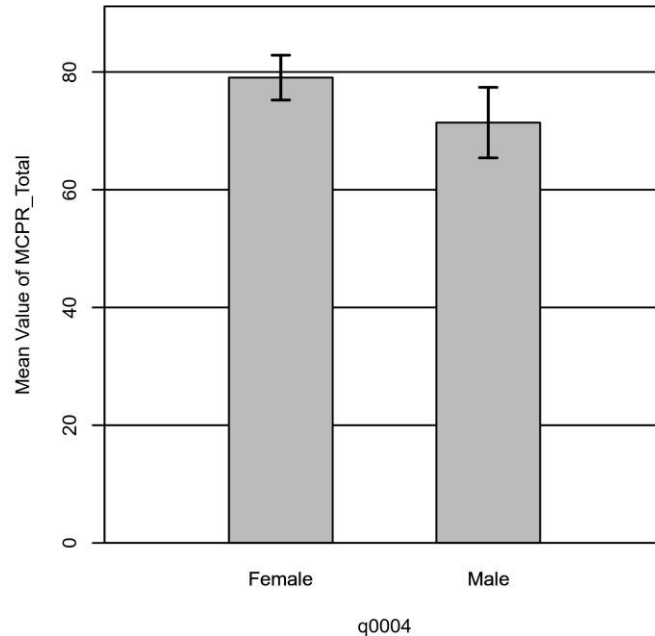
Two-Tailed Mann-Whitney U Test

I conducted a two-tailed Mann-Whitney two-sample rank-sum test to examine whether there were significant differences in the MCPR Total between the levels of gender. The twotailed Mann-Whitney two-sample rank-sum test is an alternative to the independent samples *t*test but does not share the same assumptions (Conover & Iman, 1981). There were 23 observations in group Female and 10 observations in group Male.

Results

The result of the two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test was significant based on an alpha value of .05, $U = 169$, $z = -2.12$, $p = .034$. The mean rank for group Female was 19.35, and the mean rank for group Male was 11.60. This suggests that the distribution of MCPR Total for group Female was significantly different from the distribution of the MCPR Total for the Male

category. The median for Female (*Mdn* = 80.00) was significantly larger than the median for

Male (*Mdn* = 75.00). Table 4.8 presents the result of the two-tailed Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Figure

4.6 presents a boxplot of the ranks of MCPR Total by Gender.

Table 4.8

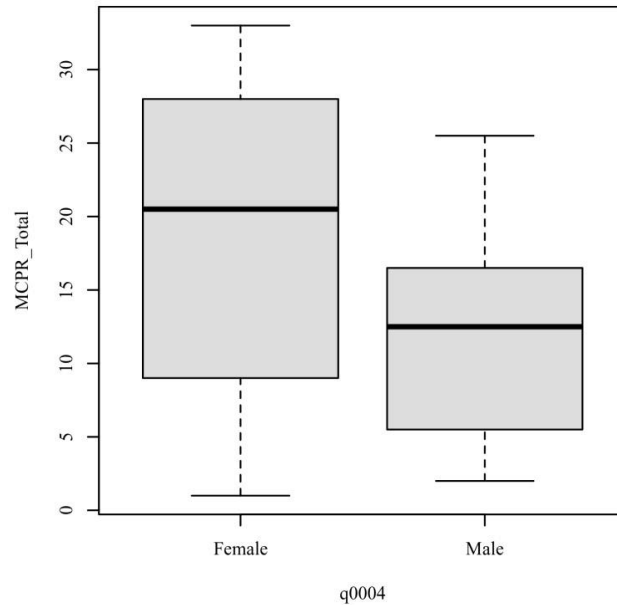*Two-Tailed Mann-Whitney Test for MCPR Total by Gender*

Variable	Mean Rank		*U*	*z*	*p*
	Female	Male			
MCPR Total	19.35	11.60	169.00	–2.12	.034

Figure 4.6

Ranks of MCPR Total by Gender

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Two-Tailed Independent Samples t-Test of Cultural Competency by Race

I conducted a two-tailed independent samples *t*-test to examine whether the mean of Cultural Competency Scale (CC Total) significantly differed between the White and People of Color categories of Race.

Assumptions

Normality. I conducted Shapiro-Wilk tests to determine whether the CC Total could have been produced by a normal distribution for each category of Race (Razali & Wah, 2011). The result of the Shapiro-Wilk test for CC Total in the White category was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $W = 0.89$, $p = .191$. This result suggests a normal distribution cannot be ruled out as the underlying distribution for CC Total in the White category. The result of the Shapiro-Wilk test CC Total in the People of Color category was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $W = 0.93$, $p = .376$. This result suggests that a normal distribution cannot be ruled out as the underlying distribution for CC Total in the People of Color category. The ShapiroWilk test was not significant for either the White or People of Color categories of Race, indicating that the normality assumption is met.

Homogeneity of Variance. I conducted Levene's test was conducted to assess whether the variance of CC Total was equal between the categories of Race. The result of Levene's test for CC Total was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $F(1, 19) = 0.71$, $p = .409$. This result suggests it is possible that the variance of the CC Total is equal for each category of Race, indicating that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met.

Results

The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $t(19) = -0.43$, $p = .675$, indicating that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. This finding suggests the mean of CC Total was not significantly different between the White and People of Color categories of Race. The results are presented in Table 4.9. A bar plot of the means is presented in Figure 4.7.

Table 4.9

Two-Tailed Independent Samples t-Test for CC Total by Race

	White		People of Color				
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*d*
CC_Total	123.33	9.50	125.67	14.20	−0.43	.675	0.19

Note. N = 21; degrees of freedom for the *t* statistic = 19; *d* represents Cohen's *d*.

Figure 4.7

The Mean of CC Total by Levels of Race with 95% CI Error Bars
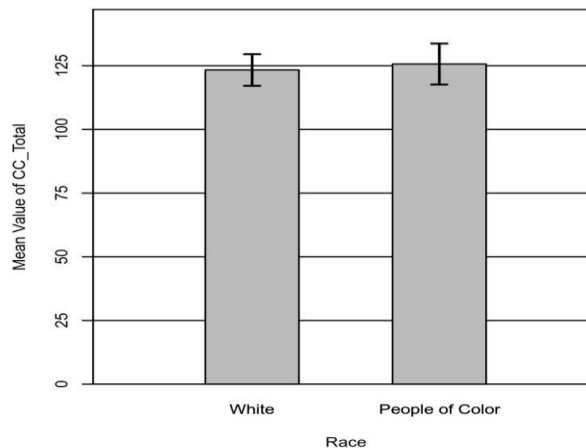
Two-Tailed Independent Samples t-Test of Cultural Competency by Setting

A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of the CC Total was significantly different between the City/Suburbs and Town/Rural categories of Setting.

Assumptions

Normality. I conducted Shapiro-Wilk tests to determine whether the CC Total could have been produced by a normal distribution for each category of Setting (Razali & Wah, 2011). The result of the Shapiro-Wilk test for CC Total in the City/Suburbs category was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $W = 0.88$, $p = .248$. This result suggests a normal distribution cannot be ruled out as the underlying distribution for the CC Total in the City/Suburbs category.

The result of the Shapiro-Wilk test CC Total in the Town/Rural category was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $W = 0.94$, $p = .334$. This result suggests a normal distribution cannot be ruled out as the underlying distribution for CC Total in the Town/Rural category. The Shapiro-Wilk test was not significant for either the City/Suburbs or Town/Rural categories of Setting, indicating the normality assumption is met.

Homogeneity of Variance. I conducted Levene's test to assess whether the variance of the CC Total was equal between the categories of Setting. The result of Levene's test for the CC Total was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $F(1, 19) = 0.55$, $p = .467$. This result suggests it is possible that the variance of the CC Total is equal for each category of Setting, indicating that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met.

Results

The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, *t*(19) = 0.55, *p* = .592, indicating that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. This finding suggests the mean of CC Total was not significantly different between the City/Suburbs and Town/Rural categories of Setting. The results are presented in Table 4.10. A bar plot of the means is presented in Figure 4.8.

Table 4.10

Two-Tailed Independent Samples t-Test for CCTotal by Setting

Variable	City/Suburbs		Town/Rural		*t*	*p*	*d*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*			
CC Total	127.00	16.88	123.73	10.35	0.55	.592	0.23

Note. N = 21; degrees of freedom for the *t* statistic = 19; *d* represents Cohen's *d*.

Figure 4.8

The Mean of CC Total by Levels of Setting with 95% CI Error Bars
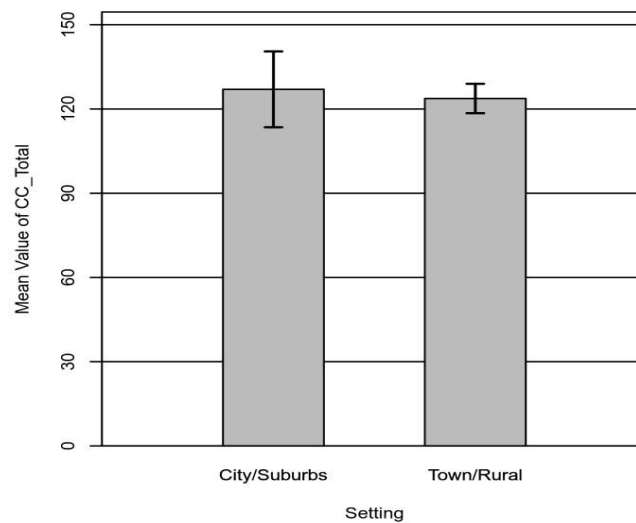
Two-Tailed Independent Samples t-Test of Cultural Competency by Gender

I conducted a two-tailed independent samples t-test to examine whether the mean of the CC Total was significantly different between the Female and Male categories of gender.

Assumptions

Normality. I conducted Shapiro-Wilk tests to determine whether the CC Total could have been produced by a normal distribution for each category of Gender (Razali & Wah, 2011). The result of the Shapiro-Wilk test for CC Total in the Female category was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $W = 0.92$, $p = .213$. This result suggests a normal distribution cannot be ruled out as the underlying distribution for CC Total in the Female category. The result of the Shapiro-Wilk test CC Total in the Male category was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $W = 0.85$, $p = .147$. This result suggests that a normal distribution cannot be ruled out as the underlying distribution for the CC Total in the Male category. The Shapiro-Wilk test was not significant for either the Female or Male categories of gender, indicating that the normality assumption is met.

Homogeneity of Variance. I conducted Levene's test to assess whether the variance of the CC Total was equal between the categories of q0004. The result of Levene's test for the CC Total was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $F(1, 19) = 0.06$, $p = .810$. This result suggests it is possible that the variance of the CC Total is equal for each category of q0004, indicating that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met.

Results

The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, $t(19) = 1.65$, $p = .115$, indicating that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. This finding suggests the mean of the CC Total was not significantly different between the Female and Male categories of q0004. The results are presented in Table 4.11. A bar plot of the means is presented in Figure 4.9.

Table 4.11

Two-Tailed Independent Samples t-Test for Cultural Competency Total by Gender

Variable	Female		Male		t	p	d
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*			
CC Total	127.33	11.54	118.00	12.08	1.65	.115	0.79

Note. N = 21; degrees of freedom for the t statistic = 19; *d* represents Cohen's *d*

Figure 4.9

The Mean of Cultural Competency Total by Levels of Gender with 95% CI Error Bars
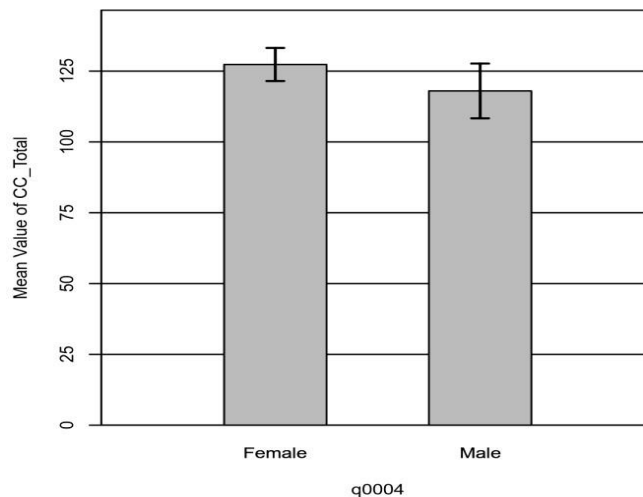
Linear Regression Analysis

I conducted a linear regression analysis to assess whether cultural competency predicted the extent of motivation to control prejudiced reactions.

Assumptions

Normality. I assessed the assumption of normality by plotting the quantiles of the model residuals against the quantiles of a chi-square distribution, also called a Q-Q scatterplot (DeCarlo, 1997). For the assumption of normality to be met, the quantiles of the residuals must not strongly deviate from the theoretical quantiles. Strong deviations could indicate that the parameter estimates are unreliable. Figure 4.10 presents a Q-Q scatterplot of the model residuals.

Figure 4.10

Q-Q Scatterplot for the Normality of the Residuals for the Regression Model
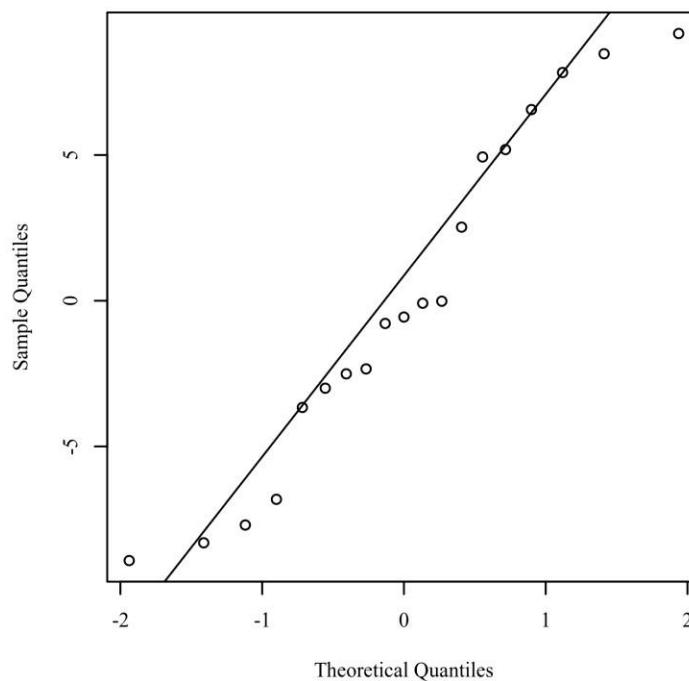
Homoscedasticity. Homoscedasticity was evaluated by plotting the residuals against the predicted values (Bates et al., 2014; Field, 2017; Osborne & Walters, 2002). The assumption of homoscedasticity is met if the points appear randomly distributed with a mean of zero and no apparent curvature. Figure 4.11 presents a scatterplot of predicted values and model residuals.

Figure 4.11

Residuals Scatterplot Testing Homoscedasticity
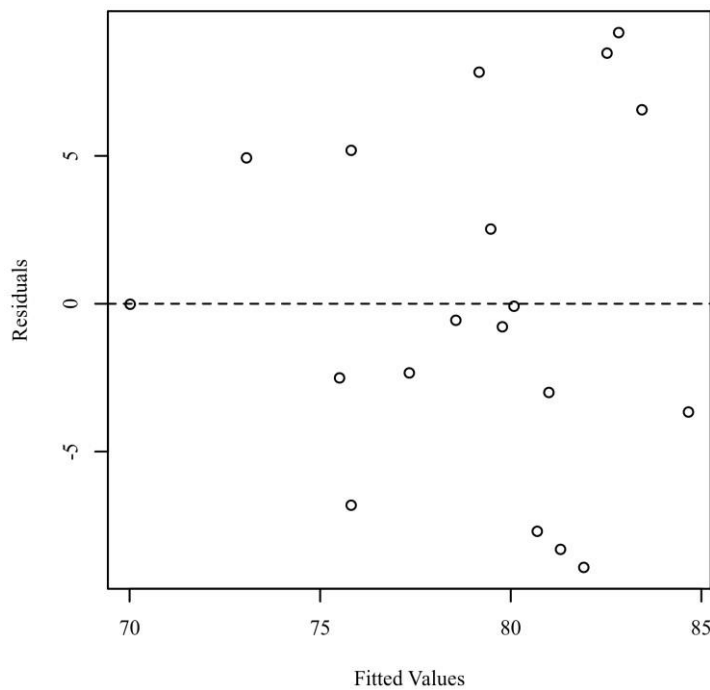
Multicollinearity. Since there was only one predictor variable, multicollinearity does not apply, and I did not calcultate Variance Inflation Factors.

Outliers. I calculated studentized residuals and the absolute values were plotted against the observation numbers to identify influential points (Field, 2017; Pituch & Stevens, 2015). I calculated studentized residuals by dividing the model residuals by the estimated residual standard deviation. An observation with a studentized residual greater than 3.61 in absolute value, the 0.999 quantile of a *t* distribution with 18 degrees of freedom, was considered to

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significantly influence the results of the model. Figure 4.12 presents the studentized residuals plot of the observations. Observation numbers are specified next to each point with a studentized residual greater than 3.61.

Figure 4.12

Studentized Residuals Plot for Outlier Detection
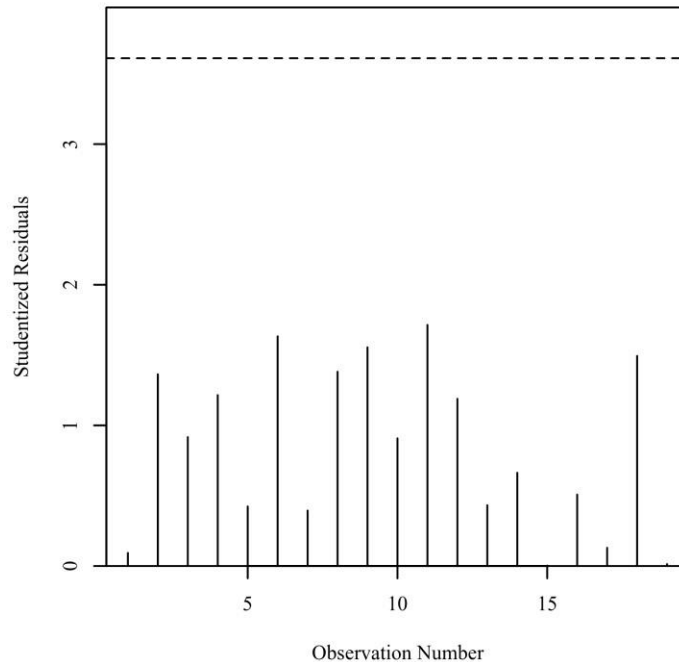
Results

The results of the linear regression model were significant, $F(1,17) = 7.08$, $p = .016$, $R^2 = .29$, indicating that approximately 29.40% of the variance in the MCPR Total is explainable by the CC Total. The CC Total significantly predicted MCPR Total, $B = 0.31$, $t(17) = 2.66$, $p = .016$. This indicates that on average, a one-unit increase of CC Total will increase the value of MCPR_Total by 0.31 units. Table 4.12 summarizes the results of the regression model.

Table 4.12

Results for Linear Regression with Cultural Competency Total Predicting the MCPR Total

Variable	*B*	*SE*	95% CI	β	*t*	*p*
(Intercept)	40.73	14.49	[10.15, 71.30]	0.00	2.81	.012
CC Total	0.31	0.11	[0.06, 0.55]	0.54	2.66	.016

Note. Results: $F(1,17) = 7.08$, $p = .016$, $R^2 = .29$

Unstandardized Regression Equation: MCPR Total = 40.73 + 0.31*CC Total

CHAPTER 5

Conclusions and Recommendations

Police departments are often unsuccessful when recruiting for diversity and preparing officers to serve communities of color (Chappell, 2008; Shipton, 2011). As described in previous chapters, the problem is threefold: (a) there is a lack of culturally relevant education during college and police recruit training programs; (b) there is often a lack of exposure to racial, cultural, and religious diversity when aspiring police officers grow up; and (c) police officers tend to not represent the diversity of residents living in urban areas or diverse suburban communities. Therefore, I designed this study to measure cultural competence (CC) and motivation to control prejudiced reactions (MCPR) of criminal justice students who plan to become police recruits or other criminal justice professionals. This study is timely and significant, as the number of police killings of unarmed Black men and women continues to rise (Byrd & Roda, 2020). Results of the study can assist police departments by showing the cultural competency levels of aspiring police recruits and uncovering potential gaps in understanding, with the goal of improving the training recruits receive before going out into the field.

Survey data from 38 criminal justice students were collected, and responses were compared across gender, ethnicity, and place of origin to examine potential bias based on these characteristics. Overall, the sample illustrated that most students were exposed to diverse individuals and experiences. Seventy-nine percent of participants reported that they reside in communities that are diverse, 69% are females, 58% are White, and 33% speak more than one language and have traveled internationally at the rate of 66%. Eighty-four percent of students have friends who are different racially and culturally.

There was a significant positive correlation between CC and MCPR. Awareness was significantly higher for students of color compared to White students. Cultural competency

knowledge and skills were significantly higher for females than males. There was also a significant prediction of cultural competency levels and motivation to control prejudiced reactions at 29%.

In this chapter, I discuss my findings in relation to the literature and framework. Next, I explain the limitations and delimitations of this quantitative study. I outlined the implications for policy and practice and included ideas for future research.

Interpretation of Findings

In this section, I interpret the findings for each research question and my original hypothesis and relate them to the literature:

1. What is the extent of cultural competence and motivation to control prejudiced reactions of criminal justice undergraduate students?

2. Are there differences in the levels of cultural competence and motivation to control prejudiced reactions among criminal justice students by gender, race, and place of origin?

3. Does cultural competency predict the extent of motivation to control prejudiced reactions?

I hypothesized that criminal justice students who are male, White, and those who reside outside the perimeters of urban neighborhoods will have lower cultural competence scores and lower motivation to live and work in urban areas. My hypothesis was correct that male and White students living in the New York metropolitan area had lower cultural competency scores compared to females and students of color.

The difference by gender was evident in the MCPR scores, where females showed significantly higher results than males over their bias and control of prejudiced reactions. It is consistent with past studies on social cognition looking at the implicit bias and motivation to

control it by inhibiting unintended and automatic discriminatory acts that highlight meaningful individual differences in expressing explicitly biased reactions (Dunton & Fazio, 1997; Glaser & Knowles, 2008; Plant & Devine, 1998).

The non-significant differences in scores by Race (White vs. People of Color), while still lower on both CC and MCPR for White participants, present hopeful results showing that cultural awareness and more control over biased responses is on the rise among these participants. It could suggest more egalitarian ways of thinking (Sears et al., 2000), with a greater awareness of prejudice and negative stereotypes among participants. There is also research indicating that the presence of contextual variations under which an individual interacts with a person of a different race or ethnicity can enhance or diminish potential prejudiced reactions (e.g., Blair, 2002; Dasgupta & Greenwald, 2001). For example, in the study by Wittenbrink et al. (2001), White participants responded less favorably and with prejudice toward Black persons in a non-religious setting as opposed to a religious setting.

The low number of students who lived in urban neighborhoods compared to suburban and rural neighborhoods precluded the analysis of such a comparison. For the purpose of the analysis, I chose to combine participants from urban and suburban neighborhoods, as those living close to metropolitan areas, versus those who lived in towns and rural neighborhoods further away from urban settings. The comparisons of scores for both CC and MCPR did not yield statistically significant differences in scores for the participants' places of origin.

Overall, however, the 38 students who completed the survey reported exposure to diverse individuals and experiences growing up. Specifically, 33% spoke more than one language, 66% traveled internationally, 79% resided in a diverse community, and 84% had friends of different cultural or racial backgrounds. These results suggest that one's exposure to diversity leads to higher CC and MCPR. Furthermore, the results of linear regression showed

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that 29.4% of the motivation to control prejudice can be explained by cultural competence. This prediction suggests that as the scores on cultural competency increase, the prejudiced reactions will diminish with a greater control over one's bias. This prediction aligned with past research that has consistently shown that exposure to diversity, especially at a young age, leads to higher intergroup understandings and lower stereotypes (Boisjoly et al., 2006; Brown & Hewstone, 2005; Johnson, 2019; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2000).

Limitations

There are several limitations to this quantitative study, and care should be taken when interpreting the results and conclusions. The first limitation is social desirability bias. Students completed the surveys anonymously; however, students may have felt cautious or even uncomfortable answering certain questions about cultural diversity and prejudice that may have uncovered particular biases. This type of bias can affect the accuracy of the data collected from a survey.

The small sample of criminal justice students who participated in the study limits the generalizability of the findings. Forty-nine students completed part of the survey, but I removed 11 students because either they were not criminal justice students or did not complete the entire survey questionnaire. Because the overall sample was so small and the percentage of students of color was only about 30%, I could not statistically analyze all subgroup differences. Also, most of the students grew up in suburban communities and Catholic, which made it impossible to compare with students who grew up in urban communities or from different religious backgrounds. The findings may be more reflective of White female students who grew up in suburban communities than a broader, more diverse population of students.

A third limitation was the timing of the study, which likely affected the number of students who participated. The study occurred during the COVID-19 pandemic, and not all

students were on campus regularly to hear about the study or fill out the questionnaire. Although I attempted to recruit students from the criminal justice program, the class I spoke to only had eight students in attendance that day.

Delimitations

There are a few delimitations within this research study. I did not obtain the sample randomly. Students self-selected to take the survey. The location of the study was limited to one suburban college in the northeastern United States with a Catholic tradition that is predominantly White and middle class. Additionally, the selection of participants was limited to a population of roughly 80 to 100 criminal justice students. Due to these delimitations, the study's findings may not be generalizable to the broader population.

Implications

There are several implications of this study. First, male, White students had lower cultural competency levels and motivations to control prejudices compared to females and students of color. This is a concerning finding since police departments typically consist of mostly White, male officers. White male students should be introduced and exposed to more diversity within suburban and urban areas to have less fear and misunderstandings of different racial and ethnic groups. This could be achieved by diversifying segregated White communities and school districts, which is a substantial problem due to the location of the focal college (Erase Racism, 2019). Students also should be required to take courses on race and ethnic studies and religious beliefs and traditions to increase awareness and uncover any potential implicit bias or prejudices.

After researching the college courses at the focal college setting and courses taken in the police academy, I found an overlap that reinforces their policing skills in diverse communities. However, the college lacked required courses in race and ethnic relations. The results of this

study showed that some students were unaware of their discomfort with the "Other." Therefore, I would recommend that criminal justice majors be required to take courses that focus on race, ethnic studies, religion, language, and sexual orientation to increase their cultural competency and awareness of differences within various communities and societies.

Lastly, police officers tend not to represent the diversity of residents living in urban areas or diverse suburban communities. Police departments must target recruitment to BIPOC students through information sessions and shadowing opportunities in high schools. Other ideas to increase the diversity of police officers include having messaging that promotes the idea that policing is a rewarding position and is one way that BIPOC students can give back to their communities, particularly in light of Freddie Gray, George Floyd, and the countless other deaths at the hands of the police (Chan, 2021). Chan's research showed that more Black police recruits signed up for these reasons. Another strategy is to start educational vocational-technical or magnet programs for aspiring police officers.

Recommendations for Future Research

This exploratory study should be considered a jumping-off point for future research on this critical and timely topic. Future research should be conducted with students enrolled in public colleges, such as the campuses of the State University of New York (SUNY) and City University of New York (CUNY), as well as the New York Police Academy, which is the largest in the nation.

College courses in criminal justice and sociology should be required and completed prior to police candidates entering the police academy rather than just random courses accepted as a part of their application. This exposure to a diverse population on a college campus would introduce issues relevant in the greater society. The police academy is equipped to train police candidates in tactical and other self-defense training. This cultural competence preparedness

element of the police officer application can fulfill the college credits needed and lessen New York City's expenses. Focusing on tactical and technical training for prospective police officers is more effectively taught in the police academy. The results of my study highlighted that many anticipated differences in cultural competency attitudes and motivation to control prejudiced reactions among criminal justice students were not present. It further aligns with initiatives that some colleges take in partnering with police headquarters to house theory-based courses in the college rather than the police academy. Programs aligned with a law enforcement college degree and paired with technical training at the police academy are one of the newer models to emerge in states like Florida and Michigan (Sereni-Maisenger & Wood, 2016). The college courses can also infuse cultural competency training to further prepare future police officers to work with diverse communities. Such coursework can further expose the police applicant to a diverse student body and lead to a greater understanding of race, ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, and urban communities. Courses taught at the police academy should include tactical and defense courses. A police applicant's introduction to preparedness in cultural competence can be fulfilled with appropriate college programs focused on social sciences and criminal justice courses (Michigan State University, 2015; U.S. Department of Justice Office of Justice Programs Bureau of Justice Statistics, (2021; NCJ 249784 State and Local Law Enforcement Training Academies, 2013).

These quantitative studies could further explore cultural competency and motivation to control prejudiced reactions with a more diverse population of students, including historically marginalized students of color, low-income students, students living in large urban areas, international students, and linguistically diverse and religiously diverse students.

A qualitative study could examine why male students are less culturally competent than females. Another study could qualitatively explore the low numbers of police applicants who

identify as BIPOC. A follow-up study with the students who identified as "another race" on the survey (10%) could examine whether a multiracial identity played a role in their decision to pursue a criminal justice career and go into more depth about their responses on the survey.

Conclusion

This study assessed criminal justice students' cultural competency and motivation to control prejudiced reactions. Results showed a statistically significant and positive relationship between CC and MCPR. Female students and students of color had higher knowledge and skills on these two measures than males and White students. Furthermore, CC accounted for 33% of the variance in MCPR, indicating that enhanced cultural awareness contributes to lower levels of biased reactions. More diverse experiences of the participants in terms of exchanges with people from other cultures and races could explain this enhanced CC. This quantitative study contributes to the field by identifying potential gaps in criminal justice education that could be used to enhance the cultural competency of future police officers and other criminal justice professionals who serve communities of color. I outlined the limitations, delimitations, implications, and ideas for future research.

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APPENDIX A

Molloy College

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Kathleen Maurer Smith, Ph.D. Dean, Graduate Academic Affairs T: 516.323.3801 **F:** 516.323.3398
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DATE: November 11, 2021

TO: Carole Byrd, PHD Molloy College IRB

PROJECT TITLE: [1826035-2] Cultural Competence and Motivation to Control Prejudice Reactions of Police Recruits

ACKNOWLEDGED November 11, 2021

Thank you for submitting the Amendment/Modification materials for this project. The Molloy College IRB has ACKNOWLEDGED your submission. No further action on submission 1826035-2 is required at this time. You may proceed with your project.

The following items are acknowledged in this submission:

- Amendment/Modification - Byrd Amendment_Revision_Application_pdf_2018.pdf (UPDATED: 11/2/2021)
- Questionnaire/Survey - Cultural Competence Self Checklist Amended.docx (UPDATED: 11/2/2021) Please refer to Molloy College IRB Policies and Procedures for required submission process if any changes to this project.

  If you have any questions, please contact Patricia Eckardt at 516-323-3711 or peckardt@molloy.edu. Please include your project title and reference number in all correspondence with this committee.

  Sincerely,

  Patricia Eckardt, Ph.D., RN, FAAN
  Chair, Molloy College Institutional Review Board

Are you a ███████ student majoring in Criminal Justice 18 years and older?
$75
is waiting for YOU by taking my survey on Cultural Sensitivity

At

███████ College on the ████████████ Campus

The study aims to examine levels of cultural competence and motivation to control prejudice reactions among students who aspire to join the police department or in another criminal justice career. The study will take place during the Fall 2021 semester and will include a brief anonymous survey that will generate vital statistics for a doctoral research study conducted by the Ed.D. Doctoral candidate, Carole Byrd.

BE A PART OF THIS IMPORTANT RESEARCH

There will be a: 1st prize of $75, 2nd prize of $50, 3rd prize of $25

Lottery drawing for participants who **volunteer** to take part in the research study during Fall 2021 semester.

If you would like to participate in the study, please scan the QR code to access the survey

QR CODE (include here)

or click on the link below:

(Link to survey monkey survey)

Any questions please email, Carole Byrd, Ed.D. Candidate at Molloy College at: cbyrd@lions.molloy.edu

Thank You, in advance for your participation in this vital research

Demographic Questionnaire
The following are questions that pertain to you personally. The questions will not divulge your identity. The purpose questions relate to research within this study.

   A. Personal identification code allows responses to questions to remain anonymous and tracked both pre and post of this survey.

Personal identification Codes for research tracking:
1-Your favorite teachers last name _____
2- The first name of your best friend _____

Indicate by circling the number to following questions the appropriate responses.

B. Your gender
1. Female
2. Male

C. Your racial group
1. Caucasian/ White
2. Black/African American
3. Latin – American (Black or White)
4- Native American/Indian American
5-Asian/Pacific Islander
6- Other (indicate specifically)

D. Your age _____

E. Social Status
1. Single
2. Cohabiting
3. Married
4. Separated
5. Divorced
6-. Widowed

7. Other living arrangement _____

F. Highest level of educational attainment
1. Some college (non-degree)
2. Associate Degree (type of degree) _____

3. Bachelor's Degree (type of degree) _____

4. Some graduate school (type of study) _____

5.Graduate study (type of study) _____

G. Your professional certification:

1. Nurse

2. Teacher

3. Lawyer

4. Doctor

5. Student

6. Others (indicate) _____

H. Languages spoken _____

Employment history and experiences:

Position:

I.   Military Service _____

J.   Do you reside in a diverse community?

K. Do you live in New York City, Nassau County, Suffolk County, and Westchester County or are you from another state or country.

Indicate here:_____

L. How can you describe your circle of friends?

       a. None

       b. Diverse

       c. Gamers

       d. Others (describe)_____

M. Is policing your career choice or were you encouraged by someone else.

       a. Family

       b. Friend

       c. Others _____

Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Checklist

Awareness		Never	Sometimes/ Occasionally	Fairly Often/ Pretty well	Always/ Very well
Value Diversity	I view human difference as positive and a cause for celebration				
Know myself	I have a clear sense of my own ethnic, cultural and racial identity				
Share my culture	I am aware that in order to learn more about others I need to understand and be prepared to share my own culture				
Be aware of areas of discomfort	I am aware of my discomfort when I encounter differences in race, color, religion, sexual orientation, language, and ethnicity.				
Check my assumptions	I am aware of the assumptions that I hold about people of cultures different from my own.				
Challenge my stereotypes	I am aware of my stereotypes as they arise and have developed personal strategies for reducing the harm they cause.				

Awareness		Never	Sometimes/ Occasionally	Fairly Often/ Pretty well	Always/ Very well
Reflect on how my culture informs my judgment	I am aware of how my cultural perspective influences my judgment about what are 'appropriate', 'normal', or 'superior' behaviors, values, and communication styles.				
Accept ambiguity	I accept that in cross cultural situations there can be uncertainty and that uncertainty can make me anxious. It can also mean that I do not respond quickly and take the time needed to get more information.				
Be curious	I take any opportunity to put myself in places where I can learn about differences and create relationships.				
Aware of my privilege if I am White	If I am a White person working with an Aboriginal person or Person of Color, I understand that I will likely be perceived as a person with power and racial privilege, and that I may not be seen as 'unbiased' or as an ally.				

Awareness		Never	Sometimes/ Occasionally	Fairly Often/ Pretty well	Always/ Very well
Aware of social justice issues	I'm aware of the impact of the social context on the lives of culturally diverse populations, and how power, privilege and social oppression influence their lives.				
Gain from my mistakes	I will make mistakes and will learn from them.				
Assess the limits of my knowledge	I will recognize that my knowledge of certain cultural groups is limited and commit to creating opportunities to learn more				
Ask questions	I will really listen to the answers before asking another question				
Acknowledge the importance of difference	I know that differences in color, culture, ethnicity etc. are important parts of an individual's identity which they value and so do I. I will not hide behind the claim of "color blindness".				

Awareness		Never	Sometimes/ Occasionally	Fairly Often/ Pretty well	Always/ Very well
Know the historical experiences of non-European Americans	I am knowledgeable about historical incidents in 's past that demonstrate racism and exclusion towards Americans of non-European heritage (e.g. Native Americans' reservation marginalization, anti-Chinese legislation, Jim Crow Laws (with "separate but equal" status for Blacks).				
Understand the influence culture can have	I recognize that cultures change over time and can vary from person to person, as does attachment to culture				
Commit to life- long learning	I recognize that achieving cultural competence involves a commitment to learning over a lifetime				

Awareness		Never	Sometimes/ Occasionally	Fairly Often/ Pretty well	Always/ Very well
Understand the impact of racism, sexism, homophobia ...	I recognize that stereotypical attitudes and discriminatory actions can dehumanize, even encourage violence against individuals because of their membership in groups which are different from myself				
Know my own family history	I know my family's story of immigration and assimilation into America				
Know my limitations	I continue to develop my capacity for assessing areas where there are gaps in my knowledge				
Awareness of multiple social identities	I recognize that people have intersecting multiple identities drawn from race, sex, religion, ethnicity, etc. and the importance of each of these identities vary from person to person				
Intercultural & intracultural differences	I acknowledge both inter- cultural and intracultural differences				

Awareness		Never	Sometimes/ Occasionally	Fairly Often/ Pretty well	Always/ Very well
Point of reference to assess appropriate behavior	I'm aware that everyone has a "culture" and my own "culture" should not be regarded as a point of reference to assess which behavior is appropriate or inappropriate				
Adapt to different situations	I am developing ways to interact respectfully and effectively with individuals and groups				
Challenge discrimina-tory and/or racist behavior	I can effectively intervene when I observe others behaving in racist and/or discriminatory manner				

Skills		Never	Sometimes/ Occasionally	Fairly Often/ Pretty well	Always/ Very well
Communicate across cultures	I am able to adapt my communication style to effectively communicate with people who communicate in ways that are different from my own.				
Seek out situations to expand my skills	I seek out people who challenge me to maintain and increase the cross-cultural skills I have.				
Become engaged	I am actively involved in initiatives, small or big, that promote understanding among members of diverse groups.				
Act respectfully in cross-cultural situations	I can act in ways that demonstrate respect for the culture and beliefs of others.				
Practice cultural protocols	I am learning about and put into practice the specific cultural protocols and practices which necessary for my work.				
Act as an ally	My colleagues who are immigrants, People of Color, or Native Americans consider me an ally and know that I will support them with culturally appropriate ways.				

Skills		Never	Sometimes/ Occasionally	Fairly Often/ Pretty well	Always/ Very well
Be flexible	I work hard to understand the perspectives of others and consult with my diverse colleagues about culturally respectful and appropriate courses of action.				
Be adaptive	I know and use a variety of relationship building skills to create connections with people who are different from me.				
Recognize my own cultural biases	I can recognize my own cultural biases in a given situation and I'm aware not to act out based on my biases				
Be aware of within-group differences	I'm aware of within group differences and I would not generalize a specific behavior presented by an individual to the entire cultural community.				

Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions Scale

1- In today's society it is important that one not be perceived as prejudiced in any manner.

2- I always express my thoughts and feelings, regardless of how controversial they might be.

3- I get angry with myself when I have a thought or feeling that might be considered prejudiced.

4- If I were participating in a class discussion and a Black student expressed an opinion with which I disagreed, I would be hesitant to express my own viewpoint.

5- Going through life worrying about whether you might offend someone is just more trouble than it's worth.

6- It's important to me that other people not think I'm prejudiced.

7- I feel it's important to behave according to society's standards.

8- I'm careful not to offend my friends, but I don't worry about offending people I don't know or don't like.

9- I think that it is important to speak one's mind rather than to worry about offending someone.

10- It's never acceptable to express one's prejudices.

11- I feel guilty when I have a negative thought or feeling about a Black person.

12- When speaking to a Black person, it's important to me that he/she not think I'm prejudiced.

13- It bothers me a great deal when I think I've offended someone, so I'm always careful to consider other people's feelings.

14- If I have a prejudiced thought or feeling. I keep it to myself.

15- I would never tell jokes that might offend others.

16- I'm not afraid to tell others what I think, even when I know they disagree with me.

17- If someone who made me uncomfortable sat next to me on a bus, I would not hesitate to move to another seat.