

Everybody has an Angle:
The Influence of Camera Perspective on the Interpretation of Police Use of Force Videos

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Doctorate in Philosophy degree in Clinical Psychology

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Author Declaration

I, Natasha Michelle Korva, declare that I am the major contributing author of this dissertation. This is a true copy of the dissertation, including final revisions, as accepted by my examiners. I authorize the University of Ottawa to lend this dissertation to other institutions or individuals for the purpose of scholarly research. I also authorize the University of Ottawa to reproduce this dissertation by photocopying or by other means, in total or in part, at the request of other institutions for the purpose of scholarly research. I understand that my dissertation may be made available to the public.

This dissertation is comprised of four separate chapters, which includes two empirical investigations. Modified versions of the two empirical chapters have been developed into two scientific reports that are either under review for publication or in preparation for submission to peer-reviewed journals. Both reports were written in full by the author of this dissertation. Drs. Martin Lalumière and Craig Bennell were co-authors for both reports, and contributed to study planning and methodology, as well as the editing of drafts. Dr. Lalumière served as the primary dissertation supervisor, while Dr. Bennell served on the dissertation committee and assisted with dissertation supervision. A modified version of Chapter 2 is currently under review at *Behavioral Sciences and the Law* and was also co-authored by Sgt. Mirza Karimullah. Sgt. Karimullah contributed to the conceptualization and construction of the video-recorded scenario script and was consulted for video recordings; he also provided manuscript feedback. A modified version of Chapter 3 is in preparation for submission to the *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*. This report is also co-authored by Sgt. Mirza Karimullah and Dr. Susan Yamamoto who both provided manuscript feedback. Both also contributed to the construction of the trial summaries.

Abstract

The increased number of video recordings circulating in the media that depict police officers exercising excessive use of force has led to recommendations to equip police officers with body worn cameras. Because a camera's point of view may influence viewers' perceptions and understanding of the recorded events, the angle at which a police use of force encounter is recorded may have important consequences. My program of research aimed to understand how various camera angles can impact interpretations of a police use of force scenario. A simulated police use of force incident was video recorded at three different camera angles (body worn camera, security camera, bystander camera). Study 1 ($n = 330$) examined factors that contribute to interpretations of the scenario such as camera angle, pre-existing attitudes about police, and information processing style. Results showed that camera angle did not have a general impact on viewer's judgment of the scenario. However, pre-existing biases about the police and legal system guided interpretations of the scenario, and individuals who viewed the bystander video angle of the scenario rated the police officer more favourably when they endorsed positive attitudes about the police. In addition, a high need for cognition increased the likelihood of making judgments in line with participants' attitudes about police. Study 2 ($n = 576$) examined the legal implications of video evidence in a depiction of a trial in which a police officer has been accused of assaulting and causing bodily harm to a complainant. Participants exposed to trial information without video evidence found the police officer less credible and more responsible for the complainant's injury, and were more likely to recommend a guilty verdict and harsher punishment for the police officer. Individuals who were presented with trial information that included the body worn camera video evidence viewed the police officer as less credible. Attitudes and beliefs about the police and the legal system influenced decisions made regarding

the police officer's credibility, responsibility, and legal recommendations. Overall, camera perspective had an impact on interpretations of police use of force videos, but only when considering pre-existing attitudes about police, and video evidence in a criminal trial regarding police use of force impacted judgements. I discuss various practical implications of relying on police use of force videos, and present directions for future research.

Keywords: police use of force, body worn camera, camera perspective, attitudes towards police, police legitimacy, perceptions of police, information processing

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The first well-known case of police use of force on camera – even before the era of social media and smartphones – was the 1991 Rodney King incident (Mullen & Skitka, 2006). After video footage captured by a bystander surfaced in the media depicting an unarmed Black male being beaten by four Los Angeles police officers, many citizens interpreted the video as an illustration of police officers exercising racially driven police brutality. Public outrage and a six-day city riot ensued (Cannon, 1999).

Video recordings of police use of force incidents have surfaced in the media more frequently over the past decade, as technology has continued to evolve. Social media platforms like Facebook, TikTok, and YouTube continue to increase in popularity, and more people now possess smartphones with high-definition cameras that they can operate within seconds of noticing an incident (Brown, 2013; Newell, 2019). With these handheld cameras available in a moment's notice, and the ease of online dissemination, the police are increasingly captured during various police-public interactions. Some of these interactions have been very controversial (Greer & McLaughlin, 2010), and videos can challenge accounts provided by officers and undermine their credibility. For example, during July 2016 in Baton Rouge, Louisiana, a 37-year-old Black man was shot several times at close range by two police officers while they held him down on the ground (Laughland, 2015). The incident was caught on camera by several bystanders, a police body worn camera (BWC), and a nearby convenience store surveillance camera, and the various bystander videos were posted online that same day. Officer reports and public perceptions of how the event in the video played out differed widely.

One recent and heavily publicized case presented globally on various news and social media platforms was the incident involving George Floyd (Arango, 2021). After being reported

for using a fake twenty-dollar bill at a corner store in Minneapolis, Minnesota in April 2018, Floyd was arrested and subdued by police. One of the responding officers, Derek Chauvin, knelt on Floyd's neck for over nine minutes, resulting in loss of consciousness and ultimately his death. Several different videos of the incident emerged in the media, including bystander cell-phone videos, security camera footage, and BWC videos, all of which depicted various video angles and fragments of the event. These videos were used as evidence to convict the police officer in question (Arango, 2021). The videos – especially the bystander video released on social media platforms – triggered an emotional response in viewers across the globe and sparked concerns for the practice of inappropriate police procedures and excessive use of force (Coelho, 2021).

Several other incidents of police use of force in the media have evoked similar concerns, prompting questions about police legitimacy and misconduct (e.g., Saulnier et al., 2021). While most of the cases broadcasted in the media have occurred in the United States (US), many instances of police use of force on camera have been occurring within Canada (e.g., Saulnier et al., 2021). One Canadian case that received extensive media attention involved Sammy Yatim, a young man who in 2013 was shot to death by police on a streetcar in Toronto while presenting in an agitated state and yielding a knife (Rogan, 2014). The incident was video recorded by bystanders and the streetcar surveillance camera. The bystander videos were exposed first, which prompted some reactions, but when the streetcar surveillance footage was released, it provoked much more anger towards the police officer responsible for killing Yatim, perhaps because that angle displayed more information favourable to the suspect. Four videos from that incident were examined as evidence in court and played a role in the police officer's conviction for attempted murder and his corresponding prison sentence (Lupton, 2016).

Before use of force incidents were recorded so frequently, the courts were left to assess the veracity of different testimonies by cross-checking with other sources of evidence (e.g., witness accounts) when they were available. This process has been described as being dependent on highly subjective elements (Coudert et al., 2015), and courts often ruled in favour of the police officer (as in the 2004 case of the Michael Brown shooting in Ferguson, Missouri; Woolf, 2015). This perceived leniency towards police has caused public outrage and uprisings in the communities that were affected (e.g., Weitzer & Tuch, 2005). We have begun to see, however, a shift in these kinds of decisions in recent years. Incidents such as the George Floyd and Sammy Yatim cases have demonstrated how video footage of police use of force can be used to enhance police accountability and even convict officers for unlawful behaviour (e.g., Lawson, 2020).

Nowadays, when there is no video evidence (e.g., bystander or security camera recordings) available for police incidents that result in a subject's death, people often question whether police actions were justified, resulting in an increased demand for more transparency from the police. For example, when Chantel Moore from Edmundston, New Brunswick was shot and killed by police in June 2020 after she answered the door holding a knife during a police wellness check, the police officer involved was not criminally charged, drawing national attention to the issue of police accountability and the fact that Edmundston police officers do not wear BWCs (Magee, 2021). Similarly, when Regis Korchinski-Paquet fell from a 24th floor balcony after police responded to a mental health call in Toronto in May 2020, reports that the police officers involved were not equipped with BWCs incited questions about the appropriateness of the police response and prompted an expedited rollout of BWCs in the Toronto Police Service (Westoll, 2020). These cases have fueled a "police legitimacy crisis" in North America and have led to widespread calls for BWCs to be worn by police officers (e.g.,

Saulnier et al., 2021), to ensure there is video evidence of all police encounters.

Body Worn Cameras in Policing

Until recently, when use of force incidents were recorded, the recordings involved surveillance cameras, closed circuit television (CCTV) cameras, dash cameras (camera placed on the police car dash to video record events occurring directly outside the car's windshield), and cameras held by bystanders at or near the scene (e.g., the Rodney King incident). Surveillance cameras, CCTV or security cameras, and dash cameras are in fixed locations. While dash cameras are mobile and were instated to aid police agencies confronted with allegations of police brutality (Westphal, 2004), they are still limited in that they can only capture an event taking place directly in front of the car, and within a limited frame. In many cases, the police officer is faced with a use of force scenario that occurs outside of a dash camera or surveillance camera view. The BWC was introduced to ensure that police use of force incidents would be recorded regardless of the location of the incident (Harris, 2010).

BWCs are mobile devices that are affixed to a police officer's uniform (i.e., shirt, hat) for the purpose of recording their perspective of interactions with the public (Coudert et al., 2015; Hayes & Ericson, 2012). Depending on the camera model, the BWC often has a built-in microphone, and is resistant to water damage, dust, and varying weather conditions (Coudert et al., 2015). The use of BWCs to record police interactions was first documented in the United Kingdom (UK) between 2005 and 2006 (Goodall, 2007; Spencer & Cheshire, 2017). They are now used in organizations throughout the world (Reaves, 2015), including the US, Canada, Australia, and throughout Europe (Coudert et al., 2015). In fact, 47% of law enforcement agencies in the US have deployed BWCs as of 2016 (Hyland, 2018), and this number is believed to be larger now (Lum et al., 2020). The Victoria Police Department in British Columbia was the

first Canadian police service to pilot BWCs in 2008 (Smykla et al., 2016), but the proportion of Canadian police services that have considered or trialed BWCs has risen to 36% as of 2019 (Saulnier et al., 2021).

Generally, the public appears to be in support of the use of BWCs in policing because they believe they increase police officer accountability (Lum et al., 2019) and deter both police officers and public citizens from engaging in unlawful behaviour (Ariel et al., 2015; Ariel et al., 2017; Crow et al., 2017; Henstock & Ariel, 2017; White et al., 2018). Some research supports these views: For example, the presence of BWCs used during traffic stops improves citizen perceptions of police legitimacy due to increased police transparency and accountability (Demir et al., 2020), and the use of BWCs has also been linked with fewer complaints about police officers (Braga et al., 2018; Goodison & Wilson, 2017).

However, there is a sizeable body of research examining the effectiveness of BWCs in policing that contradicts these positive findings. For example, some research suggests that BWCs do not result in a decrease in use of force by police officers (Ariel et al., 2016), a decrease in the volume of arrests (Hedberg et al., 2017), or a reduction in the number of complaints about police officers (Yokum et al., 2019). Police have also expressed mixed opinions on the use of BWCs in their interactions with the public. Some police officers have positive perceptions (e.g., protection against unfounded complaints; Fallik et al., 2020; Fouche, 2014; Jennings et al., 2015; Koen, 2016; Makin, 2016; Owens & Finn, 2018; White et al., 2018), while others have expressed such concerns as technical difficulties, increased workload (e.g., learning new methods and policies for operational use of BWC), and perceived limitations/restrictions to freely use their discretion (Makin, 2016; Rowe et al., 2018). Saulnier et al. (2021) also conveyed the importance for policies regarding BWC use to carefully consider issues such as loss of privacy and video

disclosure expectations regarding public accessibility.

Video as Evidence

Despite these conflicting findings and opinions, police use of BWCs continues to be supported by the public and most North American police organizations as a means of obtaining reliable evidence for accurate depictions of police interactions (e.g., Brucato, 2015; Crow et al., 2016, Sousa et al., 2016; Sousa et al., 2018). However, some researchers argue that relying on BWCs for full accounts of a scenario may be problematic (e.g., Jennings et al., 2014), as they may not provide a full picture of the complexities involved in police-public interactions (e.g., Boivin et al., 2017).

For instance, the BWC might lack stability and may not display a clear picture, thus causing the viewer to miss an important part of the event. Additionally, peripheral information seen by the police officer and considered in their decision-making process (e.g., presence of other subjects/victims at the scene), may not always be captured in a camera's frame of reference (Grady et al., 2016). And yet, the fight or flight response that may affect a police officer when responding to a high stress situation (e.g., suspect with a weapon; Maack et al., 2015), may cause the officer to develop heightened attention to the threatening stimulus (e.g., weapon focus), and obscure attention to peripheral details (Just et al., 2003). These considerations may explain why the officer reports a different perceptual experience than what someone might view from a recording (e.g., Phillips, 2018).

Similar concerns have been expressed regarding other video footage of police incidents such as bystander recordings, as they may distort information about the scenario and lead viewers to discount important details of the police officer's first person and live perspective (Sandhu & Haggerty, 2017). Video evidence may also fail to include various contextual

information about the police encounter (e.g., information relayed from the emergency dispatcher about the subject being armed).

Speaking to the limitations associated with relying on BWCs for an accurate account of an event, a use of force researcher at the Force Science Institute, Dr. Bill Lewinski, suggested that BWCs, as well as other video cameras, lack the ability to record tactile cues like resistive tension (Lewinski, 2015). He argued that these cues are often important to police officers when deciding the level of force to use on a suspect: Police officers can use these cues to determine when a suspect is going to resist arrest, but because subtle threat cues may not be picked up on camera, the force applied to control the suspect may be perceived as an unprovoked attack.

Similarly, Lewinski (2015) pointed out that a camera may record more visual detail in low light conditions than what a person can see while managing the scenario in poor lighting. When footage is viewed later, a suspect may be seen holding certain objects (e.g., a cell phone rather than a weapon), but the object may have not been visible to the police officer at the time. Lewinski added that a camera's ability to capture a scene is highly dependent on where it is positioned and where the event takes place. More specifically, parts of the picture may be blocked by one's own body (e.g., the back of an officer's arm if they have their firearm drawn), suggesting that the angle in which the recording is taken from can impact the way observers understand what they saw in a video.

Research has also drawn attention to a layperson's limitations with regards to understanding use of force policies and intervention strategies in policing. Unless someone is tactically trained in how to respond to a suspect requiring police intervention and is aware of the varying levels of force required to protect officer and public safety, they will arguably not be able to fully understand the dynamics of the scenario (e.g., Boivin et al., 2017; Paoline, 2003).

For example, the observer's lack of knowledge in this context may lead them to disregard differences between camera speed and scenario speed; a police officer's recognition of a threat, the decision-making process, and physical activation all take time, which can result in the officer falling half a second behind the action as it unfolds in the video-recorded scenario (Lewinski, 2015).

Therefore, there may be serious limitations with members of the public relying on one video to provide an accurate representation of police encounters, especially in high-stakes circumstances such as a legal setting (i.e., court trial). People can have different interpretations of a single police use of force video (Turner et al., 2019), and one video may be influential in any decisions made concerning the event. As was seen in the Sammy Yatim case, the first videos illustrated a scenario in which the police officer's actions appeared justified, but after viewing another video taken from a different angle, the interpretation shifted to a view that the police officer was unjustified (Rogan, 2014). Had the police officer in this case been judged based only on the first video, he may have been acquitted of all charges; instead, he was convicted for attempted murder (Hasham, 2016). This suggests that reliance on a single video may have serious legal implications, especially since video evidence is valued in court settings.

Indeed, prosecutors generally trust video evidence in criminal trials (e.g., Frederick & Stemen, 2012), and charges are often more punitive against defendants when it is available (e.g., Kutateladze et al., 2015). Baker (2004) also found that experienced judges and law enforcement experts place greater value on video evidence, and thus, content of the video (despite any limitations) may be emphasized in any legal decisions. Jurors are also believed to reliably interpret video evidence (e.g., Granot et al., 2018); however, the idea that members of the public with no police experience can judge police use of force scenarios and their legitimacy is

questionable. Even when individuals are forewarned about the potential bias present in one video/perspective of an event, their views are still impacted by the bias (Lassiter et al., 2002).

Individual Differences and Video Interpretation

While the camera angle may influence perceptions of the video, there are several other factors that might impact judgments of police use of force videos. People may hold certain views about the police and the criminal justice system, which may further influence how they interpret these videos. Erber and Fiske (1984) found that people are more likely to focus on information that is congruent with pre-existing beliefs, while disregarding incompatible information. For example, if individuals have pre-conceived notions or biases that the police are unjust and often exercise police brutality, they may be more inclined to interpret a video recording with the police officer(s) in a negative light (Weitzer & Tuch, 2005). Similarly, individuals who hold liberal, anti-authoritarian views (opposite of right-wing authoritarian views) may have unfavourable perceptions of police (e.g., Riley, 2006), and interpret a police officer as acting unjustly in a use of force scenario. These potential biases may have serious implications if a video is used as evidence in court, and jurors with potential bias towards the police are deciding solely based on the video evidence. The bias could also have the opposite effect, depending on the direction of pre-existing attitudes (for/against police) and who is on trial (police/subject).

A person's information processing style may also play a role in how viewers perceive visual stimuli like police use of force videos. For example, Petty and Cacioppo (1986) suggested that people may process information through either a central or peripheral route. The central route allows viewers to consider evidence quality, while the peripheral route of processing makes use of mental shortcuts, which may lead to biased judgments or decisions (Levett & Kovera, 2009; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). In a courtroom, a reliance on peripheral cues may lead one to be

influenced by the source of a message, such as the demeanor of the lawyer presenting an argument, when evaluating the strength of their argument (e.g., Park & Feigenson, 2013; Petty et al., 1998), rather than forming views of argument strength based on the content of the lawyer's argument. Similarly, a juror might have an emotional reaction to video evidence of a police incident, and base their judgments on noticeable visual characteristics of the video, or their pre-existing attitudes about the police. People differ in how they engage in and enjoy effortful cognitive activities (Petty et al., 2009), and the way they process visual information such as a police use of force video (e.g., Gasper, 2004) could have an impact on their interpretation of the evidence.

Current Program of Research

With the increasing number of recorded police incidents surfacing in the media (Coudert et al., 2015), and the call for police officers to wear BWCs for the purpose of having available a more accurate depiction of the events they are involved in, there is an essential need to better understand the factors that contribute to interpretations of police use of force videos, and the implications of relying on these videos. The current program of research consists of two separate studies that examine perceptions of a police use of force video. Study 1 examines (1) how viewing a particular camera angle of a video-recorded police use of force incident affects individual perceptions and judgments of the incident, (2) whether informing observers about potential biases based on camera angles leads to a decreased bias in perception when viewing the video evidence from specific angles, and (3) whether individual differences regarding attitudes towards the police, level of authoritarianism, and information processing styles, impacts the interpretation and judgment of video evidence. Study 2 examines the legal implications of relying on video evidence in a court setting where a police officer is alleged to have used

excessive force and is on trial for assault causing bodily harm. Study 2 also examines the impact of attitudes about police legitimacy, authoritarianism, and information processing style on the legal decisions made in court (e.g., verdicts).

The remainder of this dissertation is presented in two separate studies, which are detailed in two chapters. Each chapter begins with a focused literature review pertaining to the study's purpose and hypotheses, and is followed by the study's methods, results, and a focused discussion. A general discussion is then presented in the last chapter of the dissertation, which includes a review of the overall findings, limitations, avenues for future research, and a general conclusion.

Chapter 2: Study 1¹

This chapter describes Study 1 of the dissertation, which explores how people perceive a use of force scenario as a function of camera perspective (i.e., BWC, bystander video, security video), whether a warning about potential camera perspective biases influences such perceptions, and whether individual differences regarding police legitimacy and need for cognition influence these perceptions.

Camera Perspective Bias

The notion that camera angles of a video-recorded event can impact the viewers' perceptions or interpretations of the events is referred to as the camera perspective bias (Lassiter & Irvine, 1986). Researchers have conducted studies on how the camera perspective bias impacts observers' judgments of videos depicting policing interrogations and confessions. Findings indicate that confessions are perceived as more reliable and voluntary (as opposed to coerced by the police officer) when the camera is focused only on the suspect, compared to when the camera is focused on the police officer or on both the suspect and police officer (Landstrom et al., 2007; Lassiter et al., 2007; Lassiter et al., 2002; Lassiter & Irvine, 1986). These findings are obtained even when viewers were cautioned about the camera perspective bias (Lassiter et al., 2002), and even when viewers were experienced judges and legal professionals (Lassiter et al., 2007). Landström and Granhag (2008) also found a camera perspective bias in their research on courtroom testimony: Child testimony was perceived as more reliable when the camera was focused only on the child.

¹ A version of this chapter has been submitted for publication to the journal *Behavioral Sciences & the Law*: Korva, N., Bennell, C., Lalumière, M. L., & Karimullah, M. (2022). *What do you see? Understanding perceptions of police use of force videos as a function of the camera perspective*.

The camera perspective bias has been linked to the illusory causation effect (McArthur, 1980; Taylor & Fiske, 1975), which suggests that people assign causality to the stimulus that is most salient in an observer's field of view. Since BWCs were designed to record interactions from the police officer's perspective (i.e., focus only on the subject), the increased prevalence of BWCs in policing has prompted researchers to examine how the camera perspective bias impacts observers' judgments of video-recorded police incidents.

Boivin et al. (2017) conducted one of the first studies in which the camera perspective bias was applied to the topic of police use of force. They staged an intervention of police use of lethal force and presented the video footage to university students and police officer candidates either from the BWC perspective or the surveillance camera perspective. No perspective differences were found in the university student sample, but police officer candidates who saw the scenario filmed through the BWC perceived a greater distance between the subject and officer (compared with the surveillance camera footage) and were more likely to report that the officer fired too early (Boivin et al., 2017). This suggests that those involved in the police community may be more affected by the camera perspective, perhaps because the perception of distance is different through the lens of a BWC, and they are better able to understand the challenges associated with use of force scenarios (e.g., when to discharge their firearm) and imagine themselves in the role of the police officer (Jiang et al., 2014; Morrison, 2017).

The lack of a perspective effect in general samples may be attributed to variations in the recorded event (e.g., clarity, violence depicted) that offsets the perspective bias (Jones et al., 2019). For example, Hernandez (2020) found that viewing footage of police interactions that resulted in limited community backlash led to higher ratings of justification for police use of force when BWC footage was viewed compared to a bystander cell phone recording. However,

their results revealed no difference when viewers were shown BWC or cell phone footage of an encounter deemed controversial (i.e., resulting in tremendous backlash from community and officers placed on administrative leave without pay). This suggests that police incidents depicting highly emotional stimuli may override the camera perspective bias.

The BWC camera perspective bias has also been observed in other recent studies. For example, Turner et al. (2019) found that participants gave more favourable judgments of a police officer (lower judgments of intentionality) when they viewed police interventions from the BWC perspective, as opposed to the same interventions recorded from a dash camera. Kalle and Hammock (2019) found that a police officer's actions were deemed more reasonable when the camera focused on the public citizen (i.e., subject) compared to other camera angles. Jones et al. (2019) also found that viewing BWC footage of a police use of force scenario led to more favourable ratings towards the police officer compared with surveillance footage, and that informing participants about the camera perspective bias was unsuccessful in reducing that bias. They further established that participants who viewed both the BWC and surveillance video did not have different ratings of the police officer compared with those who only viewed the surveillance video. This suggests that multiple camera perspectives may be helpful in reducing bias resulting from viewing BWC footage alone.

Pre-Existing Biases

While camera angle sometimes appears to play a role in how videos are interpreted, other factors may contribute to these interpretations (Granot et al., 2018; Jones, et al., 2019; McKay & Lee, 2019; Schneider & Tyler, 2014; Turner et al., 2018). For example, Morrison (2017) suggested that pre-existing biases may impact judgment because police incident videos often present an ambiguous or incomplete picture of an event, which leads viewers to fill in the blanks

with what they believe to be true, which is often guided by their own subjective world view or schemas. This suggestion is supported by the work of Kahan et al. (2009), who showed participants the dash-cam footage from a legal case, *Scott v. Harris* (2007), in which a police car pursuit of a suspect resulted in the ramming of the subject's vehicle and caused the subject's paralysis from the neck down (Benforado, 2010). Despite all participants seeing the same video, Kahan et al. found that participants made different judgments about the police officer's actions, suggesting that individual differences may contribute to these decisions.

Citizens who see policing as legitimate may be more inclined to give police officers the benefit of the doubt, especially when faced with incriminating or contrasting evidence (Hernandez, 2020). Indeed, high levels of perceived police legitimacy are linked to an increased likelihood to grant police more discretion and power (Sunshine & Tyler, 2003). The concept of police legitimacy is defined as having trust and confidence in the police (e.g., Demir et al., 2020), and is thought to play a role in how citizens interpret and perceive police conduct (Culhane & Schweitzer, 2017).

In one common model of police legitimacy, the construct is comprised of four distinct factors: lawfulness, procedural fairness, distributive fairness, and police effectiveness (Tankebe et al., 2016; Ewanation et al., 2019). More specifically, these involve perceptions about whether police officers (1) act and behave in accordance with the law (lawfulness; Bottoms & Tankebe, 2012; Tankebe et al., 2016), (2) use fair processes when reaching outcomes or decisions while treating individuals with respect and dignity (procedural fairness; Sunshine & Tyler, 2003), (3) fairly allocate their resources among groups (distributive fairness; Roemer, 1996; Tankebe et al., 2016), and (4) competently perform their police duties as directed by their mandate (police effectiveness; Tankebe, 2013; Tankebe et al., 2016). Research evaluating the impact of police

legitimacy on observers' judgments of police use of force videos reveals that respondents who report more favourable attitudes towards the police are more likely to interpret use of force as justified in video recorded police incidents (Hernandez, 2020; Reynolds et al., 2018).

Favourable police attitudes are also linked with other constructs (Reynolds et al., 2018), such as right-wing authoritarianism (i.e., a person's willingness to obey authority they believe to be legitimate and support for punitive measures; e.g., Kravitz et al., 1993), suggesting that legal attitudes may also play a role in judgment of police videos. One study examining legal decisions about a police-involved shooting recorded on BWC found that police legitimacy and legal authoritarianism were associated with lower ratings of police officer guilt and higher ratings of trustworthiness (Wardak, 2020); in contrast, individuals with anti-authoritarian attitudes (rejection of constituted authority and support for left-wing attitudes; Kravitz et al., 1993) viewed the police officer as less justified. Limited research has examined the impact of legal attitudes such as authoritarianism on judgment of video recorded police encounters, but the strong relationship between this construct and perceptions of police suggest that it may play an important role.

Information Processing Style

A person's information processing style may also contribute to judgments of highly emotional stimuli such as police use of force videos. Pham and Cheng (2020) suggested that people's judgments are affected by how they think; in other words, a person's need for cognition (NFC), or their intrinsic motivation to engage in effortful thinking (Cacioppo & Petty, 1984; Cacioppo et al., 1996). Individuals with higher NFC are more likely to seek out and thoroughly evaluate information compared with those lower in NFC (Cacioppo et al., 1996; Petty et al., 2009; Verplanken et al., 1992). Because of this, they can often better apply critical thinking and

logical reasoning when faced with decision options that conflict with their prior beliefs (West et al., 2008), and thus, are more proficient in identifying and correcting for bias (Almashat et al., 2008; Frederick, 2005; Thomson & Oppenheimer, 2016).

However, there is some research suggesting that those who are high NFC may be more inclined to generate arguments in support of their views (Shestowsky et al., 1998) and be resistant to changing their attitudes (Haugtvedt & Petty, 1992). Evidence also suggests that high NFC individuals may be more susceptible to the influence of affective states (i.e., mood) on cognition (Cacioppo et al., 1996; Petty et al., 1993; Petty & Klein, 1994), as well as the influence of pre-existing bias on their judgments (Petty et al., 2008; Petty & Jarvis, 1996). For example, Petty et al. (2008) found that high NFC individuals viewed a person's ambiguous behaviour as more hostile when they were primed with hostile (versus non-hostile) content. High NFC individuals likely have better developed knowledge structures as a result of their tendency to engage in effortful thinking, and when they are primed by a stimulus, the relevant construct can be easily activated. Because these individuals devote more thought to interpretation and judgment, this gives more opportunity for the prime to bias their judgments (Petty et al., 2008; Petty & Jarvis, 1996).

In contrast to high NFC individuals, individuals with low NFC are less likely to seek out and thoroughly evaluate information to make judgments and evaluations, and are more likely to use other means, such as peripheral cues (e.g., demeanour and attractiveness of message sources; Cacioppo et al., 1996). These individuals will often rely on emotional reactions in their judgments, rather than careful consideration of the evidence (Cacioppo et al., 1996). They might also be more susceptible to availability heuristics (Cacioppo et al., 1996) – mental shortcuts that rely on immediate examples that come to a person's mind when evaluating information (Tversky

& Kahneman, 1974). For example, someone who relies on the availability heuristic might assume that all police are at fault during a use of force incident because they recently saw a news story about police officers being charged or convicted for engaging in excessive use of force. Individuals with low NFC may be more likely to base their political judgments and decisions on heuristic processes than those with high NFC (e.g., Sargent, 2016), which increases their likelihood of making biased judgments and decisions (e.g., Tversky & Kahneman, 1974).

The limited research addressing how NFC may impact political judgments (e.g., Sargent, 2016) suggests that individuals with high NFC generally have more positive perceptions of police (Pham & Cheng, 2020) and are less supportive of punitive responses to crime (Sargent, 2016). However, there is no available published research examining how information processing style impacts judgment of police use of force videos. Therefore, one of the goals of the current dissertation is to examine how NFC influences judgments of these kinds of videos.

Current Study

The purpose of the current study was to examine (1) how various camera angles can impact a person's interpretation of a police scenario, (2) whether informing observers of potential biases based on camera angles affects perception of police use of force scenarios, (3) whether pre-existing attitudes about police and authoritarian values impact interpretation of video evidence, and (4) how different information processing styles (i.e., need for cognition) influence the judgments of participants.

Given previous research that suggested camera angles directed specifically at a subject's face might lead to perceptions of a more threatening demeanour (e.g., Lassiter et al., 2002), as well as previous findings in support of the BWC camera perspective bias (e.g., Boivin et al., 2017; Turner et al., 2019), it was hypothesized that *participants randomized to the body worn*

camera angle condition would view the suspect as more threatening, and the police officer as more justified (i.e., using a reasonable amount of force), compared with participants randomized to the security or bystander camera angles. In line with previous research suggesting that bias is not eliminated even when educating people on the impact the camera perspective bias can have on their judgments (e.g., Lassiter et al., 2002), it was hypothesized that *there would be no differences in judgments between participants informed about the camera perspective bias and participants who were not informed.*

Pre-existing biases and attitudes about police may also impact judgments of use of force videos (e.g., Hernandez, 2020). Therefore, it was expected that *participants who endorse lower levels of police legitimacy (i.e., suggesting negative attitudes towards police) would be harsher in judging a police officer in a police incident involving force, and would be more likely to find the police officer more threatening in the scenario and less justified in using force, compared with participants with high scores on police legitimacy.* Given that research suggests negative attitudes and biases towards police are linked to low scores on authoritarianism (e.g., Riley, 2006), it was also expected that *participants who endorse lower levels of police legitimacy would score lower on levels of authoritarianism, and in turn would find the police officer more threatening and less justified in his actions, compared with participants with high scores on police legitimacy.*

Research on the need for cognition suggests that individuals with a high NFC tend to seek out and evaluate information (Cacioppo et al., 1996). Therefore, it was expected that *participants who score high on the NFC scale will be more likely to consider the educational statement that precedes the video clip (warning participants of the biasing impact of camera angle), compared with participants with low scores on NFC.* However, there are contradictions

in the literature with regards to how NFC influences judgments and interpretation of stimuli. Some research suggests that viewers with a low NFC may be more inclined to rely on emotional reactions and pre-existing biases to make judgments, while those with a high NFC rely on information processing (Cacioppo et al., 1984). However, other research suggests that those with a high NFC may be more susceptible to bias (Petty et al., 2008) and more likely to seek out evidence to support their views (Shestowsky et al., 1998). Given these conflicting findings, exploratory analyses were conducted to *determine how scores on the NFC measure relate to judgments of use of force videos and how NFC interacts with pre-existing biases on the Police Legitimacy Scale (PLS) and the measure of authoritarianism.*

Method

Participants

Participants were undergraduate students recruited through the University of Ottawa's Integrated System of Participation in Research (ISPR); they were offered one course credit as compensation for participation. Eligible participants were required to be fluent in English and to not have a law enforcement background. A total of 385 undergraduate students completed the study; however, 55 participants were excluded from analyses because they: (1) failed attention checks regarding the video/audio recording, (2) had reported technical difficulties while completing the online study, (3) had experience working in law enforcement, or (4) declined consent to use their responses/data. Therefore, a total of 330 participants (mean age 19.72; SD = 4.26) were included in the analyses (biographic characteristics are presented in Table 2.1). G*Power 3.1 software (Erdfelder et al., 2009) determined that this sample size provided a power of 98% for a 2 x 4 ANOVA with an expected effect size (f) of .25 and an alpha of .05.

Table 2.1*Descriptive Statistics for Biographic Data (N = 330)*

	Frequency	% of Total Sample
Gender		
Male	87	26.4
Female	242	73.3
Queer	1	0.3
Ethnicity		
White	215	65.2
Asian	36	10.9
Middle Eastern	22	6.7
Black	16	4.8
East Indian	10	3.0
First Nations/Aboriginal/Indigenous	7	2.1
Hispanic/Latino	2	0.6
Other Ethnicity	22	6.7
Political Affiliation		
No Political Affiliation	156	47.3
Liberal Party	79	23.9
Conservative Party	53	16.1
New Democratic Party	26	7.9
Green Party	9	2.7
Le Bloc Quebecois	1	0.3
Other	6	1.8
Living Area Type		
Urban	251	76.1
Rural	79	23.9
Previous Police Interactions		
Positive Interactions	261	79.1
Negative Interactions	34	10.3
Arrested by Police	9	2.7
Previously suffered from an injury resulting in loss of consciousness	28	9.6
Previously witnessed someone else suffer from an injury resulting in loss of consciousness	80	27.3
Previously taken a course on topic of policing or police psychology	32	9.7

Materials

A police use of force scenario was created for the purpose of this study. Construction of the scenario was based on input from subject matter experts from a Canadian police organization to ensure the scenario resembled a realistic representation of a use of force incident that would occur in the field. The scenario was recorded in collaboration with The Sim Lab at Humber College in Toronto, Ontario; they provided the filming location, equipment, police uniform, and paid actors for the role of subject and police officer. Three GoPro Hero-4 silver action cameras (10.3cm by 10.5cm; 0.64 lbs) were used to record the police scenario. This camera captures 1080p60 and 720p120 videos with lifelike clarity and can take 12MP at a speed of 30 frames per second. This camera model also includes a built-in microphone and low light sensitivity that adjusts frame rates based on lighting conditions. The camera can be mounted to the chest or head, stabilized in a tripod, or held by the individual. The same camera model was used to simulate the BWC, the individual bystander camera, and the security camera.

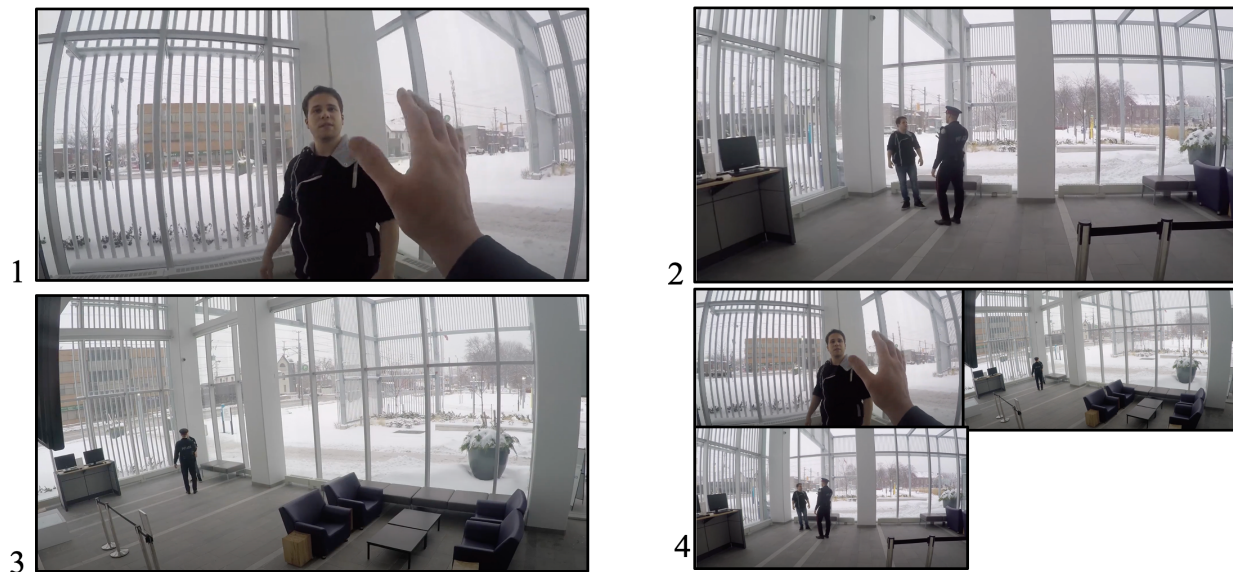
The scenario simulates a police officer interacting with a subject at a college campus where the subject was accused of breaking into cars and stealing their contents. The police officer talks with the subject and attempts to arrest him based on the fact he has a warrant out for his arrest. When the officer attempts to control the subject's arm to take him into custody and remove him from the premises, the subject physically pulls away and tries to evade the police officer, causing him to fall backwards. The subject hits his head and has a seizure. White male actors were used for both the subject and the police officer, and both actors had neutral characteristics (e.g., average height, average weight, average built, unshaved head) to control for effects of appearance on perceptions of threat (e.g., Baldwin et al., 2017). The police officer actor was dressed in full patrol uniform and duty belt, and the suspect actor was wearing running

shoes, blue jeans, and a black hooded sweatshirt. A script of the use of force scenario is presented in Appendix A.

The scenario lasted one minute and thirty-one seconds, and was video-recorded from three separate angles: a BWC worn on the officer's chest, a camera being held by a bystander located to the side of the interaction approximately 20 feet away from the scenario (to simulate an individual who would not be able to get too close to a police incident to film), and a camera simulating security footage on the wall behind the police officer² (Figure 2.1). The video was constructed from three separate angles so that each video angle depicted a different portrayal of the scenario and presented ambiguity with regards to what occurred in the scenario.

Figure 2.1

Still Images from Camera Angle Video Conditions



Note. Depiction of still images is derived from 0.39 seconds of each video used in the camera angle video conditions. Image 1 depicts the body worn camera condition; image 2 depicts the bystander camera angle condition; image 3 depicts the security camera angle condition; image 4 depicts all camera angles video condition whereby participants viewed all three videos consecutively in a randomized order.

² The videos used in the current study can be viewed at the following web links:

- Body Worn Camera (BWC): https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GZTGBNG4w_w
- Bystander Video: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=h3diMgw7IOI>
- Security Video: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GkjrAXFQmxk>

Measures

Perceptions of Video Recorded Scenario

Rating Scales. After viewing the video recorded scenario, participants were asked to make a series of ratings in a randomized order; the following questions were constructed for the purpose of this study. Participants were asked to indicate how threatening the police officer, subject, and overall scenario appeared to them on a 7-point Likert scale (1: not at all threatening to 7: very threatening). Participants were also asked to rate the justification of the actions exhibited by both the police officer and the subject (1: not at all justified to 7: very justified), as well as whether the level of force the police officer administered was reasonable (1: not at all reasonable to 7: very reasonable). Participants also rated their confidence in their ratings on 7-point Likert scales (1: not at all confident to 7: very confident). Participants who were randomly assigned to view an educational statement prior to viewing the video were also asked to rate the level at which they considered the educational statement when making a judgment on a 7-point Likert scale (1: did not at all consider to 7: considered very much), and how much the educational statement impacted their judgement (1: did not at all impact judgment to 7: impacted judgment very much).

Questionnaires Measuring Individual Differences

Police Legitimacy Scale (PLS; See Appendix B). The PLS (Tankebe et al., 2016) is a 16-item scale used to assess attitudes towards the police through a four-factor model of police legitimacy. The scale has been validated in the United States and Ghana (Tankebe et al., 2016), and more recently in Canada (Ewanation et al., 2019). These validation studies have indicated that the PLS's four-factor structure demonstrates acceptable goodness of fit (CFI = .97 for US, .96 for Ghana, .99 for Canada; TLI = .97 for US, .95 for Ghana, .98 for Canada; RMSEA = .07 for

US, .08 for Ghana, .095 for Canada; Ewanation et al., 2019; Tankebe et al., 2016). Items are rated on a 4-point Likert scale indicating 1 (very unlikely) to 4 (very likely) and are broken down into four dimensions. Lawfulness reflects police officers working within established rules (Cronbach's alpha = .76 for U.S. and .57 for Ghana, and .72 for current study); procedural fairness captures the extent to which police authority is exercised in fair manner (Cronbach's alpha = .87 for U.S. and .80 for Ghana, and .88 for current study); distributive fairness captures the idea that authorities fairly distribute services across people and communities (Cronbach's alpha = .73 for U.S. and .69 for Ghana, and .71 for current study); and police effectiveness reflects the ability for police officers to respond to citizens' needs (Cronbach's alpha = .62 for U.S. and .69 for Ghana, and .59 for current study). No other reliability and validity information was available for this measure.

Revised Legal Attitudes Questionnaire (RLAQ23; See Appendix C). The RLAQ23 (Kravitz, Cutler, & Brock, 1993) was also administered to participants for the purposes of assessing individual differences in legal attitudes. More specifically, this questionnaire measures authoritarianism specific to legal issues. The RLAQ23 is a 23-item questionnaire, which is a twice-revised version of the Legal Attitudes Questionnaire originally developed by Boehm (1968). The RLAQ23 measures attitudes on a 6-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 6 (Strongly Agree) and includes some reverse-coded items. Several studies have found varied reliability ranging from a Cronbach's alpha of .66 to .83 (Kravitz et al., 1993; Lundrigan et al., 2013; Wasieleski et al., 2009; White & Knowles, 2013). The current study's sample achieved Cronbach's alphas of .43 for the Anti-Authoritarian subscale, .49 for the Authoritarian subscale, and .55 for the Equalitarian subscale. Kravitz et al. (1993) found acceptable convergent validity between the RLAQ23 and the 30-item RLAQ (.95 - .97), and the

Balanced F-Scale (measure of authoritarian personality; Anthanasiou, 1968; .51 - .57).

Need for Cognition Scale (See Appendix D). The Need for Cognition Short-Form (NFC-18; Cacioppo et al., 1984) is commonly used to assess NFC. It is derived from the 34-item Need for Cognition Scale. This 18-item questionnaire is designed to assess one's motivation to engage in and enjoy effortful cognitive activities. Ratings are made on 5-point Likert scales, from 1 (extremely uncharacteristic of me) to 5 (extremely characteristic of me), with higher scores indicating a higher NFC. Previous research has demonstrated high internal consistency scores (Cronbach's alphas ranging from .74 to .91; Berzonski & Sullivan, 1992; Cacioppo et al., 1996; Verplanken et al., 1992). The current study's sample achieved a Cronbach's alpha of .88. Test-retest reliability of the 18-item scale is .88, which was found over a 7-week period in a study of 71 undergraduate students (Sadowski & Gulgoz, 1992). The NFC-18 is characterized by one dominant factor, which accounted for 37% of the variance in one study (Cacioppo et al., 1984). Convergent validity of the NFC is supported by positive correlations with (1) the tendency to seek out, scrutinize, and use relevant information for decision-making and problem solving, (2) the desire for new experiences that stimulate thinking, and negative correlations with (3) the tendency to ignore, avoid, or distort information (e.g., Berzonsky & Sullivan, 1992; Chiesi et al., 2018; Petty & Jarvis, 1996; Venkatraman & Price, 1990).

Biographic Questionnaire (See Appendix E). Participants completed a biographic questionnaire to collect information about their age, gender, ethnic background, educational history, political affiliation, positive and negative police experiences they have had, prior arrests, and backgrounds in law enforcement.

Procedure

Participants were recruited through the University of Ottawa's ISPR online system,

where they were directed to the Qualtrics survey platform to complete the study online.

Participants accessed the study at their own convenience, and on their own personal device (e.g., computer, smartphone). Participants accessed the study from September 2018 to March 2019.

The study took approximately forty-five minutes to one hour to complete.

After consenting to participate in the study, participants were randomly assigned to one of four video conditions in which they viewed one camera angle (BWC, security camera, or bystander camera) or all three camera angles of the recorded scenario. Before viewing the video recorded scenario, half of the participants (from all four camera angle conditions) were also randomly assigned to a condition where they were warned about potential effects of watching the video-recorded scenario from a particular angle. More specifically, these participants read the following statement on the computer screen:

“Because the use-of-force scenario was video-recorded, you should be aware that your judgments could be affected by the angle of the camera. In thinking about the video recording, you should focus on what the police officer and suspect actually said and how they behaved during the interaction. Do not allow the angle of the camera to influence your judgment about the person at fault for the scenario outcome”.

These words remained on the screen for one minute prior to presentation of the video to ensure the participant had sufficient time to read the statement.

After viewing the video(s), participants were asked two multiple-choice questions that served as attention checks to ensure they paid attention to the video. These questions included: What was the gender of the subject?, and Why did the police officer approach the subject? Participants were then asked to provide their ratings of the video using the measures described above. Participants who were randomly assigned to view the educational statement prior to

viewing the video were also asked to provide ratings related to their consideration of the statement, and the level at which it impacted their ratings of the video, as described above. Participants then completed the PLS, the RLAQ23, and the NFC-18.³ These questionnaires were counter-balanced to control for order effects (none were found) and questionnaire attention checks were included to ensure participants were responding appropriately to the questions. Half of the participants were also randomly assigned to a fifteen-minute unrelated distractor task (i.e., crossword puzzle) prior to the questionnaires to ensure that individual's responses were not unintentionally primed by the video (they were not).

Following the questionnaires, participants were then directed to the demographic questionnaire and an online debriefing form. During debriefing, participants had the opportunity to report any technical issues they experienced while participating in the study. Once participants were debriefed about the study, they were provided with a second consent form to confirm they consented to the use of their data. The recruitment advertisement for the study (as seen on ISPR), the two consent forms, and the debriefing form can be found in Appendices G, H, I, and J, respectively.

Results

Video Angle and Warning Statement

A series of two-way ANOVAs were conducted to examine the effects of video condition (BWC, Bystander, Security, All Camera Angles) and presence of a warning statement about bias

³ Participants also completed additional measures and questionnaires that are not included in analyses for the current study. These included open-ended questions pertaining to the scenario (e.g., what happened in the scenario, why the subject fell, why the subject was at the school, why the police officer arrested the subject, and what kind of demeanour the police officer and subject displayed), and a 21-item survey that assessed attitudes regarding visual evidence (developed in Dr. Craig Bennell's research lab at Carleton University; See Appendix F). These measures do not pertain to the current study hypotheses and therefore were excluded from the analyses. These data may be used in future research examining public perceptions of police use of force.

(Absent, Present) on the six questions answered on 7-point Likert scales after viewing the video of the use of force incident. These questions refer to: (1) Police Officer Threat, (2) Suspect Threat, (3) Scenario Threat, (4) Justification of Police Officer's Actions, (5) Justification of Suspect's Actions, and (6) Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police. Descriptive statistics for each video condition and presence of warning condition are presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2*Descriptive Statistics across Video Conditions and Warning Conditions (N = 330)*

	Outcome Measure	Warning Absent (n = 33)				Warning Present (n = 46)			
		M	SD	Min	Max	M	SD	Min	Max
Body Worn Camera	PT	1.39	.61	1	3	1.70	1.19	1	6
	ST	2.61	1.17	1	5	2.57	1.17	1	7
	SCT	2.52	1.18	1	5	2.17	.93	1	4
	JP	5.48	1.46	3	7	5.41	1.57	2	7
	JS	1.91	1.47	1	7	2.00	1.14	1	5
	LRF	5.52	1.46	2	7	4.91	1.93	1	7
	Outcome Measure	Warning Absent (n = 39)				Warning Present (n = 49)			
		M	SD	Min	Max	M	SD	Min	Max
Bystander Camera	PT	1.64	.99	1	6	1.65	.95	1	5
	ST	2.28	1.43	1	7	2.80	1.22	1	5
	SCT	2.26	1.27	1	7	2.18	.97	1	5
	JP	5.41	1.60	1	7	5.57	1.74	1	7
	JS	2.08	1.42	1	7	1.82	.99	1	5
	LRF	5.38	1.86	1	7	5.80	1.55	2	7
	Outcome Measure	Warning Absent (n = 41)				Warning Present (n = 37)			
		M	SD	Min	Max	M	SD	Min	Max
Security Camera	PT	1.54	.71	1	4	1.81	.78	1	4
	ST	2.49	1.19	1	7	2.89	1.29	1	6
	SCT	2.22	1.15	1	6	2.35	1.16	1	6
	JP	5.83	1.32	2	7	5.30	1.56	2	7
	JS	1.46	.87	1	4	1.89	1.08	1	6
	LRF	5.51	1.40	2	7	5.41	1.55	2	7
	Outcome Measure	Warning Absent (n = 47)				Warning Present (n = 38)			
		M	SD	Min	Max	M	SD	Min	Max
All Camera Angles	PT	1.55	.75	1	4	1.42	.68	1	3
	ST	2.87	1.30	1	6	2.61	1.17	1	6
	SCT	2.38	1.33	1	6	2.50	1.29	1	5
	JP	5.68	1.53	1	7	5.92	1.15	3	7
	JS	1.83	1.13	1	7	1.87	1.21	1	7
	LRF	5.72	1.50	2	7	6.00	1.29	3	7

Note. PT: Police Threat, ST: Suspect Threat, SC T: Scenario Threat, JP: Justification of Police Officer's Actions, JS: Justification of Suspect's Actions, LRF: Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police Officer.

Results indicated that there were no significant main effects of warning condition on *Police Officer Threat*, $F(1, 322) = 1.41, p = .24$, partial $\eta^2 = .004$, *Suspect Threat*, $F(1, 322) = 1.41, p = .24$, partial $\eta^2 = .004$, *Scenario Threat*, $F(1, 322) = .10, p = .75$, partial $\eta^2 = .0003$, *Justification of Police Officer's Actions*, $F(1, 322) = .09, p = .76$, partial $\eta^2 = .0003$, *Justification of Suspect's Actions*, $F(1, 322) = .32, p = .57$, partial $\eta^2 = .001$, or *Level of Reasonable Force Applied*, $F(1, 322) = .001, p = .18$, partial $\eta^2 = .000003$.

There were also no significant main effects of video condition on *Police Officer Threat*, $F(3, 322) = .84, p = .48$, partial $\eta^2 = .008$, *Suspect Threat*, $F(3, 322) = .46, p = .71$, partial $\eta^2 = .004$, *Scenario Threat*, $F(3, 322) = .56, p = .65$, partial $\eta^2 = .005$, *Justification of Police Officer's Actions*, $F(3, 322) = .89, p = .45$, partial $\eta^2 = .008$, *Justification of Suspect's Actions*, $F(3, 322) = .97, p = .41$ partial $\eta^2 = .009$, or *Level of Reasonable Force Applied*, $F(3, 322) = 2.32, p = .08$, partial $\eta^2 = .021$.

Lastly, there were no significant interaction effects between video condition and warning condition on *Police Officer Threat*, $F(3, 322) = 1.19, p = .31$, partial $\eta^2 = .011$, *Suspect Threat*, $F(3, 322) = 1.82, p = .14$, partial $\eta^2 = .017$, *Scenario Threat*, $F(3, 322) = .71, p = .55$ partial $\eta^2 = .007$, *Justification of Police Officer's Actions*, $F(3, 322) = 1.06, p = .37$, partial $\eta^2 = .010$, *Justification of Suspect's Actions*, $F(3, 322) = 1.21, p = .31$, partial $\eta^2 = .011$, or *Level of Reasonable Force Applied*, $F(3, 322) = 1.64, p = .18$, partial $\eta^2 = .015$.

Across all conditions, participants reported average confidence ratings of their judgments ranging between 5.00 and 5.96, falling between *pretty confident* (5) to *quite confident* (6) on the 7-point Likert scale provided to them.

Given the large number of dependent variables and their potential for overlap, a principal components analysis (PCA) was conducted to reduce the number of variables and identify

common components. The suitability of PCA was assessed prior to analysis. Inspection of the correlation matrix showed that all but one variable had at least one correlation coefficient greater than 0.3; however, this remaining variable had a correlation of $r = 0.27$. The overall Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure was .64 with individual KMO measures ranging from .50 to .83; this range is deemed acceptable according to Kaiser (1974). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was statistically significant ($p < .001$), indicating that the data was likely factorizable.

PCA revealed two components that had eigenvalues greater than one and which explained 38.7% and 24.3% of the total variance, respectively. Visual inspection of the scree plot indicated an ambiguous inflexion point and appeared to suggest that three components may be retained (Cattell, 1966). However, a two-component solution met the interpretability criterion, and therefore two components were retained for the analyses.

The two-component solution explained 63.0% of the total variance. A Varimax orthogonal rotation was used to aid interpretability, and the rotated solution exhibited 'simple structure' (Thurstone, 1947). All six outcome measures loaded either on component 1 or component 2. *Justification of Police Officer's Actions*, *Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police*, *Police Officer Threat*, and *Justification of Suspect's Actions* all loaded on component 1; this combination of items suggests that this component represents attitudes that favour the police. *Suspect Threat* and *Scenario Threat* loaded on component 2; the combination of these items suggest this component represents perceptions of scenario threat. Component loadings and communalities of the rotated solution are presented in Table 2.3. Composite scores were created

for each of the two components by summing the scores of the outcome measures that loaded onto each component.⁴ These were used as dependent variables in subsequent analyses.

Table 2.3

Rotated Structure Matrix for PCA with Varimax Rotation of Six Ratings after Viewing a Video-Recorded Use of Force Scenario

Items	Rotated Component Coefficients		
	Component 1	Component 2	Communalities
Justification of Police Officer's Actions	.865	.027	.748
Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police Officer	.837	-.022	.702
Police Officer Threat	-.674	.282	.534
Justification of Suspect's Actions	-.495	-.008	.245
Suspect Threat	.100	.878	.780
Scenario Threat	-.225	.848	.770

Two two-way ANOVAs were conducted to examine the effects of video condition and presence of a warning statement about bias on the two factors determined by the PCA. Normality was assessed using Shapiro-Wilk's normality test for each cell of the design, and homogeneity of variances were assessed by Levene's test. There was homogeneity of variances for analyses using both *Attitudes in Favour of Police* and *Perceived Scenario Threat* as outcome variables ($p = .21$ and $p = .92$, respectively; based on medians). The assumption of normality was violated in both analyses (i.e., $p < .001$); however, the large sample size of 330 protects against this violation (Statistics Solutions, 2013).

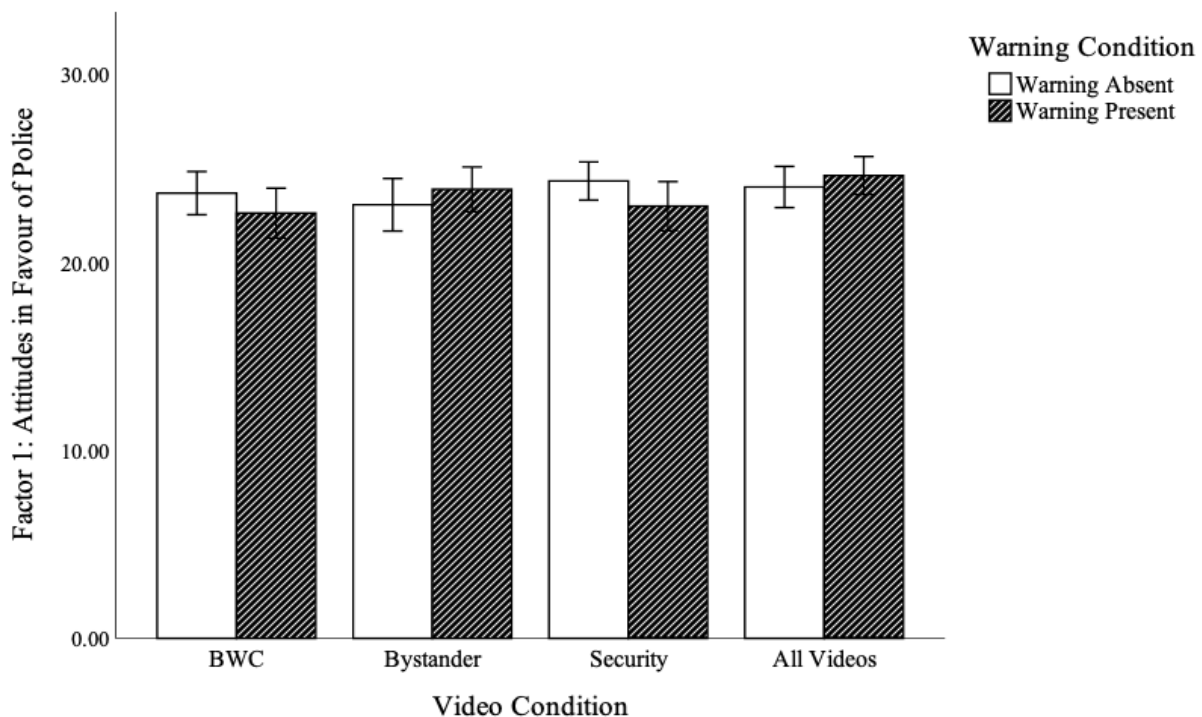
Main effects for video condition, $F(3, 322) = 1.34$, $p = .26$, partial $\eta^2 = .012$, and presence of warning statement condition, $F(1, 322) = .33$, $p = .57$, partial $\eta^2 = .001$, on *Attitudes*

⁴ Police Officer Threat and Justification of Suspect's Actions were reverse-scored prior to summing scores on component 1 to ensure consistency amongst scales (e.g., high scores on all four outcome measures are equivalent to attitudes more in favour of police).

in Favour of Police were not statistically significant. The interaction effect between video condition and warning statement condition on *Attitudes in Favour of Police* was also not statistically significant, $F(3, 322) = 1.73, p = .16$, partial $\eta^2 = .016$. Both main effects for video condition, $F(3, 322) = .58, p = .63$, partial $\eta^2 = .005$, and warning statement condition, $F(1, 322) = .23, p = .63$, partial $\eta^2 = .001$, on *Perceived Scenario Threat* were not statistically significant. The interaction effect between video condition and warning statement condition on *Perceived Scenario Threat* was also not statistically significant, $F(3, 322) = .90, p = .44$, partial $\eta^2 = .008$. Visual displays of mean differences of *Attitudes in Favour of Police* and *Perceived Scenario Threat* for each video condition and warning statement condition are presented in Figure 2.2 and Figure 2.3, respectively.

Figure 2.2

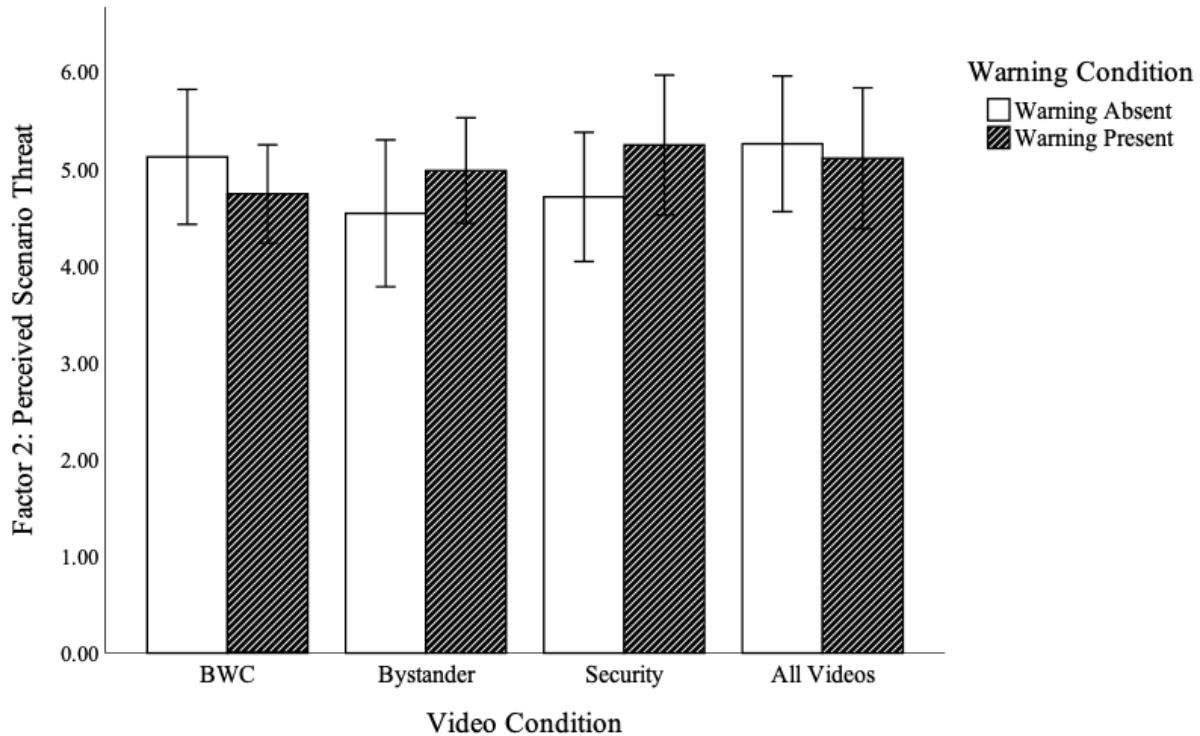
Clustered Bar Graph Depicting Video and Warning Conditions for Mean of Attitudes in Favour of Police



Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals

Figure 2.3

Clustered Bar Graph Depicting Video and Warning Conditions for Mean Perceived Scenario Threat



Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals

Police Legitimacy, Legal Attitudes, and Need for Cognition⁵

Total scores for the PLS, RLAQ23, and NFC-18 were calculated and used in subsequent analyses. Participants completed the questionnaires after they viewed and rated the video-recorded police scenario. Attention checks were included in the questionnaires to ensure

⁵ Several one-way ANOVAs were conducted to ensure that scores on the PLS, RLAQ, and the NFC-18 did not differ between participants who completed the distractor task, and those who did not. The results of the analyses determined that these scores did not differ between these groups of participants for all questionnaire scores, including: PLS Lawfulness, $F(1, 293) = .13, p = .72$, partial $\eta^2 = .0004$, Procedural Fairness, $F(1, 293) = .21, p = .65$, partial $\eta^2 = .001$, Distributive Fairness, $F(1, 293) = .04, p = .85$, partial $\eta^2 = .0001$, Police Effectiveness, $F(1, 293) = .26, p = .61$, partial $\eta^2 = .001$, RLAQ Anti-Authoritarian, $F(1, 293) = 1.58, p = .21$, partial $\eta^2 = .005$, Authoritarian, $F(1, 293) = .16, p = .69$, partial $\eta^2 = .001$, Equalitarian, $F(1, 293) = .01, p = .94$, partial $\eta^2 = .00002$, and Need for Cognition Total Score, $F(1, 293) = .81, p = .37$, partial $\eta^2 = .003$. These results suggest that participants' responses were not primed by the video if they completed the questionnaires immediately after viewing it.

participants maintained their attention and provided their best and most accurate responses. Of the 330 participants, 36 failed these questionnaire attention checks resulting in their exclusion from subsequent analyses, and a new participant total of 294.⁶

A series of bivariate correlations were calculated to examine the relationships between the participants' questionnaire scores and their responses on the various dependent measures (see Table 2.4). All correlations were conducted as 1-tailed tests, with the exception of the correlations for the RLAQ23: Equalitarian and NFC-18 Total Score, which were conducted as 2-tailed tests, as there were no specific directional hypotheses about those measures.

Police Legitimacy Scale (PLS). *Lawfulness* was significantly positively correlated with ratings of *Justification of Police Officer's Actions*, *Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police*, and *Attitudes in Favour of Police*, and negatively correlated with ratings of *Justification of Suspect's Actions*. *Procedural Fairness* was significantly positively correlated with ratings of *Justification of Police Officer's Actions*, *Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police*, and *Attitudes in Favour of Police*, and negatively correlated with ratings of *Justification of Suspect's Actions*. *Distributive Fairness* was significantly positively correlated with ratings of *Justification of Police Officer's Actions*, *Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police*, and *Attitudes in Favour of Police*, and negatively correlated with ratings of *Justification of Suspect's Actions*. *Police Effectiveness* was significantly positively correlated with ratings of *Justification of Police Officer's Actions* and, surprisingly *Justification of Suspect's Actions*.

Revised Legal Attitudes Questionnaire (RLAQ23). *Anti-Authoritarian* was significantly positively correlated with *Police Officer Threat* and *Justification of Suspect's*

⁶ A PCA analysis was conducted on the reduced sample ($N = 294$) to ensure that the factor structure and loadings were replicated. The results of this PCA matched the results of initial analysis; therefore, the summed outcome measures, *Attitudes in Favour of Police* and *Perceived Scenario Threat*, were used in the subsequent analyses.

Actions, and negatively correlated with *Justification of Police Officer's Actions*, *Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police*, and *Attitudes in Favour of Police*. **Authoritarian** was significantly positively correlated with *Suspect Threat*, *Justification of Police Officer's Actions*, and *Perceived Scenario Threat*. **Equalitarian** was significantly negatively correlated with *Suspect Threat*.

Need for Cognition. *NFC-18 total score* was significantly negatively correlated with ratings of *Suspect Threat* and *Perceived Scenario Threat*.

Table 2.4

Correlations Between Scores on PLS, RLAQ23, and NFC-18 on Ratings of Police Officer, Scenario, and Suspect (N = 294)

	Police Threat	Suspect Threat	Scenario Threat	Justification of Police Officer's Actions	Justification of Suspect's Actions	Level of Reasonable Force Applied	Factor 1: Attitudes in Favour of Police	Factor 2: Perceived Scenario Threat
PLS: Lawfulness ^a	-.06	-.02	-.05	.14**	-.10*	.10*	.14**	-.04
PLS: Procedural Fairness ^a	-.08	.04	-.03	.23**	-.12*	.16**	.21**	.002
PLS: Distributive Fairness ^a	-.003	.07	-.02	.16**	-.17**	.13*	.17**	.03
PLS: Police Effectiveness ^a	-.06	-.08	-.03	.12*	.11*	.08	.06	-.06
RLAQ23: Anti-Authoritarian ^a	.18**	.01	.06	-.28**	.14*	-.27**	-.30**	.04
RLAQ23: Authoritarian ^a	.001	.21**	.05	.11*	-.07	.07	.09	.15*
RLAQ23: Equalitarian ^b	.01	-.12*	.03	-.08	.07	-.10	-.10	-.05
NFC-18: Total Score ^b	.02	-.17**	-.06	.06	-.08	.01	.05	-.13*

Note. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; ^a = 1-tailed correlations; ^b = 2-tailed correlations; bivariate correlations were used to calculate the relationship between all variables displayed in the table.

Note. Police Threat, Suspect Threat, and Scenario Threat are defined as 1: not at all threatening – 7: very threatening; Justification of Police Officer's Actions and Justification of Suspect's Actions are defined as 1: not at all justified – 7: very justified; Level of Reasonable Use of Force as defined as 1: not at all reasonable to 7: very reasonable; High scores on *Attitudes in Favour of Police* are associated with more favourable attitudes towards police; high scores on *Perceived Scenario Threat* are associated with perceptions of a more threatening overall scenario.

Table 2.5*Correlation Between Scores on PLS and RLAQ23 (N = 294)*

	RLAQ23: Authoritarian ^a	RLAQ23: Anti-Authoritarian ^a	RLAQ23: Equalitarian ^b
PLS: Lawfulness	.25**	-.29**	-.36**
PLS: Procedural Fairness	.27**	-.34**	-.36**
PLS: Distributive Fairness	.29**	-.30**	-.37**
PLS: Police Effectiveness	.06	-.06	.01

Note. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; ^a = 1-tailed correlations, ^b = 2-tailed correlations.

A series of bivariate correlations were also calculated to examine the relationships between the participants' questionnaire scores on the PLS subscales and the RLAQ23 subscales. Correlations between the PLS subscales and RLAQ23: Authoritarian and Anti-Authoritarian subscales were conducted as 1-tailed tests, while correlations with the Equalitarian subscale were 2-tailed tests. All correlations between questionnaire scores are presented in Table 2.5. Scores on *Lawfulness*, *Procedural Fairness*, and *Distributive Fairness* were significantly positively correlated with scores on the *Authoritarian* subscale, and significantly negatively correlated with the *Anti-Authoritarian* and *Equalitarian* subscales. These results indicate that high scores on the PLS are more likely to be related to high scores on the *Anti-Authoritarian* subscale, and to lower scores on the *Anti-Authoritarian* and *Equalitarian* subscales.

Moderation Effects of PLS, RLAQ23, and NFC-18 on Police Attitudes and Scenario Threat

For exploratory purposes, a series of moderation regression analyses were conducted to assess whether scores on the PLS, RLAQ23, and NFC-18 moderated the relationships between the video condition⁷ and the two-component score dependent measures: *Attitudes in Favour of*

⁷ The warning statement had no effect on judgments made about the video. Therefore, data were collapsed across presence of warning condition in this and all subsequent analyses.

Police and Perceived Scenario Threat.⁸ As seen in Table 2.4, there were significant correlations between *Attitudes in Favour of Police* and Lawfulness, Procedural Fairness, Distributive Fairness, and Anti-Authoritarian, and *Perceived Scenario Threat* was significantly correlated with Authoritarian and NFC; therefore, scores on these measures were used as moderators in these analyses.

The moderation regression analyses were conducted using the Process macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2017). Within this SPSS macro, the categorical video condition variable was dummy coded to allow for comparisons among respondent scores in each video condition against a selected reference group, the BWC video condition. Scores on the PLS (Lawfulness, Procedural Fairness, Distributive Fairness), NFC-18 (total score), and the RLAQ23 (Authoritarian, Anti-Authoritarian) were used as the moderator variables in each regression analysis. To avoid potentially problematic high multicollinearity with the interaction term, the moderator variables were centered in each regression model and an interaction term between each dummy coded video condition variable and centered moderation variable were created, resulting in a total of three interaction terms per moderator variable (e.g., Aiken et al., 1991).

PLS Lawfulness. There was a statistically significant moderator effect of Lawfulness on the relationship between video condition and *Attitudes in Favour of Police*; this effect accounted for a significant proportion of the variance, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $\Delta F(3, 286) = 3.56$, $p = .01$. The interaction term between Lawfulness and the video condition comparing the BWC condition and Bystander video condition was statistically significant, $b = .85$, $t(286) = 2.46$, $p = .01$. Simple slopes were tested for low (-1 SD below the mean), moderate (mean), and high (+1 SD above the mean) levels of Lawfulness, which revealed that the comparison between the BWC video condition and

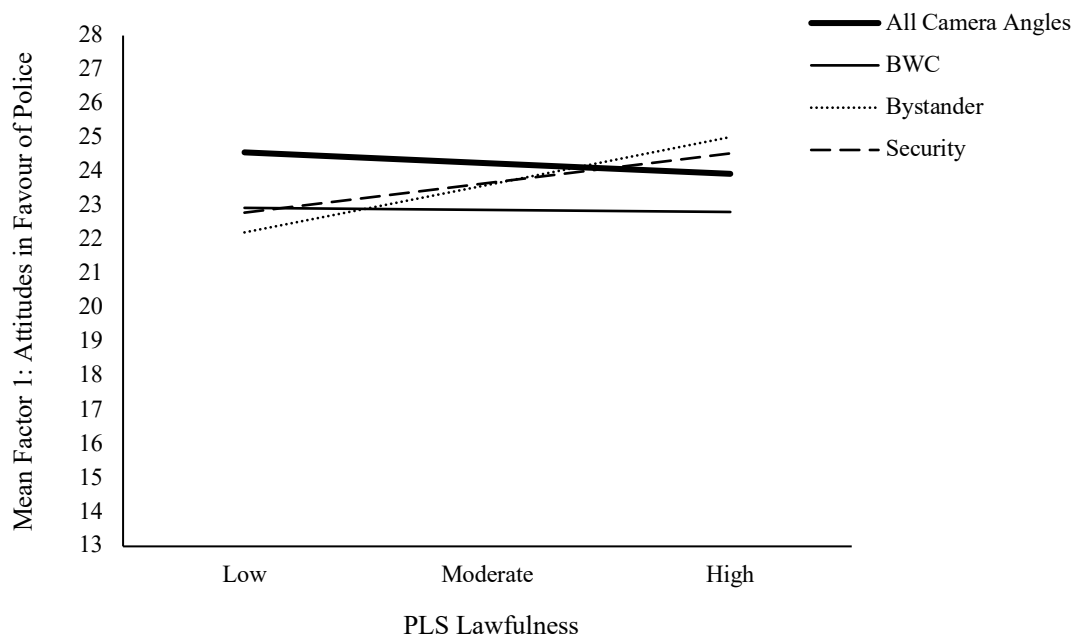
⁸ Exploratory moderation analyses were conducted with the two factors rather than the individual items, because the factors accounted for redundancy on the six items and included a larger distribution of scores.

All Camera Angles condition approached significance, $b = -1.63$, $t(286) = -1.89$, $p = .06$, at low levels of Lawfulness, and was statistically significant at moderate levels of Lawfulness, $b = 1.37$, $t(286) = 2.19$, $p = .03$. At high levels of Lawfulness, statistically significant differences were found between the BWC condition and the Bystander video condition, $b = 2.20$, $t(286) = 2.60$, $p = .01$, while the comparison between the BWC and Security video conditions approached significance, $b = 1.71$, $t(286) = 1.93$, $p = .05$. The regression model coefficients are presented in Table 2.6, and the interaction between video condition and Lawfulness on ratings of *Attitudes in Favour of Police* is presented in Figure 2.4.

Figure 2.4 shows that individuals with high scores on Lawfulness had more favourable attitudes towards the police in the Bystander video condition, compared to those with low Lawfulness scores; a similar trend is depicted for the Security video condition. Lawfulness scores did not affect attitudes towards police in the BWC video condition. The figure also suggests that individuals in the All Camera Angles condition had more favourable attitudes towards police at low levels of Lawfulness, compared to the other video conditions.

Figure 2.4

Line Graph Depicting Moderation Effect of PLS Lawfulness on the Relationship between Video Condition and the Mean of Factor 1: Attitudes in Favour of Police



PLS Procedural Fairness. The overall model of the moderation regression analysis examining *Attitudes in Favour of Police* as a function of video condition and Procedural Fairness was statistically significant, ($R^2 = .09$, $F(7, 286) = 3.83$, $p < .001$). Differences in *Attitudes in Favour of Police* based on video condition were found, such that participants in the All Camera Angles condition had increased *Attitudes in Favour of Police* compared to participants who viewed the BWC video of the use of force scenario, $b = 1.42$, $t(286) = 2.30$, $p = .02$. The differences in *Attitudes in Favour of Police* between the All Camera Angles condition and the Bystander and Security conditions were not significant. Procedural Fairness was also not predictive of *Attitudes in Favour of Police*. These associations are presented in Table 2.6.

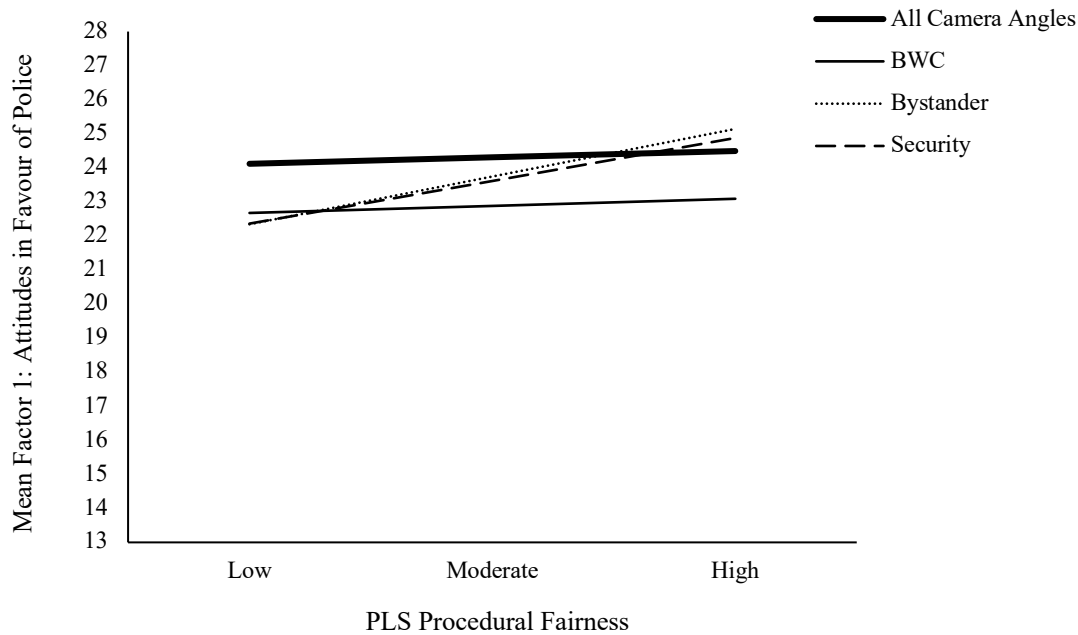
The interaction between Procedural Fairness and the video condition comparing the BWC condition and Bystander video condition, appeared to approach significance, $b = .33$,

$t(286) = 1.96, p = .051$, and no other interaction effect was found for any of the other video comparison variables (see Table 2.6). Figure 2.5 plots the interaction effect between Video condition and Procedural Fairness on *Attitudes in Favour of Police*. The interaction added a total of 2.25% of the variance to the overall R^2 of the model, $F(3, 286) = 2.35, p = .07$, which approached statistical significance. Further analysis of simple slopes (-1 SD, M, +1 SD) revealed that the BWC condition was significantly different from the Bystander video condition, $b = 2.05, t(286) = 2.37, p = .02$, and the Security video condition, $b = 1.79, t(286) = 1.99, p = .048$, at high levels of Procedural Fairness. The BWC video condition was also significantly different from the All Camera Angles condition at moderate levels of Procedural Fairness, $b = 1.42, t(286) = 2.30, p = .02$. No other significant differences were found at moderate levels or low levels of Procedural Fairness.

Figure 2.5 shows that individuals with high scores on Procedural Fairness had more favourable attitudes towards the police in the Bystander video condition, compared to those with low Procedural Fairness scores; a similar trend is depicted for the Security video condition. The BWC and All Camera Angles conditions appear to have a non-significant increase in favourable attitudes towards police as Procedural Fairness levels increase; these lines appear parallel and suggest that attitudes in favour of police were generally higher for the All Camera Angles condition across all levels of Procedural Fairness. The figure also suggests that individuals in the All Camera Angles condition had more favourable attitudes towards police at low levels of Procedural Fairness, compared to the other video conditions.

Figure 2.5

Line Graph Depicting Moderation Effect of PLS Procedural Fairness on the Relationship between Video Condition and the Mean of Factor 1: Attitudes in Favour of Police



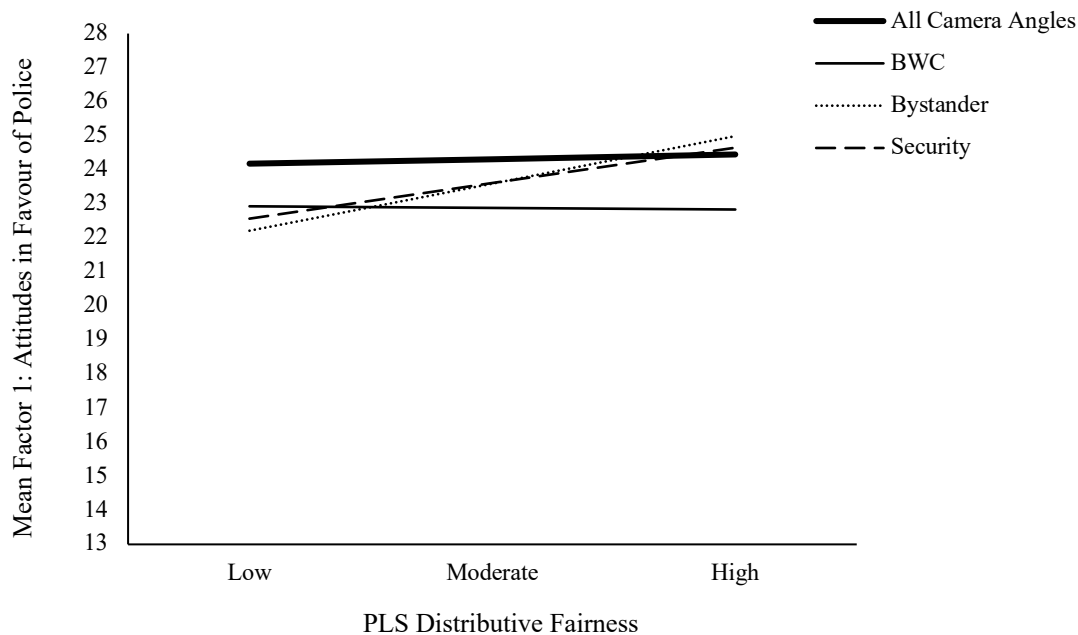
PLS Distributive Fairness. The overall model of the moderation regression analysis examining *Attitudes in Favour of Police* as a function of Distributive Fairness and video condition was statistically significant, $R^2 = .07$, $F(7, 286) = 3.20$, $p = .003$. The interaction term between Distributive Fairness and the video condition comparing the BWC and Bystander video conditions was statistically significant, $b = .79$, $t(286) = 2.34$, $p = .02$. The overall interaction effect added a total of 2.52% of the variance to the R^2 of the model, $\Delta F(3, 286) = 2.59$, $p = .05$, which approached significance (see Table 2.6). Further evaluation of simple slopes (-1 SD, M, +1 SD) revealed that at high levels of Distributive Fairness, the BWC condition was statistically different from the Bystander video condition, $b = 2.15$, $t(286) = 2.49$, $p = .01$, and the Security video conditions $b = 1.82$, $t(286) = 2.04$, $p = .04$. The comparison between the BWC and All Camera Angles conditions also appeared to approach significance, $b = 1.62$, $t(286) = 1.73$, $p =$

.08. At moderate levels of Distributive Fairness, the comparison between the BWC video condition and All Camera Angles condition was statistically significant, $b = 1.43$, $t(286) = 2.29$, $p = .02$. There were no significant differences comparing the BWC and other video conditions at low levels of Distributive Fairness.

Figure 2.6 presents the interaction effect between video condition and Distributive Fairness on *Attitudes in Favour of Police*. This figure shows that individuals with high scores on Distributive Fairness had more favourable attitudes towards the police in the Bystander video condition, compared to those with low Distributive Fairness scores; a similar trend is depicted for the Security video condition. The All Camera Angles condition shows no change, and the BWC condition shows a non-significant downward trend of attitudes in favour of police as levels of Distributive Fairness increase. The All Camera Angles condition appears to have more favourable attitudes towards police across all levels of Distributive Fairness compared to the BWC condition, and the most favourable attitudes towards police compared to all other video conditions at low levels of Distributive Fairness.

Figure 2.6

Line Graph Depicting Moderation Effect of PLS Distributive Fairness on the Relationship between Video Condition and the Mean of Factor 1: Attitudes in Favour of Police



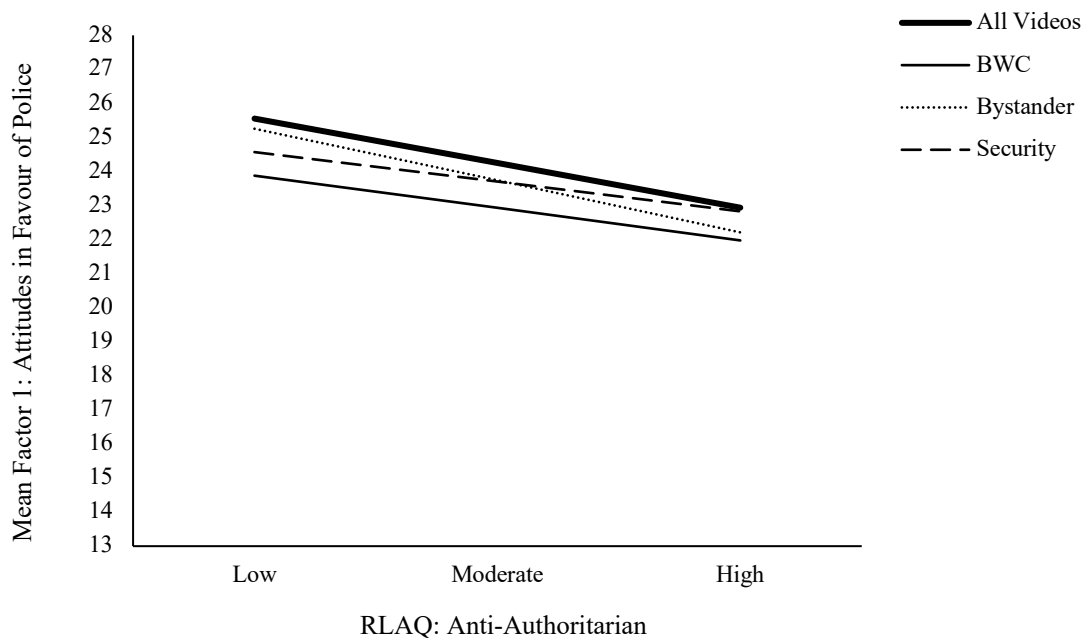
RLAQ23 Anti-Authoritarian. A regression analyses was conducted to examine if Anti-Authoritarian attitudes moderates the relationship between video condition and *Attitudes in Favour of Police* (see Table 2.6). The overall model of the regression was statistically significant, $R^2 = .11$ $F(7, 286) = 5.17, p < .001$. There was an effect of Anti-Authoritarian attitudes, which indicated that participants with higher scores on the Anti-Authoritarian had less favourable attitudes towards police, $b = -.28, t(286) = -2.41, p = .02$. However, there were no significant interactions in the model, and the moderation accounted for a total of 0.4% of the variance to the overall R^2 of the model, $\Delta F(3, 286) = .51, p = .68$.

The relationship between video condition and *Attitudes in Favour of Police* as a function of RLAQ23 Anti-Authoritarianism, is presented in Figure 2.7. This figure shows a downward trend for All Camera Angle conditions in that attitudes in favour of police decrease as Anti-

Authoritarian attitudes increase. Attitudes in favour of police appear to be generally higher in the All Camera Angles condition compared to the BWC condition, across all levels of Anti-Authoritarian.

Figure 2.7

Line Graph Depicting Moderation Effect of RLAQ23 Anti-Authoritarian on the Relationship between Video Condition and the Mean of Factor 1: Attitudes in Favour of Police



Anti-Authoritarian and Need for Cognition. Results from the moderation analyses indicated that the relationship between video condition and *Perceived Scenario Threat* was not moderated by Anti-Authoritarian attitudes, $R^2 = .03$, $F(7, 286) = 1.45$, $p = .18$; $\Delta R^2 = .004$, $\Delta F(3, 286) = .46$, $p = .71$, or level of Need for Cognition, $R^2 = .03$, $F(7, 286) = 1.27$, $p = .27$; $\Delta R^2 = .007$, $\Delta F(3, 286) = .73$, $p = .54$.

Table 2.6

Regression Analyses Examining the Moderation Effect of Lawfulness, Procedural Fairness, Distributive Fairness, and Anti-Authoritarian on the Relationship between Video Condition and Attitudes in Favour of Police

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	C.I.	
						Lower	Upper
Model 1							
Video Condition 1: BWC*Bystander	.74	.61	.09	1.21	.23	-.47	-1.95
Video Condition 2: BWC*Security	.79	.63	.09	1.24	.21	-.46	2.03
Video Condition 3: BWC*All Angles	1.37	.63	.16	2.19	.03*	.14	2.61
Lawfulness (L)	-.03	.26	-.02	-.13	.89	-.55	.48
Int 1: Lawfulness*Video Condition 1	.85	.34	.21	2.46	.01*	.17	1.53
Int 2: Lawfulness*Video Condition 2	.54	.37	.11	1.44	.15	-.20	1.27
Int 3: Lawfulness*Video Condition 3	-.15	.37	-.03	-.40	.69	-.88	.58
Model 2							
Video Condition 1: BWC*Bystander	.86	.61	.10	1.41	.16	-.34	2.06
Video Condition 2: BWC*Security	.74	.63	.08	1.17	.24	-.51	1.97
Video Condition 3: BWC*All Angles	1.42	.62	.16	2.30	.02*	.20	2.64
Procedural Fairness (PF)	.06	.13	.06	.43	.67	-.20	.32
Int 1: PF*Video Condition 1	.33	.17	.18	1.96	.051	-.002	.66
Int 2: PF*Video Condition 2	.29	.19	.13	1.56	.12	-.08	.66
Int 3: PF*Video Condition 3	-.006	.18	-.00	-.03	.97	-.36	.35
Model 3							
Video Condition 1: BWC*Bystander	.72	.61	.08	1.17	.24	-.49	1.92
Video Condition 2: BWC*Security	.73	.63	.08	1.15	.25	-.52	1.97
Video Condition 3: BWC*All Angles	1.43	.63	.16	2.29	.02*	.20	2.67
Distributive Fairness (DF)	-.03	.26	-.02	-.10	.92	-.53	.48
Int 1: DF*Video Condition 1	.79	.34	.21	2.34	.02*	.13	1.46
Int 2: DF*Video Condition 2	.60	.36	.14	1.66	.10	-.11	1.31
Int 3: DF*Video Condition 3	.10	.35	.02	2.9	.77	-.59	.79
Model 4							
Video Condition 1: BWC*Bystander	.81	.61	.09	1.34	.18	-.38	1.99
Video Condition 2: BWC*Security	.77	.59	.09	1.25	.21	-.44	1.99
Video Condition 3: BWC*All Angles	1.32	.61	.15	2.16	.03*	.12	2.52
Anti-Authoritarian (AA)	-.28	.13	-.25	-2.41	.02*	-.51	-.05
Int 1: AA*Video Condition 1	-.17	.18	-.07	-.98	.33	-.51	.17
Int 2: AA*Video Condition 2	.02	.19	.01	.14	.89	-.32	.37
Int 3: AA*Video Condition 3	-.11	.18	-.05	-.60	.55	-.45	.24

Note. * = $p < .05$; Video condition was dummy coded with the BWC condition as the reference group.

Need for Cognition

The following analyses examined how a person's information processing style impacts their interpretations of video-recorded police incidents. First, a bivariate (1-tailed) correlation was calculated to examine the relationship between NFC and the level at which participants in the presence of warning condition considered the statement before watching the video-recorded incident. A total of 154 participants who passed the questionnaire attention checks viewed the warning statement prior to watching the video and were included in this analysis. The analysis revealed that scores on NFC-18 were positively correlated with the level at which participants considered the warning statement, $r(154) = .139, p = .043$.

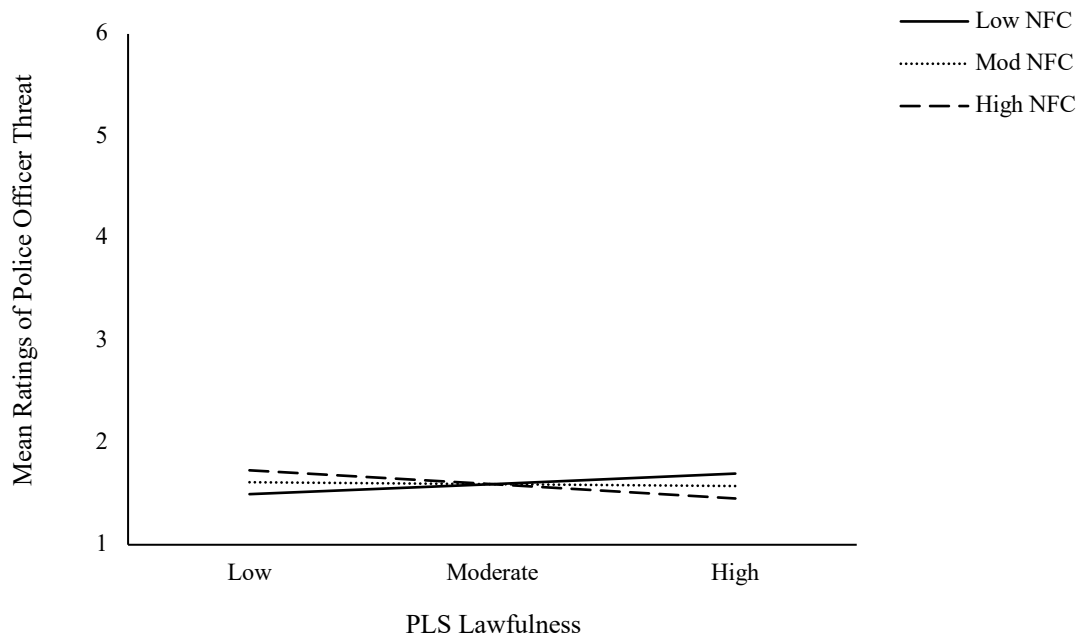
Second, a series of moderation regression analyses were conducted to determine if NFC moderates the relationship between scores on the various questionnaire subscales that measure attitudes towards police and the legal system (PLS scales, RLAQ23 Authoritarian, RLAQ23 Anti-Authoritarian) and the various outcome measures about the police officer and suspect from the use of force video. Separate moderation regressions using the Process Macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2017) were conducted to test each interaction between NFC-18 and the questionnaire subscales for each outcome measure. Results are described below and detailed in Tables 2.7 to 2.11.

NFC and PLS Lawfulness. The overall moderation regression examining *Police Officer Threat* as a function of NFC and Lawfulness was statistically significant, $R^2 = .0278, F(3, 290) = 2.76, p = .04$, and the interaction effect accounted for a significant proportion of the variance, $\Delta R^2 = .0243, \Delta F(1, 290) = 7.24, p = .008, b = -.006, t(290) = -2.69, p = .008$. Simple slopes were tested for low (-1 SD below the mean), moderate (mean), and high (+1 SD above the mean) levels of NFC, which revealed that at high levels of NFC, increased Lawfulness was associated

with lower ratings of *Police Officer Threat*, $b = -.08$, $t(290) = -2.28$, $p = .02$. Figure 2.8 illustrates a trend that at low levels of NFC, increased Lawfulness was associated with higher ratings of *Police Officer Threat*; however this relationship was not significant, $b = .06$, $t(290) = 1.33$, $p = .19$.

Figure 2.8

Line Graph Depicting the Moderation Effect of Need for Cognition (NFC-18) on the Relationship between PLS Lawfulness and the Mean of Ratings of Police Officer Threat

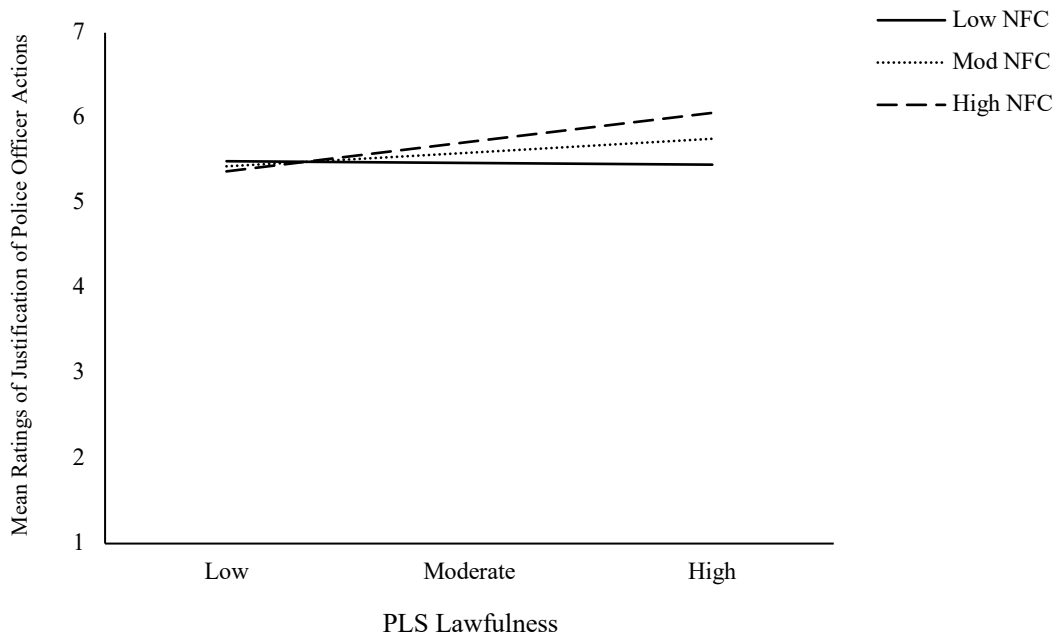


The overall moderation regression examining *Justification of Police Officer's Actions* as a function of NFC and Lawfulness was also statistically significant, $R^2 = .0431$, $F(3, 290) = 4.35$, $p = .005$, and the interaction effect accounted for a significant proportion of the variance, $\Delta R^2 = .0195$, $\Delta F(1, 290) = 5.92$, $p = .02$; $b = .010$, $t(290) = 2.43$, $p = .02$. Further evaluation of the simple slopes (-1 SD, M, +1 SD) revealed that at high levels of NFC, increased Lawfulness was associated with higher ratings of *Justification of Police Officer's Actions*, $b = .20$, $t(290) = 3.37$, $p = .009$. Figure 2.9 illustrates a trend that at moderate levels of NFC, increased Lawfulness was

associated with higher ratings of *Justification of Police Officer's Actions*; however this relationship was only approaching significance, $b = .09$, $t(290) = 3.37$, $p = .068$.

Figure 2.9

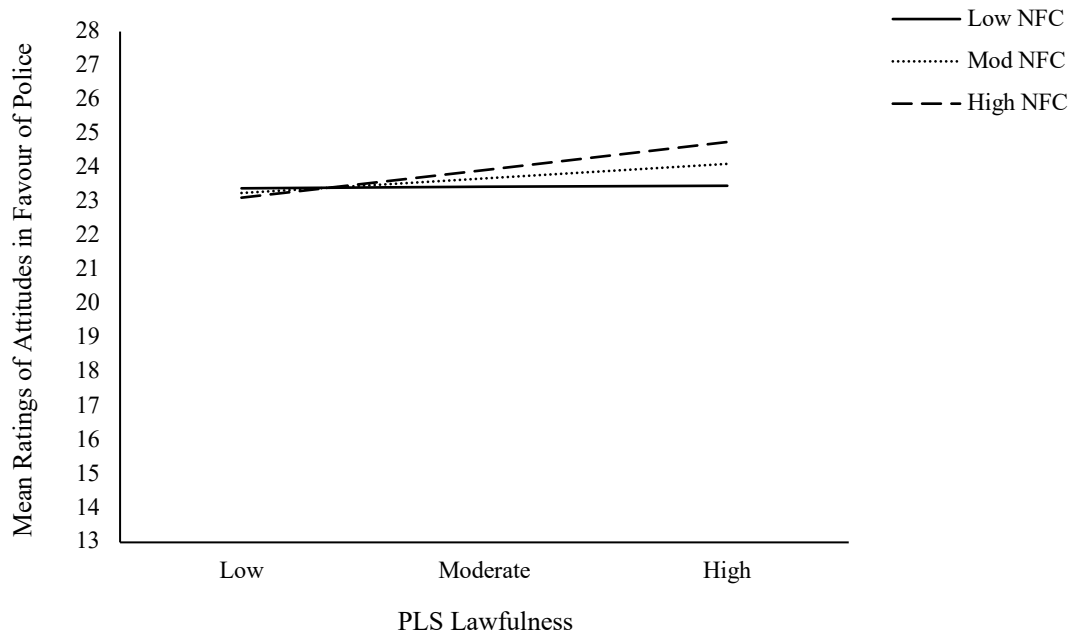
Line Graph Depicting Moderation Effect of Need for Cognition (NFC-18) on the Relationship Between PLS Lawfulness and the Mean of Ratings of Justification of Police Officer Actions



The overall moderation regression examining *Attitudes in Favour of Police* as a function of NFC and Lawfulness was also statistically significant, $R^2 = .0355$, $F(3, 290) = 3.55$, $p = .01$, and the interaction effect accounted for a significant proportion of the variance, $\Delta R^2 = .0138$, $\Delta F(1, 290) = 4.14$, $p = .04$; $b = .02$, $t(290) = 2.04$, $p = .04$. Further evaluation of the simple slopes (-1 SD, M, +1 SD) revealed that at high levels of NFC, increased Lawfulness was associated with higher ratings of *Attitudes in Favour of Police*, $b = .47$, $t(290) = 3.13$, $p = .002$. Figure 2.10 illustrates a trend that at moderate levels of NFC, increased Lawfulness was associated with higher ratings of *Attitudes in Favour of Police*; however this relationship was only approaching significance, $b = .25$, $t(290) = 1.89$, $p = .06$.

Figure 2.10

Line Graph Depicting Moderation Effect of Need for Cognition (NFC-18) on the Relationship Between PLS Lawfulness and the Mean Ratings of Attitudes in Favour of Police

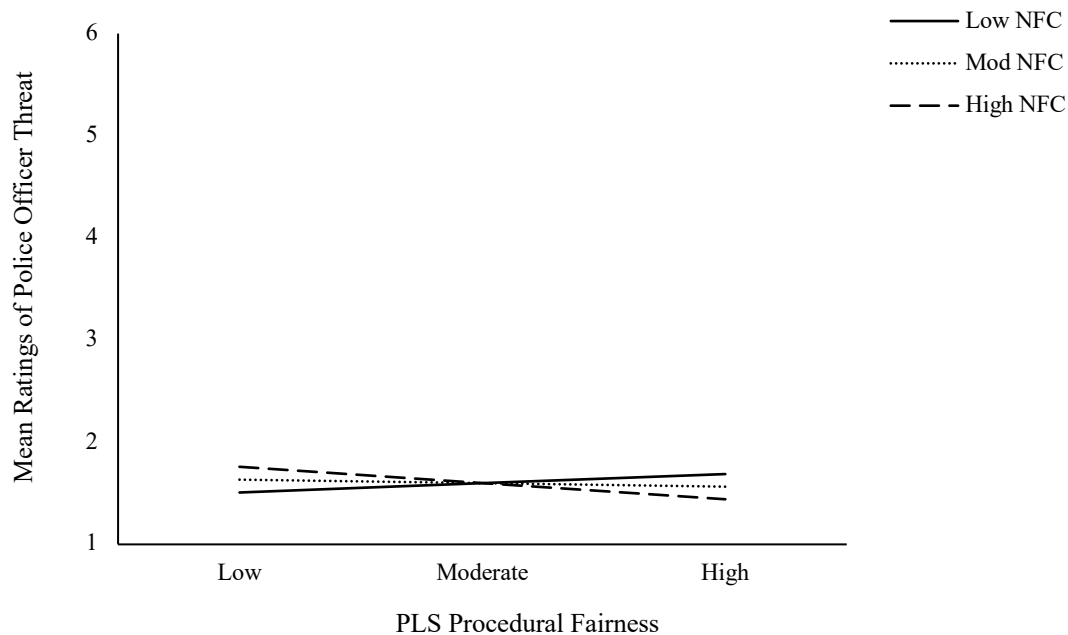


Results of the regression analyses indicated that NFC did not moderate the relationship between Lawfulness and *Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police, Suspect Threat, or Justification of Suspect's Actions* (see Table 2.7).

NFC and PLS Procedural Fairness. The overall moderation regression analysis was statistically significant in predicting ratings of *Police Officer Threat*, $R^2 = .0304$, $F(3, 290) = 2.76$, $p = .03$, and the interaction effect accounted for a significant proportion of the variance, $\Delta R^2 = .0233$, $\Delta F(1, 290) = 7.30$, $p = .007$; $b = -.003$, $t(290) = -2.70$, $p = .007$. Further evaluation of the simple slopes (-1 SD, M, +1 SD) revealed that at high levels of NFC, increased Procedural Fairness was associated with lower ratings of *Police Officer Threat*, $b = -.04$, $t(290) = -2.60$, $p = .01$. The interaction between NFC and Procedural Fairness is presented in Figure 2.11.

Figure 2.11

Line Graph Depicting Moderation Effect of Need for Cognition (NFC-18) on the Relationship Between PLS Procedural Fairness and the Mean Ratings of Police Officer Threat



Results of the regression analyses indicated that NFC did not moderate the relationship between Procedural Fairness and ratings of *Justification of Police Officer's Actions*, *Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police*, *Suspect Threat*, *Justification of Suspect's Actions*, or *Attitudes in Favour of Police* (See Table 2.8).

NFC and Police Effectiveness. Results of the regression analyses indicated that NFC did not moderate the relationship between Police Effectiveness and *Police Officer Threat*, *Justification of Police Officer's Actions*, *Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police*, *Suspect Threat*, *Justification of Suspect's Actions*, or *Attitudes in Favour of Police* (see Table 2.9).

NFC and RLAQ23 Authoritarian. Results of the regression analyses indicated that NFC did not moderate the relationship between Police Effectiveness and *Police Officer Threat*,

Suspect Threat, Justification of Police Officer's Actions, Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police, Justification of Suspect's Actions, or Attitudes in Favour of Police (see Table 2.10).

NFC and RLAQ23 Anti-Authoritarian. Results of the regression analyses indicated that NFC did not moderate the relationship between Police Effectiveness and *Police Officer Threat, Suspect Threat, Justification of Police Officer's Actions, Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police, Justification of Suspect's Actions, or Attitudes in Favour of Police* (see Table 2.11).

Table 2.7

Summary of Moderation Regression Analyses for Lawfulness and Need for Cognition (NFC-18) predicting Police Officer Threat, Justification of Police Officer's Actions, Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police, Attitudes in Favour of Police, Suspect Threat, and Justification of Suspect's Actions.

	<i>Model Summary</i>			<i>Moderation Effect</i>			<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i> (290)	<i>p</i>	<i>C.I.</i>	
	<i>R</i> ²	<i>F</i> (3, 290)	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2	ΔF (1, 290)	<i>p</i>						Lower	Upper
<i>Model 1: Police Officer Threat</i>	.03	2.76	.04*	.02	7.24	.008**							
Lawfulness							-.01	.03	-.02	-.36	.72	-.07	.05
NFC							-.0002	.005	-.003	-.05	.96	-.009	.009
Int: Lawfulness*NFC							-.006	.002	-.16	-2.69	.008**	-.011	-.002
<i>Model 2: Justification of Police Officer's Actions</i>	.04	4.35	.005**	.02	5.92	.02*							
Lawfulness							.09	.05	.11	1.83	.07	-.007	.20
NFC							.011	.008	.08	1.42	.16	-.004	.03
Int: Lawfulness*NFC							.009	.004	.14	2.43	.02*	.002	.02
<i>Model 3: Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police</i>	.02	1.66	.18	.01	2.17	.14							
Lawfulness							.07	.06	.08	1.29	.20	-.04	.18
NFC							.003	.008	.02	.36	.72	-.01	.02
Int: Lawfulness*NFC							.006	.004	.09	1.48	.14	-.002	.02
<i>Model 4: Attitudes in Favour of Police</i>	.04	3.55	.01*	.01	4.14	.04*							
Lawfulness							.25	.13	.11	1.89	.06	-.01	.51
NFC							.02	.02	.07	1.14	.26	-.02	.06
Int: Lawfulness*NFC							.02	.01	.12	2.03	.04*	.001	.04
<i>Model 5: Suspect Threat</i>	.03	2.81	.04*	.0002	.07	.79							
Lawfulness							-.02	.04	-.02	-.41	.68	-.10	.07
NFC							-.02	.006	-.17	-2.88	.004**	-.03	-.006
Int: Lawfulness*NFC							-.001	.003	-.02	-.26	.79	-.007	.005
<i>Model 6: Justification of Suspect's Actions</i>	.02	1.77	.15	.001	.30	.58							
Lawfulness							-.07	.04	-.11	-1.82	.07	-.15	.006
NFC							-.008	.006	-.08	-1.42	.16	-.02	.003
Int: Lawfulness*NFC							.002	.003	.03	.55	.58	-.004	.01

Note. * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$

Table 2.8

Summary of Moderation Regression Analyses for Procedural Fairness and Need for Cognition (NFC-18) predicting Police Officer Threat, Justification of Police Officer's Actions, Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police, Attitudes in Favour of Police, Suspect Threat, and Justification of Suspect's Actions.

	<i>Model Summary</i>			<i>Moderation Effect</i>			<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i> (290)	<i>p</i>	<i>C.I.</i>	
	<i>R</i> ²	<i>F</i> (3, 290)	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2	ΔF (1, 290)	<i>p</i>						Lower	Upper
Model 1: <i>Police Officer Threat</i>	.03	2.76	.03*	.02	7.30	.007**							
Procedural Fairness							-.01	.01	-.04	-.66	.51	-.04	.02
NFC							.000	.005	.001	.03	.98	-.009	.009
Int: Procedural Fairness*NFC							-.003	.001	-.16	-2.7	.007**	-.005	-.001
Model 2: <i>Justification of Police Officer's Actions</i>	.06	2.11	.0002**	.007	2.09	.15							
Procedural Fairness							.09	.02	.21	3.64	.001**	.04	.14
NFC							.009	.008	.07	1.19	.24	-.006	.02
Int: Procedural Fairness*NFC							.003	.002	.09	1.44	.15	-.001	.007
Model 3: <i>Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police</i>	.03	2.54	.03	.004	1.31	.25							
Procedural Fairness							.07	.03	.15	2.45	.02*	.01	.12
NFC							.003	.008	.01	.23	.82	-.02	.02
Int: Procedural Fairness*NFC							.002	.002	.07	1.14	.25	-.002	.007
Model 4: <i>Attitudes in Favour of Police</i>	.06	5.89	.0007**	.01	3.03	.08							
Procedural Fairness							.20	.06	.19	3.23	.001**	.08	.32
NFC							.02	.02	.06	.98	.33	-.02	.06
Int: Procedural Fairness*NFC							.009	.005	.10	1.74	.08	-.001	.02
Model 5: <i>Suspect Threat</i>	.03	2.85	.04*	.0001	.03	.86							
Procedural Fairness							.01	.02	.03	.57	.57	-.03	.05
NFC							-.02	.006	-.16	-2.83	.005	-.03	-.006
Int: Procedural Fairness*NFC							.000	.002	.01	.18	.86	-.003	.003
Model 6: <i>Justification of Suspect's Actions</i>	.02	2.16	.09	.0001	.04	.85							
Procedural Fairness							-.04	.02	-.12	-2.01	.05	-.07	-.001
NFC							-.008	.006	-.09	-1.41	.16	-.02	.003
Int: Procedural Fairness*NFC							.000	.001	.011	-.19	.85	-.003	.003

Note. * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$

Table 2.9

Summary of Moderation Regression Analyses for Police Effectiveness and Need for Cognition (NFC-18) predicting Police Officer Threat, Justification of Police Officer's Actions, Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police, Attitudes in Favour of Police, Suspect Threat, and Justification of Suspect's Actions.

	<i>Model Summary</i>			<i>Moderation Effect</i>			<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i> (290)	<i>p</i>	<i>C.I.</i>	
	<i>R</i> ²	<i>F</i> (3, 290)	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2	ΔF (1, 290)	<i>p</i>						Lower	Upper
<i>Model 1: Police Officer Threat</i>	.02	1.74	.16	.01	4.21	.04*							
Police Effectiveness							-.02	.03	-.04	-.60	.55	-.07	.04
NFC							.001	.005	.009	.15	.88	-.008	.01
Int: Police Effectiveness*NFC							-.005	.002	-.12	-2.05	.04*	-.01	.000
<i>Model 2: Justification of Police Officer's Actions</i>	.02	1.95	.12	.001	.42	.52							
Police Effectiveness							.09	.05	.11	1.92	.056	-.002	.19
NFC							.01	.008	.06	1.10	.27	-.007	.02
Int: Police Effectiveness*NFC							.003	.004	.04	.65	.52	-.005	.011
<i>Model 3: Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police</i>	.007	.66	.58	.000	.006	.94							
Police Effectiveness							.07	.05	.08	1.36	.17	-.03	.17
NFC							.001	.008	.009	.15	.88	-.02	.02
Int: Police Effectiveness*NFC							.000	.004	.004	.08	.94	-.01	.009
<i>Model 4: Attitudes in Favour of Police</i>	.008	.81	.49	.002	.61	.44							
Police Effectiveness							.11	.12	.05	.92	.36	-.13	.35
NFC							.02	.02	.05	.87	.39	-.02	.06
Int: Police Effectiveness*NFC							.008	.01	.05	.78	.44	-.01	.03
<i>Model 5: Suspect Threat</i>	.04	4.22	.006**	.009	2.60	.11							
Police Effectiveness							-.04	.04	-.06	-1.05	.30	-.12	.04
NFC							-.02	.006	-.17	-2.95	.003**	-.03	-.006
Int: Police Effectiveness*NFC							-.005	.003	-.09	-1.61	.11	-.01	.001
<i>Model 6: Justification of Suspect's Actions</i>	.019	1.82	.14	.000	.007	.93							
Police Effectiveness							.07	.04	.11	1.85	.07	-.004	.14
NFC							-.008	.006	-.08	-1.41	.16	-.02	.003
Int: Police Effectiveness*NFC							-.000	.003	-.005	-.09	.93	-.006	.006

Note. * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$

Table 2.10

Summary of Moderation Regression Analyses for Authoritarian and Need for Cognition (NFC-18) predicting Police Officer Threat, Justification of Police Officer's Actions, Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police, Attitudes in Favour of Police, Suspect Threat, and Justification of Suspect's Actions.

	<i>Model Summary</i>			<i>Moderation Effect</i>			<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i> (290)	<i>p</i>	<i>C.I.</i>	
	<i>R</i> ²	<i>F</i> (3, 290)	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2	ΔF (1, 290)	<i>p</i>						Lower	Upper
Model 1: <i>Police Officer Threat</i>	.001	.14	.94	.001	.34	.56							
Authoritarian							.003	.01	.01	.22	.83	-.02	.03
NFC							.001	.005	.01	.23	.82	-.008	.01
Int: Authoritarian*NFC							-.001	.001	-.04	-.59	.56	-.003	.002
Model 2: <i>Justification of Police Officer's Actions</i>	.02	1.95	.12	.0000	.0005	.98							
Authoritarian							.05	.02	.13	2.10	.04*	.003	.09
NFC							.01	.008	.09	1.43	.16	-.004	.03
Int: Authoritarian*NFC							.0000	.002	-.001	-.02	.98	-.004	.004
Model 3: <i>Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police</i>	.006	.56	.64	.0001	.02	.89							
Authoritarian							.03	.02	.08	1.27	.21	-.02	.08
NFC							.003	.009	.02	.36	.72	-.01	.02
Int: Authoritarian*NFC							.000	.002	-.008	-.13	.90	-.004	.004
Model 4: <i>Attitudes in Favour of Police</i>	.01	1.30	.28	.0000	.002	.97							
Authoritarian							.10	.06	.11	1.73	.08	-.01	.21
NFC							.02	.02	.07	1.13	.26	-.02	.06
Int: Authoritarian*NFC							.000	.005	-.003	-.04	.97	-.01	.009
Model 5: <i>Suspect Threat</i>	.06	6.32	.0004	.002	.49	.48							
Authoritarian							.05	.02	.17	2.87	.004**	.02	.09
NFC							-.01	.006	-.13	-2.26	.03*	-.03	-.002
Int: Authoritarian*NFC							.001	.002	.04	.70	.48	-.002	.004
Model 6: <i>Justification of Suspect's Actions</i>	.01	1.36	.26	.0005	.15	.70							
Authoritarian							-.02	.02	-.09	-1.45	.15	-.06	.009
NFC							-.01	.006	-.10	-1.61	.11	-.02	.002
Int: Authoritarian*NFC							.001	.001	.02	.39	.70	-.002	.003

Note. * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$

Table 2.11

Summary of Moderation Regression Analyses for Anti-Authoritarian and Need for Cognition (NFC-18) predicting Police Officer Threat, Justification of Police Officer's Actions, Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police, Attitudes in Favour of Police, Suspect Threat, and Justification of Suspect's Actions.

	<i>Model Summary</i>			<i>Moderation Effect</i>			<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i> (290)	<i>p</i>	<i>C.I.</i>	
	<i>R</i> ²	<i>F</i> (3, 290)	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2	ΔF (1, 290)	<i>p</i>						Lower	Upper
Model 1: <i>Police Officer Threat</i>	.03	3.46	.02	.003	.97	.33							
Anti-Authoritarian							.05	.02	.18	3.05	.003**	.02	.08
NFC							.002	.005	.03	.50	.62	-.007	.01
Int: Anti-Authoritarian*NFC							.001	.001	.06	.98	.33	-.001	.004
Model 2: <i>Justification of Police Officer's Actions</i>	.09	9.55	< .001	.01	3.02	.08							
Authoritarian							-.12	.08	-.28	-4.93	<.001**	-.17	-.07
NFC							.005	.02	.04	.66	.51	-.01	.02
Int: Authoritarian*NFC							-.004	.002	-.10	-1.74	.08	-.008	.005
Model 3: <i>Level of Reasonable Force Applied by Police</i>	.08	8.48	<.001	.006	1.77	.19							
Authoritarian							-.13	.03	-.27	-4.85	<.001**	-.18	-.08
NFC							-.002	.008	-.01	-.20	.84	-.02	.02
Int: Authoritarian*NFC							-.003	.002	-.08	-1.33	.19	-.008	.002
Model 4: <i>Attitudes in Favour of Police</i>	.11	10.85	<.001	.006	1.96	.16							
Authoritarian							-.34	.21	-.30	-5.45	<.001**	-.47	-.22
NFC							.009	.02	.03	.48	.63	-.03	.05
Int: Authoritarian*NFC							-.008	.006	-.08	-1.40	.16	-.02	.003
Model 5: <i>Suspect Threat</i>	.03	2.71	.045	.0000	.003	.96							
Authoritarian							.002	.02	.01	.12	.91	-.04	.04
NFC							-.02	.007	-.17	-2.80	.005**	-.03	-.005
Int: Authoritarian*NFC							-.001	.002	-.003	-.05	.96	-.004	.004
Model 6: <i>Justification of Suspect's Actions</i>	.02	2.47	.06	.0003	.08	.78							
Authoritarian							.05	.07	.13	2.31	.02*	.007	.08
NFC							-.008	.02	-.08	-1.39	.16	-.02	.003
Int: Authoritarian*NFC							-.005	.002	-.02	-.28	.78	-.004	.003

Note. * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$

Discussion

The current study examined how video camera angles, warning statements, pre-existing biases, and information processing style impacted interpretations of a police use of force video. After viewing a video recorded police use of force incident from one of four video conditions (BWC, Bystander, Security, All Camera Angles), participants rated the police officer and subject on various characteristics regarding their demeanour and justification of actions; half of the participants were also warned about the impact of the camera perspective bias prior to viewing the video. Participants also completed self-report measures that assess attitudes towards police and the legal system, as well as their information processing style (i.e., NFC).

Four main findings emerged from the analyses. First, the angle of the camera did not impact observers' judgment of the police officer or subject in the video. Second, being warned about the potential effect of the camera perspective bias did not impact how participants judged the use of force scenario. Third, pre-existing biases about police and the legal system impacted their judgments about the police officer and suspect, such that support for police legitimacy was associated with judgments in favour of the police officer (e.g., justified in his actions), while anti-authoritarian beliefs and less support for police legitimacy were associated with perceptions that the police officer was less justified in his behaviour. The pre-existing biases also appeared to influence the relationship between the camera angle of the video and judgments regarding the police officer. Fourth, having a high NFC increased participants' likelihood of making judgments about the police officer that were more in line with their pre-existing biases about police. These findings are discussed in detail below in relation to each of the hypotheses tested in this study. Limitations of the study, its contributions to the literature, and avenues for future research are also considered.

Camera Perspective Bias

We hypothesized (1) that individuals who viewed the BWC angle would view the suspect as more threatening and the police officer as more justified, compared to the security and bystander camera angles, and (2) that there would be no difference in judgments between the individuals informed about the camera perspective bias and those who viewed the video without this information.

The results suggested that the camera angle that was viewed did not directly impact perceptions of the police officer or suspect in the use of force scenario, leading us to reject the first hypothesis. More specifically, participants did not view the police officer differently (e.g., more threatening, less justified, less reasonable in use of force applied), when viewing the use of force incident from the BWC angle (or any other camera angle). All camera angles of the police incident resulted in a general agreement that the suspect was non-threatening and not justified in his actions, and that the police officer was non-threatening, was justified in his actions, and used a reasonable level of force on the suspect. Therefore, attitudes were generally in favour of the police, while perceived suspect and scenario threat was low, across all video conditions.

The results also indicated that the presence of the warning statement had no effect on judgments made about the use of force video, ultimately supporting the second hypothesis. While these results support previous research findings that suggest warning participants about the camera perspective bias does not eliminate any bias in making decisions (e.g., Jones et al., 2019; Lassiter et al., 2002), it is unclear whether these results would have been obtained if a camera perspective bias had been found.

The lack of a camera perspective bias in this study may be explained by the overall non-threatening nature of the video. Jones et al. (2019) suggested that variations (e.g., violence

depicted in the video) in recorded events can offset the perspective bias, which was seen in Boivin et al.'s (2017) study, whereby their university student sample judged two separate videos of a lethal use of force in a similar way. Boivin and his colleagues attributed their findings to a heightened emotional reaction from the student sample due to strong agreement across videos that the police intervention was questionable or blameworthy, and that the level of force used by the police officer was not appropriate. Perhaps a strong level of agreement in the other direction (i.e., that the intervention was not at all questionable) may also offset the camera perspective bias.

The inclusion of comparable contextual variables across all videos may have also contributed to the lack of camera perspective bias. For example, all three videos were controlled for sound, picture quality (i.e., same camera model for all videos), and start/end times; that is, all videos depicted the exact same quality and segment of the video, with the camera angle (i.e., frame of reference) being the only difference across conditions. The use of GoPro cameras for all camera angle video recordings may also have contributed to the homogeneity across camera angle conditions. Previous research using authentic videos from the media/or released from police agencies may result in greater differences in judgment because they would likely include varied contextual cues like sound or picture quality (Sandhu & Haggerty, 2017).

Indeed, authentic videos, like those seen in the Sammy Yatim shooting (Rogan, 2014) may include differences in video quality (i.e., colour or black/white, still or moving pictures) and sound quality (i.e., clear or broken audio, silent) that may contribute to how people interpret the videos. In some cases, video recordings also begin or end at different times. For example, a police officer may turn on their BWC prior to interacting with the suspect, whereas a bystander may only begin recording once the interaction has escalated, potentially excluding important

contextual information about the interaction. In the current study, the police officer can be clearly heard announcing himself and providing some context around the scenario (i.e., subject stealing from cars in the campus parking lot and having a warrant out for his arrest). Therefore, the results in the current study may suggest the camera perspective bias is decreased or eliminated when police use of force videos include key contextual information.

Pre-Existing Biases

Individuals who endorsed low levels of police legitimacy (i.e., Lawfulness, Procedural Fairness, Distributive Fairness, Police Effectiveness) viewed the police officer less favourably in the video and perceived the police officer as less justified in his actions, and less reasonable in his use of force. Similarly, the participants who were high on anti-authoritarian values endorsed less favourable attitudes towards the police and were more likely to find the police officer more threatening, less justified in his actions, and less reasonable in his application of force; they also believed that the suspect was more justified in his actions. Participants high in authoritarian values were more likely to view the suspect as more threatening. Individuals who endorsed low levels of police legitimacy (Lawfulness, Procedural Fairness, Distributive Fairness) also had lower scores on the Authoritarianism, and higher scores on Anti-Authoritarianism.

These results support the hypotheses that individuals with negative attitudes towards police (i.e., low levels of police legitimacy) would be harsher in judging police officers in a use of force scenario, and that low scores on police legitimacy would be linked with lower scores on Authoritarian beliefs and higher scores on Anti-Authoritarian beliefs. These findings also support previous research (e.g., Hernandez, 2020; Riley, 2006), and suggest that attitudes and beliefs about the police and justice system may impact how people interpret police use of force videos that surface in the media.

In exploratory analyses, the camera perspective bias was examined again, but this time, pre-existing biases were included in the analyses to examine how they impacted video interpretations. The findings did not support the view that blame is applied to the person most salient in the video (e.g., Lassiter & Irvine, 1986), but judgment of the videos differed when accounting for pre-existing attitudes. While the moderation effects were small, individuals who viewed the bystander and security camera angles of the use of force video rated the police officer more favourably when they endorsed higher levels of police legitimacy (i.e., lawfulness, procedural fairness, distributive fairness), and their views of the police officer were less favourable when they endorsed lower levels of police legitimacy.

In contrast, attitudes towards the police officer did not differ as a result of police legitimacy scores for those who viewed the BWC angle of the video. Similar to those who viewed the bystander and security videos, these individuals had relatively less favourable attitudes of the police officer when they endorsed low levels of police legitimacy; however, unlike the bystander and security video conditions, their ratings generally remained stable even when levels of police legitimacy increased. Individuals who viewed all three camera angles of the video also gave relatively stable ratings of the police officer across all levels of police legitimacy scores. They had more favourable attitudes towards the police officer at low levels of police legitimacy compared to all three singular camera angles and had more favourable attitudes towards the police officer at moderate and high levels of police legitimacy compared to the people who viewed the BWC video.

Despite agreement among participants about the non-threatening nature of the video, and the inclusion of comparable contextual factors across videos, these results suggest the influence of pre-existing biases is strong enough to impact how people interpret use of force videos and

may increase the likelihood of introducing a camera perspective bias. Even when viewing a video depicting both the police officer and subject in clear view (e.g., bystander video), attitudes held by participants about police lawfulness, procedural fairness, and distributive fairness guided their interpretation of events.

Perhaps attitudes regarding police legitimacy influenced ratings the most for participants who viewed the bystander video because these videos are similar to ones presented in the media that often negatively reflect the police officer (Boivin et al., 2017). Individuals who endorse low levels of police legitimacy may be more inclined to automatically view the police officer in a bystander video as less justified, because they believe that the bystander is filming a problematic police interaction (i.e., police misconduct), especially because they already distrust the police. The security footage may have a similar impact because this footage is also often released in the media to represent an objective view when a police incident has occurred (e.g., the Sammy Yatim case; Rogen, 2014). Alternatively, people may perceive that BWC videos are often released by police departments in an effort to clear a police officer's name (Fallik et al., 2020; Jennings et al., 2015; White et al., 2018).

It was expected that viewing the BWC video would result in more favourable ratings of the police officer compared with the bystander and security camera conditions; however, the opposite was found, potentially because of the ambiguity of this video. For example, viewers may have had a difficult time interpreting the reason for the subject's fall and resulting injury, given the proximity between the police officer and subject. This may have led to the overall consistency of less favourable attitudes towards police in this condition, because even when people trust in the police, they still may not want to judge what they cannot see. In contrast, participants who viewed all three videos of the incident likely had more favourable attitudes

towards the police because they were provided with more information to interpret the actual details of the scenario (i.e., the subject resisted a justifiable arrest and fell on his own, resulting in injury). Ultimately, this suggests that more information about a scenario may eliminate the influence of bias regarding police (e.g., Jones et al., 2019).

Finally, anti-authoritarian attitudes appeared to decrease positive attitudes towards police across all video conditions, suggesting that this bias is strong and can influence judgments of police use of force videos, even when presented with multiple videos of an event. These results can have serious consequences in legal settings when a police officer or subject is charged with an offence depicted on camera, and jurors (i.e., members of the public) are tasked with judging the videos, especially given the emphasis on video-recorded evidence in court (e.g., Baker, 2004; Frederick & Stemen, 2012).

Need for Cognition

The results support the hypothesis that individuals high in NFC would be more likely to consider the educational statement that precedes the video clip, suggesting that individuals who are motivated to engage in effortful thinking may evaluate all evidence prior to making interpretations of situations (Cacioppo et al., 1996).

The exploratory analyses revealed that individuals who were high in NFC were more likely to make judgments in line with their attitudes regarding police legitimacy. While the moderation effects were small, individuals with high levels of NFC viewed the police officer as more threatening when they scored lower on the PLS (i.e., Lawfulness, Procedural Fairness), and alternatively viewed the police officer as less threatening when they scored higher on the PLS. Individuals high in NFC also rated the police officer more favourably and more justified in his actions when they endorsed high levels of lawfulness (i.e., believed that police officers work

within established rules). These findings suggest that individuals with high NFC are more likely to make judgments of the police officer depicted in the video that are more in line with their pre-existing biases and attitudes towards police.

While these results conflict with previous research suggesting that low NFC individuals are more apt to biased thinking (Cacioppo et al., 1996), they also align with other previous studies that indicate high NFC individuals may be more resistant to changing their attitudes and may be more susceptible to biased decisions (Haugtvedt & Petty, 1992; Petty et al., 2008). Some prior evidence suggests that high NFC individuals take more time to carefully process and understand information, and as a result, their decisions are based on available information instead of biased thinking (West et al., 2008). However, these individuals may also know that they are thinkers who often spend time analyzing information, and therefore, they may be overconfident about their reactions or opinions. So, perhaps when these individuals have high levels of trust in the police, they may be more likely to interpret stimuli in a way that aligns with these views and potentially even seek out evidence in support of their views.

In contrast, individuals with low NFC generally maintained stable ratings of police officer ratings, despite their belief in police lawfulness, suggesting that their judgments resulted from what they simply saw in the video (e.g., a police officer following correct police procedures in making a justified arrest). This is not completely inconsistent with previous research because low NFC individuals are expected to make decisions simply based on what they know and from information easily available to them (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974). Perhaps a more controversial use of force scenario that is missing key contextual information would lead low NFC individuals to make judgments more in line with their pre-existing biases.

Limitations

While the findings in the current study highlight some important issues with relying on video evidence of police use of force scenarios, there were several limitations that must be considered when drawing conclusions. Limitations specific to this study will be detailed in this section, while limitations that apply more generally to the program of research will be discussed in the general discussion, presented in Chapter 4.

A major limitation of the current study is related to the general agreement about the non-threatening nature of the video constructed for use in the study. While the video was designed to present a police officer implementing correct police procedures, the use of actors in the video recording may have been noticeable to the observers and contributed to the general agreement that the scenario was non-threatening. This resulted in generally low ratings of suspect justification (i.e., floor effects), and high ratings of justification/reasonable use of force for the police officer (i.e., ceiling effects), in turn contributing to a lack of a camera perspective bias (and perhaps also to the small significant effects that were found regarding pre-existing attitudes and NFC).

While designing the scenario in the way we did allowed for the manipulation of camera angle while controlling for other confounding factors, this reduces generalizability to real world situations. As previously mentioned, videos of use of force incidents often include differences other than camera angle, even when recordings depict the same scenario (e.g., Sammy Yatim shooting; Rogen, 2014). Videos of use of force incidents are rarely perfectly aligned; for example, the BWC is either turned on by the police officer before or during the call, and the bystander camera may be turned on partway through the police incident, capturing a different segment of the event; furthermore, security footage is often black and white and may not include audio, whereas other types of videos are often in colour and include sound. Therefore, perhaps a

camera perspective bias would emerge if contrasting video recordings do differ in ways they naturally do. This might be particularly true with respect to the presence or absence of contextual information. For example, if the videos in the current study excluded a clear audio track communicating the police officer's introduction and background information about the suspect, perhaps viewers would have observed a public citizen being unjustifiably disturbed by police, allowing for increased influence of the camera perspective bias.

Conclusion and Implications

The results from Study 1 provides some insight about how people interpret use of force videos and highlight the need for future research to further understand the legal implications of the findings. Findings revealed that (1) a small effect of the camera perspective bias was present when pre-existing biases were considered, (2) pre-existing attitudes about police and the legal system influenced judgments of the police officer and subject in the video, and (3) people who were more motivated to engage in effortful thinking (i.e., high NFC) were more likely to make decisions in line with their pre-existing attitudes. Altogether, these findings suggest that individual differences amongst viewers can have an impact on how use of force videos are judged and interpreted, and this could result in real-world consequences in legal settings such as criminal trials, a topic we will turn to next.

Chapter 3: Study 2⁹

This chapter describes Study 2 of the dissertation. Study 1 examined the judgment and interpretation of a use of force scenario, based on the camera angle of the video, individual differences regarding pre-existing attitudes about police and the legal system, and information processing styles. Study 2 is an extension of the previous study, and examines the legal implications of relying on video evidence of the same police use of force scenario. Given that Study 2 involves a mock juror research design, the theory and practice of jury decision-making are first briefly discussed to provide context.

Juries in Canada

In the Canadian criminal justice system, a person accused of a criminal offence can either be tried by a judge alone, or by a judge and a jury (Corrick & Rosenberg, n.d.; Schuller & Vidmar, 2011). When a criminal offence occurs, the Crown prosecutes an accused person (i.e., person charged with criminal offence) under a public-law statute such as the Criminal Code, and the accused is charged either with a summary conviction offence or an indictable offence (Government of Canada, 2021), for which they are presumed innocent until proven guilty in court.

Summary conviction offences are minor offences (e.g., causing a disturbance) and have a maximum penalty of \$5000 and/or six months in prison; these cases normally proceed immediately and occur in a provincial court in front of a judge. Indictable offences are more serious offences (e.g., theft, assault, murder), and have more severe punishments. Offences may also be classified as hybrid offences, which means that the prosecutor may choose to proceed

⁹ A version of this chapter is in preparation to be submitted for publication to the journal *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*: Korva, N., Bennell, C., Lalumière, M. L., Karimullah, M., & Yamamoto, S. (2022). *What is the verdict? The role of video evidence in police use of force trials*.

with either a summary conviction or an indictable offence, based on factors such as the seriousness of the accused's actions and harm caused to any victim(s) (Government of Canada, 2021). A person who has been charged with an indictable offence has the right to choose a trial that includes a judge and a jury when the maximum punishment accompanying their charge is imprisonment for five or more years, and in some cases, between two and five years (Corrick & Rosenberg, n.d.; Davison, 2018). Often in cases regarding very serious indictable offences like murder, the courts will automatically proceed with a trial by judge and jury.

Canadian juries are made up of 12 jurors that are selected from public citizens of the province or territory in which the court is located (Schuller & Vidmar, 2011). Canadian jurors must be a Canadian citizen and at least 18 years of age. They cannot have a criminal record for an indictable offence, or have certain occupations such as a judge, lawyer, police officer, or prison guard. Jurors also cannot have a relationship with anyone involved in the criminal case (e.g., accused, victim), or have special knowledge of the case more than what another public citizen might know (e.g., information detailed in highly publicized cases in the media; Schuller & Vidmar, 2011).

When a trial by judge and jury has been selected, and the court proceeds with this decision, the court official (e.g., sheriff) summons dozens of public citizens for jury duty by mail, which directs them to attend the courthouse on a specified date (Corrick & Rosenberg, n.d.; Schuller & Vidmar, 2011). These individuals make up a jury panel, where they are either dismissed from the panel, or selected for the 12-person jury to hear the criminal case. The prosecutor and the defence attorney have the right to submit a 'challenge for cause' to the trial judge if they believe there is a reasonable possibility that a prospective juror is not impartial; it is then the responsibility of the trial judge to permit the challenge for cause and manage the

challenge process (Alberta Law Reform Institute, 2007). Once the jury has been selected, the trial judge will give instructions to the jury about their duties and the trial proceedings (Corrick & Rosenberg, n.d.).

During the trial, the jury is presented with opening statements by the prosecution and defence, witness testimonies, evidence deemed admissible, and closing statements from the prosecution and defence (Corrick & Rosenberg, n.d.; Schuller & Vidmar, 2011). The jury is then provided with instructions about the law that applies to the case being tried, and the jurors then deliberate with each other in private until they reach an agreement on verdict. Jurors are required to make decisions about the verdict only based on the evidence presented in court and how it applies to the law. Jurors are not permitted to use other information or personal thoughts about the case or those involved to influence their decision. In all criminal trials, all 12 jurors must unanimously agree on the same verdict for the defendant, or else a judge may declare a mistrial and a new trial may be ordered (Corrick & Rosenberg, n.d.).

Some concerns have been raised about the jury system in Canada. Jury trials can take considerably longer than judge-only trials and serving on a jury may result in lost time and income. It is also unclear whether jurors can always fully comprehend the complex nature of the juror instructions and are able to appropriately apply them (Corrick & Rosenberg, n.d.). In addition, there may be problems with high-stakes decisions being made by 12 laypersons who are untrained in law, criminology, and other aspects regarding criminal trials (Davison, 2018). Lastly, laypersons may be subject to juror bias, despite the instructions provided to jurors that they cannot allow personal feelings or external beliefs to influence their verdict decisions (Devine, 2012).

Juror Decision-Making

Theories about jury decision-making (e.g., Devine, 2012; Pennington & Hastie, 1986) suggest that jurors' legal decisions may, in fact, be influenced by their pre-existing attitudes (Ewanation, 2021). This can be explained by how jurors interpret information presented in a criminal case. The story model suggests that everyone involved in a criminal trial has a role in a courtroom (e.g., lawyers, judge, witnesses, accused, complainant) whereby they follow the 'script' of a trial and present their side of a case for jurors to make sense of and fit into a story-like narrative (Pennington & Hastie, 1986). In an extension of the story model, Devine (2012) proposed a 'director's cut' model of jury-decision-making whereby the narrative is similar to the way a director assembles video footage of movie scenes to fit a cohesive narrative and make sense to observers. Researchers suggest this may be problematic because it is likely that a juror's narrative – their individual representation of the trial – is constructed from both internal and external sources. The external sources include evidence and testimonies presented at the trial, while internal sources are factors such as one's schemas, scripts, and stereotypes.

Schemas are a mental framework for organizing general knowledge, while scripts are specific schemas for a particular order of expected events in a particular context (Devine, 2012). For example, many Canadians have a script for what happens when they go to a restaurant; the typical script includes activities in the following order: (1) enter restaurant, (2) ask for a table, (3) be seated by host(ess), (4) order food and drink off menu, (5) waiter/waitress brings food and drink, (6) consume meal, (7) pay the bill, (8) leave restaurant. Our scripts help us figure out what to expect in a particular context; however, when there is missing information regarding circumstances within this context, expectations for the script are added or filled in as needed, based on what is known to the person from their beliefs, scripts, and stereotypes (i.e., a set of

characteristics or traits that one expects to be true about members of a particular group). Scripts and stereotypes differ between jurors, as these are often influenced by an individual's background and life experiences (Devine, 2012; Devine & Caughlin, 2014).

Schemas, scripts, and stereotypes are a problem in a courtroom setting because the prosecution and the defence present two contrasting narratives, which introduces ambiguity with regard to any case. Because of this ambiguity, a hole or void may appear in the 'script' that is being woven, which may cause jurors to fill in the missing pieces of the narrative based on their own beliefs and experiences. Devine (2012) suggested that jurors may be more likely to rely on evidence when it is congruent with the juror's pre-existing beliefs; in contrast, evidence may be discarded from the 'final cut' if it does not fit the juror's constructed narrative.

These pre-existing beliefs (scripts) also apply to one's understanding of types of legal cases (Devine, 2012). People may have personal life experiences or feelings about a type of case, and if they are exposed to a trial of this case-type, their assumptions about the associated script may be activated. For example, a person who believes that murder is often committed by males who have visible tattoos and regularly use marijuana may be influenced by this assumption when deciding if a male defendant with a face tattoo and history of marijuana use is guilty of first-degree murder.

This phenomenon can also be applied to other contexts such as police use of force incidents, in which a police officer has been alleged to have used excessive force against a citizen. Given the increased prevalence of these cases in the media, which often portray the police officer in a negative light (e.g., George Floyd case; Arango, 2021), many citizens have begun to question the legitimacy of the police and have adopted attitudes and personal feelings about the police and how they operate (e.g., Saulnier et al., 2021). In addition, police use of force

cases exposed in the media are usually about police brutality and misconduct (e.g., Greer & McLaughlin, 2010), and thus, the case-type script that jurors possess may be more likely to include the expectation that the police officer's actions were unjustified.

Given this, when a police officer is accused in court of harming a citizen, jurors who have adopted a distrust or skepticism of the police, and an expectation that officers exercise excessive force, may be inclined to assume the police officer is guilty. Especially in cases where there are two competing narratives (e.g., prosecution vs. defence), a juror's narrative is likely to be influenced by the juror's assumptions when there is no available evidence that contradicts these beliefs and assumptions, such as video recorded footage of the incident (Devine, 2012). High profile cases also increase the likelihood of relying on assumptions made about the case because jurors have likely been exposed to case details in the media prior to the criminal trial. In these cases, jurors may have already incorporated assumptions about the case into their narrative even before the trial begins (Devine, 2012).

Police Officers Accused of an Offence

There have been many studies focusing on juror decisions when the defendant (i.e., accused) is a regular citizen who has committed a crime (e.g., Ewanation et al., 2021; Korva et al., 2012). However, few studies have examined juror or jury decision-making when a police officer is charged with a criminal offence that is alleged to have occurred while on operational duty. Most of these studies have focused on how the race of defendants, eyewitnesses, and complainants impact trials with police officer defendants (e.g., Ewanation, 2021; Huff et al., 2018; Pica et al., 2020; Saulnier et al., 2019). These studies have found that people are more likely to render guilty verdicts for a police officer accused of a criminal offence when the police officer was Black (Pica et al. 2020) or when the victim/complainant was Indigenous (Ewanation,

2021) or Black (Huff et al., 2018).

One recent study has examined other aspects of trials in which a police officer is a defendant. Ellingwood (2019) conducted a mock-juror study whereby a police officer was charged with excessive use of force, and BWC video footage was used as evidence. Results indicated that when individuals were provided with expert testimony that explained the dynamics of police use of force, along with BWC footage, they viewed the police officer as more credible and were less likely to find the officer guilty. Ellingwood also reported that perceptions of police legitimacy were related to verdict decisions and views about police officer credibility.

These findings lend support to the director's cut model, which suggests that pre-existing attitudes influence juror narratives and their decisions made in court. Also, beliefs about the criminal justice system (e.g., perceiving the system as authoritarian) influence legal decisions and recommendations for punishment (Narby et al., 1993). A person's information processing style may also play a role in how jurors interpret evidence and construct narratives during a trial (Devine, 2012). Results from Study 1 indicated that participants with a high NFC were more likely to make judgments about the police use of force video that were in line with their pre-existing attitudes, potentially because they were more likely to seek out evidence to support their views (Shestowski et al., 1998). Having said that, people with high NFC also pay more attention to scientific evidence that is presented by an expert witness (Leippe et al., 2004; McAuliff & Kovera, 2008). This could suggest that in circumstances where video evidence is supplemented with context and expert testimony (i.e., court trial), individuals with high NFC would be less likely to make judgments of police use of force videos that are in line with their pre-existing attitudes.

Current Study

The purpose of Study 2 was to examine the legal implications of the findings obtained in Study 1, through a simulated trial study. More specifically, the current study aimed to determine (1) whether video evidence and camera angle influence juror decisions and judgements of a police officer on trial for assault causing bodily harm, (2) whether attitudes about police and authoritarian values impact judgments and decisions made in court, and (3) how information processing styles (i.e., NFC) influence judgments and legal decisions.

While previous research has suggested that camera angles directed specifically at a subject's face may lead observers to perceive a more threatening demeanour (Lassiter et al., 2002), and increase the likelihood of a guilty verdict and harsher punishment (Lassiter, 2002), the use of force video used in Study 1 resulted in ratings generally in favour of the police officer, across all video angle conditions. Given that no camera perspective bias was found in Study 1, and research that suggests video evidence is valued in court settings (e.g., Frederick & Stemen, 2012), it was hypothesized that *participants who are randomized to the trial summary condition with no video evidence will view the suspect as more responsible for his actions, less credible, and will thus be more likely to render a verdict of 'guilty' for the police officer in question and recommend a harsher punishment.* It is also expected that *there will be no differences in these judgments and decisions when the trial summary includes some type of video evidence (BWC, Bystander, Security, All Camera Angles).*

Given results of prior research (e.g., Ewanation et al., 2021; Hernandez, 2020) and the findings from Study 1, it was hypothesized that *participants who endorse lower levels of police legitimacy will find the police officer defendant more responsible for his actions and less credible, and will be more likely to render a guilty verdict for the police officer on trial for*

assault causing bodily harm; these participants are also expected to recommend a harsher punishment compared with participants who endorse higher levels of police legitimacy. It was also expected that *participants who endorse lower levels of police legitimacy would score lower on levels of authoritarianism and higher on levels of anti-authoritarianism.*

Viewers with a low NFC may make less informed decisions that are based on emotions and pre-existing views (Cacioppo et al., 1984); however, Study 1 results indicated that having a high NFC increased participants' likelihood of making judgments in line with their pre-existing biases about police. There is some evidence to suggest that expert testimony might mitigate this effect but given that the same video from Study 1 is being used in Study 2, it was expected that *participants with a high NFC will be more likely to render a verdict in line with their attitudes indicated on the PLS and measure of Authoritarianism.* It was also expected that *participants high in NFC would be more likely to factor in the video evidence when making their court judgments and decisions,* given that individuals with high NFC typically rely on information processing when making judgments (Cacioppo et al., 1984).

Method

Participants

Participants were undergraduate students from two universities in Ottawa, Canada, recruited through their online integrated research systems; they were offered one course credit as compensation for participation. Eligible participants were required to be fluent in English and to not have a law enforcement background. A total of 678 undergraduate students completed the study (238 University of Ottawa, 440 Carleton University); however, participants were excluded from the analyses if they (1) failed attention checks regarding the video or audio recording, (2) had reported technical difficulties while completing the online study, (3) had experience working

in law enforcement, or (4) declined consent to use their responses/data. Therefore, a total of 576 participants (mean age 20.80, $SD = 5.18$) were included in the analyses (biographic characteristics of these participants are presented in Table 3.1). A power analysis using G*Power 3.1 software (Erdfelder et al., 2009) was conducted by selecting “ χ^2 tests: goodness-of-fit tests: Contingency tables” and using the current sample size of 576, an expected effect size (Cohen’s W^{10}) of .283, 4 degrees of freedom, and an alpha of .05. The chi-square test was the closest equivalent to the logistic regression used in this study. The obtain power was 99.99%. There is no overlap between this sample and the sample used in Study 1.

¹⁰ Cohen’s W was obtained using the formula: $Cohen's W = Cramer's V * \sqrt{k - 1}$, where k = number of rows (2 verdicts). Therefore, $Cohen's W = .283 * \sqrt{2 - 1}$; $Cohen's W = .283$

Table 3.1*Descriptive Statistics of Biographic Data (N = 576)*

	Frequency	% of Total Sample
Gender		
Male	192	33.3
Female	382	66.3
Other	2	0.4%
Ethnicity		
White	301	52.3
Asian	91	15.8
Middle Eastern	53	9.2
Black	52	9.0
East Indian	11	1.9
First Nations/Aboriginal/Indigenous	8	1.4
Hispanic/Latino	12	2.1
Other Ethnicity	48	8.3
Political Affiliation		
No Political Affiliation	257	44.6
Liberal Party	148	25.7
Conservative Party	64	11.1
New Democratic Party	61	10.6
Green Party	24	4.2
Le Bloc Quebecois	4	0.7
Other	18	3.1
Living Area Type		
Urban	456	79.2
Rural	120	20.8
Previous Police Interactions		
Positive Interactions	439	76.2
Negative Interactions	91	15.8
Arrested by Police	21	3.6
Previously suffered from an injury resulting in loss of consciousness	66	11.5
Previously witnessed someone else suffer from an injury resulting in loss of consciousness	155	26.9
Previously taken a course on topic of policing or police psychology	75	13.0

Materials

The same video-recorded scenario filmed from the three angles described in Study 1 was used in the current study (see Appendix A). Details of the use of force scenario and the camera equipment used to record the scenario are described in Chapter 2. The subject portrayed in the video in Study 1 was the complainant in the trial summary described below and the police officer

was the defendant. There were no differences in interpretations of the incident between the four video conditions in Study 1; however, the four video conditions were examined again in this study to ensure that these results do not differ in the context of a legal setting (i.e., criminal trial). Other kinds of judgments were also made in this study such as the defendant's credibility and their responsibility in determining the event's outcome.

A detailed trial summary was used that included details about a police officer criminally charged with assault causing bodily harm, which resulted from an interaction he had with the complainant. The trial summary included a summary of the event described by the judge, opening statements from the Crown and Defence, and summaries of testimony provided by a security guard, physicians, the complainant, and a use of force expert. The trial summary also included jury instructions (e.g., presumption of innocence, burden of proof, reasonable doubt, etc.), and information about the criminal charge (e.g., assault causing bodily harm). Canadian police officers, use of force experts, legal experts, and medical professionals (e.g., doctors) were used to consult on the development of the trial summary to ensure that it represented a realistic court trial process.

Five separate trial summaries were constructed and used in the five video conditions (e.g., four video conditions: BWC, Bystander Camera, Security Camera, All Camera Angles, and one no-video condition). The trial summaries provided the same information except for the addition or removal of the video evidence, depending on which condition the participant was placed in. One dispatch audio recording¹¹ along with its written transcript were also included in all trial summary conditions. This dispatch audio recording was one minute and 48 seconds long and was the original dispatch call made to the police officer prior to his response to the call. The

¹¹ The audio dispatch recording can be found at the following link:
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HWvh3ARDZEc>

trial summaries for the All Camera Angles, Security Video, BWC Video, Bystander Video, and No Video conditions, can be found in Appendices K, L, M, N, and O, respectively.

Measures

Perceptions of Trial Summary and Evidence

Rating scales. After viewing the camera angle(s) specific to their condition (or seeing no video footage) and reading the trial summary presented to them, participants were asked to indicate whether they felt the police officer in the case was guilty of assault causing bodily harm, and to describe the reason for their decision. All participants were then asked to give their ratings on Likert scales for: (1) how confident they feel in their verdict (0: not at all confident to 10: very confident), (2) how responsible they feel the police officer was for causing the complainant's injuries (0: not at all responsible to 10: very responsible), and (3) the level of punishment the police officer should receive (0: no punishment to 10: maximum punishment). Participants who viewed the video evidence were also asked how much they factored in the video recorded scenario as evidence (0: did not at all considered to 10: considered to full extent).

Questionnaires Measuring Individual Differences

The PLS (Cronbach's alphas in current sample: Lawfulness: .73, Procedural Fairness: .88, Distributive Fairness: .75, and Police Effectiveness: .66; see Appendix B), the RLAQ23 (Cronbach's alphas in current sample: Anti-Authoritarian: .86, Authoritarian: .53, and Equalitarian: .44; see Appendix C), and the NFC Short-Form (NFC-18; Cronbach's alpha in current sample was .86; see Appendix D) described in Chapter 2 were used in the current study. The biographic questionnaire described in Chapter 2 was also administered to participants (see Appendix E). Other psychometric information about these questionnaires from prior studies is reported in Chapter 2.

Procedure

The current study's procedure was similar to Study 1, with minor variations. Participants recruited through either University of Ottawa's ISPR or Carleton University's SONA online system were directed to a Qualtrics survey where they completed the study online. Participants completed the study from May 2019 to December 2019 and took approximately one hour to complete the online study. Participants accessed the study on their own time and on their own personal device.

Upon providing informed consent, participants were randomly assigned to review a trial summary that either had one camera angle of the scenario, all camera angles of the scenario, or no video of the scenario. Participants were then presented with information confirming that the complainant was seriously injured as a result of the incident, and that the police officer involved was criminally charged and is on trial for assault causing bodily harm. Participants were then presented with the appropriate detailed trial summary and video evidence, dependent on their condition; all participants were presented with the audio dispatch call as part of the evidence. Participants were then presented with information on the police officer's criminal charge and with juror instructions to make a verdict (e.g., information on presumption of innocence, burden of proof, and reasonable doubt).

Immediately after receiving the juror instructions, participants were asked to give a verdict of guilty or not guilty and explain their reasoning, as well as provide their ratings of confidence in their verdict, police officer responsibility, punishment recommendations for the police officer, and consideration of video-recorded scenario, for participants who viewed the video evidence. Participants were also asked three multiple-choice questions to ensure they were attentive to the study material and stimuli. These questions included: What was the gender of the

police officer?; Why was the subject/complainant/victim in the case arrested by the police officer?; and, what was the police officer charged with? Following the ratings, participants were asked to complete the PLS, the RLAQ23, and the NFC-18¹² in random order to control for order effects. Attention checks were also included in the questionnaires to ensure participants were responding appropriately to the questions. Lastly, participants were asked to complete the biographic questionnaire. Participants were then debriefed and invited to share any technical problems or general feedback about the study, and then provided with a second consent form to confirm they consent to the use of their data.

The recruitment advertisement used at both universities is presented in Appendix P. Consent and debriefing forms for University of Ottawa are presented in Appendices Q, R, and S, while these forms for Carleton University are presented in Appendices T, U, and V.

Results

Across all trial summary video conditions ($N = 576$), 495 participants (85.9%) rendered a verdict of guilty, compared to 81 participants (14.1%).

Video Condition and Judgment of Defendant

Responsibility and Credibility. Two one-way ANOVAs were conducted to examine the effects of video condition (BWC, Bystander, Security, All Camera Angles, No Video) on ratings of *Responsibility of the Defendant* (scale of 0: not at all responsible to 10: very responsible) and *Credibility of the Defendant* (scale of 0: not at all credible to 10: very credible). Descriptive statistics for each video condition are presented in Table 3.2. The Shapiro-Wilk's normality test

¹² Participants also completed one additional outcome measure and questionnaire that were not included in analyses for the current study: one open-ended question pertaining to their verdict (e.g., please briefly describe the reason for your verdict) and a 21-item survey that assesses attitudes regarding visual evidence (see Appendix F). These measures do not directly pertain to the current study hypotheses and therefore were excluded from the analyses. These data may be used in future research examining legal implications of police use of force videos.

indicated that the assumption of normality was violated in both analyses (i.e., $p < .001$); however, the large sample size of 576 protects against this violation (Statistics Solutions, 2013). A Levene's test indicated there was homogeneity of variances for the analysis using *Credibility of Defendant* as an outcome variable ($p = .37$), but this assumption was violated when using *Responsibility of Defendant* as the outcome variable; therefore, the Games-Howell post-hoc test was used to further examine group differences in this analysis.

Results indicated that there was a significant effect of video condition on ratings of *Responsibility of the Defendant*, $F(4, 571) = 3.30, p = .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .023$. A Games-Howell post-hoc test for multiple comparisons (used when the assumption of homogeneity of variances is violated) found that the mean value of *Responsibility of Defendant* was significantly different between the No Video condition and All Camera Angles condition, $p = .002$, 95% C.I. of the mean difference = [.43, 2.65], and the No Video Condition and BWC condition, $p = .01$, 95% C.I. = [.19, 2.22]. The difference between the No Video and Bystander Camera conditions, $p = .07$, 95% C.I. = [-.05, 2.05] as well as No Video and Security Camera conditions also approached significance, $p = .052$, 95% C.I. = [-.007, 2.08]. Results are illustrated in Figure 3.1.

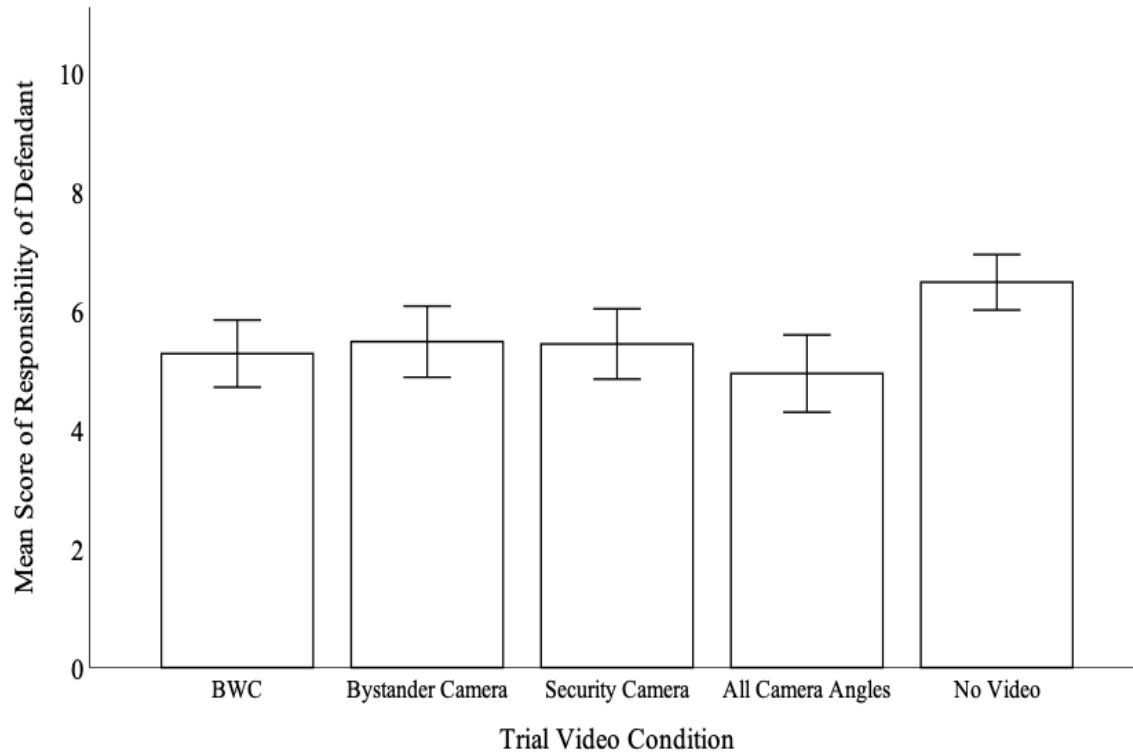
Table 3.2*Descriptive Statistics of Defendant Responsibility and Credibility across Video Conditions**(N = 576)*

	Outcome Measure	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max
Body Worn Camera (<i>n</i> = 120)	RD	5.28	3.12	0	10
	CD	6.53	2.33	0	10
Bystander Camera (<i>n</i> = 124)	RD	5.48	3.37	0	10
	CD	7.04	2.50	0	10
Security Camera (<i>n</i> = 121)	RD	5.45	3.28	0	10
	CD	6.76	2.62	0	10
All Camera Angles (<i>n</i> = 116)	RD	4.95	3.53	0	10
	CD	7.56	2.44	0	10
No Video (<i>n</i> = 95)	RD	6.48	2.29	1	10
	CD	5.89	2.03	1	10
All Conditions (<i>N</i> = 596)	RD	5.49	3.21	0	10
	CD	6.79	2.46	0	10

Note. RD: Responsibility of Defendant, CD: Credibility of Defendant

Figure 3.1

Bar Graph Depicting Video Condition for Mean of Responsibility of Defendant (0 = Not at All Responsible; 10 = Very Responsible)

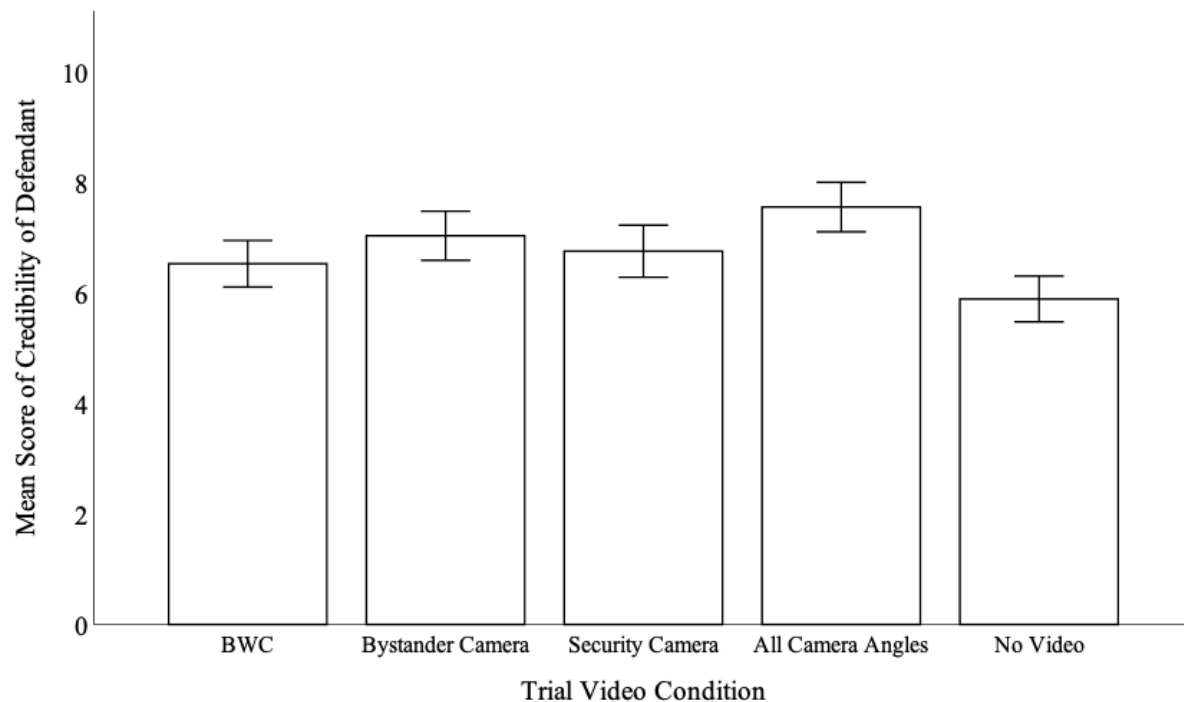


Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals

Results also indicated that there was a significant effect of video condition on ratings of *Credibility of the Defendant*, $F(4, 571) = 6.93, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .046$. A post-hoc Bonferroni test for multiple comparisons found that the mean value of *Credibility of Defendant* was significantly different between the No Video condition and All Camera Angles condition, $p < .001$, 95% C.I. = [-2.60, -.73], and the No Video condition and Bystander Camera condition, $p = .005$, 95% C.I. = [-2.07, -.22]. The difference between the BWC and All Camera Angles condition was also significant, $p = .01$, 95% C.I. = [-1.91, -.14]. Results are illustrated in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2

Bar Graph Depicting Video Condition for Mean of Credibility of Defendant. (0 = Not at All Credible; 10 = Very Credible)

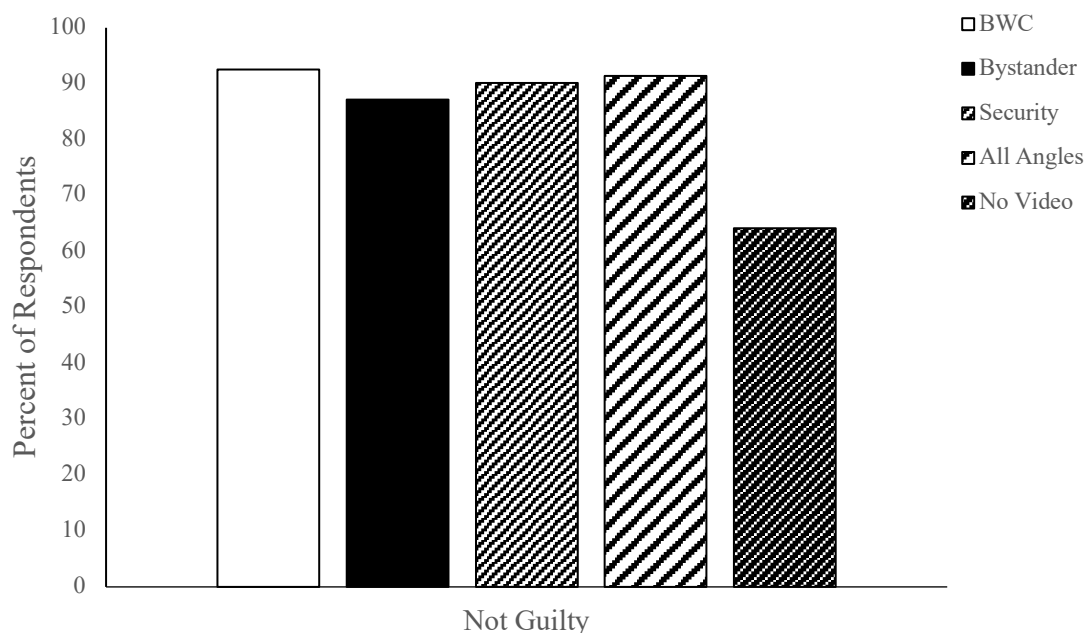


Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals

Verdict. The majority (85.9%) of participants across all trial summary conditions rendered a not guilty verdict for the police officer charged with assault causing bodily harm. Figure 3.3 presents the percent of respondents who rendered not guilty verdicts in each trial video condition.

Figure 3.3

Bar Graph Depicting the Percent of Respondents that Rendered Not Guilty Verdicts Within each Trial Video Condition



A binary logistic regression was conducted to determine whether participants in the No Video condition were significantly more likely to find the defendant guilty. The categorical video condition variable was the independent variable in the model and it was dummy coded to allow for comparisons among respondent verdicts in each video condition against a selected reference group. In this case, the No Video condition was selected as the reference group (as per Hypothesis 1).

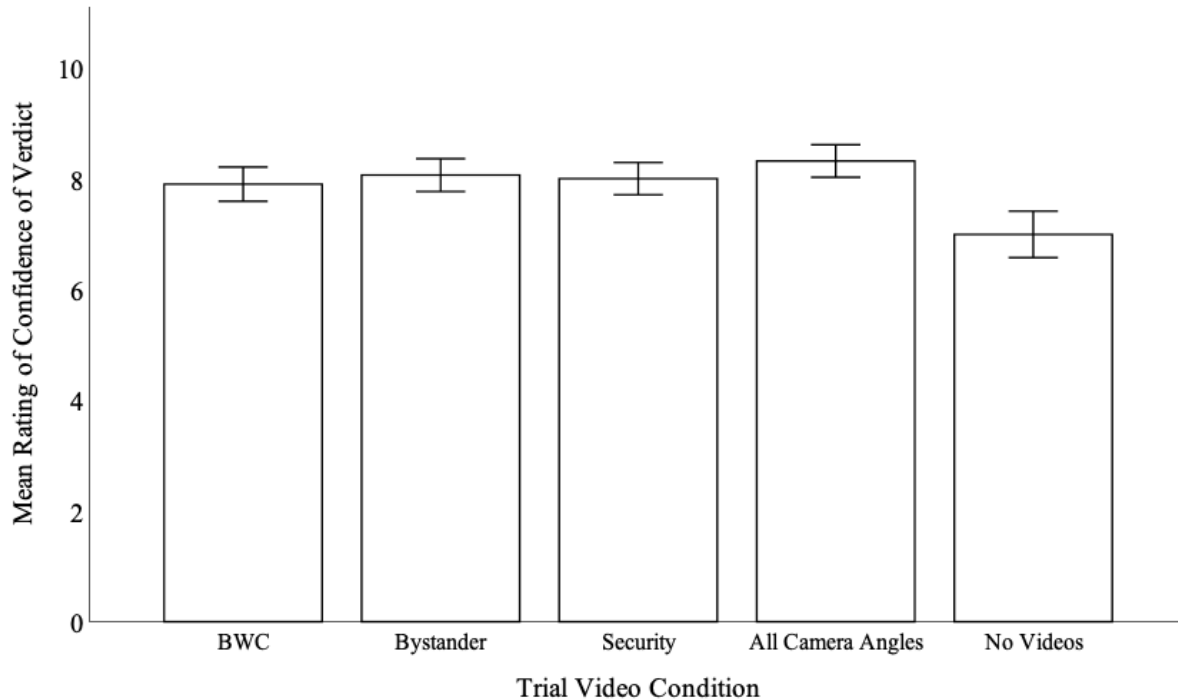
Results indicated that the logistic regression model was statistically significant, $\chi^2(4) = 42.97, p < .001$. The model explained 12% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in guilty verdicts and correctly classified 65.3% of cases. Sensitivity (i.e., true positives) was 61.7% and specificity (i.e., true negatives) was 65.9%. Positive predictive value was 22.8% and negative predictive value was 91.3%.

All four predictor variables comparing the No Video trial condition with the four trial video conditions were statistically significant. When compared with the No Video condition, participants had decreased odds of making a guilty verdict in the BWC condition, $B = -1.92, p < .001, OR = .15$, Bystander Camera condition, $B = -1.33, p < .001, OR = .27$, Security Camera Condition, $B = -1.62, p < .001, OR = .20$, and All Camera Angles condition, $B = -1.78, p < .001, OR = .17$. Therefore, participants were significantly less likely to find the defendant guilty when reviewing the trial summary that included video evidence.

Confidence of Verdict. A one-way ANOVA indicated that there was a significant effect of video condition on participants' ratings of Confidence (scale of 0: not at all confident to 10: very confident) regarding their verdict, $F(4, 571) = 8.69, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .057$ (see Figure 3.4). A Levene's test indicated there was homogeneity of variances ($p = .39$, based on median), and the assumption of normality was violated based on Shapiro-Wilk's normality test; however, the analysis was conducted as planned given the large sample size (Statistics Solutions, 2013). A post-hoc Bonferroni test for multiple comparisons found that the mean value of Confidence was significantly lower in the No Video condition, when compared with the BWC condition $p = .001$, 95% C.I. = $[-1.58, -.24]$, the Bystander condition, $p < .001$, 95% C.I. = $[-1.73, -.41]$, the Security condition, $p < .001$, 95% C.I. = $[-1.67, -.34]$, and the All Camera Angles condition, $p < .001$, 95% C.I. = $[-1.20, -.66]$. Taken together with the result that participants in the No Video condition were more likely to render a guilty verdict compared with participants who viewed trial summaries with video evidence, these findings suggest that participants were more likely to render a verdict of guilty when they had less evidence (e.g., no video evidence), even though they reported feeling less confident about it.

Figure 3.4

Bar Graph Depicting Video Condition for Mean Rating of Confidence of Verdict (0 = Not at All Confident; 10 = Very Confident)



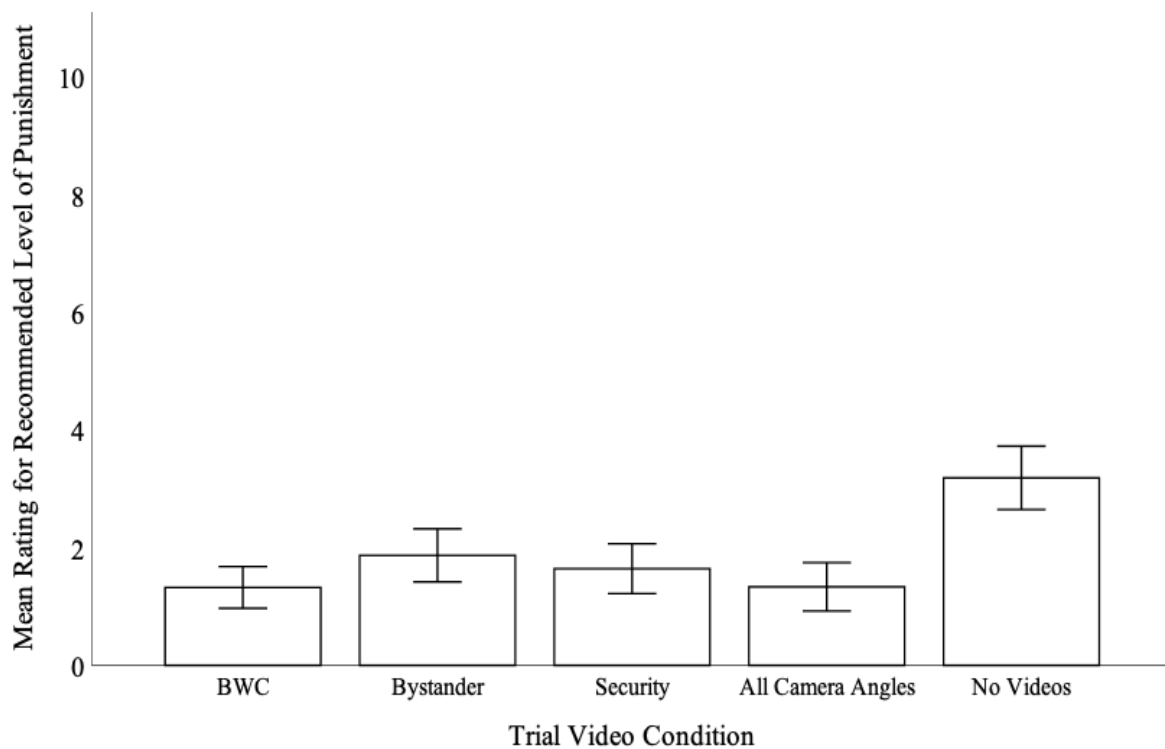
Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals

Punishment/Sentence. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to examine the effects of video condition (BWC, Bystander, Security, All Camera Angles, No Video) on ratings of Level of Punishment that participants believed the defendant deserves, if at all (scale of 0: no punishment at all to 10: maximum punishment). A significant difference between ratings of recommended Level of Punishment was found based on video condition, $F(4, 571) = 10.82, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .070$ (see Figure 3.5). A Levene's test indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated ($p = .005$, based on median); therefore, the Games-Howell post-hoc test was chosen for examination of group differences.

The Games-Howell post-hoc test found that the mean value of recommended Level of Punishment was significantly higher in the No Video condition, when compared with the BWC condition, $p < .001$, 95% C.I. = [.97, 2.76], the Bystander condition, $p = .002$, 95% C.I. = [.34, 2.29], the Security condition, $p < .001$, 95% C.I. = [.59, 2.50], and the All Camera Angles condition, $p < .001$, 95% C.I. = [.91, 2.80]. No other comparisons between video conditions were statistically significant. Therefore, participants who reviewed a trial summary without any video evidence were more likely to recommend a harsher punishment for the police officer.

Figure 3.5

Bar Graph Depicting Trial Video Condition for Mean Recommended Level of Punishment (0 = No Punishment at All; 10 = Maximum Punishment)



Note. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals

Police Legitimacy, Legal Attitudes, and Need for Cognition

Attention checks were included to ensure participants maintained their attention to each questionnaire and provided their most accurate responses. Of the 576 participants, 82 failed these attention checks, resulting in their exclusion from subsequent analyses, and a new total sample of 494.

A series of bivariate correlations were calculated to examine the relationships between the participants' questionnaire scores and their ratings of defendant responsibility, credibility, and level of punishment that should be assigned to the defendant. A point-biserial correlation was also calculated to examine the relationship between the questionnaire scores and the verdicts rendered by participants (not guilty or guilty). All correlations were conducted as 1-tailed tests, with the exception of the correlations for the RLAQ23: Equalitarian and NFC-18 Total Score, which were conducted as 2-tailed tests, as there were no specific directional hypotheses about those measures. These correlations are displayed in Table 3.3.

Police Legitimacy Scale (PLS). *Lawfulness* was significantly negatively correlated with *Verdict* and *Level of Punishment*, and positively correlated with *Credibility of Defendant*.

Procedural Fairness was significantly negatively correlated with *Responsibility of Defendant*, *Verdict*, and *Level of Punishment*, and positively correlated with *Credibility of Defendant*.

Distributive Fairness was significantly negatively correlated with *Verdict* and *Level of Punishment*, and positively correlated with *Credibility of Defendant*.

Revised Legal Attitudes Questionnaire (RLAQ23). *Anti-Authoritarian* was significantly positively correlated with *Responsibility of Defendant*, *Verdict*, and *Level of Punishment*. *Authoritarian* was significantly positively correlated with *Credibility of Defendant* and *Level of Punishment*.

Need for Cognition. *NFC-18 total score (NFC)* was significantly negatively correlated with *Verdict* and *Level of Punishment*.

Table 3.3

Correlations Between Scores on PLS, RLAQ23, and NFC-18 on Ratings of Responsibility of Defendant, Credibility of Defendant, Level of Punishment, and Verdict (N = 494)

	Responsibility of Defendant	Credibility of Defendant	Verdict (0: Not Guilty, 1: Guilty)	Level of Punishment
PLS: Lawfulness ^a	-.05	.13**	-.13*	-.17**
PLS: Procedural Fairness ^a	-.09*	.16**	-.19*	-.20**
PLS: Distributive Fairness ^a	-.05	.11*	-.11*	-.09*
PLS: Police Effectiveness ^a	-.01	-.003	.006	-.01
RLAQ23: Anti-Authoritarian ^a	.09*	-.05	.10*	.16*
RLAQ23: Authoritarian ^a	-.04	.08*	-.002	.09*
RLAQ23: Equalitarian ^b	.06	.03	.05	-.01
NFC-18 ^b	.08	.006	-.09*	-.15*

Note. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; ^a = 1-tailed correlations, ^b = 2-tailed correlations.

A series of bivariate correlations were also calculated to examine the relationships between the participants' questionnaire scores on the PLS subscales and the RLAQ23 subscales (see Table 3.4). Correlations between the PLS subscales and RLAQ23: Authoritarian and Anti-Authoritarian subscales were conducted as 1-tailed tests, while correlations with the Equalitarian subscale were 2-tailed tests. Scores on *Lawfulness*, *Procedural Fairness*, *Distributive Fairness*, and *Police Effectiveness* were significantly positively correlated with *Anti-Authoritarian* subscale scores, and negatively correlated with *Equalitarian* subscale scores. *Lawfulness*, *Procedural Fairness*, and *Distributive Fairness* were also significantly negatively correlated with *Anti-Authoritarian* subscale scores.

Table 3.4*Correlations Between Scores on the PLS and RLAQ23 (N = 494)*

	RLAQ23: Authoritarian ^a	RLAQ23: Anti-Authoritarian ^a	RLAQ23: Equalitarian ^b
PLS: Lawfulness	.32**	-.17**	-.22**
PLS: Procedural Fairness	.25**	-.21**	-.20**
PLS: Distributive Fairness	.32**	-.12**	-.24**
PLS: Police Effectiveness	.08*	-.04	-.11*

Note. * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$ (1-tailed); ^a = 1-tailed correlations, ^b = 2-tailed correlations.

Need for Cognition

The following analyses examined how participants' information processing style influenced their verdict about the defendant. For the participants who passed questionnaire attention checks and reviewed a trial summary with video evidence ($N = 408$; 4 video conditions), there was a non-significant positive relationship between NFC and participant ratings of how much they factored the video evidence into their verdict decision, $r = .07$, $p = .07$.

Four separate binary logistic regression analyses were also conducted to determine if NFC influenced the relationship between scores on the PLS and RLAQ23 questionnaire subscales (i.e., measuring attitudes towards the police and the legal system), and participant verdicts. Given that Lawfulness, Procedural Fairness, Distributive Fairness, and Anti-Authoritarian scores were significantly related to Verdict (see Table 3.3), these subscales were included in the moderation regression analyses. For each regression analysis, the continuous subscale variables were centered to avoid multicollinearity, and an interaction term was created between NFC and each PLS and RLAQ23 subscale used in the regression. The individual centered variables and corresponding interaction term were entered as predictors in each

regression model in a single step. Regression statistics are presented in Table 3.5 for all four regression analyses (referred to as Regression Model 1, 2, 3, and 4 below).

PLS Lawfulness. Regression Model 1 examined whether NFC influenced the relationship between Lawfulness and Verdict. The model was statistically significant, $\chi^2(3) = 13.35, p = .004$, explained approximately 5% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in guilty verdicts, and correctly classified 59.7% of cases. Lawfulness was a statistically significant predictor, and NFC approached significance ($p = .059$), but the interaction between Lawfulness and NFC was not statistically significant (see Table 3.5).

PLS Procedural Fairness. Regression Model 2 examined whether NFC influenced the relationship between Procedural Fairness and Verdict. The model was statistically significant, $\chi^2(3) = 22.15, p < .001$, explained approximately 9% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in guilty verdicts, and correctly classified 59.3% of cases. Procedural Fairness and NFC were statistically significant predictors, but the interaction between Procedural Fairness and NFC was not statistically significant (see Table 3.5).

PLS Distributive Fairness. Regression Model 3 examined whether NFC influenced the relationship between Distributive Fairness and Verdict. The model was statistically significant, $\chi^2(3) = 14.04, p = .003$, explained approximately 6% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in guilty verdicts, and correctly classified 53.2% of cases. Distributive Fairness and NFC were statistically significant predictors, and the interaction between Distributive Fairness and NFC approached significance ($p = .063$; see Table 3.5).

RLAQ23 Anti-Authoritarian. Regression Model 4 examined whether NFC influenced the relationship between Anti-Authoritarian and Verdict. The model was statistically significant, $\chi^2(3) = 10.07, p = .02$, explained approximately 4% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in guilty

verdicts, and correctly classified 49.2% of cases. Anti-Authoritarian and NFC were statistically significant predictors, but the interaction between Anti-Authoritarian and NFC was not statistically significant (see Table 3.5).

Table 3.5

Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Likelihood of Guilty Verdict Based on Video Condition

Model		<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Odds Ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
								Lower	Upper
1	Lawfulness	-.24	.08	8.70	1	.003	.79	.67	.92
	NFC	-.03	.02	3.56	1	.06	.97	.95	1.00
	Lawfulness*NFC	.003	.007	.22	1	.64	1.00	.99	1.02
	Constant	-2.22	.16	195.42	1	< .001	.11		
2	Procedural Fairness	-.16	.04	17.44	1	< .001	.85	.79	.92
	NFC	-.04	.02	6.32	1	.01	.96	.93	.99
	Procedural Fairness*NFC	-.003	.003	1.15	1	.28	1.00	.99	1.00
	Constant	-2.32	.17	184.07	1	< .001	1.00		
3	Distributive Fairness	-.22	.08	7.68	1	.006	.81	.69	.94
	NFC	-.04	.02	7.15	1	.008	.96	.98	1.00
	Distributive Fairness*NFC	-.01	.007	3.47	1	.06	.99	.98	1.00
	Constant	-2.27	.17	186.17	1	< .001	.10		
4	Anti-Authoritarian	.10	.04	5.73	1	.02	1.10	1.02	1.20
	NFC	-.03	.01	4.76	1	.03	.97	.94	1.00
	Anti-Authoritarian*NFC	.003	.004	.80	1	.37	1.00	1.00	1.01
	Constant	-2.21	.16	195.30	1	< .001	.11		

Discussion

The current study examined the implications of police use of force video evidence in a mock court setting and explored how individual differences in police and legal attitudes, and information processing styles, influence decisions made in this mock court. After reviewing one of five detailed trial summaries with corresponding visual evidence regarding a police officer on trial for assault causing bodily harm (trial summary including either BWC, Bystander Camera, Security Camera, All Camera Angles, or No Video), participants simulated jurors and provided judgments about the responsibility and credibility of the police officer and made a verdict about whether the police officer was guilty or not guilty. Participants also completed self-report questionnaires that assessed both their attitudes towards police and the legal system, and their information processing style (i.e., NFC).

Three main findings emerged from the analyses. First, participants in the trial summary condition that excluded video evidence (i.e., No Video condition) were more likely to find the police officer less credible, more responsible for his actions (i.e., the subject's injury), and were more likely to render a verdict of guilty and suggest a harsher punishment for the police officer in question, compared to all other trial summary video conditions. Second, participants with higher scores on police legitimacy were more likely to view the police officer as more credible, less responsible, and were more likely to render a verdict of not guilty and suggest a more lenient punishment for the police officer. Similarly, participants higher in anti-authoritarian attitudes viewed the police officer as more responsible, guilty, and suggested a harsher punishment. Third, in contrast to expectations, there was a non-significant difference between participant levels of NFC and whether they considered the video evidence when making judgments or decisions about the defendant. In addition, NFC levels did not influence the relationship between attitudes

about police or the legal system and judgments about the police officer or their verdicts. These findings are discussed in detail below according to each of the hypotheses tested in the current study. The study limitations are also discussed, along with recommendations for future research. A more general discussion can be found in Chapter 4.

Video Condition and Judgment of the Defendant

The results of this study support the hypothesis that participants who reviewed the trial summary without video evidence would view the police officer on trial as less credible and more responsible for his actions, and be more likely to render a verdict of guilty and recommend a harsher punishment. Participants were also less confident about their verdicts when they were not provided with video evidence. As seen in Study 1, there were no differences in judgment of the police officer across the four use of force video conditions, potentially due to the overall agreement amongst participants that the police officer was non-threatening, justified in his actions, and applied a reasonable level of force in the video. It is reasonable to assume that this general agreement about the police officer in the video would be replicated in the current study, and that participants would likely favour the police officer in a court setting based on what they viewed in the video (regardless of camera angle).

Another important point to highlight is that the trial summary included information that was both in favour of (e.g., defence attorney) and against (e.g., prosecution) the police officer, potentially introducing an element of ambiguity into the trial. When no visual evidence is provided that can confirm that the police officer was behaving appropriately, people may be tempted to take the side of the injured party. This could occur either because the defence attorney provided a strong case supporting a police misconduct finding, or perhaps because some

participants empathize with the subject who was injured during the police interaction and give them the benefit of the doubt.

More specifically, the injury caused to the victim may have stood out as the primary piece of evidence for some participants, as they may have believed that some police misconduct would have had to occur for the subject to become seriously injured. People may also be more likely to question police officers' actions when they are made aware of a case in which a public citizen was wounded at the hands of a police officer, with no BWC footage released from the police department (e.g., Magee, 2021; Westoll, 2020). Therefore, some participants may automatically assume the police officer's responsibility and believe an injustice occurred when there is no video evidence to suggest otherwise. The current social climate regarding police use of force could have also played a role for participants who sided with the defence.

The results also indicated that participants who reviewed the trial summary with the BWC evidence viewed the police officer as less credible compared to participants who reviewed the trial summary with all three pieces of video evidence (i.e., All Camera Angles). A similar result was seen in Study 1 in that differences in perceptions about the police officer in the video were found between participants who viewed the BWC and All Camera Angles conditions, when considering the influence of police legitimacy (i.e., attitudes towards police). Like Study 1, the differences in credibility ratings noted in Study 2 may be due to the ambiguity of the BWC video and the fact that the viewer cannot clearly see the police officer's actions in the moment when the subject fell (and thus, observers cannot be certain of the police officer's credibility with no other visual evidence to confirm in his favour). The trial summary that included all three video recordings presumably provided enough evidence to eliminate a camera perspective bias regarding the police officer's credibility in this study. As previously discussed in Study 1, and

found in prior research (e.g., Jones et al., 2019), providing more information about a scenario may eliminate the influence of camera bias.

The difference found between the BWC and All Camera Angles likely did not extend to ratings of police officer responsibility because participants who viewed the BWC video recording also perceived the actions of the suspect and likely attributed partial responsibility of the incident to that individual (especially given that participants were also provided with contextual information in the video recording, such as the subject's background and criminal activity). This was also observed in Study 1, where many participants reported that the subject was unjustified in his actions. Similarly, this finding in Study 2 likely did not translate to rendered verdicts because the ambiguity in the case did not provide enough evidence to question whether the police officer's guilt was beyond a reasonable doubt, with all the contextual information included.

Pre-Existing Biases

Participants who endorsed high levels of police legitimacy also had higher levels of authoritarian attitudes and lower levels of anti-authoritarian attitudes. Individuals with low levels of police legitimacy with regards to Lawfulness, Procedural Fairness, and Distributive Fairness were more likely to view the police officer as less credible, render a verdict of guilty, and recommend a harsher punishment. Lower levels of procedural fairness were also associated with increased likelihood of viewing the police officer as more responsible for his actions.

Participants who endorsed higher levels of anti-authoritarian values were also more likely to view the police officer as more responsible, render a verdict of not guilty, and recommend a harsher punishment.

These results support the hypotheses that individuals with negative attitudes towards the police will likely be harsher in judging a police officer in a court setting, and that low scores on police legitimacy will be associated with lower scores on authoritarian values and higher scores on anti-authoritarian beliefs. These findings also lend support to Devine's (2012) director's cut model of jury decision-making, which suggests that people's courtroom decisions are influenced by pre-existing beliefs. These findings expand on the results from Study 1 that attitudes and pre-existing biases about police may impact interpretations of use of force videos. More specifically, the current findings suggest that the impact of these attitudes and pre-existing biases extends past simple judgment and interpretation; they may also influence high-stakes and consequential decisions about the use of force in legal settings. Given that Canadian jurors can be appointed from the general adult population within Canada, these results call attention to the fact that potential Canadian jurors' attitudes towards police may relate to decisions made in trials regarding police use of force.

Need for Cognition

It was expected that individuals with high levels of NFC would be more likely to factor in the video evidence when making their verdicts, but this was not the case. While research suggests that individuals who are motivated to engage in effortful thinking are more likely to evaluate evidence prior to making decisions (Cacioppo et al., 1996), perhaps in this case a significant effect was not found because the majority of participants heavily relied on the video evidence to make their judgments and verdicts. This seems reasonable, given that participants were much more likely to render a verdict of *not guilty* when presented with the video evidence.

It was also expected that individuals with high NFC would be more likely to render verdicts in line with their pre-existing biases and attitudes towards police and the legal system, as

was found with participants who judged the same use of force video in Study 1. However, this hypothesis was also not supported. There was a significant relationship between high NFC and a likelihood to render a *not guilty* verdict, but NFC did not influence the relationship between attitudes towards police or the legal system and participants' verdicts. Perhaps the role of NFC is critical only when making judgments about the video, but the need to seek out additional information to support their views lessens when people are provided with more information, such as detailed testimony and information included in the trial summaries (Leippe et al., 2004; McAuliff & Kovera, 2008). It is possible that a more ambiguous or controversial police use of force scenario would have led to a different result. A real court setting may have also resulted in a moderation effect of NFC given additional elements such as jury deliberations, which involves thoughtful discussion between jurors about the findings of the court while they are deciding on a verdict. Attending trial proceedings in person would also give the juror the opportunity to observe witness statements and all parties involved. This may reinforce their biases and attitudes and trigger one's NFC to either seek information to support their views, or interpret the situation based on their gut reaction.

Limitations

The results of the current study highlight the implications of relying on video evidence of police use of force scenarios in legal settings. However, there were several limitations with the study that are often considered in jury studies. Limitations that apply more generally to both studies will be detailed in the general discussion, presented in Chapter 4.

While Canadian jury research often utilizes trial summaries to represent elements included in a court trial, they require participants to carefully read the material and sustain their attention, which can add considerable length to the study. Trial summaries can also present a lot

of information to take in at one time; information that is often spread out over days, weeks, or even months in a real court setting, allowing time for jury members to consolidate and think about the information. Trial summaries also exclude factors that are present in person, which may influence decisions. For example, observing and listening to a lawyer or witness with a persuasive demeanour may influence a person's view of the trial.

Given that participants in this study were registered undergraduate university students, the current study's sample included some 17-year-old participants. Canadian jurors are required to be at least 18 years of age, which limits the ecological validity of the study, despite the fact that these 17-year-old participants will soon be of legal juror age. The majority of participants were the required juror age, however, and results did not differ when re-analyzed without the 50 participants who were not 18 yet. Also impacting ecological validity, the current study only examined individual participant responses, and did not include a jury deliberation component, which is part of the real-world jury decision-making process. While some research suggests that individual pre-deliberation verdicts often predict the jury's final verdict (e.g., Devine et al., 2007), other studies contradict this notion and suggest that deliberation may modify pre-deliberation verdicts (e.g., Salerno & Diamond, 2010).

The trial summaries used in the current study were created with expertise from jury researchers and other experts in the field. For example, a physician was consulted when composing the physician witness testimony, and a police officer subject matter expert in use of force was consulted regarding the use of force expert testimony and protocol for a police officer on trial. Despite these attempts to make the trial summary as realistic as possible, responses may have been different if there were real-world consequences to participants' decisions (e.g., Bornstein et al., 2017). There also may be various interpretations or understandings of the

concept of ‘beyond a reasonable doubt’, despite efforts to carefully define its meaning prior to participants rendering their verdicts.

Study 1 found that the video used in both studies was generally perceived as non-threatening due to several factors (e.g., simulated scenario, designed to present a police officer conducting correct procedures), which may have influenced the results in Study 2. There was overwhelming agreement among participants in the current study (86%) that the police officer defendant was not guilty and should receive a low level of punishment, which suggests that these participants also generally agreed the police officer depicted in the video was non-threatening and justified. A camera perspective bias might have emerged if the video either excluded contextual information or was more controversial (e.g., use of lethal force). The results indicated that more ambiguity (e.g., trial summary with no video evidence) leads to less agreement (and confidence) about the police officer’s guilt; therefore, relying on use of force videos that lack crucial information (e.g., audio, video quality, context), or videos that are generally less obvious in demonstrating an appropriate police response, might result in more guilty verdicts depending on the video that is viewed (e.g., camera perspective bias). Therefore, the findings of this study may be specific to the content and information included in the specific videos used as evidence. Results may have also differed if the injured subject was a different race or gender, and participants might have rendered more guilty verdicts if the subject was killed by the police officer.

Conclusion and Implications

The results from Study 2 provide some insights about how mock jurors in a police use of force trial render verdicts based on trial and video evidence. Findings revealed that (1) individuals were more likely to render a guilty verdict for a police officer defendant, and suggest

a harsher punishment, when they were presented with trial information that excluded video evidence, (2) the police officer was viewed as less credible and more responsible for the complainant's injuries when there was no video evidence, (3) pre-existing attitudes about the police and the legal system influenced jurors' judgments of the police officer as well as their verdicts, and (4) NFC did not influence the relationships between participant attitudes about police and judgments about the police officer or their verdicts. These results highlight the value of using video evidence in police use of force trials and how pre-existing biases and attitudes can impact juror decision-making. These results will be discussed more generally in the next chapter.

Chapter 4: General Discussion

This program of research aimed to understand how the camera perspective bias, pre-existing attitudes about police and the legal system, and information processing style influenced observer judgments, interpretations, and legal decisions of a video-recorded police use of force incident. Study 1 revealed that despite observing a different camera angle of the police scenario (e.g., BWC, bystander, security, all camera angles), participants did not differ in their judgments (e.g., justification of actions) regarding the police officer and subject in the video; however, a camera bias emerged when taking into account beliefs about police legitimacy. The results also indicated that participants with high scores on police legitimacy and low scores on anti-authoritarianism had more favourable views about the police officer depicted in the video. Participants with a high NFC were also more likely to make judgments about the police officer in the video that were in line with their pre-existing attitudes about police legitimacy and the legal system.

Study 2 revealed that participant verdicts in a mock juror setting did not differ as a function of camera angle, but participants who were exposed to the BWC viewed the police officer as less credible compared with those who viewed all three camera angles of the video. Participants were also more likely to find the police officer guilty of assault causing bodily harm, suggest a harsher punishment, and view him as less credible and more responsible, when they were presented with the trial information that excluded video evidence. Participants with higher scores on police legitimacy and lower scores on anti-authoritarianism also viewed the police officer on trial less favourably. Having a high need for cognition was associated with a higher likelihood of rendering ‘not guilty’ verdicts, but did not significantly influence the relationship between attitudes about police and judgments about the police officer on trial.

These results aid in understanding the implications of relying on police use of force videos and may be helpful in guiding future research and police practice with regards to their use of BWC technology. The remainder of this chapter speaks to these issues and more generally discusses the camera perspective bias, factors influencing video interpretation, and the use of BWC technology in policing. The chapter concludes by highlighting some general limitations associated with the program of research and proposes future research directions.

Camera Perspective Bias

The camera perspective bias refers to the notion that a camera angle of a video-recorded event can impact viewers' perceptions or interpretations of the event (Lassiter & Irvine, 1986). Some have suggested that the camera perspective bias is the result of the illusory causation effect – that people assign causality to the stimulus most salient in the frame (e.g., McArthur, 1980; Taylor & Fiske, 1975). The illusory causation theory of the camera perspective bias was not supported in this program of research. For this theory to be supported, participants would have had to view the subject as more threatening and less justified than the police officer in the BWC condition in Study 1 and render more 'not guilty' verdicts for the police officer in the BWC trial video condition in Study 2.

Similarly, to conclude that a general camera perspective bias was found, this would require participants to have viewed the police officer or subject either more or less favourably in any one camera angle condition in Study 1, or to differ in their verdicts for one trial video condition over the others in Study 2. Instead, the current program of research found general agreement across video conditions regarding the threat and justification of actions of the police officer and subject in Study 1. In Study 2, there were no differences in verdicts rendered between the four trial conditions that included video evidence. The only significant differences that did

emerge were between the no video evidence condition and the other conditions (e.g., more guilty verdicts in the no video evidence condition). This suggests that not having video evidence for trials involving police use of force could increase the likelihood of a police officer being found guilty for a charge associated with excessive use of force.

These results raise the question as to whether a camera perspective bias exists in the context of police use of force videos. While the examination of this issue is relatively new, the results of the current two studies differ from the results of other recent studies on this topic. Jones et al. (2019) found that a police officer was viewed more favourably in a BWC police use of force video, compared with surveillance footage, and Turner et al. (2019) found that the police officer was viewed more favourably in a BWC police use of force video, compared with dash-cam footage. In contrast, Boivin et al. (2017) found that in some circumstances, BWC footage led to more criticisms of a police officer, compared with the surveillance footage. All of these studies suggest that police use of force videos are susceptible to a camera perspective bias, despite not always supporting the theory of illusory causation (e.g., Boivin et al., 2017), which has been repeatedly supported in the police interrogation literature (e.g., Lassiter et al., 2007).

The question that remains is why studies looking at the interrogation of suspects consistently supports a robust camera perspective bias (i.e., illusory causation effect), while the results are more variable in the police use of force context. Perhaps that can be explained by fundamental differences between the two types of scenarios. Police interrogation videos are often quite uniform with respect to the location of the interaction (e.g., police interrogation room) and the positioning of the subject (e.g., seated); such videos are also less likely to result in harmful behaviours such as violence. In contrast, police use of force videos are variable with respect to location, positioning, and behaviours/actions that occur; these videos can include variable levels

of force (e.g., physical control, baton, OC spray, taser, firearm) and may result in physical violence or death, potentially evoking strong emotional reactions. Police use of force videos may also be more politicized, especially with the increased number of such videos that have been made available through the media. On the other hand, police interrogation videos may not be as emotionally arousing for viewers, which may interfere less with their judgments, potentially decreasing susceptibility of personal biases and increasing susceptibility to the illusory causation effect.

Therefore, perhaps more variability with respect to the camera perspective bias occurs in the police use of force context because the emotionally charged content invites the influence of additional factors like pre-existing biases on the interpretation of the videos. Likely because of increased media coverage of police use of force events in today's society, there is an increased tendency to scrutinize police when they are involved in a use of force incident and a subject is harmed, and pre-existing biases about the police will inevitably come into play. If aware of this, police officers on trial may choose to be tried by a judge alone when permitted to do so, especially if they feel that the evidence against them, including available footage, is ambiguous and could be misinterpreted. In cases where the charges are so serious that a trial by jury is required (e.g., murder; Corrick & Rosenberg, n.d.), certain social narratives might come into play when jurors view evidence and footage, which is a problem (given expectations for jurors to be impartial).

Factors Influencing Video Interpretation

Despite not finding a general support for a camera perspective bias, this program of research suggests that some other factors *may* influence video interpretations, including

contextual factors and ambiguity of the video, and pre-existing attitudes about police and the legal system.

Context and Ambiguity of Video Recordings

The specific details of the event depicted in the video used in this research may have influenced how the video was interpreted by participants. For example, the video may have safeguarded the police officer from criticism, as it might have presented details that do not align with a person's 'script' about police brutality. The video was designed so that the police officer conducted himself appropriately, and it included clear audio that communicated the reason he responded to the call, as well as the dialog between the officer and subject.

There was some ambiguity that emerged from the BWC video that may have led to questions about the police officer's credibility; however, it appears that the police officer's appropriate conduct was conveyed to observers, given the overall agreement around the non-threatening nature of the video, and the overwhelming percentage of not guilty verdicts provided by mock jurors who viewed the video evidence. This might have been different if the videos provided less context (e.g., no sound or poor sound quality), potentially leading the observer to fill in the missing pieces according to their beliefs, as outlined in the director's cut model of jury decision-making (Devine, 2012). This was arguably demonstrated in Study 2, where mock-jurors rendered more guilty verdicts for the police officer when they were presented with trial information and testimonies without video evidence.

This finding highlights the emphasis placed on video evidence in police use of force trials. In cases where video evidence is available, it is evident that the belief about what jurors observe in the video directly impacts their verdicts. In the current research, there was a general agreement that the video depicted a police officer acting in an appropriate manner; however,

what happens when this is not the case?; or when the events occurring in the video are more ambiguous?; or even when multiple videos show contrasting observable information? Under these circumstances, erroneous judgments may occur, which may favour either the police officer or complainant, and result in unfair legal decisions.

In these cases, perhaps the inclusion of expert witnesses during criminal trials regarding police use of force may alleviate any confusion around the events that are observed. Recent research has found that mock jurors were less likely to render guilty verdicts for a police officer on trial for using lethal force when they were presented with expert testimony detailing information about police use of force (Ellingwood, 2019). Perhaps this way of educating jurors may be useful for increasing understanding of complex use of force incidents, or providing greater clarity to ambiguous or confusing evidence, when there are serious legal implications for defendants (i.e., in a courtroom trial).

Individual Differences Among Viewers

Interpretations of the police use of force videos used in the current research were influenced by pre-existing attitudes and beliefs people have about the police and the legal system. The potential implications of this general finding were made most apparent in the mock trial examined in Study 2. In the video-recorded scenario presented to the mock jurors in that study, the police officer carried out appropriate police procedures during his interaction with the subject, but some mock-jurors still viewed the officer as guilty, due in part to their pre-existing attitudes about the police. This suggests that when video evidence is paired with the sort of ambiguity that is often presented in the competing narratives of a courtroom trial, participants may rely on their pre-existing notions or *scripts* that they have about police officers and their use

of force, which may be based on some of the more problematic cases presented in the media (e.g., George Floyd case).

Therefore, legal professionals and trial judges may want to consider implementing strategies that could reduce the influence of pre-existing biases or attitudes on jury verdicts. For example, potential jurors could be more thoroughly screened for their beliefs about police legitimacy and use of force, and their prior experiences with police, during the challenge for cause process of jury selection. Chancellor (2019) argued that it is unrealistic to expect that jurors will be unaffected by portrayals of an accused person in the news and social media. Consequently, she suggests that courts should consider more challenge for cause cases to combat the issue of juror partiality, especially where there has been media coverage relevant to the case (as will likely happen in cases involving serious levels of police use of force).

Judges may also consider modifying jury instructions about bias to emphasize the importance of setting aside preconceived notions they might have about police when making their verdict. Some research suggests that this is possible, and has raised some considerations about the timing of these instructions (e.g., Kassin & Wrightsman, 1979; Wegener et al., 2000). That is, presentation of juror instructions prior to the trial evidence may prevent jurors from formulating their story (e.g., Pennington & Hastie, 1988) about the events in question based on their biased interpretation of the evidence. Once jurors have formed their story about the defendant, any instructions to refrain from biased decision-making may have a lesser impact. There is precedent in Canada for considering modified jury instructions to reduce bias. For example, in the case of *R. v. Barton* a set of specialized jury instructions were used to reduce juror prejudice towards Indigenous female complainants who were victims of sexual assault

(Alexander & de Luca, 2019; Franks, 2019). Similar sorts of instructions may have benefits in trials involving police use of force.

Finally, similar to the reason behind including expert witnesses in these kinds of trials, perhaps more transparency from police agencies regarding their work may aid in eliminating some of the pre-conceived notions that people have about the police, including their use of force. Research suggests that the public has misconceptions about police use of force that include overestimations of the frequency with which police officers use force during their interactions with the public and the severity of that force (Bennell et al., 2021). More transparency from police services may help educate the public about these issues, which could have positive implications for the police generally, and for trials involving police use of force specifically. This might include offering police ride-alongs or interactive information sessions to citizens to provide them with opportunities to learn more about police use of force (Bennell et al., 2021), or it might include the creation of an open access, publicly available national use of force database in Canada, which would also help to achieve this objective (Bennell et al., 2021).

BWC Technology in Policing

The findings of the current program of research support the use of BWC evidence in police use of force trials where a police officer has been accused of using excessive force. Video footage from BWCs may be helpful for understanding what transpired in a scenario, especially in cases where there is no other video evidence available. However, police agencies and policy-makers need to be informed about the limitations of BWCs for the purpose of recording police use of force incidents, and also be transparent about these limitations with the public. Jurors should also be made aware of these limitations when BWC footage is being used as evidence in trials.

The intention of the BWC is to illustrate a police officer's perspective of an incident and show what the officer sees when they respond to a call (Coudert et al., 2015); however, BWC videos should not be emphasized over other videos just because they are designed to capture a police officer's perspective of a scenario. As made clear in the results of Study 2, other video evidence also has potential value in the courtroom and BWCs are limited in various ways. For example, BWCs have a restricted frame of reference, which excludes many elements of a use of force scenario that can influence how a police officer responds to a scenario. Not only may BWCs not capture peripheral information, BWCs obviously do not capture the range of internal processes that influence how an officer responds (e.g., physiological arousal, perceptual distortions, cognitive biases; Nielsen, 1981). These can include things like heightened visual detail, diminished or intensified sound, experience of time passing in either slow or fast motion, and an experience of tunnel vision (Artwohl & Christensen, 1997; Klinger & Brunson, 2009).

In some cases, including in this current program of research, BWC footage may also present a somewhat ambiguous version of an interaction (e.g., because it is only directed at the subject) and it may lack clarity (e.g., due to sporadic movement, a blocked camera lens, a muffled microphone; Lewinski, 2015). Perhaps these cameras may produce more useful footage at increased distances, although some research suggests that this may pose other problems for depth perception in cases where the police use force (e.g., Boivin et al., 2017). Relying on multiple videos of an event will usually be preferable. This will likely minimize distorted perceptions of an event and provide essential contextual information, which may increase accuracy of interpretations.

Despite the limitations of BWCs, police agencies may find it worthwhile to continue investing in this technology for their police officers. Based on the results of the current research,

BWC videos do seem to add value compared to situations where there is no video evidence available. Additionally, and given that context may be an important factor when interpreting these kinds of videos, police services can ensure they did their part in attempting to document evidence that provides all relevant information necessary to understand the events that took place in the video. Some police officers may be concerned that BWCs violate citizens' privacy, or they may be worried that viewers will misinterpret the events captured in a BWC video. But, if visual evidence is going to surface in the media anyways, which may lead to potentially skewed perceptions of the recorded event, at least the police will be able to provide evidence that provides a more comprehensive account of a police-citizen interaction, especially in legal settings. Routine use of BWCs in policing will also likely increase public perceptions of transparency of police procedures, which may, in turn, increase trust in the police and support for their role in communities.

Limitations and Strengths of this Research

The current program of research, comprised of the two studies described in this dissertation, included several limitations that were detailed in the discussion sections of the two studies. These included the overall non-threatening and simulated nature of the video used in the studies, and the restrictions associated with the mock-juror research paradigm adopted in Study 2 (i.e., use of trial summaries; exclusion of jury deliberation procedures). However, the two studies also included a number of shared limitations with regards to the methodology, which are described below.

First, both samples were comprised of educated university undergraduate students, who are often skilled at critically thinking about controversial and divisive topics like police use of force (e.g., Thalmayer et al., 2021). A community sample would likely have been more

representative of the general population who view use of force videos in the media (e.g., with respect to age). This is especially true with regards to jury members used in a criminal trial. A meta-analysis conducted by Devine and Caughlin (2014) found that using an undergraduate sample instead of a community sample did not significantly impact results in jury research, but the sample collected in Study 2 may still cause concerns for generalizability.

Drawing on younger adult samples may have also influenced the scores on the questionnaires regarding police and legal attitudes. For example, older participants tend to be more satisfied with the police, compared to younger participants (Cheng, 2015; Dai et al., 2019; Italiano et al., 2021; O'Connor, 2008), potentially because older people may require more assistance from police or because police have a gentler approach with the older (more vulnerable) population. Other research has also found that older people are more likely to view the police as 'legitimate' (Hinds & Murphy, 2007), and hold authoritarian beliefs (Scheepers et al., 1990). Therefore, it is possible that a sample of individuals from the broader community would have produced different results in both studies (e.g., less general agreement regarding the justification of the police officer in the video).

Second, both studies had a high proportion of female participants (66% and 73% in Study 1 and 2, respectively), which is not reflective of the Canadian adult population from which jury members are selected from (Statistics Canada, 2020). Gender differences regarding legal decision-making (e.g., Najdowski & Weintraub, 2020) and attitudes towards the police (e.g., Girgenti-Malone et al., 2017) may have also influenced the results in both studies. Unfortunately, the sample sizes in both studies were insufficient to assess gender differences across video conditions to determine if gender impacts the camera perspective bias, but that is something that should be carefully examined in the future.

Third, and similar to the limitation described above, the racial make-up of our samples does not reflect the distribution of races within the Canadian population (Statistics Canada, 2017). This is a significant concern because Black and Indigenous Canadians view the police less favourably compared to White and South Asian Canadians (e.g., Sprott & Doob, 2014); however, the current studies did not have adequate cell sizes to conduct comparison analyses between the various minority groups to determine whether race influenced the camera perspective bias or attitudes towards police and the legal system. While analyses could have compared White respondents to the remainder of the sample, the high number of Asian and South Asian participants in our samples would likely have influenced this result given that Black and Indigenous Canadians are the groups that tend to have more harmful experiences with the police (Mosher, 1998; Samuels-Wortley, 2021; Tator & Henry, 2006) and view them more negatively (e.g., Ewanation, 2021; Sprott & Doob, 2014).

Fourth, participants completed the studies via an online platform from a personal device (e.g., laptop, phone, tablet) and from a place of their convenience (e.g., home, bus, campus). Not only does this compromise the ecological validity of the jury study reported in Study 2, it also invites problems with technical difficulties such as audio/video playback errors and increases the likelihood for distractions that may take attention away from the study. Attempts were made to mitigate these issues through various attention checks and questions about technical difficulties, but the possibility remains that these issues may have influenced participant responses.

Lastly, the use of self-report measures can be susceptible to biased responses on various survey items (e.g., Chan, 2010), and may have influenced participant questionnaire scores, despite assurances of anonymity and confidentiality for their participation. For example, participants may report the more socially acceptable response rather than their honest answer,

when responding to questionnaire items about their attitudes (e.g., Latkin et al., 2017). Caution is also warranted when interpreting the results associated with the RLAQ23 in the two studies due to low internal consistency on subscales for the current samples (e.g., Cronbach's alphas ranging from .43 - .55). The self-report questionnaires also added a significant amount of time to the study, which resulted in some failed attention checks and a reduced sample size when analyzing the questionnaire data.

Despite these limitations, there were also many strengths associated with the studies. First, the studies had large samples, which produced high statistical power, resulting in a decreased likelihood of Type II errors. Second, the studies included random assignment of participants to conditions using a between-subjects design, which enhanced internal validity. Third, to enhance the ecological validity of the studies, the police use of force scenario was created in consultation with a police officer with experience of police use of force scenarios who has testified in court as an expert witness on the topic. The same police officer also attended the video filming session to assist in guiding the actors on how to conduct themselves to ensure the scenario was realistic. Lastly, the trial summaries used in Study 2 were also constructed in consultation with experts relevant to the trial circumstances (police officer use of force expert, physician, legal psychology researcher), providing a realistic element to the mock juror study.

Future Research Directions

Future research should examine how the camera perspective bias applies to other police use of force videos. For example, including video footage that depicts different kinds of use of force (e.g., baton, taser, firearms) or scenarios similar to those that surface in the media may aid in understanding what other factors contribute to judgments of police incidents. Real-world police use of force videos differ with respect to the contextual information included in them (e.g.,

inclusion of sound and background information about the police call), and examining how this information is factored into judgments about these kinds of videos could inform police agencies and BWC manufacturers about the kind of information they should aim to include when recording interactions with the public (i.e., capturing dispatch information on BWCs). Further, understanding how pre-existing biases and a person's information processing style influences decisions in more emotionally charged and controversial police incidents may help further discern how people interpret these videos.

Future research should also examine how these factors contribute to legal decision-making (e.g., courtroom verdicts) to better understand their legal implications. More specifically, research needs to explore how pre-existing attitudes and scripts about the police influence how juror narratives are formed when a police officer is accused in a criminal trial. There is also a need to further understand how videos of police use of force are interpreted and incorporated into juror narratives. The current program of research suggests that a lack of video evidence in court can influence decisions; however, this result needs further exploration to determine if it replicates or differs when using other police use of force videos, and various kinds of trial information (i.e., testimonies). For example, a real-world scenario depicting a police officer using lethal force may be more controversial and provoke an amplified emotional response, which ultimately might lead to more guilty verdicts for a police officer accused of harming a subject, regardless of whether video evidence is available.

Lastly, future studies that focus on police use of force videos and their legal implications should also examine how the race and gender of a subject and/or police officer, as well as the research participants, contributes to interpretations of video evidence and decisions made in court. The use of community samples (versus undergraduate student samples) may also more

accurately reflect the views and decisions that will be endorsed by the general public when exposed to these types of videos. Conducting juror studies using other components from real-world court settings, such as in-person mock-juror studies with a deliberation component, may also increase ecological validity. These kinds of research studies are crucial to better understand factors that contribute to the interpretation of police use of force videos and their legal implications. Such studies may also help inform methods that can be used to reduce potential biases in courtroom settings.

Conclusion

Altogether, the results from Study 1 and 2 help us understand how people interpret use of force videos and the consequences that may result from those interpretations. When observing these videos, the goal is to be able to tell what happened in the scenario so that any inappropriate behaviours –on the part of police officers or subjects – are suitably sanctioned, and that neither party is unnecessarily publicly shamed or penalized. The results from this program of research emphasize the value placed on video footage when interpreting the events that take place in a use of force incident. The research also highlights the role that pre-existing attitudes about the police and the legal system play when people must interpret police use of force videos. These findings could have serious implications for those involved in these events, especially if the cases go to court. Consequently, it is imperative that researchers continue to investigate issues regarding police use of force videos. Police agencies and courts of law may find it helpful to incorporate relevant research results into their practices and procedures.

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Appendix A

Use of Force Scenario Script

Black Screen – Dispatch radio begins scenario:

Dispatch: *Bravo 16, sending you a call; campus security has received a call that a “Curtis Moore”, was seen breaking into cars and taking contents in their campus parking lot. Security advises that police told them yesterday that there is an outstanding warrant for Moore for similar thefts committed earlier in the week in the same place. Caller states that they were told to call police if Moore was spotted...stand by...CPIC confirms outstanding warrant for theft entered for Curtis Moore yesterday, subject is arrestable on warrant out of our office, File 2018-18908.*

*Security still has eyes on the subject via security camera; subject is presently in the atrium of the **** Building on North Campus, described as approximately 5’5”, 140 lbs Caucasian male, jeans, red hoodie, sitting alone on the bench. CPIC shows no prior convictions or cautions. No security officers are available to meet yet, they are tied up on a protest on the other side of the campus.*

Constable Scott Malone: *Copy that, I know Moore, and it is actually my theft case and warrant entry. He was cooperative last time we spoke, I’ll pick him up – send back up routine. I’m already on site.*

Dispatch: *Copy that, cover car routine for Bravo 16?*

Bravo 7 (second officer): *Bravo 7, I’ll be 10-17 routine, ETA 5 minutes.*

Constable Malone: *Dispatch, Bravo 16, I’m heading into the building and I can see Moore in the atrium, building ***, North Campus. I’ll be with him. 5 minute timer please.*

Scene begins:

Constable Malone walks in building and immediately verbally engages Moore (walks till about 2 meters away from subject). Identifies himself as police, and calls Curtis by name. It is clear they know each other. Cst. Malone explains that he saw a video of Moore stealing from cars and that there is a warrant for his arrest.

SCRIPT	Behaviours
Cst. Malone: <i>Hi Curtis, “Police”, It’s me, Cst. Malone from *** Police Department, can we go outside and have a chat?</i>	Said Calmly
Subject: <i>No I want to stay here.</i>	Arrogant attitude, as if disinterested
Cst. Malone: <i>Okay well you have been seen on video stealing from cars in the parking lot here two days ago and then again today, and there is a warrant for your arrest.</i>	Calmly stated

<i>Right now, you are under arrest for theft and mischief to property.</i>	
Subject: <i>No way, I'm not going anywhere.</i>	Still arrogant and acting as if officer presence is a nuisance to him (No violent posturing from subject)
Cst. Malone: <i>I understand you don't want to go anywhere, but this is not a debate. You are under arrest. You'll be given a chance to talk to a lawyer later – and as this is a first offence; please don't make things worse by resisting arrest. You are under arrest, turn around and put your hands behind your back, do it now.</i>	Remains and calm and continues de-escalation -left hand up in front of body, right hand on side. - commands are firm but not “yelling”
Subject: <i>No, screw you. I said I don't wanna go anywhere. I'm not under arrest, that's illegal procedure and there's no proof. Send it to my lawyer, you can't touch me. I'll sue you. Go munch a donut.</i>	No violent precursors in subject (no clenched fists or overt anger), just firm protesting and snarky attitude.
Cst. Malone: <i>Curtis, you are under arrest. You don't want to make things worse by resisting...it will only add more charges. Turn around and put your hands behind your back – Do it Now!</i>	Firmly and clearly stated, closing distance in slowly to subject till 1 meter away)
Cst. Malone: <i>Curtis ... come on - please don't run, we can both get hurt and it will add more charges.</i>	Subject begins to back away, looking around as if to run. Cst. Malone Recognizes that Moore may run
Cst. Malone: <i>You are under arrest stop trying to run!</i>	Subject begins to back pedal rapidly (still facing constable), and constable uses his left arm to grab subject's right arm (Cst. Right arm remains by side – ready to access tools if needed but not indexing anything)
Subject: <i>No, FU&* you! I'm not going anywhere! Brutality – somebody help me! Police Brutality! He's assaulting me! Help!</i>	Subject starts to flail and resist by pulling violently backward
Cst. Malone: <i>Stop Resisting, Stop resisting.</i>	Keeping his grip on subjects wrist
Subject: <i>'ah' or groan while falling</i>	The grip is lost and subject stumbles backward. Cst Malone reaches and steps forward toward subject to stop him from falling as subject tries to regain footing. Subject falls backward onto the

	ground striking his head on the ground. He is unconscious.
Cst. Malone into his radio: Dispatch Bravo 16! I need EHS Code 3. <i>Subject has fallen, hit his head, and is unconscious! I need an ambulance to my location.</i>	Cst. Looks behind him after fall to check scene (Police training to look behind periodically)
	After few seconds subject goes into seizure – SCENE FADES.

For purpose of court case:

Curtis Moore suffered a head injury, a seizure, and remained unconscious for 3 days. He suffered a concussion and the one seizure, and claims to suffer from chronic headaches that prevent him from obtaining work and has developed a dependence on painkillers (2 months after the event). Although he can only remember the events up until the constable engaged in conversation with him and nothing more, he is suing the police department alleging that he was forcefully pushed to the ground by police and would never fight a police officer – has no history of violence at all (20 years old). Witnesses describe hearing shouts from Moore stating he was being beaten by police and turned to see him falling / hit the ground immediately after. Some witnesses heard police saying “Stop Resisting” but no one other than person filing saw the entire encounter.

2 video angles from rear look like a push. Side angle shows it was Moore’s own actions resisting arrest that caused him to fall.

Appendix B

Police Legitimacy Scale

Please Rate the statements below on the following scale.

Very Unlikely 1	Unlikely 2	Likely 3	Very Likely 4
1. When the police deal with people, they always behave according to the law.			_____
2. If I were to talk to police officers in my community, I would find their values to be very similar to my own.			_____
3. The police act in ways that are consistent with my own moral values.			_____
4. The police treat citizens with respect.			_____
5. The police take time to listen to people.			_____
6. The police treat people fairly.			_____
7. The police respect citizens' rights.			_____
8. The police are courteous to citizens they come into contact with.			_____
9. The police treat everyone with dignity.			_____
10. The police make decisions based on the facts.			_____
11. The police provide the same quality of service to all citizens.			_____
12. The police enforce the law consistently when dealing with people.			_____
13. The police make sure citizens receive the outcomes they deserve under the law.			_____
14. Crime levels in my neighbourhood have changed for the better in the last year.			_____
15. There are not many instances of crime in my neighbourhood.			_____
16. I feel safe walking in my neighbourhood.			_____

Appendix C

Revised Legal Attitudes Questionnaire (RLAQ23)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

Anti-Authoritarian Sub-Scale

1. Unfair treatment of underprivileged groups and classes is the chief cause of crime.
2. No one should be convicted of a crime on the basis of circumstantial evidence, no matter how strong such evidence is.
3. Wiretapping by anyone or for any reason should be completely illegal.
4. Because of the oppression and persecution minority group members suffer, they deserve leniency and special treatment in the courts.
5. A society with true freedom and equality for all would have very little crime.
6. When there is a "hung" jury in a criminal case, the defendant should always be freed and the indictment dismissed.

Authoritarian Sub-Scale

1. Too many obviously guilty persons escape punishment because of legal technicalities.
2. Evidence illegally obtained should be admissible in court if such evidence is the only way of obtaining a conviction.
3. Any person who resists arrest commits a crime.
4. Defendants in a criminal case should be required to take the witness stand.
5. Accused persons should be required to take lie-detector tests.
6. Police should be allowed to arrest and question suspicious looking persons to determine whether they have been up to something illegal.
7. The law coddles criminals to the detriment of society.
8. Upstanding citizens have nothing to fear from the police.

Equalitarian Sub-Scale

1. Search warrants should clearly specify the person or things to be seized.
2. There is no need in a criminal case for the accused to prove his innocence beyond a reasonable doubt.
3. When determining a person's guilt or innocence, the existence of a prior arrest record should not be considered.
4. All too often, minority group members do not get fair trials.
5. Citizens need to be protected against excess police power as well as against criminals.
6. It is better for society that several guilty men be freed than one innocent one wrongfully imprisoned.
7. It is moral and ethical for a lawyer to represent a defendant in a criminal case even when he believes his client is guilty.
8. The freedom of society is endangered as much by zealous law enforcement as by the acts of individual criminals.
9. In the long run, liberty is more important than order.

Appendix D

Need for Cognition Scale (NFC-18)

Extremely uncharacteristic of me	Somewhat uncharacteristic of me	Uncertain	Somewhat characteristic of me	Extremely characteristic of me
1	2	3	4	5

1. I prefer complex to simple problems	
2. I like to have the responsibility of handling a situation that requires a lot of thinking	
3. Thinking is not my idea of fun**	
4. I would rather do something that requires little thought than something that is sure to challenge my thinking abilities.**	
5. I try to anticipate and avoid situations where there is a likely chance I will have to think in depth about something.**	
6. I find satisfaction in deliberating hard and for long hours.	
7. I only think as hard as I have to.**	
8. I prefer to think about small daily projects to long term ones.**	
9. I like tasks that require little thought once I've learned them.**	
10. The idea of relying on thought to make my way to the top appeals to me.	
11. I really enjoy a task that involves coming up with new solutions to problems.	
12. Learning new ways to think doesn't excite me very much.**	
13. I prefer my life to be filled with puzzles I must solve.	
14. The notion of thinking abstractly is appealing to me.	
15. I would prefer a task that is intellectual, difficult, and important to one that is somewhat important but does not require much thought.	
16. I feel relief rather than satisfaction after completing a task that requires a lot of mental effort.**	
17. It's enough for me that something gets the job done; I don't care how or why it works.**	
18. I usually end up deliberating about issues even when they do not affect me personally.	

Appendix E

Biographic Questionnaire

Please answer the following questions by checking the appropriate box or writing your answer in the space provided.

1. What is your age? _____ (years)

2. What is your gender? _____

3. What is your ethnic background?

☐ Caucasian/White

☐ African Canadian/Black

☐ First Nations/Aboriginal Canadian/Native Canadian

☐ Asian

☐ East Indian

☐ Hispanic/Latino

☐ Middle Eastern

☐ Other (please specify): _____

4. Please indicate the type of area where you live:

☐ Rural

☐ Urban

5. Please indicate your political affiliation:

☐ Conservative Party

☐ Liberal Party

☐ New Democratic Party

- ☐ Green Party
- ☐ Le Bloc Quebecois
- ☐ I have no political affiliation
- ☐ Other (please specify): _____

6. Please indicate your level of education:

- ☐ some high school
- ☐ graduated high school
- ☐ some college/university
- ☐ graduated college/university bachelors
- ☐ graduated with a graduate degree (Master's, Ph.D.)
- ☐ medical degree
- ☐ Other: Please specify _____

7. Are you, or have you ever been, a law enforcement officer, a correctional worker, or a security guard?

- ☐ Yes (please specify): _____
- ☐ No

8. Have you had any positive interactions with the police?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

9. Have you had any negative interactions with the police?

- ☐ Yes

☐ No

Please Explain:

10. Have you ever been arrested by the police?

☐ Yes (please specify): _____

☐ No

Appendix F

Survey: Beliefs Regarding Visual Evidence

Please indicate for each statement whether you strongly agree, agree, somewhat agree, neutral, somewhat disagree, disagree, strongly disagree.

1. A photograph tells the truth by providing an image.

Please explain why: _____

2. A video recording tells the truth about the recorded event?

Please explain why: _____

3. A photograph can be altered/manipulated after the photo has been taken.

4. A video can be altered/manipulated after the video was recorded.

5. In court, I would view a video recording from a police officer (via a body worn camera) as more credible than a video recording from a bystander (via a cell phone or handheld camera).

Please explain why: _____

6. In court, I would view video evidence of a potential crime presented by the prosecution as more credible than video evidence presented by the defence (the lawyer representing the accused)?

Please explain why: _____

7. In court, I would view video evidence of a potential crime introduced by the judge to be more credible than video evidence presented by the prosecution or the defence.

Please explain why: _____

8. A photograph of an incident gives a more accurate account than eyewitness testimony of the same incident.

Please explain why: _____

9. A video of an incident gives a more accurate account than eyewitness testimony of the same incident.

Please explain why: _____

10. During an incident where a police officer had to use force on a suspect, the officer said they turned on their body worn camera, but it did not record. If you were to hear this explanation in a court case involving allegations of excessive use of force by the police officer, would your tendency be to view this officer as:

- Being dishonest
- Telling the truth
- Other. Please explain _____

Please indicate for each statement whether you strongly agree, agree, somewhat agree, neutral, somewhat disagree, disagree, strongly disagree.

11. Video produced from body worn cameras is consistently of very high visual quality.

12. Audio produced from body worn cameras is consistently of very high sound quality.

13. Can a camera capture depth perception?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

14. Can a video recorder capture depth perception?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

15. Can a camera capture a scene in poor lighting or darkness better than the human eye can see?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

16. Can a video recorder record a scene in poor lighting or darkness better than the human eye can see?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

17. Can a video recorder record a scene as fast as the human visual system can process that scene?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

18. Can a video recorder pick up on subtle threat cues (for example, tensing of a suspect's body, flash of metal), the same as the human visual system can?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

19. An officer testifies in a use of force court case that he was standing beside a bush, but a video of the incident shows it was a mailbox. Would your tendency be to view this officer as:

- Dishonest
- Mistaken (i.e., did not remember the detail correctly)
- Not sure

- Other. Please explain _____

20. An officer testifies in a use of force court case that the suspect was lunging at him with a bat, but the video shows the suspect was walking with a bat. Would your tendency be to view this officer as:

- Dishonest
- Mistaken (i.e., did not remember the detail correctly)
- Not sure
- Other. Please explain _____

21. If you were presented with gruesome evidence of a violent crime as a member of a jury, such as a bloodied body of a victim, under which condition do you think that evidence would have the greatest emotional impact on you (rate each method of presentation from (1) least impact, to (4) most impact):

- If the evidence was presented in video format
- If the evidence was presented in photographic form
- If the evidence was presented through verbal testimony (an audio description of the evidence)
- If the evidence was presented in transcript form (a text description of the evidence)

Appendix G

Study 1: Advertisement for Recruitment

Study Name: Police Incidents on Camera

Description:

The aim of this online study is to examine people's perceptions of a video-recorded incident involving a police officer and a suspect. Participants will be asked to view a short video depicting an interaction between a police officer and a suspect. Participants will then be asked a series of questions about what they saw in the video, followed by questionnaires to understand their attitudes and cognitions. Please note that for this study, participants must read, write, and understand English well, and should not work as a police officer either currently or in the past. This study will take about 1 hour to complete, and can complete the study from their own computer at home. Participants will be compensated with one course credit.

Appendix H

Study 1: Consent Form 1 (Prior to Completing Study)

CONSENT FORM FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPATION

Title of the study: Police Incidents on Camera

Primary Researcher:

Dr. Martin Lalumière (PhD), University of Ottawa, School of Psychology,

Experimenter:

Natasha Korva (PhD student), University of Ottawa, School of Psychology,

Co-Investigators:

Dr. Craig Bennell, Carleton University (PhD)

Invitation to Participate: I am invited to participate in this research study conducted by Dr. Martin Lalumière and Natasha Korva, University of Ottawa, Dr. Craig Bennell at Carleton University.

Purpose of the Study: The purpose of the study is to investigate how people perceive police use-of-force incidents that have been recorded on camera.

Participation: My participation in this online study will consist of watching a short video depicting an interaction between a police officer and a suspect. After viewing the video (approximately 1 minute), I will be asked a series of questions about my perceptions of the incident that occurred in the video (approximately 20 minutes). I will also then complete a demographics questionnaire assessing my background, and two questionnaires about cognition style and views on policing (approximately 35 minutes).

Once I have completed the questionnaires, I will be provided with a debriefing form, and given course credit. The whole study will take approximately 1 hour to complete.

Eligibility: To participate, I am required to have a solid understanding of the English language. I will be excluded from taking part in this study if I have worked as a police officer or other law enforcement professional.

Risks: My participation in this study will entail that I volunteer personal information about my thoughts, perceptions, and feelings. Additionally, I will be asked to view a video that may be unpleasant and may contain some upsetting content. It is possible that I may experience some emotional discomfort when answering questionnaires related to my thoughts about the video. If at any time I feel uncomfortable, I can choose to withdraw from the study without any negative consequences. In addition, upon completion of or withdrawal from this study, I will be provided with a list of self-help and professional resources, should I be interested in receiving more information and/or professional help related to any mental health issues.

In addition, the online study is hosted by Qualtrics, a USA company. All communications to/from the Qualtrics servers are encrypted using TLS (Transport Layer Security). For research at Canadian institutions, Qualtrics stores their data in Ireland.

Benefits: My participation will inform future research about perceptions of incidents involving police.

Confidentiality and Anonymity: I have received assurances from the researcher that the information I will share will remain strictly confidential. All of the information that I will provide during the experiment will be stored anonymously. When I enter the study, I will be assigned a participant identification number and all of the information that I provide is only identified by this number, not my name. The results from the study will likely be presented in several formats, including journal articles, oral presentations, poster presentations, and the thesis of Dr. Lalumière's graduate student. The data will never be presented with personal information, such as my name.

In order to minimize the risk of security breaches and to help ensure your confidentiality we recommend that you use standard safety measures such as signing out of your account, closing your browser and locking your screen or device when you are no longer using them / when you have completed the study.

Conservation of Data: The data collected in this study will be kept in a secure manner. Electronic copies of the data will be stored on password-protected computers. All data will be backed up on a password-protected hard-drive, which will be kept in a locked filing cabinet in the Lalumière Laboratory. The electronic data in the Lalumière Laboratory will be stored indefinitely on protected computers and hard-drive. Only the primary researcher and co-researchers will have access to the data.

Compensation: In return for my participation in this study, I will be compensated with one (1) course credit through ISPR. If I choose to withdraw from the study at any time, I will still receive this compensation.

Voluntary Participation: I am under no obligation to participate and if I choose to participate, I can withdraw from the study at any time during the experimental session and/or refuse to answer any questionnaire items, without suffering any negative consequences. If I wish to stop participating, I will simply exit out of the online survey. If I choose to withdraw during the experimental session, all data gathered until the time of withdrawal will not be used.

If I have any questions about the study, I may contact the primary researcher or the experimenter.

If I have any questions regarding the ethical conduct of this study, I may contact the Protocol Officer for Ethics in Research, University of Ottawa, Tabaret Hall, 550 Cumberland Street, Room 154, Ottawa, ON K1N 6N5, Tel.: 613-562-5387, Email: ethics@uottawa.ca

Please indicate if you agree to participate in the above research study conducted by Dr. Lalumière of the School of Psychology at the University of Ottawa, by clicking the appropriate button below.

‘I Consent’

‘I do not Consent’

Note: Please Print/Save a copy of this page for your records.

Appendix I**Study 1: Consent Form 2 (After Debriefing)****CONSENT FORM FOR USE OF DATA**

Title of the study: Police Incidents on Camera

Thank you for completing the study. Now that you have been debriefed about the study, you have the option to release your responses to us for the purpose of the study, or to withdraw your participation without consequence.

Please indicate if you agree to release your responses and data for the purpose of the study conducted by Dr. Lalumière of the School of Psychology at the University of Ottawa. Please indicate by clicking the appropriate button below.

‘I Consent to release of my data’

‘I do not Consent to release of my data, and instead choose to withdraw my participation from the study’

Please Note that the data is anonymous, and cannot be withdrawn once you consent to the release of your data.

Appendix J

Study 1: Debriefing Form

DEBRIEFING FORM FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPATION

Title: Police Incidents on Camera

Please note that the video recorded scenario that you viewed was not a real incident. It was acted out using actors, and recorded for the purpose of this study. All events that you viewed in the video were staged, and no individuals were harmed in any way.

Purpose of the Study

The aim of this study was to examine how people perceive police use-of-force incidents taken from different camera angles. Despite the increased number of police use-of-force videos circulating in the media and recent recommendations to equip police officers with body worn cameras, surprisingly little research has been conducted on potential viewing biases that may impact how these videos are interpreted. Based on previous studies suggesting that a camera's point of view influences observer perceptions and understanding (Lassiter & Irvine, 1986), the angle at which a use-of-force encounter is recorded may have consequences for relying on video evidence of a police use-of-force encounter. Our study attempts to understand how various camera angles can impact a person's interpretation of a police scenario, and further understand the implications.

Note

If as a result of participating in this study you have felt any distress or discomfort, please contact the following counselling services free of charge:

- University of Ottawa Counselling and Coaching Services:
- 613-562-5200
- 100 Marie-Curie, 4th floor, above the Campus Pharmacy
- couns@uOttawa.ca

If you have any further comments or questions, or would like information about the results of the study, please contact the experimenter Natasha Korva or the principle investigator Dr. Martin Lalumière.

For further reading, if interested:

Boivin, R., Gendron, A., Faubert, C., & Poulin, B. (2017). The body-worn camera perspective bias. *Journal of Experimental Criminology*, 1-18.

Thank you

Thank you for participating in this study. Your time and effort are greatly appreciated.

Appendix K

Trial Summary – All Camera Angle Video Condition

Disclaimer: The following case is a summary of court trial for a police officer charged with assault causing bodily harm. For the purpose of the study, the proceedings have been condensed into summary form. Participants should only consider what is provided and make no assumptions about rule of law or absent information.

Please read and review the following case details carefully.

Judge: *The accused Scott Raymond Malone is charged that he on or about the 17th day of April of 2017 at 10:07am, at or near Toronto, Ontario did unlawfully cause bodily harm to Mr. Curtis Moore contrary to section 267(b) of the criminal code. The Crown alleges that the accused used excessive force during an arrest of the victim, resulting in bodily harm. Under the law, the Crown has the burden of proving that the defendant is guilty of these charges beyond a reasonable doubt. It is your responsibility to decide the facts, review the evidence, and apply the law that I will give you at the end of the trial. The case will commence with the Crown Prosecutor and Defence Attorney providing opening statements. The facts will then be summarized for you and any evidence will be provided to you. Following this, you will be asked to make a decision as to whether the defendant is guilty or not guilty.*

Opening statements

Crown Prosecutor Opening Statement: *The evidence will show that Constable Scott Malone, while affecting an arrest, used excessive force given the totality of the circumstances. Constable Malone did push Mr. Moore, who had taken no aggressive actions, willfully and forcefully causing him to fall and suffer a traumatic brain injury, separated shoulder, and a seizure at the time of the incident. Cst. Malone's actions given the circumstances, were excessive and not in accordance with police procedure or the criminal code, and therefore justify a conviction for an assault causing bodily harm.*

Defence Attorney Opening Statement: *Constable Scott Malone was attending a call for service, and was justified in placing Mr. Moore under arrest, due to an outstanding warrant. Mr. Moore resisted arrest by pulling away from Cst. Malone, and lost his own balance and fell. During this fall, Mr. Moore fell back against a wall. My Moore's own actions are the cause of his own injuries, and in fact Cst Malone tried to stop Mr. Moore from falling and rendered immediate assistance.*

Judge: *I have before me a joint submission from Defence and Crown on a set of agreed statements of facts:*

- The complainant was subject to lawful arrest for an outstanding warrant.*
- The accused, Constable Scott Malone, was the first police officer to respond to the scene, had formed the intent to affect an arrest and called for back up.*

- *Constable Malone had engaged Mr. Moore prior to the arrival of back up, and had verbally placed Mr. Moore under arrest.*
- *Constable Malone had made physical contact with Mr. Moore with the intent to complete the lawful arrest by placing Mr. Moore in handcuffs.*

-The backup constable arrived at 10:15am.

-The ambulance arrived at 10:17am.

-The complainant, Mr. Curtis Moore, was transported to the Hospital immediately after the event for his injuries, where he remained an "inpatient" in care for a period of 1 week.

Physical evidence agreed upon as entered by Defence and Crown

Evidence: Dispatch Call

On April 17 of 2017, at approximately 10:07am, Cst. Scott Malone responded to a dispatch call about a suspect breaking into cars in the parking lot of Humber College. This dispatch call has been recorded and transcribed, and entered as evidence, on agreed statement of facts.

Please take a moment to review this evidence.

► Play Recording

Display Transcript

Dispatch: Bravo 16, sending you a call; campus security has received a call that a "Curtis Moore", was seen breaking into cars and taking contents in their campus parking lot. Security advises that police told them yesterday that there is an outstanding warrant for Moore for similar thefts committed earlier in the week in the same place. Caller states that they were told to call police if Moore was spotted...stand by...CPIC confirms outstanding warrant for theft entered for Curtis Moore yesterday, subject is arrestable on warrant out of our office, File 2018-18908.

Security still has eyes on the subject via security camera; subject is presently in the atrium of the **** Building on North Campus, described as approximately 5'5", 140 lbs Caucasian male, jeans, red hoodie, sitting alone on the bench. CPIC shows no prior convictions or cautions. No security officers are available to meet yet, they are tied up on a protest on the other side of the campus.

Constable Scott Malone: Copy that, I know Moore, and it is actually my theft case and warrant entry. He was cooperative last time we spoke, I'll pick him up – send back up routine. I'm already on site.

Dispatch: Copy that, cover car routine for Bravo 16?

Bravo 7 (second officer): Bravo 7, I'll be 10-17 routine, ETA 5 minutes.

Constable Malone: Dispatch, Bravo 16, I'm heading into the building and I can see Moore in the atrium, building ***, North Campus. I'll be with him. 5-minute timer please.

This concludes the preliminary agreed evidence submissions.

Witness: Security Officer

The Crown called upon Security Guard, Mr. Andrew Campbell, to testify at the trial and give his accounts of his actions and the event that he witnessed through the security camera on campus.

Summary of Evidence Given:

Mr. Andrew Campbell is a security guard at Humber College, and was the individual who called 911 the day of the incident. Mr. Campbell indicated that he called the police because he received reports that there was a male breaking into cars in the parking lot at Humber College Campus. The male was seen breaking into cars one previous time the same week, and was told to call the police if he was seen on campus again. Mr. Campbell then advised the 911 dispatcher that the suspect was last seen in the atrium of a building on campus. A few minutes later, the security guard witnessed the interaction between the police officer and Mr. Moore in that same atrium, through the security camera. He indicated that he saw them talking, and then a quick motion followed by Mr. Moore's fall to the floor. He then saw the officer step back, look around and then attempt to help Mr. Moore. Mr. Campbell reported that the whole event happened really fast, and that he then saw Mr. Moore have what looked like a seizure on the floor. The ambulance was then called to the scene, and Mr. Campbell did not see anything after their arrival to the scene.

Evidence: Security footage

Both the Crown Prosecutor and the Defence Attorney agreed to enter the security camera video as evidence.

Instructions:

[1] You are going to see a video tape of the security camera footage from the event. Please watch and listen to it very carefully.

[2] As you watch and listen to this tape, be careful to distinguish between what Cst. Malone says and what others on the tape are saying. What the others say might help you figure out what Cst. Malone says and what his words mean. However, Cst. Malone can be held responsible only for what he actually says, not for what others say.

In other words, what others say may provide a context for understanding what Cst. Malone says; but only Cst. Malone's words, as understood in this context, can be used as evidence of what Cst. Malone has done or intended to do.

Should posturing or body Language play a role in communicating, be prepared to explain.

► Play recording of security video.

Witnesses: Physicians

The Crown Prosecutor called the physician who assessed Mr. Moore at the time of the incident to testify. Dr. Ethan Hughes is a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians of Canada, and specializes in neurology. Dr. Hughes indicated that Mr. Moore was admitted to the intensive care unit at Toronto General Hospital and placed on a ventilator, as he was unconscious. Dr. Hughes said that he first assessed Mr. Moore on April 17, 2017 at approximately 2:57pm, after we was extubated off the ventilator. After Mr. Moore awoke, he reported that he had no memory of the event prior to his fall. Mr. Moore exhibited symptoms of memory loss, agitation, confusion, nausea and vomiting, persistent headaches, dizziness, fatigue, sensitivity to light, and post trauma amnesia. Dr. Hughes reported that a CAT scan of Mr. Moore's brain indicated a small subdural hematoma about 2mm in thickness. This is more commonly known as a blood clot on the brain's surface, beneath the skull. There was no skull fracture present, and there were no other signs of damage to the brain. Dr. Hughes's assessment was that Mr. Moore suffered from a Moderate Traumatic Brain Injury.

Dr. Hughes reported that he completed a follow-up assessment of Mr. Moore's head trauma two months following his discharge from the hospital. The follow-up CAT scan indicated that the subdural hematoma had subsided, but Mr. Moore still had symptoms of headaches, fatigue, memory loss, sensitivity to light, and was reporting symptoms of depression.

Dr. Hughes also noted that Mr. Moore had a seizure for approximately 55 seconds immediately after hitting his head during the time of the incident. However, no other seizures were reported after Mr. Moore regained consciousness.

The Crown Prosecutor called the physician who assessed Mr. Moore's external injuries at the time of the incident to testify. Dr. Gary Mullens is a Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Canada and specializes in sports medicine and orthopedics. Dr. Mullens testified that an X-Ray was used to evaluate the degree of the shoulder injury, and indicated a suspected dislocation. A follow-up MRI report indicated that the fall caused a complete tear of the acromioclavicular ligament, and a partial tear of the coracoclavicular ligament. This injury is more commonly known as a 'separated shoulder', which can often be caused from direct impact such as falling on the shoulder. Mr. Moore's symptom presentation is typical of a type 2 Injury, in which the acromioclavicular ligament is completely torn, and the Coracoclavicular ligament may be partially torn. Surgery was not required for the injury, but Mr. Moore was required to keep his arm in a sling for up to 6 weeks, and then seek physiotherapy for at least 3 months following the removal of the sling.

Note: blood results from hospital showed no traces of drugs or alcohol use by Mr. Moore on the night of the incident.

Complainant: The Victim/Suspect

The Defence called Mr. Curtis Moore to the stand to testify, and give his account of how the injury is affecting his daily life. While testifying, Mr. Moore stated the following,

“All I remember is that at one moment I was in the school, and then I just remember waking up in the hospital later that day. My doctor says that I suffered a head injury, which is why I have no memory of the event with the police officer. I have ongoing headaches, and can’t concentrate so I can’t work. I was told that I had a seizure at the time of the event, so I’m really scared that it’s going to happen again at some point. I also keep having nightmares about having a seizure and waking up in the hospital. It’s really scary because I can’t remember what happened. I also really hurt my shoulder from the fall, and even after weekly physio, it still isn’t back to normal yet, so it’s still hard to do simple tasks like grocery shopping where I have to lift and carry heavy bags. The whole incident has left me terrified of police. I’ve never been in trouble before...yea I was taking change from cars and I would have owned up to that but it’s no reason for a giant cop with a chip on his shoulder to beat me half to death. He beat me unconscious”.

Evidence: Body Worn Video Camera

The police officer was wearing a body worn video camera during the time of the incident. The body camera was worn on the Cst. Malone’s chest and was activated during the whole interaction with Mr. Moore.

The Crown Prosecutor stated that the video shows the police officer pushing Mr. Moore, who was taking no aggressive actions during the incident. The push was so forceful that it caused him to strike his head, be rendered unconscious and fall, uncontrolled on his shoulder. The single forceful push was the cause of serious injuries and unjustified (excessive force) given that Mr. Moore had taken no aggressive actions.

The Defence counsel stated that the video displays Mr. Moore resisting arrest by backing up and flailing and arm that Cst. Malone was trying to control (after being placed lawfully under arrest). When Mr. Moore broke his own arm free, he then lost balance, and fell backward on a wall - causing injuries as a result of his own actions. The only physical force utilized by Cst. Malone was an attempt at hand/arm control and that there was no push, and no excessive force.

Both the Crown Prosecutor and the Defence Attorney agreed to enter the body worn camera video as evidence.

Instructions:

[1] You are going to see a video tape of the body-worn camera footage from the event. Please watch and listen to it very carefully.

[2] As you watch and listen to this tape, be careful to distinguish between what Cst. Malone says and what others on the tape are saying. What the others say might help you figure out what Cst. Malone says and what his words mean. But Cst. Malone can be held responsible only for what he actually says, not for what others say. It is only what Cst. Malone said that is evidence concerning Cst. Malone.

In other words, what others say may provide a context for understanding what Cst. Malone says; but only Cst. Malone's words, as understood in this context, can be used as evidence of what Cst. Malone has done or intended to do.

Should posturing or body Language play a role in communicating, be prepared to explain.

► Play recording of Body Worn Video

Witness: Use of Force Expert

A police use-of-force expert was asked to provide their opinion on the videos.

The Crown Prosecutor called use-of-force expert, Sgt. Michael Haas, to testify as an expert witness. Mr. Haas is a serving police officer with a Canadian law enforcement agency and has a Master of Arts (M.A.) degree in Leadership and Training from Royal Roads University (Victoria, BC), as well as a Master of Science (M.Sc.) degree in Exercise Physiology. Mr. Haas teaches various use-of-force courses to Canadian and U.S. law enforcement at various police academies and workshops, often specializing in defensive tactics and application of appropriate force. In addition, he has taken many courses relating to police use of force from around the world and has lectured at many respected universities. Mr. Haas also helped develop use-of-force training programs used by various police agencies across North America. Mr. Haas has been accepted as an expert witness in 17 previous cases involving police use-of-force in Canada, and in two cases in the United States, and has offered testimony / opinions with respect to video evidence.

During his testimony, Mr. Haas indicated that the subject, Mr. Moore, was arrestable for an outstanding warrant. He further stated that the videos do not allow the viewer to see any definitive contact. He said that the subject appeared to verbally resist arrest, but that you cannot tell if the subject was pushed or if he fell on his own as a result of his own actions. Mr. Haas also stated that he cannot see the facial expression or non-verbal cues/ body language of the officer in video which often lends perspective into the actions of others during interactions. Mr. Haas said that there is limited information from the videos alone, and that he is unable to provide an opinion on whether the police officer's use of force was justified or excessive. Mr Haas stated that the officer's notes and subsequent report also offer no further information upon which to form a definitive opinion. Mr. Haas did, however, after being read the medical reports state that the injuries suffered by Mr. Moore are not typical for a cooperative or passively resistant subject placed under arrest (in his 20-year policing experience in Canada).

The Accused: Police Officer

On the advice of Defence counsel, the police officer did not take the stand.

Evidence: Bystander Video

Crown Prosecutors were contacted by a person claiming to have been on scene and had video of the incident. Crown reviewed the statement and video of the bystander with investigators and Defence (Under rules of disclosure).

On a joint motion of the Crown and Defence, credible new evidence has surfaced and testimony of an unscheduled witness was requested to be admitted. This was permitted by the Judge, and evidence was supplied by Witness, Mr. Marleau.

Mr. Marleau, who was not identified at the scene or during the course of the investigation, read about the ongoing trial in a news report. He realized he had evidence that may be important to the case and contacted crown counsel to inform them about a video he had taken of the event. Mr. Marleau explained that he was on campus at the time and place of the incident waiting for a friend. He had been standing off to the side of the police interaction, and took the video on his cell phone at the time because he thought it would make an interesting internet post. He stated that he did not remain to speak with police as he did not know if he had to do so, and that he did not think his video was important and there are lots of cameras on campus. He didn't think he was doing anything wrong by leaving as didn't feel he was involved. When he left the scene, he forgot about the video because he decided against posting another person's misfortune. When Mr. Marleau saw that the case was being covered in the media and was more complex than he realized, he felt he had a responsibility to submit his video.

Both the Crown Prosecutor and the Defence Attorney agreed to the video to be entered in as evidence.

Instructions:

[1] You are going to see a video tape of the cell phone camera footage from the event. Please watch and listen to it very carefully.

[2] As you watch and listen to this tape, be careful to distinguish between what Cst. Malone says and what others on the tape are saying. What the others say might help you figure out what Cst. Malone says and what his words mean. But Cst. Malone can be held responsible only for what he actually says, not for what others say. It is only what Cst. Malone said that is evidence concerning Cst. Malone.

In other words, what others say may provide a context for understanding what Cst. Malone says; but only Cst. Malone's words, as understood in this context, can be used as evidence of what Cst. Malone has done or intended to do.

Should posturing or body Language play a role in communicating, be prepared to explain.

► Play recording of Bystander video.

Closing remarks:

Prosecution has re-iterated their assertion that Mr. Moore was pushed by constable Malone. The push was excessive given the circumstances of the arrest and therefore excessive force. As the resulting injuries were of a nature severe enough to constitute bodily harm, Cst. Malone is guilty of assault causing bodily harm.

Defence stated that constable Malone had placed Mr. Moore lawfully under arrest and was holding onto Mr. Moore's arm. Mr. Moore's own resistive flailing actions to break free and resist arrest caused him to lose his balance and fall. Cst. Malone is not the cause of Mr. Moore's injuries and was justified in grasping Mr. Moore's arm. This was not excessive, and the loss of hold was not intentional - and was caused by Mr. Moore himself, not Cst. Malone.

Instructions for Participants after Reading Trial Summary**Jury Instructions**

Judge: *You have now been presented with the case details and relevant evidence. It is now my responsibility to provide you with the law.*

Presumption of Innocence

- [1] Every person charged with an offence is presumed to be innocent, unless and until the Crown has proved his/her guilt beyond a reasonable doubt.
- [2] The indictment tells you and Scott Malone what offence the Crown alleges against Scott Malone. The charge is not evidence. It is not proof of guilt.
- [3] The presumption of innocence lasts throughout the trial. This presumption only ceases to apply if, at the end of the case and on the whole of the evidence, the Crown has proved beyond a reasonable doubt that Scott Malone is guilty of the crime charged.

Burden of Proof

- [1] The person charged does not have to present evidence or prove anything in this case, in particular, that he is innocent of the offence charged.
- [2] From start to finish, it is the Crown who must prove the guilt of Scott Malone beyond a reasonable doubt. You must find Scott Malone not guilty of the offence unless the Crown proves beyond a reasonable doubt that he is guilty of it.

Reasonable Doubt

- [1] The principle of “proof beyond a reasonable doubt” is an essential part of the presumption of innocence.
- [2] A reasonable doubt is not a far-fetched or frivolous doubt. It is not a doubt based on sympathy or prejudice. It is a doubt based on reason and common sense. It is a doubt that arises at the end of the case based not only on what the evidence tells you but also on what that evidence does not tell you.

[3] It is not enough for you to believe that Scott Malone is probably or likely guilty. In those circumstances, you must find him/her not guilty, because the Crown would have failed to prove his/her guilt beyond a reasonable doubt. Proof of probable or likely guilt is not proof of guilt beyond a reasonable doubt.

[4] You should also remember, however, that it is nearly impossible to prove anything with absolute certainty. The Crown is not required to do so. Absolute certainty is a standard of proof that does not exist in law.

[5] If, at the end of the case, and after an assessment of all of the evidence, you are not sure that Scott Malone committed the offence, you must find him/her not guilty.

[6] If, at the end of the case, based on all of the evidence, you are sure that Scott Malone committed the (an) offence, you should find Scott Malone guilty.

Video Tape Recordings

[1] During the trial, you saw and heard a video tape recording of the interaction between Cst. Malone and Mr. Curtis Moore.

[6] In watching and listening to these tapes, be careful to distinguish between what Cst. Malone says and what anyone else on the tape is saying. What another person says might help you determine what Cst. Malone says and what his words mean. But Cst. Malone can be held responsible only for what he actually says, not for what anyone else says.

In other words, what another person says may provide a context for understanding what Cst. Malone says; but only Cst. Malone's words, as understood in this context, are evidence of what Cst. Malone has done or intended to do. It is only what Cst. Malone said that is evidence concerning Cst. Malone.

Should posturing or body Language play a role in communicating, be prepared to explain.

Judge: *Finally, I will remind you that Cst. Scott Malone is charged with Assault causing Bodily Harm.*

Every one who, in committing an assault
(b) causes bodily harm to the complainant,
is guilty of an indictable offence and is liable to imprisonment for a term not exceeding ten years or an offence punishable on summary conviction and liable to imprisonment for a term not exceeding 18 months. 1980-81-82-83, c. 125, s. 19; 1994, c. 44, s. 17.

INSTRUCTIONS: Please respond to the following items with regards to the charge of assault causing bodily harm against the defendant.

1. How do you find the defendant, Scott Malone?

GUILTY _____

NOT GUILTY _____

2. How confident do you feel in your verdict?

3. How responsible is the defendant for his/her actions?

4. How credible is the defendant?

5. Assault causing bodily harm can be punished with imprisonment of up to ten years. What (if any) punishment do you believe the defendant deserves?

6. How much did you factor in the video-recorded scenario when making your decision?

[illegible]

Appendix L

Trial Summary – Security Video Condition

Disclaimer: The following case is a summary of court trial for a police officer charged with assault causing bodily harm. For the purpose of the study, the proceedings have been condensed into summary form. Participants should only consider what is provided and make no assumptions about rule of law or absent information.

Please read and review the following case details carefully.

Judge: *The accused Scott Raymond Malone is charged that he on or about the 17th day of April of 2017 at 10:07am, at or near Toronto, Ontario did unlawfully cause bodily harm to Mr. Curtis Moore contrary to section 267(b) of the criminal code. The Crown alleges that the accused used excessive force during an arrest of the victim, resulting in bodily harm. Under the law, the Crown has the burden of proving that the defendant is guilty of these charges beyond a reasonable doubt. It is your responsibility to decide the facts, review the evidence, and apply the law that I will give you at the end of the trial. The case will commence with the Crown Prosecutor and Defence Attorney providing opening statements. The facts will then be summarized for you and any evidence will be provided to you. Following this, you will be asked to make a decision as to whether the defendant is guilty or not guilty.*

Opening statements

Crown Prosecutor Opening Statement: *The evidence will show that Constable Scott Malone, while affecting an arrest, used excessive force given the totality of the circumstances. Constable Malone did push Mr. Moore, who had taken no aggressive actions, willfully and forcefully causing him to fall and suffer a traumatic brain injury, separated shoulder, and a seizure at the time of the incident. Cst. Malone's actions given the circumstances, were excessive and not in accordance with police procedure or the criminal code, and therefore justify a conviction for an assault causing bodily harm.*

Defence Attorney Opening Statement: *Constable Scott Malone was attending a call for service, and was justified in placing Mr. Moore under arrest, due to an outstanding warrant. Mr. Moore resisted arrest by pulling away from Cst. Malone, and lost his own balance and fell. During this fall, Mr. Moore fell back against a wall. My Moore's own actions are the cause of his own injuries, and in fact Cst Malone tried to stop Mr. Moore from falling and rendered immediate assistance.*

Judge: *I have before me a joint submission from Defence and Crown on a set of agreed statements of facts:*

- The complainant was subject to lawful arrest for an outstanding warrant.*
- The accused, Constable Scott Malone, was the first police officer to respond to the scene, had formed the intent to affect an arrest and called for back up.*

- *Constable Malone had engaged Mr. Moore prior to the arrival of back up, and had verbally placed Mr. Moore under arrest.*
- *Constable Malone had made physical contact with Mr. Moore with the intent to complete the lawful arrest by placing Mr. Moore in handcuffs.*

-The backup constable arrived at 10:15am.

-The ambulance arrived at 10:17am.

-The complainant, Mr. Curtis Moore, was transported to the Hospital immediately after the event for his injuries, where he remained an "inpatient" in care for a period of 1 week.

Physical evidence agreed upon as entered by Defence and Crown

Evidence: Dispatch Call

On April 17 of 2017, at approximately 10:07am, Cst. Scott Malone responded to a dispatch call about a suspect breaking into cars in the parking lot of Humber College. This dispatch call has been recorded and transcribed, and entered as evidence, on agreed statement of facts.

Please take a moment to review this evidence.

► Play Recording

Display Transcript

Dispatch: Bravo 16, sending you a call; campus security has received a call that a "Curtis Moore", was seen breaking into cars and taking contents in their campus parking lot. Security advises that police told them yesterday that there is an outstanding warrant for Moore for similar thefts committed earlier in the week in the same place. Caller states that they were told to call police if Moore was spotted...stand by...CPIC confirms outstanding warrant for theft entered for Curtis Moore yesterday, subject is arrestable on warrant out of our office, File 2018-18908.

Security still has eyes on the subject via security camera; subject is presently in the atrium of the **** Building on North Campus, described as approximately 5'5", 140 lbs Caucasian male, jeans, red hoodie, sitting alone on the bench. CPIC shows no prior convictions or cautions. No security officers are available to meet yet, they are tied up on a protest on the other side of the campus.

Constable Scott Malone: Copy that, I know Moore, and it is actually my theft case and warrant entry. He was cooperative last time we spoke, I'll pick him up – send back up routine. I'm already on site.

Dispatch: Copy that, cover car routine for Bravo 16?

Bravo 7 (second officer): Bravo 7, I'll be 10-17 routine, ETA 5 minutes.

Constable Malone: Dispatch, Bravo 16, I'm heading into the building and I can see Moore in the atrium, building ***, North Campus. I'll be with him. 5-minute timer please.

This concludes the preliminary agreed evidence submissions.

Witness: Security Officer

The Crown called upon Security Guard, Mr. Andrew Campbell, to testify at the trial and give his accounts of his actions and the event that he witnessed through the security camera on campus.

Summary of Evidence Given:

Mr. Andrew Campbell is a security guard at Humber College, and was the individual who called 911 the day of the incident. Mr. Campbell indicated that he called the police because he received reports that there was a male breaking into cars in the parking lot at Humber College Campus. The male was seen breaking into cars one previous time the same week, and was told to call the police if he was seen on campus again. Mr. Campbell then advised the 911 dispatcher that the suspect was last seen in the atrium of a building on campus. A few minutes later, the security guard witnessed the interaction between the police officer and Mr. Moore in that same atrium, through the security camera. He indicated that he saw them talking, and then a quick motion followed by Mr. Moore's fall to the floor. He then saw the officer step back, look around and then attempt to help Mr. Moore. Mr. Campbell reported that the whole event happened really fast, and that he then saw Mr. Moore have what looked like a seizure on the floor. The ambulance was then called to the scene, and Mr. Campbell did not see anything after their arrival to the scene.

Evidence: Security footage

Both the Crown Prosecutor and the Defence Attorney agreed to enter the security camera video as evidence.

Instructions:

[1] You are going to see a video tape of the security camera footage from the event. Please watch and listen to it very carefully.

[2] As you watch and listen to this tape, be careful to distinguish between what Cst. Malone says and what others on the tape are saying. What the others say might help you figure out what Cst. Malone says and what his words mean. However, Cst. Malone can be held responsible only for what he actually says, not for what others say.

In other words, what others say may provide a context for understanding what Cst. Malone says; but only Cst. Malone's words, as understood in this context, can be used as evidence of what Cst. Malone has done or intended to do.

Should posturing or body Language play a role in communicating, be prepared to explain.

► Play recording of security video.

Witnesses: Physicians

The Crown Prosecutor called the physician who assessed Mr. Moore at the time of the incident to testify. Dr. Ethan Hughes is a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians of Canada, and specializes in neurology. Dr. Hughes indicated that Mr. Moore was admitted to the intensive care unit at Toronto General Hospital and placed on a ventilator, as he was unconscious. Dr. Hughes said that he first assessed Mr. Moore on April 17, 2017 at approximately 2:57pm, after we was extubated off the ventilator. After Mr. Moore awoke, he reported that he had no memory of the event prior to his fall. Mr. Moore exhibited symptoms of memory loss, agitation, confusion, nausea and vomiting, persistent headaches, dizziness, fatigue, sensitivity to light, and post trauma amnesia. Dr. Hughes reported that a CAT scan of Mr. Moore's brain indicated a small subdural hematoma about 2mm in thickness. This is more commonly known as a blood clot on the brain's surface, beneath the skull. There was no skull fracture present, and there were no other signs of damage to the brain. Dr. Hughes's assessment was that Mr. Moore suffered from a Moderate Traumatic Brain Injury.

Dr. Hughes reported that he completed a follow-up assessment of Mr. Moore's head trauma two months following his discharge from the hospital. The follow-up CAT scan indicated that the subdural hematoma had subsided, but Mr. Moore still had symptoms of headaches, fatigue, memory loss, sensitivity to light, and was reporting symptoms of depression.

Dr. Hughes also noted that Mr. Moore had a seizure for approximately 55 seconds immediately after hitting his head during the time of the incident. However, no other seizures were reported after Mr. Moore regained consciousness.

The Crown Prosecutor called the physician who assessed Mr. Moore's external injuries at the time of the incident to testify. Dr. Gary Mullens is a Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Canada and specializes in sports medicine and orthopedics. Dr. Mullens testified that an X-Ray was used to evaluate the degree of the shoulder injury, and indicated a suspected dislocation. A follow-up MRI report indicated that the fall caused a complete tear of the acromioclavicular ligament, and a partial tear of the coracoclavicular ligament. This injury is more commonly known as a 'separated shoulder', which can often be caused from direct impact such as falling on the shoulder. Mr. Moore's symptom presentation is typical of a type 2 Injury, in which the acromioclavicular ligament is completely torn, and the Coracoclavicular ligament may be partially torn. Surgery was not required for the injury, but Mr. Moore was required to keep his arm in a sling for up to 6 weeks, and then seek physiotherapy for at least 3 months following the removal of the sling.

Note: blood results from hospital showed no traces of drugs or alcohol use by Mr. Moore on the night of the incident.

Complainant: The Victim/Suspect

The Defence called Mr. Curtis Moore to the stand to testify, and give his account of how the injury is affecting his daily life. While testifying, Mr. Moore stated the following,

“All I remember is that at one moment I was in the school, and then I just remember waking up in the hospital later that day. My doctor says that I suffered a head injury, which is why I have no memory of the event with the police officer. I have ongoing headaches, and can’t concentrate so I can’t work. I was told that I had a seizure at the time of the event, so I’m really scared that it’s going to happen again at some point. I also keep having nightmares about having a seizure and waking up in the hospital. It’s really scary because I can’t remember what happened. I also really hurt my shoulder from the fall, and even after weekly physio, it still isn’t back to normal yet, so it’s still hard to do simple tasks like grocery shopping where I have to lift and carry heavy bags. The whole incident has left me terrified of police. I’ve never been in trouble before...yea I was taking change from cars and I would have owned up to that but it’s no reason for a giant cop with a chip on his shoulder to beat me half to death. He beat me unconscious”.

Statements:

The Crown Prosecutor stated that the video shows the police officer pushing Mr. Moore, who was taking no aggressive actions during the incident. The push was so forceful that it caused him to strike his head, be rendered unconscious and fall, uncontrolled on his shoulder. The single forceful push was the cause of serious injuries and unjustified (excessive force) given that Mr. Moore had taken no aggressive actions.

The Defence counsel stated that the video displays Mr. Moore resisting arrest by backing up and flailing and arm that Cst. Malone was trying to control (after being placed lawfully under arrest). When Mr. Moore broke his own arm free, he then lost balance, and fell backward on a wall - causing injuries as a result of his own actions. The only physical force utilized by Cst. Malone was an attempt at hand/arm control and that there was no push, and no excessive force.

Witness: Use of Force Expert

A police use-of-force expert was asked to provide their opinion on the videos.

The Crown Prosecutor called use-of-force expert, Sgt. Michael Haas, to testify as an expert witness. Mr. Haas is a serving police officer with a Canadian law enforcement agency and has a Master of Arts (M.A.) degree in Leadership and Training from Royal Roads University (Victoria, BC), as well as a Master of Science (M.Sc.) degree in Exercise Physiology. Mr. Haas teaches various use-of-force courses to Canadian and U.S. law enforcement at various police academies and workshops, often specializing in defensive tactics and application of appropriate force. In addition, he has taken many courses relating to police use of force from around the world and has lectured at many respected universities. Mr. Haas also helped develop use-of-force training programs used by various police agencies across North America. Mr. Haas has been accepted as an expert witness in 17 previous cases involving police use-of-force in Canada, and

in two cases in the United States, and has offered testimony / opinions with respect to video evidence.

During his testimony, Mr. Haas indicated that the subject, Mr. Moore, was arrestable for an outstanding warrant. He further stated that the video does not allow the viewer to see any definitive contact. He said that the subject appeared to verbally resist arrest, but that you cannot tell if the subject was pushed or if he fell on his own as a result of his own actions. Mr. Haas also stated that he cannot see the facial expression or non-verbal cues/ body language of the officer in the video which often lends perspective into the actions of others during interactions. Mr. Haas said that there is limited information from the video alone, and that he is unable to provide an opinion on whether the police officer's use of force was justified or excessive. Mr. Haas stated that the officer's notes and subsequent report also offer no further information upon which to form a definitive opinion. Mr. Haas did, however, after being read the medical reports state that the injuries suffered by Mr. Moore are not typical for a cooperative or passively resistant subject placed under arrest (in his 20-year policing experience in Canada).

The Accused: Police Officer

On the advice of Defence counsel, the police officer did not take the stand.

Closing remarks:

Prosecution has re-iterated their assertion that Mr. Moore was pushed by constable Malone. The push was excessive given the circumstances of the arrest and therefore excessive force. As the resulting injuries were of a nature severe enough to constitute bodily harm, Cst. Malone is guilty of assault causing bodily harm.

Defence stated that constable Malone had placed Mr. Moore lawfully under arrest and was holding onto Mr. Moore's arm. Mr. Moore's own resistive flailing actions to break free and resist arrest caused him to lose his balance and fall. Cst. Malone is not the cause of Mr. Moore's injuries and was justified in grasping Mr. Moore's arm. This was not excessive, and the loss of hold was not intentional - and was caused by Mr. Moore himself, not Cst. Malone.

Instructions for Participants after Reading Trial Summary

Jury Instructions

Judge: *You have now been presented with the case details and relevant evidence. It is now my responsibility to provide you with the law.*

Presumption of Innocence

[1] Every person charged with an offence is presumed to be innocent, unless and until the Crown has proved his/her guilt beyond a reasonable doubt.

[2] The indictment tells you and Scott Malone what offence the Crown alleges against Scott Malone. The charge is not evidence. It is not proof of guilt.

[3] The presumption of innocence lasts throughout the trial. This presumption only ceases to apply if, at the end of the case and on the whole of the evidence, the Crown has proved beyond a reasonable doubt that Scott Malone is guilty of the crime charged.

Burden of Proof

[1] The person charged does not have to present evidence or prove anything in this case, in particular, that he is innocent of the offence charged.

[2] From start to finish, it is the Crown who must prove the guilt of Scott Malone beyond a reasonable doubt. You must find Scott Malone not guilty of the offence unless the Crown proves beyond a reasonable doubt that he is guilty of it.

Reasonable Doubt

[1] The principle of “proof beyond a reasonable doubt” is an essential part of the presumption of innocence.

[2] A reasonable doubt is not a far-fetched or frivolous doubt. It is not a doubt based on sympathy or prejudice. It is a doubt based on reason and common sense. It is a doubt that arises at the end of the case based not only on what the evidence tells you but also on what that evidence does not tell you.

[3] It is not enough for you to believe that Scott Malone is probably or likely guilty. In those circumstances, you must find him/her not guilty, because the Crown would have failed to prove his/her guilt beyond a reasonable doubt. Proof of probable or likely guilt is not proof of guilt beyond a reasonable doubt.

[4] You should also remember, however, that it is nearly impossible to prove anything with absolute certainty. The Crown is not required to do so. Absolute certainty is a standard of proof that does not exist in law.

[5] If, at the end of the case, and after an assessment of all of the evidence, you are not sure that Scott Malone committed the offence, you must find him/her not guilty.

[6] If, at the end of the case, based on all of the evidence, you are sure that Scott Malone committed the (an) offence, you should find Scott Malone guilty.

Video Tape Recordings

[1] During the trial, you saw and heard a video tape recording of the interaction between Cst. Malone and Mr. Curtis Moore.

[6] In watching and listening to these tapes, be careful to distinguish between what Cst. Malone says and what anyone else on the tape is saying. What another person says might help you determine what Cst. Malone says and what his words mean. But Cst. Malone can be held responsible only for what he actually says, not for what anyone else says.

In other words, what another person says may provide a context for understanding what Cst. Malone says; but only Cst. Malone’s words, as understood in this context, are evidence of what Cst. Malone has done or intended to do. It is only what Cst. Malone said that is evidence concerning Cst. Malone.

Judge: Finally, I will remind you that Cst. Scott Malone is charged with Assault causing Bodily Harm.

INSTRUCTIONS: Please respond to the following items with regards to the charge of assault causing bodily harm against the defendant.

GUILTY _____
NOT GUILTY _____

2. How confident do you feel in your verdict?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
not at all					somewhat					very
confident					confident					confident

3. How responsible is the defendant for his/her actions?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
not at all					somewhat					very
responsible					responsible					responsible

4. How credible is the defendant?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

not at all somewhat very
credible credible credible

5. Assault causing bodily harm can be punished with imprisonment of up to ten years. What (if any) punishment do you believe the defendant deserves?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
no punishment										maximum punishment

6. How much did you factor in the video-recorded scenario when making your decision?

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
	Not at all										Very Much	

Appendix M

Trial Summary – Body Worn Camera Video Condition

Disclaimer: The following case is a summary of court trial for a police officer charged with assault causing bodily harm. For the purpose of the study, the proceedings have been condensed into summary form. Participants should only consider what is provided and make no assumptions about rule of law or absent information.

Please read and review the following case details carefully.

Judge: *The accused Scott Raymond Malone is charged that he on or about the 17th day of April of 2017 at 10:07am, at or near Toronto, Ontario did unlawfully cause bodily harm to Mr. Curtis Moore contrary to section 267(b) of the criminal code. The Crown alleges that the accused used excessive force during an arrest of the victim, resulting in bodily harm. Under the law, the Crown has the burden of proving that the defendant is guilty of these charges beyond a reasonable doubt. It is your responsibility to decide the facts, review the evidence, and apply the law that I will give you at the end of the trial. The case will commence with the Crown Prosecutor and Defence Attorney providing opening statements. The facts will then be summarized for you and any evidence will be provided to you. Following this, you will be asked to make a decision as to whether the defendant is guilty or not guilty.*

Opening statements

Crown Prosecutor Opening Statement: *The evidence will show that Constable Scott Malone, while affecting an arrest, used excessive force given the totality of the circumstances. Constable Malone did push Mr. Moore, who had taken no aggressive actions, willfully and forcefully causing him to fall and suffer a traumatic brain injury, separated shoulder, and a seizure at the time of the incident. Cst. Malone's actions given the circumstances, were excessive and not in accordance with police procedure or the criminal code, and therefore justify a conviction for an assault causing bodily harm.*

Defence Attorney Opening Statement: *Constable Scott Malone was attending a call for service, and was justified in placing Mr. Moore under arrest, due to an outstanding warrant. Mr. Moore resisted arrest by pulling away from Cst. Malone, and lost his own balance and fell. During this fall, Mr. Moore fell back against a wall. My Moore's own actions are the cause of his own injuries, and in fact Cst Malone tried to stop Mr. Moore from falling and rendered immediate assistance.*

Judge: *I have before me a joint submission from Defence and Crown on a set of agreed statements of facts:*

- The complainant was subject to lawful arrest for an outstanding warrant.*
- The accused, Constable Scott Malone, was the first police officer to respond to the scene, had formed the intent to affect an arrest and called for back up.*

- *Constable Malone had engaged Mr. Moore prior to the arrival of back up, and had verbally placed Mr. Moore under arrest.*
- *Constable Malone had made physical contact with Mr. Moore with the intent to complete the lawful arrest by placing Mr. Moore in handcuffs.*

-The backup constable arrived at 10:15am.

-The ambulance arrived at 10:17am.

-The complainant, Mr. Curtis Moore, was transported to the Hospital immediately after the event for his injuries, where he remained an "inpatient" in care for a period of 1 week.

Physical evidence agreed upon as entered by Defence and Crown

Evidence: Dispatch Call

On April 17 of 2017, at approximately 10:07am, Cst. Scott Malone responded to a dispatch call about a suspect breaking into cars in the parking lot of Humber College. This dispatch call has been recorded and transcribed, and entered as evidence, on agreed statement of facts.

Please take a moment to review this evidence.

► Play Recording

Display Transcript

Dispatch: Bravo 16, sending you a call; campus security has received a call that a "Curtis Moore", was seen breaking into cars and taking contents in their campus parking lot. Security advises that police told them yesterday that there is an outstanding warrant for Moore for similar thefts committed earlier in the week in the same place. Caller states that they were told to call police if Moore was spotted...stand by...CPIC confirms outstanding warrant for theft entered for Curtis Moore yesterday, subject is arrestable on warrant out of our office, File 2018-18908.

Security still has eyes on the subject via security camera; subject is presently in the atrium of the **** Building on North Campus, described as approximately 5'5", 140 lbs Caucasian male, jeans, red hoodie, sitting alone on the bench. CPIC shows no prior convictions or cautions. No security officers are available to meet yet, they are tied up on a protest on the other side of the campus.

Constable Scott Malone: Copy that, I know Moore, and it is actually my theft case and warrant entry. He was cooperative last time we spoke, I'll pick him up – send back up routine. I'm already on site.

Dispatch: Copy that, cover car routine for Bravo 16?

Bravo 7 (second officer): Bravo 7, I'll be 10-17 routine, ETA 5 minutes.

Constable Malone: Dispatch, Bravo 16, I'm heading into the building and I can see Moore in the atrium, building ***, North Campus. I'll be with him. 5-minute timer please.

This concludes the preliminary agreed evidence submissions.

Witness: Security Officer

The Crown called upon Security Guard, Mr. Andrew Campbell, to testify at the trial and give his accounts of his actions and the event that he witnessed through the security camera on campus.

Summary of Evidence Given:

Mr. Andrew Campbell is a security guard at Humber College, and was the individual who called 911 the day of the incident. Mr. Campbell indicated that he called the police because he received reports that there was a male breaking into cars in the parking lot at Humber College Campus. The male was seen breaking into cars one previous time the same week, and was told to call the police if he was seen on campus again. Mr. Campbell then advised the 911 dispatcher that the suspect was last seen in the atrium of a building on campus. A few minutes later, the security guard witnessed the interaction between the police officer and Mr. Moore in that same atrium, through the security camera. He indicated that he saw them talking, and then a quick motion followed by Mr. Moore's fall to the floor. He then saw the officer step back, look around and then attempt to help Mr. Moore. Mr. Campbell reported that the whole event happened really fast, and that he then saw Mr. Moore have what looked like a seizure on the floor. The ambulance was then called to the scene, and Mr. Campbell did not see anything after their arrival to the scene.

The security cameras were not properly working that day, and the scenario was not recorded.

Witnesses: Physicians

The Crown Prosecutor called the physician who assessed Mr. Moore at the time of the incident to testify. Dr. Ethan Hughes is a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians of Canada, and specializes in neurology. Dr. Hughes indicated that Mr. Moore was admitted to the intensive care unit at Toronto General Hospital and placed on a ventilator, as he was unconscious. Dr. Hughes said that he first assessed Mr. Moore on April 17, 2017 at approximately 2:57pm, after we was extubated off the ventilator. After Mr. Moore awoke, he reported that he had no memory of the event prior to his fall. Mr. Moore exhibited symptoms of memory loss, agitation, confusion, nausea and vomiting, persistent headaches, dizziness, fatigue, sensitivity to light, and post trauma amnesia. Dr. Hughes reported that a CAT scan of Mr. Moore's brain indicated a small subdural hematoma about 2mm in thickness. This is more commonly known as a blood clot on the brain's surface, beneath the skull. There was no skull fracture present, and there were no other signs of damage to the brain. Dr. Hughes's assessment was that Mr. Moore suffered from a Moderate Traumatic Brain Injury.

Dr. Hughes reported that he completed a follow-up assessment of Mr. Moore's head trauma two months following his discharge from the hospital. The follow-up CAT scan indicated that the subdural hematoma had subsided, but Mr. Moore still had symptoms of headaches, fatigue, memory loss, sensitivity to light, and was reporting symptoms of depression.

Dr. Hughes also noted that Mr. Moore had a seizure for approximately 55 seconds immediately after hitting his head during the time of the incident. However, no other seizures were reported after Mr. Moore regained consciousness.

The Crown Prosecutor called the physician who assessed Mr. Moore's external injuries at the time of the incident to testify. Dr. Gary Mullens is a Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Canada and specializes in sports medicine and orthopedics. Dr. Mullens testified that an X-Ray was used to evaluate the degree of the shoulder injury, and indicated a suspected dislocation. A follow-up MRI report indicated that the fall caused a complete tear of the acromioclavicular ligament, and a partial tear of the coracoclavicular ligament. This injury is more commonly known as a 'separated shoulder', which can often be caused from direct impact such as falling on the shoulder. Mr. Moore's symptom presentation is typical of a type 2 Injury, in which the acromioclavicular ligament is completely torn, and the Coracoclavicular ligament may be partially torn. Surgery was not required for the injury, but Mr. Moore was required to keep his arm in a sling for up to 6 weeks, and then seek physiotherapy for at least 3 months following the removal of the sling.

Note: blood results from hospital showed no traces of drugs or alcohol use by Mr. Moore on the night of the incident.

Complainant: The Victim/Suspect

The Defence called Mr. Curtis Moore to the stand to testify, and give his account of how the injury is affecting his daily life. While testifying, Mr. Moore stated the following,

"All I remember is that at one moment I was in the school, and then I just remember waking up in the hospital later that day. My doctor says that I suffered a head injury, which is why I have no memory of the event with the police officer. I have ongoing headaches, and can't concentrate so I can't work. I was told that I had a seizure at the time of the event, so I'm really scared that it's going to happen again at some point. I also keep having nightmares about having a seizure and waking up in the hospital. It's really scary because I can't remember what happened. I also really hurt my shoulder from the fall, and even after weekly physio, it still isn't back to normal yet, so it's still hard to do simple tasks like grocery shopping where I have to lift and carry heavy bags. The whole incident has left me terrified of police. I've never been in trouble before...yea I was taking change from cars and I would have owned up to that but it's no reason for a giant cop with a chip on his shoulder to beat me half to death. He beat me unconscious".

Evidence: Body Worn Video Camera

The police officer was wearing a body worn video camera during the time of the incident. The body camera was worn on the Cst. Malone's chest and was activated during the whole interaction with Mr. Moore.

The Crown Prosecutor stated that the video shows the police officer pushing Mr. Moore, who was taking no aggressive actions during the incident. The push was so forceful that it caused him to strike his head, be rendered unconscious and fall, uncontrolled on his shoulder. The single forceful push was the cause of serious injuries and unjustified (excessive force) given that Mr. Moore had taken no aggressive actions.

The Defence counsel stated that the video displays Mr. Moore resisting arrest by backing up and flailing and arm that Cst. Malone was trying to control (after being placed lawfully under arrest). When Mr. Moore broke his own arm free, he then lost balance, and fell backward on a wall - causing injuries as a result of his own actions. The only physical force utilized by Cst. Malone was an attempt at hand/arm control and that there was no push, and no excessive force.

Both the Crown Prosecutor and the Defence Attorney agreed to enter the body worn camera video as evidence.

Instructions:

[1] You are going to see a video tape of the body-worn camera footage from the event. Please watch and listen to it very carefully.

[2] As you watch and listen to this tape, be careful to distinguish between what Cst. Malone says and what others on the tape are saying. What the others say might help you figure out what Cst. Malone says and what his words mean. But Cst. Malone can be held responsible only for what he actually says, not for what others say. It is only what Cst. Malone said that is evidence concerning Cst. Malone.

In other words, what others say may provide a context for understanding what Cst. Malone says; but only Cst. Malone's words, as understood in this context, can be used as evidence of what Cst. Malone has done or intended to do.

Should posturing or body Language play a role in communicating, be prepared to explain.

► Play recording of Body Worn Video

Witness: Use of Force Expert

A police use-of-force expert was asked to provide their opinion on the videos.

The Crown Prosecutor called use-of-force expert, Sgt. Michael Haas, to testify as an expert witness. Mr. Haas is a serving police officer with a Canadian law enforcement agency and has a Master of Arts (M.A.) degree in Leadership and Training from Royal Roads University (Victoria, BC), as well as a Master of Science (M.Sc.) degree in Exercise Physiology. Mr. Haas

teaches various use-of-force courses to Canadian and U.S. law enforcement at various police academies and workshops, often specializing in defensive tactics and application of appropriate force. In addition, he has taken many courses relating to police use of force from around the world and has lectured at many respected universities. Mr. Haas also helped develop use-of-force training programs used by various police agencies across North America. Mr. Haas has been accepted as an expert witness in 17 previous cases involving police use-of-force in Canada, and in two cases in the United States, and has offered testimony / opinions with respect to video evidence.

During his testimony, Mr. Haas indicated that the subject, Mr. Moore, was arrestable for an outstanding warrant. He further stated that the video does not allow the viewer to see any definitive contact. He said that the subject appeared to verbally resist arrest, but that you cannot tell if the subject was pushed or if he fell on his own as a result of his own actions. Mr. Haas also stated that he cannot see the facial expression or non-verbal cues/ body language of the officer in video which often lends perspective into the actions of others during interactions. Mr. Haas said that there is limited information from the video alone, and that he is unable to provide an opinion on whether the police officer's use of force was justified or excessive. Mr Haas stated that the officer's notes and subsequent report also offer no further information upon which to form a definitive opinion. Mr. Haas did, however, after being read the medical reports state that the injuries suffered by Mr. Moore are not typical for a cooperative or passively resistant subject placed under arrest (in his 20-year policing experience in Canada).

The Accused: Police Officer

On the advice of Defence counsel, the police officer did not take the stand.

Closing remarks:

Prosecution has re-iterated their assertion that Mr. Moore was pushed by constable Malone. The push was excessive given the circumstances of the arrest and therefore excessive force. As the resulting injuries were of a nature severe enough to constitute bodily harm, Cst. Malone is guilty of assault causing bodily harm.

Defence stated that constable Malone had placed Mr. Moore lawfully under arrest and was holding onto Mr. Moore's arm. Mr. Moore's own resistive flailing actions to break free and resist arrest caused him to lose his balance and fall. Cst. Malone is not the cause of Mr. Moore's injuries and was justified in grasping Mr. Moore's arm. This was not excessive, and the loss of hold was not intentional - and was caused by Mr. Moore himself, not Cst. Malone.

Instructions for Participants after Reading Trial Summary

Jury Instructions

Judge: *You have now been presented with the case details and relevant evidence. It is now my responsibility to provide you with the law.*

Presumption of Innocence

[1] Every person charged with an offence is presumed to be innocent, unless and until the Crown has proved his/her guilt beyond a reasonable doubt.

[2] The indictment tells you and Scott Malone what offence the Crown alleges against Scott Malone. The charge is not evidence. It is not proof of guilt.

[3] The presumption of innocence lasts throughout the trial. This presumption only ceases to apply if, at the end of the case and on the whole of the evidence, the Crown has proved beyond a reasonable doubt that Scott Malone is guilty of the crime charged.

Burden of Proof

[1] The person charged does not have to present evidence or prove anything in this case, in particular, that he is innocent of the offence charged.

[2] From start to finish, it is the Crown who must prove the guilt of Scott Malone beyond a reasonable doubt. You must find Scott Malone not guilty of the offence unless the Crown proves beyond a reasonable doubt that he is guilty of it.

Reasonable Doubt

[1] The principle of “proof beyond a reasonable doubt” is an essential part of the presumption of innocence.

[2] A reasonable doubt is not a far-fetched or frivolous doubt. It is not a doubt based on sympathy or prejudice. It is a doubt based on reason and common sense. It is a doubt that arises at the end of the case based not only on what the evidence tells you but also on what that evidence does not tell you.

[3] It is not enough for you to believe that Scott Malone is probably or likely guilty. In those circumstances, you must find him/her not guilty, because the Crown would have failed to prove his/her guilt beyond a reasonable doubt. Proof of probable or likely guilt is not proof of guilt beyond a reasonable doubt.

[4] You should also remember, however, that it is nearly impossible to prove anything with absolute certainty. The Crown is not required to do so. Absolute certainty is a standard of proof that does not exist in law.

[5] If, at the end of the case, and after an assessment of all of the evidence, you are not sure that Scott Malone committed the offence, you must find him/her not guilty.

[6] If, at the end of the case, based on all of the evidence, you are sure that Scott Malone committed the (an) offence, you should find Scott Malone guilty.

Video Tape Recordings

[1] During the trial, you saw and heard a video tape recording of the interaction between Cst. Malone and Mr. Curtis Moore.

[6] In watching and listening to these tapes, be careful to distinguish between what Cst. Malone says and what anyone else on the tape is saying. What another person says might help you

determine what Cst. Malone says and what his words mean. But Cst. Malone can be held responsible only for what he actually says, not for what anyone else says.

In other words, what another person says may provide a context for understanding what Cst. Malone says; but only Cst. Malone's words, as understood in this context, are evidence of what Cst. Malone has done or intended to do. It is only what Cst. Malone said that is evidence concerning Cst. Malone.

Should posturing or body Language play a role in communicating, be prepared to explain.

Judge: *Finally, I will remind you that Cst. Scott Malone is charged with Assault causing Bodily Harm.*

Every one who, in committing an assault

(b) causes bodily harm to the complainant,

is guilty of an indictable offence and is liable to imprisonment for a term not exceeding ten years or an offence punishable on summary conviction and liable to imprisonment for a term not exceeding 18 months. 1980-81-82-83, c. 125, s. 19; 1994, c. 44, s. 17.

INSTRUCTIONS: Please respond to the following items with regards to the charge of assault causing bodily harm against the defendant.

1. How do you find the defendant, Scott Malone?

GUILTY _____

NOT GUILTY _____

b. Please briefly describe the reason for your decision:

2. How confident do you feel in your verdict?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
not at all					somewhat					very
confident					confident					confident

3. How responsible is the defendant for his/her actions?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
not at all					somewhat					very
responsible					responsible					responsible

4. How credible is the defendant?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
not at all					somewhat					very
credible					credible					credible

5. Assault causing bodily harm can be punished with imprisonment of up to ten years. What (if any) punishment do you believe the defendant deserves?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
no punishment									maximum punishment	

6. How much did you factor in the video-recorded scenario when making your decision?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Not at all									Very Much	

Appendix N

Trial Summary – Bystander Video Condition

Disclaimer: The following case is a summary of court trial for a police officer charged with assault causing bodily harm. For the purpose of the study, the proceedings have been condensed into summary form. Participants should only consider what is provided and make no assumptions about rule of law or absent information.

Please read and review the following case details carefully.

Judge: *The accused Scott Raymond Malone is charged that he on or about the 17th day of April of 2017 at 10:07am, at or near Toronto, Ontario did unlawfully cause bodily harm to Mr. Curtis Moore contrary to section 267(b) of the criminal code. The Crown alleges that the accused used excessive force during an arrest of the victim, resulting in bodily harm. Under the law, the Crown has the burden of proving that the defendant is guilty of these charges beyond a reasonable doubt. It is your responsibility to decide the facts, review the evidence, and apply the law that I will give you at the end of the trial. The case will commence with the Crown Prosecutor and Defence Attorney providing opening statements. The facts will then be summarized for you and any evidence will be provided to you. Following this, you will be asked to make a decision as to whether the defendant is guilty or not guilty.*

Opening statements

Crown Prosecutor Opening Statement: *The evidence will show that Constable Scott Malone, while affecting an arrest, used excessive force given the totality of the circumstances. Constable Malone did push Mr. Moore, who had taken no aggressive actions, willfully and forcefully causing him to fall and suffer a traumatic brain injury, separated shoulder, and a seizure at the time of the incident. Cst. Malone's actions given the circumstances, were excessive and not in accordance with police procedure or the criminal code, and therefore justify a conviction for an assault causing bodily harm.*

Defence Attorney Opening Statement: *Constable Scott Malone was attending a call for service, and was justified in placing Mr. Moore under arrest, due to an outstanding warrant. Mr. Moore resisted arrest by pulling away from Cst. Malone, and lost his own balance and fell. During this fall, Mr. Moore fell back against a wall. My Moore's own actions are the cause of his own injuries, and in fact Cst Malone tried to stop Mr. Moore from falling and rendered immediate assistance.*

Judge: *I have before me a joint submission from Defence and Crown on a set of agreed statements of facts:*

- The complainant was subject to lawful arrest for an outstanding warrant.*
- The accused, Constable Scott Malone, was the first police officer to respond to the scene, had formed the intent to affect an arrest and called for back up.*

- *Constable Malone had engaged Mr. Moore prior to the arrival of back up, and had verbally placed Mr. Moore under arrest.*
- *Constable Malone had made physical contact with Mr. Moore with the intent to complete the lawful arrest by placing Mr. Moore in handcuffs.*

-The backup constable arrived at 10:15am.

-The ambulance arrived at 10:17am.

-The complainant, Mr. Curtis Moore, was transported to the Hospital immediately after the event for his injuries, where he remained an "inpatient" in care for a period of 1 week.

Physical evidence agreed upon as entered by Defence and Crown

Evidence: Dispatch Call

On April 17 of 2017, at approximately 10:07am, Cst. Scott Malone responded to a dispatch call about a suspect breaking into cars in the parking lot of Humber College. This dispatch call has been recorded and transcribed, and entered as evidence, on agreed statement of facts.

Please take a moment to review this evidence.

► Play Recording

Display Transcript

Dispatch: Bravo 16, sending you a call; campus security has received a call that a "Curtis Moore", was seen breaking into cars and taking contents in their campus parking lot. Security advises that police told them yesterday that there is an outstanding warrant for Moore for similar thefts committed earlier in the week in the same place. Caller states that they were told to call police if Moore was spotted...stand by...CPIC confirms outstanding warrant for theft entered for Curtis Moore yesterday, subject is arrestable on warrant out of our office, File 2018-18908.

Security still has eyes on the subject via security camera; subject is presently in the atrium of the **** Building on North Campus, described as approximately 5'5", 140 lbs Caucasian male, jeans, red hoodie, sitting alone on the bench. CPIC shows no prior convictions or cautions. No security officers are available to meet yet, they are tied up on a protest on the other side of the campus.

Constable Scott Malone: Copy that, I know Moore, and it is actually my theft case and warrant entry. He was cooperative last time we spoke, I'll pick him up – send back up routine. I'm already on site.

Dispatch: Copy that, cover car routine for Bravo 16?

Bravo 7 (second officer): Bravo 7, I'll be 10-17 routine, ETA 5 minutes.

Constable Malone: Dispatch, Bravo 16, I'm heading into the building and I can see Moore in the atrium, building ***, North Campus. I'll be with him. 5-minute timer please.

This concludes the preliminary agreed evidence submissions.

Witness: Security Officer

The Crown called upon Security Guard, Mr. Andrew Campbell, to testify at the trial and give his accounts of his actions and the event that he witnessed through the security camera on campus.

Summary of Evidence Given:

Mr. Andrew Campbell is a security guard at Humber College, and was the individual who called 911 the day of the incident. Mr. Campbell indicated that he called the police because he received reports that there was a male breaking into cars in the parking lot at Humber College Campus. The male was seen breaking into cars one previous time the same week, and was told to call the police if he was seen on campus again. Mr. Campbell then advised the 911 dispatcher that the suspect was last seen in the atrium of a building on campus. A few minutes later, the security guard witnessed the interaction between the police officer and Mr. Moore in that same atrium, through the security camera. He indicated that he saw them talking, and then a quick motion followed by Mr. Moore's fall to the floor. He then saw the officer step back, look around and then attempt to help Mr. Moore. Mr. Campbell reported that the whole event happened really fast, and that he then saw Mr. Moore have what looked like a seizure on the floor. The ambulance was then called to the scene, and Mr. Campbell did not see anything after their arrival to the scene.

The security cameras were not properly working that day, and the scenario was not recorded.

Witnesses: Physicians

The Crown Prosecutor called the physician who assessed Mr. Moore at the time of the incident to testify. Dr. Ethan Hughes is a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians of Canada, and specializes in neurology. Dr. Hughes indicated that Mr. Moore was admitted to the intensive care unit at Toronto General Hospital and placed on a ventilator, as he was unconscious. Dr. Hughes said that he first assessed Mr. Moore on April 17, 2017 at approximately 2:57pm, after he was extubated off the ventilator. After Mr. Moore awoke, he reported that he had no memory of the event prior to his fall. Mr. Moore exhibited symptoms of memory loss, agitation, confusion, nausea and vomiting, persistent headaches, dizziness, fatigue, sensitivity to light, and post trauma amnesia. Dr. Hughes reported that a CAT scan of Mr. Moore's brain indicated a small subdural hematoma about 2mm in thickness. This is more commonly known as a blood clot on the brain's surface, beneath the skull. There was no skull fracture present, and there were no other signs of damage to the brain. Dr. Hughes's assessment was that Mr. Moore suffered from a Moderate Traumatic Brain Injury.

Dr. Hughes reported that he completed a follow-up assessment of Mr. Moore's head trauma two months following his discharge from the hospital. The follow-up CAT scan indicated that the subdural hematoma had subsided, but Mr. Moore still had symptoms of headaches, fatigue, memory loss, sensitivity to light, and was reporting symptoms of depression.

Dr. Hughes also noted that Mr. Moore had a seizure for approximately 55 seconds immediately after hitting his head during the time of the incident. However, no other seizures were reported after Mr. Moore regained consciousness.

The Crown Prosecutor called the physician who assessed Mr. Moore's external injuries at the time of the incident to testify. Dr. Gary Mullens is a Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Canada and specializes in sports medicine and orthopedics. Dr. Mullens testified that an X-Ray was used to evaluate the degree of the shoulder injury, and indicated a suspected dislocation. A follow-up MRI report indicated that the fall caused a complete tear of the acromioclavicular ligament, and a partial tear of the coracoclavicular ligament. This injury is more commonly known as a 'separated shoulder', which can often be caused from direct impact such as falling on the shoulder. Mr. Moore's symptom presentation is typical of a type 2 Injury, in which the acromioclavicular ligament is completely torn, and the Coracoclavicular ligament may be partially torn. Surgery was not required for the injury, but Mr. Moore was required to keep his arm in a sling for up to 6 weeks, and then seek physiotherapy for at least 3 months following the removal of the sling.

Note: blood results from hospital showed no traces of drugs or alcohol use by Mr. Moore on the night of the incident.

Complainant: The Victim/Suspect

The Defence called Mr. Curtis Moore to the stand to testify, and give his account of how the injury is affecting his daily life. While testifying, Mr. Moore stated the following,

"All I remember is that at one moment I was in the school, and then I just remember waking up in the hospital later that day. My doctor says that I suffered a head injury, which is why I have no memory of the event with the police officer. I have ongoing headaches, and can't concentrate so I can't work. I was told that I had a seizure at the time of the event, so I'm really scared that it's going to happen again at some point. I also keep having nightmares about having a seizure and waking up in the hospital. It's really scary because I can't remember what happened. I also really hurt my shoulder from the fall, and even after weekly physio, it still isn't back to normal yet, so it's still hard to do simple tasks like grocery shopping where I have to lift and carry heavy bags. The whole incident has left me terrified of police. I've never been in trouble before...yea I was taking change from cars and I would have owned up to that but it's no reason for a giant cop with a chip on his shoulder to beat me half to death. He beat me unconscious".

Statements:

The Crown Prosecutor stated that the video shows the police officer pushing Mr. Moore, who was taking no aggressive actions during the incident. The push was so forceful that it caused him to strike his head, be rendered unconscious and fall, uncontrolled on his shoulder. The single forceful push was the cause of serious injuries and unjustified (excessive force) given that Mr. Moore had taken no aggressive actions.

The Defence counsel stated that the video displays Mr. Moore resisting arrest by backing up and flailing and arm that Cst. Malone was trying to control (after being placed lawfully under arrest). When Mr. Moore broke his own arm free, he then lost balance, and fell backward on a wall - causing injuries as a result of his own actions. The only physical force utilized by Cst. Malone was an attempt at hand/arm control and that there was no push, and no excessive force.

Witness: Use of Force Expert

A police use-of-force expert was asked to provide their opinion on the videos.

The Crown Prosecutor called use-of-force expert, Sgt. Michael Haas, to testify as an expert witness. Mr. Haas is a serving police officer with a Canadian law enforcement agency and has a Master of Arts (M.A.) degree in Leadership and Training from Royal Roads University (Victoria, BC), as well as a Master of Science (M.Sc.) degree in Exercise Physiology. Mr. Haas teaches various use-of-force courses to Canadian and U.S. law enforcement at various police academies and workshops, often specializing in defensive tactics and application of appropriate force. In addition, he has taken many courses relating to police use of force from around the world and has lectured at many respected universities. Mr. Haas also helped develop use-of-force training programs used by various police agencies across North America. Mr. Haas has been accepted as an expert witness in 17 previous cases involving police use-of-force in Canada, and in two cases in the United States, and has offered testimony / opinions with respect to video evidence.

During his testimony, Mr. Haas indicated that the subject, Mr. Moore, was arrestable for an outstanding warrant. He further stated that the video does not allow the viewer to see any definitive contact. He said that the subject appeared to verbally resist arrest, but that you cannot tell if the subject was pushed or if he fell on his own as a result of his own actions. Mr. Haas also stated that he cannot see the facial expression or non-verbal cues/ body language of the officer in video which often lends perspective into the actions of others during interactions. Mr. Haas said that there is limited information from the video alone, and that he is unable to provide an opinion on whether the police officer's use of force was justified or excessive. Mr. Haas stated that the officer's notes and subsequent report also offer no further information upon which to form a definitive opinion. Mr. Haas did, however, after being read the medical reports state that the injuries suffered by Mr. Moore are not typical for a cooperative or passively resistant subject placed under arrest (in his 20-year policing experience in Canada).

The Accused: Police Officer

On the advice of Defence counsel, the police officer did not take the stand.

Evidence: Bystander Video

Crown Prosecutors were contacted by a person claiming to have been on scene and had video of the incident. Crown reviewed the statement and video of the bystander with investigators and Defence (Under rules of disclosure).

On a joint motion of the Crown and Defence, credible new evidence has surfaced and testimony of an unscheduled witness was requested to be admitted. This was permitted by the Judge, and evidence was supplied by Witness, Mr. Marleau.

Mr. Marleau, who was not identified at the scene or during the course of the investigation, read about the ongoing trial in a news report. He realized he had evidence that may be important to the case and contacted crown counsel to inform them about a video he had taken of the event. Mr. Marleau explained that he was on campus at the time and place of the incident waiting for a friend. He had been standing off to the side of the police interaction, and took the video on his cell phone at the time because he thought it would make an interesting internet post. He stated that he did not remain to speak with police as he did not know if he had to do so, and that he did not think his video was important and there are lots of cameras on campus. He didn't think he was doing anything wrong by leaving as didn't feel he was involved. When he left the scene, he forgot about the video because he decided against posting another person's misfortune. When Mr. Marleau saw that the case was being covered in the media and was more complex than he realized, he felt he had a responsibility to submit his video.

Both the Crown Prosecutor and the Defence Attorney agreed to the video to be entered in as evidence.

Instructions:

[1] You are going to see a video tape of the cell phone camera footage from the event. Please watch and listen to it very carefully.

[2] As you watch and listen to this tape, be careful to distinguish between what Cst. Malone says and what others on the tape are saying. What the others say might help you figure out what Cst. Malone says and what his words mean. But Cst. Malone can be held responsible only for what he actually says, not for what others say. It is only what Cst. Malone said that is evidence concerning Cst. Malone.

In other words, what others say may provide a context for understanding what Cst. Malone says; but only Cst. Malone's words, as understood in this context, can be used as evidence of what Cst. Malone has done or intended to do.

Should posturing or body Language play a role in communicating, be prepared to explain.

► Play recording of Bystander video.

Closing remarks:

Prosecution has re-iterated their assertion that Mr. Moore was pushed by constable Malone. The push was excessive given the circumstances of the arrest and therefore excessive force. As the resulting injuries were of a nature severe enough to constitute bodily harm, Cst. Malone is guilty of assault causing bodily harm.

Defence stated that constable Malone had placed Mr. Moore lawfully under arrest and was holding onto Mr. Moore's arm. Mr. Moore's own resistive flailing actions to break free and resist arrest caused him to lose his balance and fall. Cst. Malone is not the cause of Mr. Moore's injuries and was justified in grasping Mr. Moore's arm. This was not excessive, and the loss of hold was not intentional - and was caused by Mr. Moore himself, not Cst. Malone.

Instructions for Participants after Reading Trial Summary**Jury Instructions**

Judge: *You have now been presented with the case details and relevant evidence. It is now my responsibility to provide you with the law.*

Presumption of Innocence

- [1] Every person charged with an offence is presumed to be innocent, unless and until the Crown has proved his/her guilt beyond a reasonable doubt.
- [2] The indictment tells you and Scott Malone what offence the Crown alleges against Scott Malone. The charge is not evidence. It is not proof of guilt.
- [3] The presumption of innocence lasts throughout the trial. This presumption only ceases to apply if, at the end of the case and on the whole of the evidence, the Crown has proved beyond a reasonable doubt that Scott Malone is guilty of the crime charged.

Burden of Proof

- [1] The person charged does not have to present evidence or prove anything in this case, in particular, that he is innocent of the offence charged.
- [2] From start to finish, it is the Crown who must prove the guilt of Scott Malone beyond a reasonable doubt. You must find Scott Malone not guilty of the offence unless the Crown proves beyond a reasonable doubt that he is guilty of it.

Reasonable Doubt

- [1] The principle of “proof beyond a reasonable doubt” is an essential part of the presumption of innocence.
- [2] A reasonable doubt is not a far-fetched or frivolous doubt. It is not a doubt based on sympathy or prejudice. It is a doubt based on reason and common sense. It is a doubt that arises at the end of the case based not only on what the evidence tells you but also on what that evidence does not tell you.

[3] It is not enough for you to believe that Scott Malone is probably or likely guilty. In those circumstances, you must find him/her not guilty, because the Crown would have failed to prove his/her guilt beyond a reasonable doubt. Proof of probable or likely guilt is not proof of guilt beyond a reasonable doubt.

[4] You should also remember, however, that it is nearly impossible to prove anything with absolute certainty. The Crown is not required to do so. Absolute certainty is a standard of proof that does not exist in law.

[5] If, at the end of the case, and after an assessment of all of the evidence, you are not sure that Scott Malone committed the offence, you must find him/her not guilty.

[6] If, at the end of the case, based on all of the evidence, you are sure that Scott Malone committed the (an) offence, you should find Scott Malone guilty.

Video Tape Recordings

[1] During the trial, you saw and heard a video tape recording of the interaction between Cst. Malone and Mr. Curtis Moore.

[6] In watching and listening to these tapes, be careful to distinguish between what Cst. Malone says and what anyone else on the tape is saying. What another person says might help you determine what Cst. Malone says and what his words mean. But Cst. Malone can be held responsible only for what he actually says, not for what anyone else says.

In other words, what another person says may provide a context for understanding what Cst. Malone says; but only Cst. Malone's words, as understood in this context, are evidence of what Cst. Malone has done or intended to do. It is only what Cst. Malone said that is evidence concerning Cst. Malone.

Should posturing or body Language play a role in communicating, be prepared to explain.

Judge: *Finally, I will remind you that Cst. Scott Malone is charged with Assault causing Bodily Harm.*

Every one who, in committing an assault
(b) causes bodily harm to the complainant,
is guilty of an indictable offence and is liable to imprisonment for a term not exceeding ten years
or an offence punishable on summary conviction and liable to imprisonment for a term not
exceeding 18 months. 1980-81-82-83, c. 125, s. 19; 1994, c. 44, s. 17.

INSTRUCTIONS: Please respond to the following items with regards to the charge of assault causing bodily harm against the defendant.

1. How do you find the defendant, Scott Malone?

GUILTY _____

NOT GUILTY _____

2. How confident do you feel in your verdict?

3. How responsible is the defendant for his/her actions?

4. How credible is the defendant?

5. Assault causing bodily harm can be punished with imprisonment of up to ten years. What (if any) punishment do you believe the defendant deserves?

6. How much did you factor in the video-recorded scenario when making your decision?

[illegible]

Appendix O

Trial Summary – No Video Condition

Disclaimer: The following case is a summary of court trial for a police officer charged with assault causing bodily harm. For the purpose of the study, the proceedings have been condensed into summary form. Participants should only consider what is provided and make no assumptions about rule of law or absent information.

Please read and review the following case details carefully.

Judge: *The accused Scott Raymond Malone is charged that he on or about the 17th day of April of 2017 at 10:07am, at or near Toronto, Ontario did unlawfully cause bodily harm to Mr. Curtis Moore contrary to section 267(b) of the criminal code. The Crown alleges that the accused used excessive force during an arrest of the victim, resulting in bodily harm. Under the law, the Crown has the burden of proving that the defendant is guilty of these charges beyond a reasonable doubt. It is your responsibility to decide the facts, review the evidence, and apply the law that I will give you at the end of the trial. The case will commence with the Crown Prosecutor and Defence Attorney providing opening statements. The facts will then be summarized for you and any evidence will be provided to you. Following this, you will be asked to make a decision as to whether the defendant is guilty or not guilty.*

Opening statements

Crown Prosecutor Opening Statement: *The evidence will show that Constable Scott Malone, while affecting an arrest, used excessive force given the totality of the circumstances. Constable Malone did push Mr. Moore, who had taken no aggressive actions, willfully and forcefully causing him to fall and suffer a traumatic brain injury, separated shoulder, and a seizure at the time of the incident. Cst. Malone's actions given the circumstances, were excessive and not in accordance with police procedure or the criminal code, and therefore justify a conviction for an assault causing bodily harm.*

Defence Attorney Opening Statement: *Constable Scott Malone was attending a call for service, and was justified in placing Mr. Moore under arrest, due to an outstanding warrant. Mr. Moore resisted arrest by pulling away from Cst. Malone, and lost his own balance and fell. During this fall, Mr. Moore fell back against a wall. My Moore's own actions are the cause of his own injuries, and in fact Cst Malone tried to stop Mr. Moore from falling and rendered immediate assistance.*

Judge: *I have before me a joint submission from Defence and Crown on a set of agreed statements of facts:*

- The complainant was subject to lawful arrest for an outstanding warrant.*
- The accused, Constable Scott Malone, was the first police officer to respond to the scene, had formed the intent to affect an arrest and called for back up.*

- *Constable Malone had engaged Mr. Moore prior to the arrival of back up, and had verbally placed Mr. Moore under arrest.*
- *Constable Malone had made physical contact with Mr. Moore with the intent to complete the lawful arrest by placing Mr. Moore in handcuffs.*

-The backup constable arrived at 10:15am.

-The ambulance arrived at 10:17am.

-The complainant, Mr. Curtis Moore, was transported to the Hospital immediately after the event for his injuries, where he remained an "inpatient" in care for a period of 1 week.

Physical evidence agreed upon as entered by Defence and Crown

Evidence: Dispatch Call

On April 17 of 2017, at approximately 10:07am, Cst. Scott Malone responded to a dispatch call about a suspect breaking into cars in the parking lot of Humber College. This dispatch call has been recorded and transcribed, and entered as evidence, on agreed statement of facts.

Please take a moment to review this evidence.

► Play Recording

Display Transcript

Dispatch: Bravo 16, sending you a call; campus security has received a call that a "Curtis Moore", was seen breaking into cars and taking contents in their campus parking lot. Security advises that police told them yesterday that there is an outstanding warrant for Moore for similar thefts committed earlier in the week in the same place. Caller states that they were told to call police if Moore was spotted...stand by...CPIC confirms outstanding warrant for theft entered for Curtis Moore yesterday, subject is arrestable on warrant out of our office, File 2018-18908.

Security still has eyes on the subject via security camera; subject is presently in the atrium of the **** Building on North Campus, described as approximately 5'5", 140 lbs Caucasian male, jeans, red hoodie, sitting alone on the bench. CPIC shows no prior convictions or cautions. No security officers are available to meet yet, they are tied up on a protest on the other side of the campus.

Constable Scott Malone: Copy that, I know Moore, and it is actually my theft case and warrant entry. He was cooperative last time we spoke, I'll pick him up – send back up routine. I'm already on site.

Dispatch: Copy that, cover car routine for Bravo 16?

Bravo 7 (second officer): Bravo 7, I'll be 10-17 routine, ETA 5 minutes.

Constable Malone: Dispatch, Bravo 16, I'm heading into the building and I can see Moore in the atrium, building ***, North Campus. I'll be with him. 5-minute timer please.

This concludes the preliminary agreed evidence submissions.

Witness: Security Officer

The Crown called upon Security Guard, Mr. Andrew Campbell, to testify at the trial and give his accounts of his actions and the event that he witnessed through the security camera on campus.

Summary of Evidence Given:

Mr. Andrew Campbell is a security guard at Humber College, and was the individual who called 911 the day of the incident. Mr. Campbell indicated that he called the police because he received reports that there was a male breaking into cars in the parking lot at Humber College Campus. The male was seen breaking into cars one previous time the same week, and was told to call the police if he was seen on campus again. Mr. Campbell then advised the 911 dispatcher that the suspect was last seen in the atrium of a building on campus. A few minutes later, the security guard witnessed the interaction between the police officer and Mr. Moore in that same atrium, through the security camera. He indicated that he saw them talking, and then a quick motion followed by Mr. Moore's fall to the floor. He then saw the officer step back, look around and then attempt to help Mr. Moore. Mr. Campbell reported that the whole event happened really fast, and that he then saw Mr. Moore have what looked like a seizure on the floor. The ambulance was then called to the scene, and Mr. Campbell did not see anything after their arrival to the scene.

The security cameras were not properly working that day, and the scenario was not recorded.

Witnesses: Physicians

The Crown Prosecutor called the physician who assessed Mr. Moore at the time of the incident to testify. Dr. Ethan Hughes is a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians of Canada, and specializes in neurology. Dr. Hughes indicated that Mr. Moore was admitted to the intensive care unit at Toronto General Hospital and placed on a ventilator, as he was unconscious. Dr. Hughes said that he first assessed Mr. Moore on April 17, 2017 at approximately 2:57pm, after he was extubated off the ventilator. After Mr. Moore awoke, he reported that he had no memory of the event prior to his fall. Mr. Moore exhibited symptoms of memory loss, agitation, confusion, nausea and vomiting, persistent headaches, dizziness, fatigue, sensitivity to light, and post trauma amnesia. Dr. Hughes reported that a CAT scan of Mr. Moore's brain indicated a small subdural hematoma about 2mm in thickness. This is more commonly known as a blood clot on the brain's surface, beneath the skull. There was no skull fracture present, and there were no other signs of damage to the brain. Dr. Hughes's assessment was that Mr. Moore suffered from a Moderate Traumatic Brain Injury.

Dr. Hughes reported that he completed a follow-up assessment of Mr. Moore's head trauma two months following his discharge from the hospital. The follow-up CAT scan indicated that the subdural hematoma had subsided, but Mr. Moore still had symptoms of headaches, fatigue, memory loss, sensitivity to light, and was reporting symptoms of depression.

Dr. Hughes also noted that Mr. Moore had a seizure for approximately 55 seconds immediately after hitting his head during the time of the incident. However, no other seizures were reported after Mr. Moore regained consciousness.

The Crown Prosecutor called the physician who assessed Mr. Moore's external injuries at the time of the incident to testify. Dr. Gary Mullens is a Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Canada and specializes in sports medicine and orthopedics. Dr. Mullens testified that an X-Ray was used to evaluate the degree of the shoulder injury, and indicated a suspected dislocation. A follow-up MRI report indicated that the fall caused a complete tear of the acromioclavicular ligament, and a partial tear of the coracoclavicular ligament. This injury is more commonly known as a 'separated shoulder', which can often be caused from direct impact such as falling on the shoulder. Mr. Moore's symptom presentation is typical of a type 2 Injury, in which the acromioclavicular ligament is completely torn, and the Coracoclavicular ligament may be partially torn. Surgery was not required for the injury, but Mr. Moore was required to keep his arm in a sling for up to 6 weeks, and then seek physiotherapy for at least 3 months following the removal of the sling.

Note: blood results from hospital showed no traces of drugs or alcohol use by Mr. Moore on the night of the incident.

Complainant: The Victim/Suspect

The Defence called Mr. Curtis Moore to the stand to testify, and give his account of how the injury is affecting his daily life. While testifying, Mr. Moore stated the following,

"All I remember is that at one moment I was in the school, and then I just remember waking up in the hospital later that day. My doctor says that I suffered a head injury, which is why I have no memory of the event with the police officer. I have ongoing headaches, and can't concentrate so I can't work. I was told that I had a seizure at the time of the event, so I'm really scared that it's going to happen again at some point. I also keep having nightmares about having a seizure and waking up in the hospital. It's really scary because I can't remember what happened. I also really hurt my shoulder from the fall, and even after weekly physio, it still isn't back to normal yet, so it's still hard to do simple tasks like grocery shopping where I have to lift and carry heavy bags. The whole incident has left me terrified of police. I've never been in trouble before...yea I was taking change from cars and I would have owned up to that but it's no reason for a giant cop with a chip on his shoulder to beat me half to death. He beat me unconscious".

Statements:

The Crown Prosecutor stated that the police officer pushed Mr. Moore, who was taking no aggressive actions during the incident. The push was so forceful that it caused him to strike his head, be rendered unconscious and fall, uncontrolled on his shoulder. The single forceful push was the cause of serious injuries and unjustified (excessive force) given that Mr. Moore had taken no aggressive actions.

The Defence counsel stated that Mr. Moore resisting arrest by backing up and flailing and arm that Cst. Malone was trying to control (after being placed lawfully under arrest). When Mr. Moore broke his own arm free, he then lost balance, and fell backward on a wall - causing injuries as a result of his own actions. The only physical force utilized by Cst. Malone was an attempt at hand/arm control and that there was no push, and no excessive force.

Witness: Use of Force Expert

A police use-of-force expert was asked to provide their opinion on the matter.

The Crown Prosecutor called use-of-force expert, Sgt. Michael Haas, to testify as an expert witness. Mr. Haas is a serving police officer with a Canadian law enforcement agency and has a Master of Arts (M.A.) degree in Leadership and Training from Royal Roads University (Victoria, BC), as well as a Master of Science (M.Sc.) degree in Exercise Physiology. Mr. Haas teaches various use-of-force courses to Canadian and U.S. law enforcement at various police academies and workshops, often specializing in defensive tactics and application of appropriate force. In addition, he has taken many courses relating to police use of force from around the world and has lectured at many respected universities. Mr. Haas also helped develop use-of-force training programs used by various police agencies across North America. Mr. Haas has been accepted as an expert witness in 17 previous cases involving police use-of-force in Canada, and in two cases in the United States, and has offered testimony / opinions with respect to relevant evidence.

During his testimony, Mr. Haas indicated that the subject, Mr. Moore, was arrestable for an outstanding warrant. Mr. Haas said that there is limited information, and that he is unable to provide an opinion on whether the police officer's use of force was justified or excessive. Mr. Haas stated that the officer's notes and subsequent report also offer no further information upon which to form a definitive opinion. Mr. Haas did, however, after being read the medical reports state that the injuries suffered by Mr. Moore are not typical for a cooperative or passively resistant subject placed under arrest (in his 20-year policing experience in Canada).

The Accused: Police Officer

On the advice of Defence counsel, the police officer did not take the stand.

Closing remarks:

Prosecution has re-iterated their assertion that Mr. Moore was pushed by constable Malone. The push was excessive given the circumstances of the arrest and therefore excessive force. As the resulting injuries were of a nature severe enough to constitute bodily harm, Cst. Malone is guilty of assault causing bodily harm.

Defence stated that constable Malone had placed Mr. Moore lawfully under arrest and was holding onto Mr. Moore's arm. Mr. Moore's own resistive flailing actions to break free and resist arrest caused him to lose his balance and fall. Cst. Malone is not the cause of Mr. Moore's

injuries and was justified in grasping Mr. Moore's arm. This was not excessive, and the loss of hold was not intentional - and was caused by Mr. Moore himself, not Cst. Malone.

Instructions for Participants after Reading Trial Summary

Jury Instructions

Judge: *You have now been presented with the case details and relevant evidence. It is now my responsibility to provide you with the law.*

Presumption of Innocence

- [1] Every person charged with an offence is presumed to be innocent, unless and until the Crown has proved his/her guilt beyond a reasonable doubt.
- [2] The indictment tells you and Scott Malone what offence the Crown alleges against Scott Malone. The charge is not evidence. It is not proof of guilt.
- [3] The presumption of innocence lasts throughout the trial. This presumption only ceases to apply if, at the end of the case and on the whole of the evidence, the Crown has proved beyond a reasonable doubt that Scott Malone is guilty of the crime charged.

Burden of Proof

- [1] The person charged does not have to present evidence or prove anything in this case, in particular, that he is innocent of the offence charged.
- [2] From start to finish, it is the Crown who must prove the guilt of Scott Malone beyond a reasonable doubt. You must find Scott Malone not guilty of the offence unless the Crown proves beyond a reasonable doubt that he is guilty of it.

Reasonable Doubt

- [1] The principle of “proof beyond a reasonable doubt” is an essential part of the presumption of innocence.
- [2] A reasonable doubt is not a far-fetched or frivolous doubt. It is not a doubt based on sympathy or prejudice. It is a doubt based on reason and common sense. It is a doubt that arises at the end of the case based not only on what the evidence tells you but also on what that evidence does not tell you.
- [3] It is not enough for you to believe that Scott Malone is probably or likely guilty. In those circumstances, you must find him/her not guilty, because the Crown would have failed to prove his/her guilt beyond a reasonable doubt. Proof of probable or likely guilt is not proof of guilt beyond a reasonable doubt.
- [4] You should also remember, however, that it is nearly impossible to prove anything with absolute certainty. The Crown is not required to do so. Absolute certainty is a standard of proof that does not exist in law.
- [5] If, at the end of the case, and after an assessment of all of the evidence, you are not sure that Scott Malone committed the offence, you must find him/her not guilty.

5. Assault causing bodily harm can be punished with imprisonment of up to ten years. What (if any) punishment do you believe the defendant deserves?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

no punishment maximum punishment

Appendix P

Study 2: Advertisement for Recruitment

[University of Ottawa] & [Carleton University]

Study Name: Police Officer on Trial

Description:

The aim of this online study is to examine people's decisions about a court scenario of a police officer accused of using excessive force against a suspect. Participants will be asked to read a trial summary and view any relevant evidence. Participants will then be presented with juror instructions and will be asked to make a verdict about the case. Participants will then be asked to complete questionnaires to understand their attitudes and cognitions. Please note that for this study, participants must read, write, and understand English well, and should not work as a police officer either currently or in the past. This study will take about 1 hour to complete, and can complete the study from their own computer at home. Participants will be compensated with one course credit.

Participants cannot complete this study if they have completed the study, 'Police Incidents on Camera'.

Appendix Q

Study 2: Consent Form 1 (Prior to Completing Study)

[University of Ottawa]

CONSENT FORM FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPATION

Title of the study: Police Officer on Trial

Primary Researcher:

Natasha Korva (PhD student), University of Ottawa, School of Psychology,

Experimenter:

Natasha Korva (PhD student), University of Ottawa, School of Psychology,

Co-Investigators:

Dr. Martin Lalumière (PhD), University of Ottawa, School of Psychology,

Dr. Craig Bennell, Carleton University (PhD), School of Psychology,

Invitation to Participate: I am invited to participate in this research study conducted by Dr. Martin Lalumière and Natasha Korva, University of Ottawa, Dr. Craig Bennell at Carleton University.

Purpose of the Study: The purpose of the study is to examine decisions made in court regarding a police officer charged with assault causing bodily harm.

Participation: My participation in this online study will consist of reading a trial summary and considering any relevant evidence about a case involving a police officer charged with assault causing bodily harm (e.g., evidence may include audio, video, testimony, etc.). After reading the trial transcript and considering the evidence, I will be given juror instructions and asked to make a verdict of guilt or innocence. I will also then complete a demographics questionnaire assessing my background, and three questionnaires about cognition style and views on policing/authoritarianism.

Once I have completed the questionnaires, I will be provided with a debriefing form, and given course credit. The whole study will take approximately 1 hour to complete.

Eligibility: To participate, I am required to have a solid understanding of the English language. I will be excluded from taking part in this study if I have worked as a police officer or other law enforcement professional. I will also be excluded from the study if I have completed the previous study on ISPR called, 'Police Incidents on Camera'.

Risks: My participation in this study will entail that I volunteer personal information about my thoughts, perceptions, and feelings. Additionally, I will be asked to read and view material that may be unpleasant and may contain some upsetting content. It is possible that I may experience some emotional discomfort when answering questionnaires related to my thoughts about the video. If at any time I feel uncomfortable, I can choose to withdraw from the study without any negative consequences. In addition, upon completion of or withdrawal from this study, I will be provided with a list of self-help and professional resources, should I be interested in receiving more information and/or professional help related to any mental health issues.

In addition, the online study is hosted by Qualtrics, a USA company. All communications to/from the Qualtrics servers are encrypted using TLS (Transport Layer Security). For research at Canadian institutions, Qualtrics stores their data in Ireland.

Benefits: My participation will inform future research about perceptions of incidents involving police.

Confidentiality and Anonymity: I have received assurances from the researcher that the information I will share will remain strictly confidential. All of the information that I will provide during the experiment will be stored anonymously. When I enter the study, I will be assigned a participant identification number and all of the information that I provide is only identified by this number, not my name. The results from the study will likely be presented in several formats, including journal articles, oral presentations, poster presentations, and the thesis of Dr. Lalumière's graduate student. The data will never be presented with personal information, such as my name.

In order to minimize the risk of security breaches and to help ensure your confidentiality we recommend that you use standard safety measures such as signing out of your account, closing your browser and locking your screen or device when you are no longer using them / when you have completed the study.

Conservation of Data: The data collected in this study will be kept in a secure manner. Electronic copies of the data will be stored on password-protected computers. All data will be backed up on a password-protected hard-drive, which will be kept in a locked filing cabinet in the Lalumière Laboratory. The electronic data in the Lalumière Laboratory will be stored indefinitely on protected computers and hard-drive. Only the primary researcher and co-researchers will have access to the data.

Compensation: In return for my participation in this study, I will be compensated with one (1) course credit through ISPR. If I choose to withdraw from the study at any time, I will still receive this compensation.

Voluntary Participation: I am under no obligation to participate and if I choose to participate, I can withdraw from the study at any time during the experimental session and/or refuse to answer any questionnaire items, without suffering any negative consequences. If I wish to stop participating, I will simply exit out of the online survey. If I choose to withdraw during the

experimental session, all data gathered until the time of withdrawal will not be used.

If I have any questions about the study, I may contact the primary researcher or the experimenter.

Appendix R

Study 2: Consent Form 1 (Prior to Completing Study)

[Carleton University]

CONSENT FORM FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPATION

Title of the study: Police Officer on Trial

Primary Researcher:

Dr. Craig Bennell, Carleton University (PhD), School of Psychology,

Experimenter:

Natasha Korva (PhD student), University of Ottawa, School of Psychology,

Co-Investigators:

Dr. Martin Lalumière (PhD), University of Ottawa, School of Psychology,

Research Assistant:

Bryce Jenkins (M.A. Student), Carleton University, School of Psychology

Invitation to Participate: I am invited to participate in this research study conducted by Dr. Martin Lalumière and Natasha Korva, University of Ottawa, Dr. Craig Bennell at Carleton University.

Purpose of the Study: The purpose of the study is to examine decisions made in court regarding a police officer charged with assault causing bodily harm.

Participation: My participation in this online study will consist of watching a short video depicting an interaction between a police officer and a suspect. After viewing the video (approximately 1 minute), I will be asked a series of questions about my perceptions of the incident that occurred in the video (approximately 20 minutes). I will also then complete a demographics questionnaire assessing my background, and two questionnaires about cognition style and views on policing (approximately 35 minutes).

Once I have completed the questionnaires, I will be provided with a debriefing form, and given course credit. The whole study will take approximately 1 hour to complete.

Eligibility: To participate, I am required to have a solid understanding of the English language. I will be excluded from taking part in this study if I have worked as a police officer or other law enforcement professional. I will also be excluded from the study if I have completed the previous study on SONA called, 'Police Incidents on Camera'.

Risks: My participation in this study will entail that I volunteer personal information about my

thoughts, perceptions, and feelings. Additionally, I will be asked to read and view material that may be unpleasant and may contain some upsetting content. It is possible that I may experience some emotional discomfort when answering questionnaires related to my thoughts about the video. If at any time I feel uncomfortable, I can choose to withdraw from the study without any negative consequences. In addition, upon completion of or withdrawal from this study, I will be provided with a list of self-help and professional resources, should I be interested in receiving more information and/or professional help related to any mental health issues.

In addition, the online study is hosted by Qualtrics, a USA company. All communications to/from the Qualtrics servers are encrypted using TLS (Transport Layer Security). For research at Canadian institutions, Qualtrics stores their data in Ireland.

Benefits: My participation will inform future research about perceptions of incidents involving police.

Confidentiality and Anonymity: I have received assurances from the researcher that the information I will share will remain strictly confidential. All of the information that I will provide during the experiment will be stored anonymously. When I enter the study, I will be assigned a participant identification number and all of the information that I provide is only identified by this number, not my name. The results from the study will likely be presented in several formats, including journal articles, oral presentations, poster presentations, and the thesis of Dr. Craig Bennell's and Dr. Lalumière's (University of Ottawa) graduate student. The data will never be presented with personal information, such as my name.

In order to minimize the risk of security breaches and to help ensure your confidentiality we recommend that you use standard safety measures such as signing out of your account, closing your browser and locking your screen or device when you are no longer using them / when you have completed the study.

Conservation of Data: The data collected in this study will be kept in a secure manner. Electronic copies of the data will be stored on password-protected computers. All data will be backed up on a password-protected hard-drive, which will be kept in a locked filing cabinet in the Lalumière Laboratory at University of Ottawa. The electronic data in the Lalumière Laboratory will be stored indefinitely on protected computers and hard-drive. Only the primary researcher and co-researchers will have access to the data.

Compensation: In return for my participation in this study, I will be compensated with one (1) course credit through SONA. If I choose to withdraw from the study at any time, I will still receive this compensation.

Voluntary Participation: I am under no obligation to participate and if I choose to participate, I can withdraw from the study at any time during the experimental session and/or refuse to answer any questionnaire items, without suffering any negative consequences. If I wish to stop participating, I will simply exit out of the online survey. If I choose to withdraw during the experimental session, all data gathered until the time of withdrawal will not be used.

If I have any questions about the study, I may contact the primary researcher or the experimenter.

If I have any ethical concerns with this study, I may contact Dr. Bernadette Campbell, Chair, Carleton University Research Ethics Board-B via email at ethics@carleton.ca.

Please indicate if you agree to participate in the above research study conducted by Dr. Craig Bennell at School of Psychology at Carleton University and Dr. Lalumière of the School of Psychology at the University of Ottawa, by clicking the appropriate button below.

‘I Consent’

‘I do not Consent’

Note: Please Print/Save a copy of this page for your records.

Appendix S**Study 2: Consent Form 2 (After Debriefing)**

[University of Ottawa]

CONSENT FORM FOR USE OF DATA**Title of the study: Police Officer on Trial**

Thank you for completing the study. Now that you have been debriefed about the study, you have the option to release your responses to us for the purpose of the study, or to withdraw your participation without consequence.

Please indicate if you agree to release your responses and data for the purpose of the study conducted by Dr. Lalumière of the School of Psychology at the University of Ottawa. Please indicate by clicking the appropriate button below.

‘I Consent to release of my data’

‘I do not Consent to release of my data, and instead choose to withdraw my participation from the study’

Please Note that the data is anonymous, and cannot be withdrawn once you consent to the release of your data.

Appendix T**Study 2: Consent Form 2 (After Debriefing)**

[Carleton University]

CONSENT FORM FOR USE OF DATA

Title of the study: Police Officer on Trial

Thank you for completing the study. Now that you have been debriefed about the study, you have the option to release your responses to us for the purpose of the study, or to withdraw your participation without consequence.

Please indicate if you agree to release your responses and data for the purpose of the study conducted by Dr. Bennell of the School of Psychology at Carleton University and Dr. Lalumiere of the School of Psychology at University of Ottawa. Please indicate by clicking the appropriate button below.

‘I Consent to release of my data’

‘I do not Consent to release of my data, and instead choose to withdraw my participation from the study’

Please Note that the data is anonymous, and cannot be withdrawn once you consent to the release of your data.

Appendix U

Study 2: Debriefing Form

[University of Ottawa]

DEBRIEFING FORM FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPATION

Title: Police Officer on Trial

➤ **Please note that the trial summary that you review and any video or audio recorded scenario that you viewed was not a real incident. The trial summary was constructed for the purpose of this study, and any audio or video recordings were acted out using actors, and recorded for the purpose of this study. All events that you read about in the trial summary, viewed in the video, or heard in the audio were staged, and no individuals were harmed in any way.**

Purpose of the Study

The aim of this study was to examine people's perceptions of video-recorded police use-of-force incidents and the effect that these perceptions can have on a police officer alleged to have assaulted and cause bodily harm toward a suspect. Despite the increased number of police use-of-force videos circulating in the media and recent recommendations to equip police officers with body worn cameras, surprisingly little research has been conducted on potential viewing biases that may impact how these videos are interpreted.

Based on previous studies suggesting that a camera's point of view influences observer perceptions and understanding (Lassiter & Irvine, 1986), the angle at which a use-of-force encounter is recorded may have consequences for relying on video evidence of a police use-of-force encounter, especially in a court context. Research suggests that the camera angle perspective can increase the propensity to find a defendant guilty and recommend a more severe sentence (Lassiter et al., 2002). Our study attempts to understand how various camera angles can impact a person's interpretation of a police scenario, and understand the implications this can have in court when a police officer is charged with assault causing bodily harm against a suspect.

Note

If as a result of participating in this study you have felt any distress or discomfort, please contact the following counselling services free of charge:

- University of Ottawa Counselling and Coaching Services:
- 613-562-5200
- 100 Marie-Curie, 4th floor, above the Campus Pharmacy
- couns@uOttawa.ca

If you have any further comments or questions, or would like information about the results of the study, please contact the experimenter Natasha Korva or the principle investigator Dr. Martin Lalumière.

For further reading, if interested:

Boivin, R., Gendron, A., Faubert, C., & Poulin, B. (2017). The body-worn camera perspective bias. *Journal of Experimental Criminology*, 1-18.

Lassiter, G. D., Greers, A. L., Handley, I. M., Weiland, P. E., & Munhall, P. J. (2002). Videotaped interrogations and confessions: a simple change in camera perspective alters verdicts in simulated trials. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(5), 867.

Thank you

Thank you for participating in this study. Your time and effort are greatly appreciated.

Appendix V

Study 2: Debriefing Form

[Carleton University]

DEBRIEFING FORM FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPATION

Title: Police Officer on Trial

➤ **Please note that the trial summary that you review and any video or audio recorded scenario that you viewed was not a real incident. The trial summary was constructed for the purpose of this study, and any audio or video recordings were acted out using actors, and recorded for the purpose of this study. All events that you read about in the trial summary, viewed in the video, or heard in the audio were staged, and no individuals were harmed in any way.**

Purpose of the Study

The aim of this study was to examine people's perceptions of video-recorded police use-of-force incidents and the effect that these perceptions can have on a police officer alleged to have assaulted and cause bodily harm toward a suspect. Despite the increased number of police use-of-force videos circulating in the media and recent recommendations to equip police officers with body worn cameras, surprisingly little research has been conducted on potential viewing biases that may impact how these videos are interpreted.

Based on previous studies suggesting that a camera's point of view influences observer perceptions and understanding (Lassiter & Irvine, 1986), the angle at which a use-of-force encounter is recorded may have consequences for relying on video evidence of a police use-of-force encounter, especially in a court context. Research suggests that the camera angle perspective can increase the propensity to find a defendant guilty and recommend a more severe sentence (Lassiter et al., 2002). Our study attempts to understand how various camera angles can impact a person's interpretation of a police scenario, and understand the implications this can have in court when a police officer is charged with assault causing bodily harm against a suspect.

Note

If as a result of participating in this study you have felt any distress or discomfort, please feel free to contact the Carleton University Health and Counseling Services at: 613-520-6674, or the Distress Centre of Ottawa and Region at 613-238-3311 (<http://www.dcottawa.on.ca>).

If you have any further comments or questions, or would like information about the results of the study, please contact the experimenter Natasha Korva or the principle investigator Dr. Craig Bennell.

For further reading, if interested:

Boivin, R., Gendron, A., Faubert, C., & Poulin, B. (2017). The body-worn camera perspective

bias. *Journal of Experimental Criminology*, 1-18.

Lassiter, G. D., Greers, A. L., Handley, I. M., Weiland, P. E., & Munhall, P. J. (2002).

Videotaped interrogations and confessions: a simple change in camera perspective alters verdicts in simulated trials. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(5), 867.

Thank you

Thank you for participating in this study. Your time and effort are greatly appreciated.