

An Investigation of Public Attitudes Towards An Garda  
Síochána and Garda Accountability



by

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## **DECLARATION BY CANDIDATE**

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and effort and that it has not been submitted anywhere for any award. Where other sources of information have been used, they have been acknowledged and referenced.

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: 09/06/2022

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## **ABSTRACT**

Since its inception in the 1920s, An Garda Síochána considered public support crucial to its workings and legitimacy. Therefore, as Gardaí provide protection, service and ultimately work for the public, understanding public attitudes towards the organisation is vital. Over the years, various bodies of accountability were created in response to scandals within An Garda Síochána and investigating public attitudes towards these bodies, most importantly the Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission (GSOC), as it is utilised by the public, is crucial in terms of gaining insight into the legitimacy and effectiveness of these accountability mechanisms. Previous literature has shown that the Irish public hold favourable attitudes to An Garda Síochána and towards Garda accountability, however, most studies were conducted by An Garda Síochána and GSOC. Studies conducted independently have contradicted some of these figures (see for example Bohan and Yorke 1987), providing further impetus for the present study. Thus, the aim of this study is to examine public attitudes towards Gardaí and Garda Accountability and understand the importance of demographic variables, in addition to previous police contact, on these attitudes. Utilising an online, quantitative methodology, the current study recruited a sample of N=125 members of the Irish public. Participants responded to surveys which measured their attitudes to Gardaí, attitudes to Garda accountability, perceptions of Gardaí during encounters, and attitudes to Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions. Overall, attitudes to Gardaí were quite ambiguous. Initially, the study found positive attitudes for Gardaí, however, this positivity decreased significantly upon the introduction of negatively phrased questions. The study concludes that attitudes were somewhat ambiguous and shifted depending on the positive or negative phrasing of statements and additionally found that attitudes towards Gardaí and Garda accountability were heavily influenced by previous police contact and demographic variables.

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## **CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION**

### ***1.1 Introduction***

This Chapter will outline the context of the current study through an examination of An Garda Síochána<sup>1</sup>, Garda accountability and public attitudes towards them. Additionally, findings from previous research regarding public attitudes to An Garda Síochána and Garda accountability will be presented in addition to limitations associated with this research. This Chapter will conclude with a justification for the present research. This study aims to investigate public attitudes to An Garda Síochána and Garda accountability, while simultaneously exploring the impact of demographic variables and previous police contact on these attitudes. Furthermore, this study aims to examine encounters with An Garda Síochána and gather perceptions of Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions. The proceeding section will examine the history of An Garda Síochána, the need for bodies of accountability and briefly assess attitudinal research on these organisations.

### ***1.2 Background to Research***

An Garda Síochána was founded in 1923 following the Irish Civil War and the Irish War of Independence and succeeded the Royal Irish Constabulary as Ireland's police force (An Garda Síochána 2020; Conway 2019). However, for most of the twentieth century the Gardaí operated without a sufficient degree of accountability or external oversight which led to a number of controversies such as the Kerry Babies, Morris Tribunal and Maurice McCabe controversy, with each of these scandals highlighting the need for greater police accountability. Following the downfall of the first body of Garda oversight, the Garda Complaints Board, due to numerous criticisms (Conway 2014; Morris 2008; Walsh 2004; Connolly 2002) three bodies of Garda oversight have since been introduced: the Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission (GSOC), the Policing Authority and the Garda Inspectorate. GSOC came into operation in 2007 following the introduction of the Garda Síochána Act 2005 and is tasked with carrying out independent investigations into matters concerning Garda conduct, practices, policies and

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<sup>1</sup> Also referred to as Gardaí throughout the thesis

procedures (Conway 2014; s. 64, 65, 67(2) Garda Síochána Act 2005). GSOC receives complaints from members of the public regarding Garda conduct and is independent in the performance of its functions (s.67(2) Garda Síochána Act 2005). Although the independence afforded to GSOC in legislation is promising, this independence is not used to its full extent which has led to criticism from a number of academics (Kennedy 2015; Conway 2014; Commission on the Future of Policing in Ireland 2018). The existence of section 94 of the 2005 Act, which allows complaints to be investigated by members of the Gardaí, is hugely problematic as it removes objectivity into investigations and undermines GSOC's independence (Conway 2014; Mulcahy 2006). Further bodies of Garda accountability include the Policing Authority, which oversees the performance of Gardaí regarding policing services in Ireland, and the Garda Inspectorate which ensures that resources available to the Gardaí are used effectively and efficiently (s.62H Garda Síochána (Policing Authority and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 2015; Policing Authority 2020; s.114, 117 Garda Síochána Act 2005; Garda Inspectorate 2020). The Policing Authority was instrumental in the creation of the Garda code of ethics which sets out the standard by which members of An Garda Síochána must adhere to (Policing Authority 2020). However, the existing model of Garda oversight in Ireland will change in late 2023 following government acceptance of the recommendations from the Commission on the Future of Policing (Brady 2019; Policing Authority 2022). The Commission proposed a new body of accountability, Policing and Community Safety Oversight Commission (PCSOC), which would absorb the Policing Authority's role in relation to scrutinization of police performance and the inspection responsibility of the Garda Inspectorate (Commission on the Future of Policing in Ireland 2018). Additionally, the bill has proposed to expand the powers of GSOC (Department of Justice 2021; *The Irish Times* 2021).

Although An Garda Síochána has seen its fair share of controversies throughout the years, public satisfaction with the organisation has remained consistently high (An Garda Síochána 2020; Conway 2014), with Mulcahy (2016) describing this confidence as “strikingly and stubbornly high” (Hamilton and Black 2021, pp 1). In its most recent study concerning public attitudes, An Garda Síochána deduced that 80% of respondents were highly satisfied with Garda service within their local community, and an additional 91% declared they had medium to high levels of trust in the organisation (An Garda Síochána 2020). In addition, attitudes were quite favourable to Gardaí throughout their own study (An Garda Síochána 2020) and these findings portray the Irish public as possessing a very favourable attitude



towards their police force and simultaneously highlights the seeming insignificance of scandals, such as the Morris Tribunal and Maurice McCabe controversy, on public trust in the organisation. Little research has been carried out regarding public attitudes towards bodies of Garda accountability, but what research there is has shown these figures to be noticeably high. In a study undertaken by GSOC, it was shown that the majority of the Irish public look favourably upon the organisation, with 72% of respondents to the latest survey deeming GSOC to provide a valuable service and a further 84% believing that GSOC has made An Garda Síochána more accountable (Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020). This is important as GSOC was created to increase the accountability of the Gardaí. Taken together, it is evident that, according to research conducted by the Gardaí, the Irish public retain high levels of confidence in its police force and their bodies of oversight. However, studies regarding public attitudes towards Gardaí conducted independently of An Garda Síochána, such as Bohan and Yorke (1987), undermine these figures and indicate the need for independent and updated studies to be carried out.

### ***1.3 Rationale for the Current Study***

In Ireland, little academic research has been carried out regarding public attitudes towards An Garda Síochána, with even less being undertaken in relation to attitudes to Garda accountability. Therefore, there is a clear shortage of research on the topic and an aim of this study is to contribute to this research. Moreover, most figures produced concerning public perceptions of Gardaí have been circulated by An Garda Síochána themselves (An Garda Síochána 2020). Likewise, figures presented in relation to public views of Garda accountability have been produced by one of the organisations involved in Garda oversight, GSOC (Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020). This is problematic as these statistics may contain potential biases as they were formulated by the relevant organisations. Additionally, Gardaí have been known to inflate figures concerning public satisfaction levels, as evident from the 2007 Garda public attitudes survey (Conway 2008). These inflated statistics are extremely concerning and emphasise the need for more independent and academic research to be conducted on the topic. Ideally, this research should be undertaken by a researcher who has no connection to any of the organisations involved in order to remove any potential biases or prejudices and produce accurate statistics and findings.

Although academic literature on the topic, in an Irish context, is in short supply, studies have nevertheless challenged the figures published by Gardaí. For example, Bohan and Yorke (1987) recorded high satisfaction levels towards Gardaí amongst the Irish public, but when respondents were asked more specific and negatively phrased questions about Gardaí, such as whether Gardaí exceed their power and abuse suspects, this confidence diminished. Thus, the need arises for a study to be undertaken for the purpose of asking more precise and negatively phrased questions concerning attitudes to Gardaí as opposed to those currently contained in Garda satisfaction surveys. This, in turn, will produce more accurate statistics regarding how the public perceive the Gardaí in reality, providing further impetus for the present study. Furthermore, the influence of variables on these attitudes must be addressed for the purposes of observing how differentiating groups view the Gardaí and Garda accountability. Research, such as Mbuba (2010), found race to be the most pivotal predictor in the determination of one's attitude regarding police, while additional variables including age and previous police contact have also been influential (An Garda Síochána 2020; Jesilow *et al* 1995; Feeny 2009; Hinds 2009; Logan *et al* 2001; Miller and Davis 2008; Rosenbaum *et al* 2005; Schuck and Rosenbaum 2005; Mbuba 2010). The present study employs the use of numerous variables: gender, age, education, employment, race, social class, residence and previous police contact in order to gain further insight and determine which factors impact on an individual's attitude to Gardaí. Additionally, the influence of such variables upon attitudes towards bodies of Garda oversight is unknown, but studies in Northern Ireland have shown demographic variables to be influential (Police Ombudsman Commission for Northern Ireland 2020). Furthermore, the examination of attitudes towards Gardaí and their response to Covid-19 is paramount given the period in which this study was carried out. This study was conducted in 2020/2021 at the height of Covid restrictions and it was vital to grasp an insight into public attitudes towards the Garda response to the pandemic. Although attitudes to Garda enforcement of Covid-19 regulations is not the central focus of this study, it nevertheless provides a valuable insight into a new area and method of policing in Ireland.

Finally, the undertaking of the current study is essential as the Gardaí provide service and protection to members of the public and it is therefore vital to grasp an understanding into how the public feel towards these practices. In addition, police consider public confidence critical to their workings (Warwick University 2015), with Gardaí deeming the confidence, support and cooperation of local communities crucial in terms of effective and efficient

policing (An Garda Síochána 2021). Furthermore, without public confidence it is highly likely that crimes will go unreported and this will contribute to the already problematic dark figure of crime, which is crime that is not reported to Gardaí (Connolly 2002; Goudriaan *et al* 2006; Jang *et al* 2010). Thus, the carrying out of the present study is necessary for a number of reasons, including the need for more independent, academic research on the topic to help fill the gap in the literature, more specific questions need to be asked about Gardaí as opposed to those asked in generic Garda satisfaction surveys and finally, the influence of demographic variables on these perceptions needs to be explored in an Irish setting. Lastly and most vitally, this study needs to be undertaken by a researcher with no connection to any of the organisations involved for the purposes of removing any potential biases.

#### ***1.4 Purpose of the Research, Aims and Objectives***

The purpose of this study is to examine attitudes of the general Irish public towards An Garda Síochána and Garda accountability. Factors including age, gender, race, class, education, employment, residence, and previous police contact are studied in order to examine their influence on these attitudes. Furthermore, this study also examines attitudes to Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions and explores attitudes to encounters with Gardaí. Additionally, the effect of variables on these attitudes also being scrutinised. This study seeks to add to the existing body of literature concerning attitudes towards Gardaí and Garda accountability by examining:

- 1) Attitudes to An Garda Síochána and Garda accountability.
- 2) The influence of demographic variables on attitudes measured.
- 3) Perceptions of Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions.
- 4) The impact of perceptions of encounters with Gardaí on attitudes measured.

The current study will be divided into six chapters, Introduction, Literature Review, Methodology, Results, Discussion and References/Appendices. Firstly, this Introduction chapter has discussed the basis and the background of the research. Secondly, the Literature Review will detail previous literature concerning public attitudes towards police and accountability, with variables including race, gender, age, class, employment, education, residence and previous police contact being examined to consider their impact. Thirdly, the Methodology chapter will underline the research questions, data collection instruments and the

techniques of data analysis utilised in the present study. Fourthly, the Results chapter will set out the results gathered from the research and answer each of the study's research questions. Furthermore, the Discussion chapter will provide analysis of the results, with comparisons and differences being highlighted with respect to the relevant literature on the topic.

## **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### ***2.1 Introduction***

This chapter will address public attitudes towards An Garda Síochána and Garda accountability. Firstly, this study will examine what accountability is and produce a very brief history of An Garda Síochána, with emphasis being placed on their bodies of accountability from past to present day. Scandals that led to more nationwide interest being put into the area of Garda accountability, such as the events considered in the Morris Tribunal, Kerry Babies and Maurice McCabe controversies, will also be explored in this section. Additionally, the establishment and workings of the current three bodies of oversight in Ireland, (i.e. The Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission (GSOC), the Policing Authority and the Garda Inspectorate) will be discussed. For the purpose of comparison, oversight bodies in other jurisdictions will also be analysed in this section. The second section will examine public attitudes towards police and police accountability. Using figures generated from public attitude surveys, attitudes towards An Garda Síochána will be compared to police forces in other jurisdictions. The same approach will be utilised in relation to bodies of oversight. Furthermore, the impact of variables on these attitudes will be scrutinized in this chapter, with ways in which policing can be improved (procedural justice) also being discussed.

### ***2.2 What is accountability?***

Accountability can be characterised as a social relationship where an individual feels obliged to justify their conduct to a significant other (Day and Klein 1997; Romzek and Dubnick 1998; Lerner and Tetlock 1999; Pollitt 2003; McCandless 2001; Bovens 2014). Particularly, Garda accountability, or police accountability, is premised upon the question of ‘who polices the police’ and is an essential element of any police force (Walker 2006). Further, police accountability has been described as a system of internal and external checks to ensure that police conduct their duties properly and are held responsible if they fail in this regard (United Nations 2011). The system of police accountability aims to deter misconduct, while increasing confidence in police. Independent bodies of oversight and effective complaints procedures are crucial elements of a successful accountability system (United Nations 2011)

and academics have stated that police oversight bodies are in operation to ensure that police act with integrity (Prenzler and Lewis 2005; Kennedy 2015). In Ireland, Gardaí are accountable both internally and externally. Internal police accountability mechanisms can encompass disciplinary proceedings, organisational structure and peer control (Eijkman 2006). In an Irish setting internal affairs are handled by the Assistant Commissioner and regulated by the Garda Síochána (Discipline) Regulations 2007/2011 (An Garda Síochána 2023; Kennedy 2015). When these regulations are breached an investigation can be launched internally and can result in penalties such as dismissal and reduction in rank (An Garda Síochána 2023). Further bodies are also in place within the Gardaí to provide internal accountability such as the Anti-Corruption Unit, the Ethics and Cultural Bureau and the Professional Standards Unit. Independent external oversight is provided by the Policing Authority and Garda Inspectorate, while the Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission handle complaints concerning police misconduct. While the model of police accountability in Ireland possesses its advantages it also contains deficiencies which will be explored throughout this research.

### ***2.3 Background and Controversies***

Following the Constabulary Ireland Act 1922, the old model of police in Ireland, the Royal Irish Constabulary, was disbanded and was replaced with the Civic Guard, later renamed An Garda Síochána (Conway 2019; An Garda Síochána 2020). An Garda Síochána came into existence during a challenging time in Irish history with the outbreak of the Irish Civil War (Connolly 2002). However, Gardaí were not tasked with policing activities regarding the civil war which gave them the opportunity to build relationships within the community (Conway 2014). There were many ways in which the Gardaí successfully integrated themselves into communities and achieved public acceptance, for example, Garda involvement in sports and their religious preference of Catholicism (Mulcahy 2006; Connolly 2002; Conway 2019; Conway 2014; Hamilton and Black 2021). The force also played a vital role in portraying Ireland's newly gained independence (Conway 2014). Furthermore, the unarmed nature of the Gardaí highly influenced the organisation's legacy, although the number of armed segments has increased (McCullagh 1996; Connolly 2002). However, Gardaí operated for most of the twentieth century without a sufficient body of external accountability. Connolly (2002) considered that this lack of accountability to the public was facilitated by political leaders

whose only concern was to ensure that Garda leadership was loyal to whatever party was in power at the time. In later decades of the twentieth century a dip in public confidence in Gardaí was noticeable. The Central Statistics Office (CSO) survey of 1998 highlighted the ‘dark figure’ of crime in Ireland, which is crime unreported to Gardaí (CSO 1998; Connolly 2002). The survey found that these crimes were not reported as there was a belief that Gardaí could not or would not do anything about them (CSO 1998). This ‘dark figure’ of crime can have serious implications for the criminal justice system as it undermines crime statistics produced by police as not all crimes are reported to them, can lead to offenders going unpunished and result in decreased trust in police (Doorewaard 2014). Furthermore, over the last forty years, a number of scandals arose within An Garda Síochána which highlighted a lack of accountability on the part of Gardaí, the limitations of the internal bodies of accountability and also revealed the tight-knit culture of the Gardaí. These scandals will be discussed below.

### *2.3.1 Kerry Babies*

In 1984, the body of a new-born baby was discovered on a beach in Kerry, having been stabbed to death as concluded by the State Pathologist (Conway 2014; Barry 2014). A murder investigation was established, and suspicion fell upon the Hayes family as 25-year-old Joanne Hayes had recently given birth, but stated her baby had died in hospital, although there was no evidence to support this (Brady 2014). Gardaí moved in on the Hayes family in May 1984 and all members reported to the Garda station voluntarily. Within hours, the Hayes family had made a series of false statements and confessions that implied Joanne had killed her baby and members of her family helped her dispose of the body (Brady 2014; McCullagh 1996). Following this, Gardaí found the body of a second baby on a farm where Joanne Hayes stated she had buried her child (Conway 2014; O’ Carroll 2018). Blood tests concluded that blood from the baby found on the farm matched Ms Hayes and the man she claimed to be the father, while blood from the baby found on the beach did not match either (Brady 2014). Although Gardaí disputed this analysis, the DPP dropped the charges against the Hayes family (Brady 2014; O’ Carroll 2018).

As a result, a judicial tribunal was established to examine the handling of the investigation and allegations by the Hayes family that they had been coerced and beaten by Gardaí (McHugh 2017; Lally 2017; Michael 2021). The Lynch Tribunal, as it became known,

heard evidence from a wide variety of witnesses and received heavy media attention. The Tribunal also received heavy criticism from groups, like the Irish Council for the Status of Women, as legal professionals insisted that Ms Hayes reveal detailed secrets about her sexual life (Brady 2014; Michael 2021). The Tribunal published its findings in October 1985 acquitting Gardaí of all accusations of wrongdoing (Conway 2014; Lally 2017). As the Tribunal's findings did not condemn the actions of the Gardaí, it simultaneously vilified Ms Hayes regarding her sexual life. Crucially, the Tribunal failed to answer the question of how detailed false and parallel confessions were taken from the Hayes family at Tralee Garda station (Brady 2014; Conway 2014; O'Carroll 2018; Lally 2017). It is fair to say that this Tribunal was a failure as it refused to consider any wrongdoing on the part of Gardaí and failed to establish how the false confessions were achieved. More recently, in September 2021, Gardaí exhumed the body of the baby found on the beach to gather more DNA in the hope of identifying his parents (Michael 2021).

Allegations of mistreatment in custody against Gardaí were widespread in the 1970s and 80s. On several occasions Gardaí were accused of extracting false confessions by force, particularly those involved with the Garda 'heavy gang'. This is evident in high-profile cases including the Christy Lynch cases and the Sallins Train robbery (Lally 2017; McCullagh 1996). Furthermore, regulations governing the treatment of persons while in garda custody were not introduced until 1987, with the Criminal Justice Act 1984 (Treatment of Persons in Custody in Garda Síochána Stations) Regulations 1987, which essentially meant there was no oversight or standards to uphold while dealing with people in custody until this point. This lack of accountability at this time was a big issue and allowed for the mistreatment of detainees to have materialised. This, coupled with the Kerry Babies, portrayed the need for the establishment of a body to investigate complaints against Gardaí as there was no independent, external complaints mechanism available at the time. Thus, the Garda Síochána Complaints Board was established and was tasked with reviewing investigations undertaken by Gardaí and then issuing recommendations (Conway 2014). Although this body did not have much power, it was at least a step in the right direction in terms of increasing Garda accountability in Ireland.



### *2.3.2 Garda Síochána Complaints Board*

The Garda Síochána Complaints Board was created under the Garda Síochána (Complaints) Act 1986 in response to the Kerry Babies case, increased allegations of abuse of power by Gardaí and public concern over increased Garda powers in the Criminal Justice Bill 1983 (Connolly 2002; Conway 2010). However, the Board received criticism from a number of academics in terms of its operation, with most criticisms focusing on the Board's lack of independence. Investigations into complaints by the Board were carried out by Gardaí with the Board taking on a supervisory role (Conway 2014; s.6 Garda Síochána (Complaints) Act 1986). Additionally, not all investigations were supervised by the Board due to its limited resources, which the Board often criticised along with a lack of government support (Brady 2014; Conway 2014; Mulcahy 2006; Connolly 2002). The carrying out of investigations by Gardaí was extremely concerning as investigations lacked any form of objectivity as it was effectively Gardaí investigating Gardaí. It was stated by Waddington (1999) that a system that allows for police to investigate themselves lacks any form of credibility and this was certainly the case for the Board. Additionally, the International Committee for the Prevention of Torture stated that the presence of Gardaí on the Board could damage public confidence due to its lack of objectivity (Committee for the Prevention of Torture and Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment 1995; Connolly 2002). Further, Walsh (2004); Conway (2014) and Connolly (2002) critiqued the low success rate of complainant cases and high rate of complaints that were deemed inadmissible. For example, in 1998, 1400 complaints were made to the Board with only 596 being processed before the end of the year. Of these, nine cases were prosecuted with no convictions resulting (Connolly 2002). A plausible reason for the low success rate relates to unwillingness of Gardaí to carry out investigations against their fellow members (Walsh 1998; Connolly 2002). These figures, coupled with an unwillingness of the public to make complaints for fear of Garda retaliation, led to a decrease in public confidence towards the Board (Connolly 2002). This decrease in confidence was detrimental to the Board as it was established to be utilised by the public and once public confidence was lost it was unlikely that the Board could continue to carry out its functions. Conclusively, the lack of independence afforded to the Complaints Board was ultimately its downfall, as controversies and scandals in the 1990s and 2000s highlighted the flaws of the Board and the need for an independent complaints mechanism with no affiliation to An Garda Síochána.

### 2.3.3 *Morris Tribunal*

The Morris Tribunal was of crucial importance for policing in Ireland as it questioned the practices and overall accountability of the Gardaí. The Tribunal was established to investigate allegations of corruption associated with Gardaí in the Donegal Division. However, the establishment of the tribunal was not without its difficulties as there was a reluctance on the part of the government to hold such hearings as they believed it would prejudice on-going cases. Eventually, due to sustained pressure from opposition T.D.s, the government provided for the creation of the Tribunal and introduced new legislation, Tribunals of Inquiry (Evidence)(Amendment) Act 2002, in order to mitigate any problems related to on-going cases (O'Donoghue 2002; Conway 2010). The tribunal opened in 2002, but numerous internal investigations and reports had been conducted previously concerning matters relevant to the Tribunal, such as the Carty Report, but these were not released publicly (Conway 2014; Conway 2010). There were numerous instances of corruption and malpractices associated with Gardaí in Donegal and allegations which were considered by the Tribunal included: mistreatment of persons in custody, in which detainees were abused both verbally and physically; coercion, as detainees were forced to sign false confessions; garda harassment, particularly of the McBrearty family regarding a murder charge; hoax explosives finds; numerous substandard garda investigations, including an arson attack at Ardara and the murder of Mr Richie Barron in 1996, and the ineffectiveness of the Garda Complaints Board (O'Donoghue 2002; The Morris Tribunal 2002; Conway 2014; Conway 2010).

The Tribunal produced eight reports in which it was highly critical of An Garda Síochána (Brady 2014; Conway 2010). Crucially, the problems associated with Gardaí in Donegal was found to be more than a 'few bad apples.' Instead, the problem was perceived as being institutionalised implicating both front-line Gardaí and senior management. The Tribunal found that management of the division was severely negligent with behaviour of Gardaí in Donegal breaching most aspects of the Garda disciplinary code (Conway 2010). The Tribunal was also concerned with the misconduct that was rampant during interrogations in which detainees' rights were routinely breached through physical and verbal abuse (Morris 2008; Conway 2010). Additionally, the Tribunal was very critical of the ineffectual nature of the Complaints Board, citing the delay involved with examining complaints and it being inadequate to handle the level of corruption seen in Donegal (Morris 2008; Conway 2010; Brady 2014). Furthermore, bullying was discovered to be widespread within the force,

particularly regarding senior management who routinely abused their authority forcing Gardaí to pursue certain lines of inquiry (Morris 2008; Conway 2010). The evidence points, as Conway (2010) parsed it ‘A Blue Wall of Silence’. This is premised upon the idea that members of An Garda Síochána lied to internal inquiries and the tribunal in order to protect themselves and others (Conway 2014). This issue is particularly damning as it makes it unlikely that misconduct will be brought to light, as was seen for years before the Tribunal, with relevant Gardaí not being punished for their misconduct. It also makes it increasingly difficult for a member of the Gardaí to come forward with allegations of corruption. Moreover, it is clear from the findings of the Tribunal that there was a need for an adequate body of police oversight to limit and assess malpractices within the Gardaí. The Tribunal highlighted the deficiencies associated with the Complaints Board and how it was unable to handle the level of corruption in Donegal. Thus, an effective and efficient body of oversight was deemed essential to ensure Gardaí conduct themselves correctly and adhere to disciplinary codes.

The Morris Tribunal was paramount to policing in Ireland with the Tribunal itself being highly critical of An Garda Síochána (Brady 2014). The eight reports produced by the Tribunal condemned the actions of Gardaí, with further critiques regarding the system for handling informants, the inadequacy of the Complaints Board and its lack of a whistle-blower process also being cited (Brady 2014; Conway 2010). Numerous recommendations were produced by the Tribunal to ensure that the misconduct considered in the Tribunal would not happen again (Irish Council for Civil Liberties 2006). In response, various reforms were introduced, the most fundamental of which was the Garda Síochána Act 2005 which had a profound effect on the nature of policing in Ireland (McDowell 2006; Conway 2010; Hamilton and Black 2021). Although the introduction of reforms associated with the Tribunal was extremely advantageous, not all recommendations have been addressed which allowed for further controversies within the Gardaí, particularly those highlighted by Maurice McCabe.

#### *2.3.4 Maurice McCabe*

McCabe highlighted many instances of malpractice and misconduct in his station of Bailieboro in the Cavan/Monaghan district which encompassed members not turning up for duty, warrants not being executed, incidents not being investigated, and investigation files not being completed (Clifford 2017). Ultimately, McCabe left Bailieboro citing reasons such as of

lack of standards, accountability, and management support (Clifford 2017). McCabe made further allegations of Garda misconduct concerning traffic penalty points. McCabe found numerous instances in which Gardaí and their families routinely had tickets, or Fixed Charge Notices (FCNs), wiped (Clifford 2017). McCabe's allegations were vindicated when a Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission (GSOC) investigation revealed that between 2009 and 2012 there were 74,373 cancellations of FCNs (MacNamee 2017). An additional report by the Garda Inspectorate also vindicated McCabe's claims as they found 'inconsistent and widespread' application of the penalty points system (Garda Inspectorate 2014; Brady 2014; Hamilton and Black 2014). Following revelations of this misconduct, McCabe was subjected to bullying, harassment and was completely ostracised by members of the Gardaí and other state agencies (Kennedy 2015). Particularly damning to McCabe's character concerned false allegations that McCabe had sexually assaulted a young girl (O'Toole 2017). The accusations were contained in a file created by TUSLA in 2013 and were eventually labelled an 'administrative error' but not before it had been leaked to Gardaí and journalists, condemning McCabe's reputation. These instances also served to highlight a particular closed culture within the Gardaí, with clear ramifications for those who went against it (Reiner 2010; McCullagh 1996).

During McCabe's battle with An Garda Síochána a number of inquiries and tribunals were established, with many reports being published as a result. Crucially, these showed the limitations of internal inquiries, with both internal investigations, the Byrne/McGinn and O' Mahony Report, finding no wrongdoing on the part of Gardaí in terms of corruption, criminality, or mismanagement (Clifford 2017). In addition, these internal reports conveyed the need for external accountability as Gardaí disregard the issue when investigating themselves. Following this, McCabe brought his claims to government, resulting in the Guerin Report (Kennedy 2015), which vindicated McCabe's claims whilst also being extremely critical of Garda management, GSOC, the Minister for Justice and the Department of Justice (Clifford 2017; Brady 2014). The review was published in May 2014 and slammed then Minister for Justice, Alan Shatter, for failing to utilize his statutory responsibility to investigate the complaints made by McCabe (Brady 2014). Additionally, the government announced it would establish a judicial commission of inquiry, as recommended by Guerin, to investigate the claims made by McCabe (Brady 2014). The O' Higgins Commission upheld most of McCabe's complaints as it made various findings of malpractice and poor practices during

investigations (Clifford 2017). The Commission also upheld McCabe's motives, criticised the deficiencies of previous investigations like Byrne/McGinn and substantiated most of his claims (Clifford 2017). More recently, the Disclosures Tribunal and its subsequent Report, the Charleton Report, found that former Commissioner Martin Callinan and Superintendent David Taylor had conspired and launched a smear campaign against McCabe (Keena 2018; Hamilton and Black 2021). This illustrates that the harassment experienced by McCabe encompassed all areas of the force from junior Gardaí to senior management. Further, the Charleton Report condemned TUSLA for its mishandling of the sexual abuse scandal against McCabe (O'Doherty *et al* 2018; Charelton 2018).

The story of Maurice McCabe and the subsequent reports were particularly damning to An Garda Síochána. The torment and harassment McCabe received served to highlight the difficulties members face when bringing forward accusations of misconduct. In addition, it stressed the need for external accountability as internal inquiries and reports found no wrongdoing on the part of Gardaí, while external commissions condemned their actions. However, as will be discussed below, these controversies did not have a massive impact on public attitudes to Gardaí.

#### ***2.4 Impact of Controversies on Attitudes towards Gardaí***

Although crime reporting dwindled during the revelation of allegations considered by the Morris Tribunal and there was a slight dip of trust between 2000 and 2008, public satisfaction with Gardaí remained relatively high throughout this time, with Mulcahy (2016, pp 275) describing this confidence as “strikingly and stubbornly high” (Doyle and Andrews 2000; An Garda Síochána 2002-2008; An Garda Síochána 2017; Conway 2014; Hamilton and Black 2021). However, the validity of these figures are questionable as they were produced by Gardaí and may not provide a true insight into public opinion. Conway (2014) considered that post-colonialism and the political control of policing in Ireland sculpted attitudes towards the police and this may provide an explanation as to why public satisfaction has remained consistently high. In the early days, An Garda Síochána were crucial in displaying the image of an independent Ireland and therefore the majority of the population supported them. To criticise such an organisation would be seen as unpatriotic (Mulcahy 2002; Conway 2013; Hamilton and Black 2021). This ideal was dominant in the 1930s and became relevant again

during the Troubles in the 1970s and 1980s (Conway 2014). This ideal may still play a role regardless of scandals and links with the ‘bad apples thesis’, i.e. the idea that only a few people are to blame in relation to Garda controversies rather than the whole organisation. (Conway 2014). Although public opinion of Gardaí remained favourable during these scandals, they, nevertheless, emphasised the need for external bodies of accountability in terms of handling complaints, ensuring police perform their duties in a suitable manner and to prevent future scandals within the organisation. In fact, a 2008 survey discovered 32% of respondents did not believe Gardaí were answerable for their conduct, which conveyed the need for an extra body of external oversight in addition to GSOC and the Garda Inspectorate (An Garda Síochána 2008; Conway 2010). Today, three bodies are involved in oversight of the Gardaí, the Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission (GSOC), the Policing Authority and the Garda Inspectorate, which will be examined in the next section. The existence of these bodies to monitor police performance and ensure proper conduct are essential as Gardaí possess a wide variety of discretionary powers and should not enforce the law based solely upon their own beliefs and prejudices (McCullagh 1996).

## ***2.5 Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission (GSOC)***

### *2.5.1 Functions*

The Garda Síochána Act 2005 provided for the establishment of GSOC, which replaced the previous body of accountability, the Complaints Board. Senior authority in GSOC consists of three members appointed by the President (Conway 2014; Brady 2014; s.65 Garda Síochána Act 2005). GSOC became operational in 2007 and its most notable functions are to conduct investigations into matters concerning Garda conduct; examine practices, policies and procedures of Gardaí and to receive complaints from members of the public regarding Garda conduct (s.67(2) Garda Síochána Act 2005). Crucially, the legislation provides that GSOC is to be independent in the performance of its duties, which separates it from An Garda Síochána and allows for objective investigations into complaints (s.67(4) Garda Síochána Act 2005). However, as will be discussed, this independence is not used to its full extent.

### *2.5.2 Complaints Procedure and Powers*

Complaints can be made by a person or on behalf of someone who has witnessed or been affected by the conduct of a member of the Gardaí that constitutes misbehaviour. The complaints can be made directly to GSOC or to Gardaí, but Gardaí must refer the matter to GSOC (s.83 Garda Síochána Act 2005; Kennedy 2015). Complaints must be made within 12 months of when the relevant misconduct occurred and must concern criminal offences or breaches of discipline, which has, rather unfortunately, led to a high inadmissibility rate (s.4 Garda Síochána (Amendment) Act 2015; Conway 2014). Admissible complaints can be handled in three ways, informal resolution and section 95 and 98 investigations (Garda Síochána Act 2005). Informal resolution or mediation negates the need for an investigation and according to GSOC benefits the complainant as it is quick and effective, but also benefits the relevant Garda as there is no disciplinary process (s.91 Garda Síochána Act 2005; Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2021). If this type of solution is not capable of settling the complaint, GSOC may conduct independent investigations into complaints (s.92 Garda Síochána Act 2005). These investigations are conducted in two ways one involving an offence, section 98, and one not involving an offence, section 95 (Conway 2010). The latter grants the powers to demand information, documents or witnesses and involves oral hearings of both parties. A report results from these investigations that is issued to the Commissioner with recommendations (s.95, 96, 97 Garda Síochána Act 2005; Conway 2010; Kennedy 2015). If the complaint appears to involve an offence, the investigating GSOC officer has the powers, privileges, duties and immunities, pursuant to section 98 of the 2005 Act, of a Garda. These powers include that of arrest, summons, search, entry, seizure, detention and questioning (s.98 Garda Síochána Act 2005; Conway 2014; Brady 2014). A report is constructed following the investigation and is sent to the DPP should an offence have occurred (s.101 Garda Síochána Act 2005). Additionally, GSOC has the power to investigate the Garda Commissioner in relation to misconduct and criminal activity, which adds an element of accountability to senior management of Gardaí, something that was seen to be lacking regarding the Morris Tribunal and Maurice McCabe debacle (s.7 Garda Síochána (Amendment) Act 2015). Furthermore, GSOC investigations are not limited to complaints made by the public as provisions are made for investigations to be initiated when Garda conduct has caused death or serious harm to a person at the reference of the Garda Commissioner and Policing Authority (s.102 Garda Síochána Act 2005; s.48 Garda Síochána (Policing Authority and Miscellaneous Provisions)

Act 2015). In 2021, GSOC received 59 of these referrals which is an increase on the 2020 figure of 43 (Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2022; Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2021). In addition, GSOC may conduct examinations into the practices and policies of Gardaí, at the request of the Minister for Justice or Policing Authority, to reduce the number of complaints (s.52 Garda Síochána (Policing Authority and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 2015). This provision is advantageous as it provides for cooperation between two bodies of oversight and prevents problems and scandals arising in An Garda Síochána which may impact on public confidence in the organisation.

### 2.5.3 Criticisms

Although this independence into investigating complaints is promising and its statutory footing is encouraging, the existence of section 94 of the 2005 Act is problematic (Kennedy 2015). This section allows for a complaint to be investigated by a member of the Gardaí and severely undermines GSOC's independence (s.94 Garda Síochána Act 2005). In fact, there is evidence to suggest that this provision is being too heavily relied upon as of the 1332 admissible complaints received by GSOC in 2021, 533 complaints were investigated by Gardaí without GSOC supervision (Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2022). Although these investigations may be necessary to resolve complaints due to GSOC's limited resources, they negate objectivity in investigations and undermine public confidence (Kennedy 2015). While there has been an increase in the number of referrals under s.102 by the Garda Commissioner to GSOC in the last number of years which may indicate a better working relationship between the organisations, the number of instances that result in prosecution remains low (Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020). Further criticisms of GSOC centre around the length of time it takes to resolve complaints with investigations under s.98 and s.94 typically taking between 160-290 days to complete (*The Irish Times* 2020; Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2021). The way in which investigations have been undertaken by GSOC has also been critiqued. It was considered that investigations were 'punitive', focusing on the individual who the complaint was made against instead of the incident itself (Commission on the Future of Policing in Ireland 2018). Additionally, the complaints procedure has been deemed unsatisfactory by all parties involved, complainants, Gardaí and GSOC (Commission on the Future of Policing in Ireland 2018). These criticisms highlight the flaws associated with GSOC,



the most notable of which being the reliance on Gardaí to perform investigations which removes objectivity and undermines GSOC's independence and credibility (Kennedy 2015). In addition, it is also possible for Gardaí to block off certain designated parts of Garda stations and put particular categories of documentation off limits to GSOC officers on the grounds of 'State security' which severely hinders GSOC investigations (Brady 2014).

## ***2.6 Policing Authority***

### *2.6.1 Functions*

The Policing Authority is an independent statutory body of Garda oversight that came into existence in 2016 pursuant to the Garda Síochána (Policing Authority and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 2015. The Authority consists of nine members, with members of the Gardaí, GSOC and Garda Inspectorate being ineligible for inclusion (s.62C, s.62F Garda Síochána (Policing Authority and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 2015). The Authority performs many functions, the most important of which being overseeing the performance of the Gardaí regarding policing services in Ireland, which is achieved through monthly meetings with the Garda Commissioner and approval of the annual policing plan (s.62H Garda Síochána (Policing Authority and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 2015; Policing Authority 2020). In the performance of its functions, the Policing Authority works in conjunction with other bodies of accountability, for example, GSOC as the Authority may request that GSOC investigate matters concerning Garda conduct that warrants disciplinary proceedings or constitutes an offence, should public interest justify such an investigation (s.102 Garda Síochána Act 2005; s.48 Garda Síochána (Policing Authority and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 2015).

### *2.6.2 Powers*

The Authority has the power to request the Inspectorate to conduct an inspection regarding any matters related to policing and produce the relevant report to the Authority (s.53 Garda Síochána (Policing Authority and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 2015). Cooperation between these organisations is extremely beneficial and can result in better policing in Ireland. Furthermore, the Authority can nominate persons for the position of Garda Commissioner or Deputy Commissioner and can appoint people to the role of Assistant Commissioner, chief

superintendent and superintendent (s.62H Garda Síochána (Policing Authority and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 2015). Critically, the Authority has the power to remove people from these positions which is favourable as it ensures a degree of accountability to senior management within the Gardaí (s.62H Garda Síochána (Policing Authority and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 2015).

### *2.6.3 Procedures*

The Policing Authority is very inclusive of the public throughout its work which was seen during the creation of the Garda Code of Ethics. When drafting the Code of Ethics, the Policing Authority carried out a number of consultation meetings which allowed for comments and ideas to be submitted by a wide variety of people including members of the Gardaí, members of civil society organisations and, significantly, members of the public (Policing Authority 2016). All this advice was considered when finalising the Garda Code of Ethics and it was published in January 2017. The Code of Ethics sets out a standard of guiding principles to inform and guide the action of every member of the Gardaí and they must adhere to this code (Policing Authority 2020). Establishment of a code of ethics is one of the Authority's functions and engagement with the public on this topic was extremely advantageous as it allowed for members of the public to voice their concerns about policing and provide them with the option to express how they would improve it (s.62H Garda Síochána (Policing Authority and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 2015).

### *2.6.4 Criticisms*

Although these workings are advantageous, the Authority is not without its limitations. Particularly, Walsh (2018) described the Authority as an impediment to democratic police accountability and a 'pale shadow' in comparison to the Authority's Northern Ireland equivalent, the Northern Ireland Policing Board (Gallagher 2018). Furthermore, Walsh (2018) critiqued the politicisation of the Authority as, even though the Authority was set up to depoliticise the control of Gardaí, he considered that as the government retains control over membership the real power remains with the government (Gallagher 2018).

## ***2.7 Garda Inspectorate***

### *2.7.1 Functions/Powers*

The Garda Inspectorate was created under the Garda Síochána Act 2005, with the objective to ensure that resources available to Gardaí are used effectively and efficiently (s.114, 117 Garda Síochána Act 2005; Garda Inspectorate 2020). The body consists of three members, not affiliated with An Garda Síochána, that are appointed by the government (s.115 Garda Síochána Act 2005). This requirement is particularly advantageous as it provides a degree of external accountability to Gardaí. Further, as previously mentioned, the Inspectorate is compelled to carry out inspections into the operation and administration of the Gardaí at the request of the Policing Authority and the Minister for Justice. On completion of these inspections a report containing recommendations is circulated to the Authority or the Minister for Justice (s.53 Garda Síochána (Policing Authority and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 2015). Additionally, the Inspectorate must also measure police performance by way of comparison to policing in other jurisdictions, which is valuable as it compares the current practices of the Gardaí to international norms and may improve policing in Ireland (Garda Inspectorate 2020). Significantly, the Inspectorate is to be independent in the execution of its functions, which is vital for its legitimacy and provides a statutory footing for the organisation's independence from An Garda Síochána (s.117 Garda Síochána Act 2005).

### *2.7.2 Procedures*

The Garda Inspectorate differs from other bodies of accountability as it is more of an advisory body than a body of accountability as it produces reports and does not decide punishments (Brady 2014). However, An Garda Síochána do not always implement the recommendations produced in reports. For example, a 2012 Report on child sexual abuse had only 45% of its recommendations implemented by May 2018 (Garda Inspectorate 2018). In too many cases Gardaí state that the recommendations will be considered by a committee which may or may not already be established (Walsh 2009; Conway 2014). This is concerning as it leads to a failure to implement some important recommendations with some of these proposals being forgotten about over time. Another of its reports into the area of front-line supervision found that there is room for improvement relating to Garda accountability, which may now be addressed following recommendations from the Commission on the Future of Policing (Garda

Inspectorate 2012; Commission on the Future of Policing in Ireland 2018). Recently, it seems Gardaí are taking further steps to implement Inspectorate recommendations as was seen following the publication of ‘Countering the Threat of Internal Corruption’ in 2020 (Garda Inspectorate 2020). Although not every recommendation has been acted upon, Garda response to the report has resulted in the establishment of the Garda Anti-Corruption Unit in June 2021 with policies relating to areas such as Abuse of Power for Sexual Gain and Substance Misuse, in line with Inspectorate recommendations (Garda Inspectorate 2020; An Garda Síochána 2021). This is beneficial for policing and may serve to limit the number of internal controversies and scandals.

### *2.7.3 Criticisms*

Although the Garda Inspectorate does not have the same status as GSOC, it nevertheless provides an essential service to policing. The Inspectorate was very popular in its early days but, has faded from public consciousness in recent years and there has rarely been any mention of it in the media (Brady 2014). The Inspectorate can be criticised for its lack of power but overall, the institution performs its functions well by producing detailed reports with plenty of comparative studies of policing in other jurisdictions, such as Northern Ireland.

## ***2.8 Police Accountability in Northern Ireland***

As Northern Ireland is our closest neighbour, it is important to understand their model of police accountability and provide a comparison. Responsibility for police oversight in Northern Ireland lies with the Police Ombudsman for Northern Ireland (PONI) and the Northern Ireland Policing Board (NIPB). The PONI was established in November 2000 following the Good Friday Agreement 1998 and Patten Report 1999, while the NIPB was created under the Police (Northern Ireland) Act 2000, as amended by the Police (Northern Ireland) Act 2003. The purpose of the PONI is to provide independent and impartial investigations into complaints concerning Northern Ireland’s police force, the PSNI, whereas the NIPB take on a more administrative role ensuring that police operate efficiently and effectively (Police Ombudsman for Northern Ireland 2020; s.3 Police (Northern Ireland) Act 2000). Comparisons can be made regarding both bodies in Northern Ireland to the bodies

currently operating in the Republic. The PONI is similar, in operational terms, to GSOC, which is unsurprising as GSOC was modelled off the PONI, with both bodies investigating complaints regarding police, however, the PONI investigates all complaints unlike GSOC (Kennedy 2015; Brady 2014). Crucially, the PONI is not just limited to investigations concerning the PSNI as it also conducts investigations into the Military Police and the Belfast International Airport Police, which may indicate the PONI to be more powerful than GSOC (Barry 2014; Police Ombudsman for Northern Ireland 2020). Moreover, the NIPB is comparable to both the Policing Authority and Garda Inspectorate as its aims are to ensure that policing is carried out efficiently and effectively. Additionally, the NIPB hold public meetings and consultations which is another comparable element to the Policing Authority's operations (s.4 Police (Northern Ireland) Act 2003).

However, the nature of policing and existing model of police accountability in Ireland will change following government acceptance of the recommendations from the Commission on the Future of Policing in Ireland (Brady 2019; Commission on the Future of Policing in Ireland 2018; Department of Justice 2021) and the proposed Bill, the Policing, Security and Community Safety Bill will be evaluated below.

### ***2.9 Policing, Security and Community Safety Bill***

This Bill aims to improve the performance and accountability of Gardaí while ensuring people feel safe in their communities (Department of Justice 2021). Furthermore, the Bill will repeal the Garda Síochána Act 2005 and combine the functions of both the Policing Authority and Garda Inspectorate into the new Policing and Community Safety Authority (Commission on the Future of Policing in Ireland 2018; Department of Justice 2021). This new body of oversight will assess the performance of Gardaí in an independent and transparent manner and will have the power to conduct unannounced visits at Garda stations to carry out investigations (Department of Justice 2021; *The Irish Times* 2021). Additionally, the Bill has proposed multiple changes to GSOC including a requirement that all complaints (excluding minor service level complaints) are to be investigated by the Ombudsman, expansion of referral of 'death or serious harm' incidents to include sexual offences, renaming GSOC to Office of Garda Ombudsman and reforming its investigation procedures to support quick and effective complaints resolutions. Crucially, complaint submissions will not be limited to the public as

provisions will be made for Garda staff to come forward with allegations of wrongdoing (Department of Justice 2021; *The Irish Times* 2021). Moreover, the Bill will redefine An Garda Síochána's functions to include community safety and also include other agencies, such as health and social agencies, to improve community safety (Department of Justice 2021). This is advantageous as studies have shown community-oriented policing policies to have a positive impact on public satisfaction and police legitimacy (Gill *et al* 2014). However, Garda enthusiasm to this new orientation on community involvement and safety will be interesting to evaluate as, typically, police display quite a conservative culture which makes them reluctant to change (Reiner 2010; McCullagh 1996). Although the proposals circulated by this Bill seem profitable, it is not without its pitfalls and has been considered a step backwards regarding accountability (Shieber 2021; Maguire 2022). Notably, it seems that the Bill will give more control of policing to the government as they control the appointment of Commissioners and decide strategic plans. Additionally, the Policing Authority will be weakened and reduced to an oversight and advisory role (Shieber 2021; Maguire 2022). Furthermore, the Bill has received criticism from both the Association of Garda Sergeants and Inspectors (AGSI) and Garda Commissioner as they believe it will grant disproportionate powers to oversight bodies (Lally 2021).

Currently, in Ireland, police oversight and accountability fall on three bodies, GSOC, the Garda Inspectorate and the Policing Authority with all being created following numerous Garda scandals. The functions of these bodies include handling complaints, conducting inspections and overseeing police performance. However, this model will change along with police focus, with the Policing, Security and Community Safety Bill instituting a more community safety-based approach to both. Although the current bodies possess their advantages, this new approach may address some of their criticisms, while also encouraging community participation and involvement. Additionally, further oversight of Gardaí is provided by the Department of Justice and Equality as Garda management reports to the Department on matters relating to police use of resources, police performance and achievement of its objectives (An Garda Síochána 2021). Unfortunately, in relation to attitudes, few studies have examined the perceptions of the public towards bodies of police oversight, with Irish literature being in short supply on the topic. Therefore, it is hoped that this study will help to fill the gap in the literature. The next section of this research will review the current literature

and statistics regarding attitudes towards police and their bodies of oversight both domestically and internationally.

### ***2.10 Attitudes Towards An Garda Síochána***

Police forces, including An Garda Síochána, have always considered public trust, confidence and support extremely important, particularly in relation to their legitimacy and ability to fight crime (Mulcahy 2006; Miller *et al* 2004). As attitudes towards Gardaí is a pivotal part and the central focus of this thesis, it is important to examine previous Irish research on the topic. In Ireland, An Garda Síochána conduct annual public attitude surveys to gather information regarding public perceptions towards them, how they conduct themselves and the overall trust members of the public carry towards them. In the 2019 study, it was discovered that the majority of participants, 80%, were highly satisfied with Garda service in their local community (An Garda Síochána 2020). The study also found that 91% of participants stated they had medium to high levels of trust in Gardaí and 95% agreed that Gardaí would treat you with respect. Interestingly, satisfaction levels were similar in the 2018 survey and there was an increase in additional factors like viewing the Gardaí as well-managed, which has risen by 11% (An Garda Síochána 2019; An Garda Síochána 2020). Additionally, findings from a European Social Survey suggest Ireland to be second only to Nordic countries regarding trust in police, illustrating the high degree of trust the Irish public retains for its police force (Breen and Healy 2016; Hamilton and Black 2021). Additionally, evidence from crime victimisation surveys may also point to a favourable attitude to Gardaí as in the 2019 survey, 75% of participants stated they felt safe walking home at night and an additional 68% perceiving Gardaí as effective in tackling crime in their local area (CSO 2019). From these figures it is evident that the Irish public maintain a high degree of satisfaction and trust for their police force, however, it is not uncommon for Gardaí to inflate satisfaction figures as was seen in the 2007 survey. Gardaí reported satisfaction levels of 86%, while GSOC found this figure to be at 75% (Conway 2008). Furthermore, academic studies have undermined these statistics, for example Bohan and Yorke (1987) who found high levels of public satisfaction with Gardaí, but this confidence decreased when participants were asked more specific and negatively questions about them (McCullagh 1996). They discovered that 50% of respondents agreed Gardaí were never present when needed, while a further 57% believed Gardaí abuse and exceed their powers physically and

mentally (Bohan and Yorke 1987; McCullagh 1996). Bohan and Yorke (1987) further highlighted the public's decrease in confidence when asked more direct questions about police which may give a clearer indication into how the public perceive them in reality. Moreover, studies have neglected the approach utilised by Bohan and Yorke (1987) when obtaining attitudes to police and its use in the present study should yield some interesting results. Two scales constructed by Bohan and Yorke (1987) are employed in the present study. Specifically, these scales were chosen as they are integral to the examination of public attitudes towards Gardaí. Both surveys are scored on a 5-point Likert Scale. The survey examining police characteristics is advantageous as it provides a platform for participants to rate whether they consider Gardaí to possess certain characteristics, for example honesty, and gives a general overview of their perceptions towards police. The scale exploring public attitudes towards police is of vital importance to the present study as it asks more direct questions about Gardaí, with some being negatively phrased, and this produces a clearer indication into how the public feel towards Gardaí as opposed to simplistic single indicator measures (Bradford and Myhill 2015).

Studies conducted in Britain have shown the British public to possess much less favourable attitudes for their police force as opposed to the highly favourable attitudes the Irish public retain for the Gardaí (BMG Research 2019; An Garda Síochána 2020; Hamilton and Black 2021). British participants were less satisfied with policing in their local community, with only 61% being satisfied as opposed to the Irish figure of 80% (BMG Research 2019; An Garda Síochána 2020). Crucially, trust and confidence were also significantly lower in relation to British respondents as only 52% hold a high degree of confidence to British police, in contrast to the Irish statistic of 91% (BMG Research 2019; An Garda Síochána 2020). However, it must be noted that the samples in each of these surveys differing demographically, with differing variables also being explored in each study. For instance, far more females responded to the British survey, while the Irish study achieved similar representation from both. Furthermore, the British survey examined variables such as disability and sexuality, which were absent in the Irish survey, whereas the Irish survey examined variables of social class and nationality, which were missing from the British survey (BMG Research 2019; An Garda Síochána 2020). These surveys also differ in methodologies, as the British survey employs online research panels with additional face-to-face interviews, whereas the Irish study involves in-home face-to-face interviews (BMG Research 2019; An Garda Síochána 2020), which may



further explain the disparity in attitudes. Moreover, public confidence in Scottish police is strong with only 10% of respondents to the 2019/20 Crime and Justice survey stating police do a poor job (Scottish Government 2021). Furthermore, 89% believed police treat you with respect, 62% were confident police solve crimes and 69% were confident police investigate incidents after they occur (Scottish Government 2021). These statistics serve to highlight the confidence the Scottish public possess towards their police, which is similar to the confidence held by the Irish public towards Gardaí. Public confidence in policing is much higher in the UK and Ireland than in America, as confidence in American police is at an unprecedented low, with the figure standing at just 48% following the death of African American man, George Floyd, at the hands of police (Jones 2020; Ortiz 2020). Therefore, it is clear from figures produced that the Irish public possess a very favourable attitude towards Gardaí especially when compared to figures circulated in other jurisdictions such as Britain and America. The differences between jurisdictions here could be explained by the establishment of police forces. The creation of the Gardaí was closely tied with the formation of the Irish State (Conway 2014; Mulcahy 2006) which was not the case in other jurisdictions, particularly England with their first full-time, uniformed police force being established long after the creation of their state in the 1800s (Critchley 1967; Reith 1956; Uchida 2004), and this may explain why the Irish public view their police force more favourably. Moreover, policing during Covid-19 and the impact of this on attitudes will be explored in the following section.

### ***2.11 Policing during Covid 19***

An increased number of individuals have come into contact with Gardaí throughout the Covid-19 pandemic. This is partly due to Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions which employed the use of numerous operations, the most notable being Operation Fanacht which aims to ensure public compliance with Covid regulations (An Garda Síochána 2020). Additionally, Operation Fanacht has increased the visibility of An Garda Síochána through heightened Garda patrolling and checkpoints (An Garda Síochána 2020). This, in turn, has led to increased contact with Gardaí and enforcing of restrictions, such as the 5km rule, has somewhat changed policing interactions in Ireland. Therefore, the need arose to examine public attitudes towards Garda enforcement of Covid restrictions in the present study.

In Ireland, in some sectors of the public, relations between Gardaí and community members have improved during the pandemic. This improvement in relations resulted as Gardaí were seen responding to the needs of the community, such as bringing people shopping, and not just enforcing the law (Policing Authority Feb 2021). Yet, this confidence has dwindled since the introduction of a third lockdown in December 2020 (Department of the Taoiseach 2020), particularly amongst young people and students (Policing Authority March 2021). Young people believed that Gardaí were using Covid restrictions as an excuse to conduct more stops and the enforcement of the 5km rule was perceived as being used to control the population (Policing Authority March 2021). Furthermore, various protests (27<sup>th</sup> February 2021 and 27<sup>th</sup> November 2021) have highlighted public outrage towards Covid restrictions, with some protestors directing violence towards Garda members (Policing Authority March 2021)<sup>2</sup>. Nevertheless, the improvement of garda-community relations in some areas is extremely positive as mutual trust is vital to maintain effective policing and public safety (US Department of Justice n.d.).

High levels of satisfaction were found with Scottish police during lockdown with 46% of participants satisfied with the approach taken by police while only 2% believed the approach taken to be too heavy handed (Scottish Police Authority 2020). These figures were produced by the Scottish Police Authority through an online survey which received a large response rate and representation from males and females (Scottish Police Authority 2020). The scale utilised in the study, with one section being used in the current study, was extremely advantageous in obtaining attitudes towards police, particularly pertaining to their enforcement of Covid restrictions. The survey was further employed in research undertaken by Chamberlain (2020), who employed a Teesside (English) sample, which found differing attitudes towards police handling of Covid regulations as only 30% supported the approach taken by police. Further, 28% of Scottish respondents believed that police need to take a tougher approach, whereas 53% in Teesside considered a tougher approach necessary (Scottish Police Authority 2020; Chamberlain 2020). This highlights the varying views of differing areas in Britain in relation to policing during Covid and conveys the need for a similar approach to be adopted in Ireland regarding the production of statistical data for the purposes of comparative research.

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<sup>2</sup> <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-europe-56222942> ;  
<https://www.theguardian.com/world/2021/feb/27/hundreds-of-anti-lockdown-protesters-clash-with-police-in-dublin>

Additionally, the Garda Public Attitudes survey has not been run in Ireland since 2019, so the impact of Covid-19 on attitudes is not known in this instance, providing further justification for the present study. Following on, the influence of variables on attitudes to police will be analysed.

## ***2.12 Variables Influencing Perceptions of Police***

Numerous elements can impact perceptions of police. Factors including quicker response times and the belief that police are doing their job effectively can result in more favourable attitudes, while misconduct and wrongdoing in terms of behaviour and conduct can result in severe decreases in confidence (Awan *et al* 2018; Bradford *et al* 2009; Weitzer and Tuch 2005). In addition, numerous studies have highlighted that demographic variables can be influential in the determination of attitudes toward police (An Garda Síochána 2020; Bohan and Yorke 1987; Miller and Davis 2008; Jesilow *et al* 1995; Lee and Gibbs 2015; Mulcahy and O' Mahony 2005) and will be explored below.

### ***2.12.1 Gender***

Literature has illustrated the gender divide between males and females when it comes to attitudes towards police with males typically possessing more negative attitudes (Denno 1994; Hurst *et al* 2000; Miller and Davis 2008; Mbuba 2010). There are many assumptions as to why men perceive the police in a more negative light with one assumption premised upon the fact that most cases of excessive use of force by police are carried out against male suspects (Crawford and Burns 2008; Mbuba 2010). It has also been considered that as males engage in more criminal activity and have more police encounters, this will cause them to have mixed feelings and possess mistrust towards police (Brown and Benedict 2005; Kanazawa and Still 2000; Mbuba 2010). However, additional studies have stressed the minor role which gender plays in relation to perceptions of the police (An Garda Síochána 2020; Benedict *et al* 2000; Davis 1990; Parker *et al* 1995; Murty *et al* 1990; Jesilow *et al* 1995; Worrall 1999; Scottish Government 2021; Mbuba 2010). Mbuba (2010) established that women viewed police only slightly more favourably than males and both groups universally agreed on statements such as “the police provide an important service to the community.” (Mbuba 2010). In an Irish context,

gender has no measurable effect on satisfaction levels of Garda service to local communities and thoughts on whether Gardaí were friendly and helpful, well-managed, effective in tackling crime, modern and progressive, and community focused (An Garda Síochána 2020). In some cases, researchers have shown the gender divide when it comes to perceptions of the police with females typically viewing the police in a more positive light than males, but supplementary studies, such as Mbuba (2010) and An Garda Síochána (2020), have shown the diminishing influence of gender on public attitudes to police.

### 2.12.2 Age

Older studies (McCaghy *et al* 1968; Bayley and Mendelsohn 1969) found no relationship between age and overall perceptions of a particular police force, however, more recent studies have conveyed the idea that, typically, older citizens carry more favourable attitudes and are more supportive of police than their younger counterparts (Jesilow *et al* 1995; Bohan and Yorke 1987; An Garda Síochána 2020; Cao 2001; Cao *et al* 1996; Dowler 2002; Webb and Marshall 1995; Hurst and Frank 2000; Nofziger and Williams 2005; O'Connor 2008). Gardaí identified that older people were more likely to agree with the statement that “Gardaí treat people fairly”, with 97% of participants aged over 65 agreeing with this assertion, thus highlighting that an increase in age will ultimately lead to an increase in trust towards Gardaí (An Garda Síochána 2020). Numerous explanations have been put forward as to why younger people view the police in a more negative light and encompass confrontational police-initiated contact, the belief Gardaí have an unsatisfactory opinion of young people and high victimisation rates (Hinds 2007; British Home Office 1995; Sanders and Young 2007; Crowley 2008; Feeney 2009; An Garda Síochána 2020). However, not all young people possess unsatisfactory attitudes to police as particular studies have found the younger age categories to have more confidence in police than older citizens (Scottish Government 2021; BMG Research 2019; An Garda Síochána 2020). Further study on the influence of this variable is desirable and this study aims to add to the current research on the impact of age on attitudes toward police.

### 2.12.3 Race/Ethnicity

Previous research has considered race/ethnicity to be one of the most significant predictors of attitudes toward police (Mbuba 2010; Lee and Gibbs 2015). Typically, racial minorities tend to view the police in a more negative light as opposed to their White counterparts (Miller and Davis 2008; Reisig and Parks 2000; Schuck *et al* 2008; Mbuba 2010). One plausible explanation considers how minorities have more contact with police and thus view them more suspiciously (Alpert *et al* 2007; Mbuba 2010). Moreover, police have a history of brutality against minorities, for example, RUC policing of Catholic protesters in Northern Ireland (Brodeur 2020) and more recently the death of George Floyd in the United States and George Nkencho in Dublin, which may further decrease the relationship between both groups. In Ireland, a report conducted between 2012-2014 by Inspector McInerney found that Garda views towards ethnic minorities and non-nationals, particularly Travellers and Roma people, were concerning (Gallagher 2020). Gardaí considered that Travellers and Roma people were “always causing trouble” and “up to no good” (Gallagher 2020). However, throughout the years, An Garda Síochána have introduced numerous initiatives in order to diversify the force and combat discrimination such as the Garda National Diversity and Integration Unit (O’Brien-Olinger 2016). These initiatives may be paying dividends as according to the 2019 Garda Public Attitudes Survey, non-Irish nationals were more likely to agree that Gardaí treat people fairly and showed higher satisfaction levels with Garda service locally (An Garda Síochána 2020). However, the ethnicity of these non-nationals is unclear and the long problematic relationship between Gardaí and Travellers remains troubling (Collins 2013; Mulcahy and O’Mahony 2005), providing further impetus to explore the impact of race/ethnicity on attitudes towards Gardaí in the present study.

#### 2.12.4 Social Class, Employment and Education

Social class plays a significant role in the determination of an individual's attitude toward the police as, usually, those from economically disadvantaged neighbourhoods and marginalised communities possess less favourable attitudes toward police (Payne and Gainey 2007; Gossett 2009; Mulcahy and O' Mahony 2005). Additionally, employment status is also influential as those with lower rates of income report less satisfaction with the police than those with higher rates of income (Sampson and Jeglum-Bartusch 1998; Gossett 2009; Boateng 2016). Likewise, this variable has been shown to be influential in an Irish setting as it was found that lower social classes were more likely to perceive Gardaí as unfair and inefficient (Bohan and Yorke 1987; McCullagh 1996; Kilcommins *et al* 2018), while also expressing reluctance to contact them, for example, "if they knew someone was selling stolen property" (Bohan and Yorke 1987).

Many explanations have been put forward as to why those associated with the lower socio-economic classes view police more negatively with suggestions considering residents to hold police responsible for the conditions of their neighbourhoods (Reisig and Parks 2000; Schuck *et al* 2008), policing in these areas being confrontational, involving high levels of misconduct and harassment (Mulcahy and O' Mahony 2005; Bowling 1999; Chan 1996; Crowther 2000; Ellison 2001; Holdaway 1996; Loader 1996; Newburn 2002) and police not caring how the lower social classes perceive them, focusing more on seeking support from upper classes, further tarnishing relations (Correia 2000; Gossett 2009). Ultimately, those of the lower social classes, in addition to those with lower levels of income, view police more negatively than their middle and upper-class counterparts with explanations ranging from inhabitants of disadvantaged regions blaming police for their poor conditions to police only focusing on perceptions of the upper classes (Reisig and Parks 2000; Schuck *et al* 2008; Correia 2000; Gossett 2009). Furthermore, the influence of education on attitudes is obscure as certain studies have found education to be influential, although there has been disagreement regarding which educational group views police more favourably (Jesilow *et al* 1995; Cao 2001) and some research has found education to have no impact (Cao *et al* 1996; Correia *et al* 1996; O'Connor 2008). Therefore, the need to examine the effect of social class, employment and education is paramount to the present study.

### 2.12.5 Residence and Station

The region in which an individual resides, whether that be rural (countryside, low population density) or urban (cities, high population density) (National Geographic 2011), can also impact on their attitude towards police. In Ireland, those who reside in the city typically display a more negative attitude towards Gardaí as they express greater levels of dissatisfaction and are less likely to have high levels of trust. (An Garda Síochána 2020). Conversely, those living in rural areas possess more favourable views of Gardaí as they expressed the lowest level of dissatisfaction, 18% in contrast to the city statistic of 25%, and are more likely to have a higher degree of trust in the organisation, 52% as opposed to the city level of 36% (An Garda Síochána 2020). A possible explanation for this disparity involves the lower crime rate associated with rural areas (Weisheit and Wells 1996) which may lead the rural populous to believe the police are doing their jobs effectively and therefore result in more favourable attitudes towards them. However, a Scottish study conflicts the findings produced in Ireland as researchers recorded similar results concerning rural and urban participants although there were slight differences, for example, urban respondents were more likely to be confident that police respond quickly when compared to rural participants (Scottish Government 2021). The examination of this variable is crucial to the present study as studies to date provide conflicting evidence on its influence (An Garda Síochána 2020; Scottish Government 2021). Additionally, the impact of a Garda station in a respondent's area on attitudes is unknown providing an impetus to examine its influence in the present study.

### 2.12.6 Previous Police Contact

Previous police contact is one of the most influential factors in establishing attitudes towards police. Interactions can be both personal and vicarious, through family, friends, the media etc, with negative encounters resulting in the formulation of negative attitudes toward police (Hinds 2009; Logan *et al* 2001; Miller and Davis 2008; Rosenbaum *et al* 2005; Schuck and Rosenbaum 2005; Mbuba 2010; Taylor 1986; Miller *et al* 2004). Conversely, positive encounters result in positive attitudes with those having experienced positive encounters possessing the same opinion of police as someone who had no previous contact whatsoever (Miller *et al* 2004). Critically, it is not the overall outcome of the encounter, but the way in which a person was treated during the encounter, whether it be fair or arbitrary, that is

significant (Engel 2005; Mbuba 2010). Furthermore, the encounters themselves are extremely subjective in nature with demographics, such as education and employment, influencing thoughts regarding that encounter (Worden and McLean 2017). The way in which contact between police and citizens is conducted is also of crucial importance. In an Irish setting, participants who had self-initiated contact with Gardaí were more inclined to be satisfied with Gardaí than participants with Garda-initiated contact (An Garda Síochána 2020). In fact, citizens who received Garda-initiated contact were less probable to agree that Gardaí are community focused, well-managed and effective in tackling crime (An Garda Síochána 2020). Furthermore, the identity of a person during an encounter with police, whether that be victim, witness or suspect can also impact on attitudes. Research has shown that suspects and victims tend to hold less favourable views of police (Maxfield 1988; Dobash *et al* 1990; Scottish Government 2012; Lai and Zhao 2010; Ren *et al* 2005; Weitzer and Tuch 2005; De Angelis and Wolf 2016; Scottish Government 2021). However, certain studies have highlighted the improved perception of victims towards police (An Garda Síochána 2020). Overall, the influence of previous police contact is significant with negative encounters almost certainly resulting in the formation of negative attitudes, while positive encounters, or no encounter at all, result in more optimistic views. Therefore, the analysis of this variable is vital to the present study.

### 2.12.7 Summary

Demographic variables can impact an individual's attitude toward police with all variables being examined in the present study illustrating some significance in previous research. Firstly, gender is influential with females viewing police more favourably than males ((Denno 1994; Hurst *et al* 2000; Miller and Davis 2008; Mbuba 2010). Secondly, age is significant as older citizens display more positive attitudes to police (Jesilow *et al* 1995; An Garda Síochána 2020). Thirdly, ethnicity is considered to be one of the most important factors as minorities often tend to view police more negatively (Miller and Davis 2008; Reising and Parks 2000; Schuck *et al* 2008; Mbuba 2010). Fourthly, social class, education and employment are prominent with individuals from lower social classes and lower income expressing more pessimistic opinions regarding police (Payne and Gainey 2007; Sampson and Jeglum-Bartusch 1998; Gossett 2009; Boateng 2016; Jesilow *et al* 1995; Bohan and Yorke



1987; McCullagh 1996; Kilcommins *et al* 2018). Fifthly, regarding residence, studies have conflicted on its importance with some highlighting rural inhabitants to be more positive about police (An Garda Síochána 2020), while others have discovered it to have no influence (Scottish Government 2021). Finally, previous police contact is a paramount predictor of attitudes to police with a negative encounter resulting in a pessimistic attitude to police and vice-versa (Hinds 2009; Logan *et al* 2001; Miller and Davis 2008; Rosenbaum *et al* 2005; Schuck and Rosenbaum 2005; Mbuba 2010; Taylor 1986; Miller *et al* 2004). Thus, the need to explore these variables is essential to the present study. The next section of this study will explore previous research on attitudes to police accountability.

### ***2.13 Attitudes Towards Garda Accountability***

#### ***2.13.1 GSOC***

Research conducted in Ireland regarding attitudes to Garda accountability has shown the public to hold favourable attitudes (Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020). According to GSOC's public attitude survey, which employs face to face interviews of participants of differing age, gender and social class, 72% of participants believe that GSOC provide an important service, with the same figure stating they would make a complaint against Gardaí if they experienced a poor encounter (Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020). These figures are crucial to GSOC as without public willingness to make complaints, they would be unable to perform their duty of investigation into Garda wrongdoing (s.67(2) Garda Síochána Act 2005). Additionally, 54% of respondents believed GSOC would be able to resolve their problem, illustrating a sufficient level of confidence in the organisation to resolve complaints (Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020). Furthermore, 81% agreed that GSOC perform their investigations and deal with complaints in an impartial manner, which is critical as if it is seen to favour Gardaí this would reduce public confidence and vice versa (Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020). Crucially, 84% of citizens agreed that GSOC has increased the accountability of Gardaí (Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020). In conjunction, it has been found that GSOC have received more complaints than the previous mechanism, the Garda Síochána Complaints Board, which may be due to greater media coverage and belief in its independence (Conway 2008). Moreover, there has been a rise in the number of complaints received by GSOC in the last year which illustrates a surge in

confidence towards the organisation (Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2021). However, it was discovered that 34% of respondents believed GSOC to be part of An Garda Síochána, with an additional 40% being unsure of GSOC's effectiveness to resolve complaints (Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020). This is concerning as it undermines the legitimacy of GSOC in terms of being an independent organisation and could result in individuals being unwilling to lodge complaints against Gardaí. Unfortunately, Irish attitudes to the Policing Authority and Garda Inspectorate are unknown as no research has been conducted on the topic. The next section will examine attitudes to police accountability in Northern Ireland.

### *2.13.2 Police Ombudsman for Northern Ireland*

It was found in Northern Ireland that 86% of respondents were aware of the PONI, with variables such as religion and gender having an influence, with Protestants being more aware of the organisation than Catholics and 91% of males aware of its independence, in contrast to 86% of females (Police Ombudsman Commission for Northern Ireland 2020). Overall, 88% of participants who had heard of the PONI were aware of its independence from the police which is much higher than those aware of GSOC's independence which stands at just 66% (Police Ombudsman Commission for Northern Ireland 2020; Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020). This may be due to greater knowledge and longer operation of the PONI in Northern Ireland as opposed to GSOC in the Republic. Further, 85% of respondents were confident that complaints would be dealt with impartially, which is slightly higher than GSOC's figure of 81% (Police Ombudsman Commission for Northern Ireland 2020; Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020). Gender did not have a significant influence on this section, but age did as those aged 55+ were more likely to be confident in this impartiality (Police Ombudsman Commission for Northern Ireland 2020). Fundamentally, 87% of participants believed that the PONI helped to ensure that police did a good job which is vital to the organisation as it shows respondents believe the PONI are fulfilling their duties to make police more effective. Additionally, age was significant here as older participants were more likely to agree (Police Ombudsman Commission for Northern Ireland 2020). Furthermore, 86% of participants believed they would be treated fairly if they made a complaint (Police Ombudsman Commission for Northern Ireland 2020). Critically, this figure is much higher

than the 67% who believe GSOC would treat one fairly, illustrating the contrast in views of the public towards GSOC and the PONI. Conclusively, it is fair to say that those in Northern Ireland possess a more favourable attitude to their body of police accountability than those in the Republic. (Police Ombudsman for Northern Ireland 2020; Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020).

Studies are not limited to public attitudes as Hibberd (2008) examined police attitudes, more specifically PSNI attitudes to the PONI. Ultimately, Hibberd discovered that most officers tended to be positive towards the body, with respondents being more likely to agree that it has made the public more confident in the PSNI and that it has improved accountability (Hibberd 2008). However, the study also highlighted that a small number of participants believed the PONI has improved policing, whereas many questioned its impartiality into complaint investigations (Hibberd 2008). Moreover, it was found that the more informed a participant was about the PONI, the more positive their attitude (Hibberd 2008). Additionally, gender was determined to be influential, with females viewing the body slightly more positively than males (Hibberd 2008). Although the questionnaire employed by Hibberd (2008) was originally constructed to examine police attitudes, it can, nevertheless, be utilised in a public setting due to its clear and concise wording which makes it understandable to all parties, not just those involved in policing. Therefore, the questionnaire created by Hibberd (2008) is implemented in the present study as it is crucial to measuring public attitudes towards bodies of accountability and considers whether the public believe that such bodies are effective and have made police more accountable. The use of this questionnaire will be discussed in more detail in the Methodology chapter.

Overall, GSOC is looked favourably upon by the Irish public with high confidence and satisfaction in the organisation (Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020). Critically, this optimism seems to be more prevalent in Northern Ireland, with the public viewing the PONI more enthusiastically, which may be due to more public knowledge about the body (Police Ombudsman for Northern Ireland 2020). Nevertheless, the study conducted by GSOC provided valuable statistics to an area that has been relatively underexamined in Irish literature, however, the addition of certain variables would have been beneficial. Variables, such as age, gender and race were considered influential in previous studies (Police Ombudsman for Northern Ireland 2020; De Angelis 2015; Hibberd 2008) and therefore will be explored in the present study. Furthermore, the influence of additional variables, which will be examined in

this study such as social class, education and employment, on attitudes to police accountability is unknown, particularly in an Irish context, providing further impetus to determine their impact in the present study.

### ***2.14 Attitudes to GSOC v Gardaí***

It is evident that the Irish public possess a generally favourable attitude towards GSOC and Gardaí which is illustrated by trust levels of 72% and 91% respectively (An Garda Síochána 2020; Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020). This is in line with studies that found attitudes towards police accountability can have a powerful influence on overall satisfaction with police (De Angelis and Wolf 2016). Public confidence is crucial for both organisations as it would be unlikely that both GSOC and Gardaí would be able to fulfil their obligations in the absence of public support. However, areas in which both groups need to improve have also been illustrated. For example, only 43% of respondents considered Gardaí to be a world-class police force which questions Garda effectiveness (An Garda Síochána 2020). Furthermore, 34% of participants believed GSOC to be part of the Gardaí which has huge implications on GSOC's legitimacy and independence and may, in the most serious instances, result in some people becoming unwilling to utilise the organisation (An Garda Síochána 2020). The relationship between GSOC and Gardaí has been problematic with both being suspicious of the other. Allegations made by Gardaí centre upon GSOC's 'oppressive' investigations, while GSOC have expressed concern over the length of time it takes Gardaí to hand over documents which hinders GSOC investigations (O'Keeffe 2011; Barry 2014; Williams and McQuinn 2013; Brady 2014). This difficult relationship persists with communication between GSOC and Garda Management being problematic, which is concerning as both organisations need to work together to ensure effective policing (*The Irish Times* 2020). Additionally, Garda confidence in GSOC is relatively low, with Gardaí possessing much more pessimistic attitudes to GSOC as opposed to the public, for example, 78% of Gardaí stated GSOC has reduced the effectiveness of Gardaí to police (Barry 2014). The impact of the new policing Bill on the relationship between the two will be interesting to see, with a closer working relationship being proposed (Department of Justice 2021). In the following section, the model of procedural justice will be discussed which, when implemented correctly, may improve public perceptions of police and police effectiveness.

### **2.15 Procedural Justice**

Procedural justice can have measurable benefits for policing and is based on the idea that perceived fairness of procedures involved in decision making and the perceived treatment a person receives from a decision-maker influences how they feel about that decision-maker in terms of perceptions of legitimacy (Murphy *et al* 2014). For example, if a person is being arrested and the arresting officer has explained why such an action has been taken, and has acted fairly in carrying out the arrest, the person being arrested will most likely be satisfied and will ultimately cooperate. Numerous studies have illustrated the benefits of procedural justice such as increased trust in police, better compliance with the law, improved view of police legitimacy, higher satisfaction with police services and decreased recidivism (Tyler and Huo 2002; Magner *et al* 1998; Tyler and Lind 1992; Tyler 1997; Murphy 2003; Murphy *et al* 2014; Hinds and Murphy 2007; McCluskey 2003; Paernoster *et al* 1997). Furthermore, Barkworth and Murphy (2015) discovered that citizens who felt they were treated with procedural justice were less likely to experience negative emotions about encounters with police. Utilising a multi-method design employing the use of two studies, cross-sectional survey data and experimental data, the researchers found that those who believed they had been treated procedurally fair were less likely to report they would be non-compliant, thus illustrating the power of procedural justice on compliance with the law (Barkworth and Murphy 2015). A questionnaire designed by Barkworth and Murphy (2015) is utilised in the present study as it permits participants to give more insight into previous encounters with police as opposed to indicating whether the encounter was positive or negative. The survey allows people to express the emotions they felt regarding the encounter by agreeing or disagreeing with whether they felt ‘frustrated, tense, anxious, angry, resentful’, and are included to provide an insight into whether Gardaí operate with a procedural justice model of policing. Critics of procedural justice argue that the justice system is in place to resolve conflicts, not increase the satisfaction level of its participants (Biscontini 2019). Nevertheless, employing a policing practice that hinges upon procedural justice could be very influential in an Irish context as, historically, localism of the force was valued above procedural justice (Conway 2019).

Furthermore, the influence of variables on perceptions of procedural justice is ambiguous. Literature has stated that socio-demographic factors possess no impact (Gottfredson *et al* 2007; Sunshine and Tyler 2003; Paternoster *et al* 1997; Tyler and Huo 2002; Tyler and Fagan 2008; Wells 2007; Livingston *et al* 2014), whereas additional studies found

education and gender to be influential (Hiday *et al* 1997; Sunshine and Tyler 2003; Gottfredson *et al* 2007; Livingston *et al* 2014). Therefore, the scrutinization of demographic variables on encounters with Gardaí and perceptions of procedural justice is relevant in the present study as previous literature has produced conflicting results regarding its impact.

### **2.16 Conclusion**

In conclusion, it is apparent that the Irish public retains a high degree of confidence in Gardaí and Garda accountability (An Garda Síochána 2020; Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020). Although a slight dip in confidence was identified following the revelation of scandals, satisfaction with Gardaí has remained consistently high throughout the years (Hamilton and Black 2021). However, the validity of these figures are questionable, especially when compared to studies like Bohan and Yorke (1987) which highlighted the decrease in confidence towards Gardaí upon the introduction of negatively phrased questions. Unfortunately, studies have neglected the approach utilised by Bohan and Yorke (1987) as exemplified by a lack of contemporary studies using this approach. Therefore, the employment of a similar approach in today's climate should produce compelling results. Furthermore, the influence of demographic variables, in addition to previous police contact, is significant to comprehensively understand the determination of attitudes toward police and their impact is assessed in the present study. Variables, such as gender, influenced attitudes towards bodies of oversight in Northern Ireland (Police Ombudsman for Northern Ireland 2020), but the effect on attitudes in the Republic of Ireland is unknown, providing further impetus for this study. Moreover, the collection of statistical data regarding attitudes to Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions will be crucial for comparative research with other jurisdictions such as Scotland and gathering attitudes in relation to encounters with Gardaí may give an insight into how Gardaí conduct themselves when dealing with members of the public.

## **CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY**

### ***3.1 Introduction***

Firstly, this chapter will consider the research aims and research questions of the current study. Secondly, the research methods employed in this study will be explored with the advantages and disadvantages of quantitative data being discussed. Thirdly, the creation and finalisation of the survey utilised in this study will be explained. Fourthly, information will be given on the sampling of participants and why the final sample was chosen. Fifthly, the data collection procedure and access to participants will be described. Additionally, the system employed for data analysis will be clarified. Furthermore, the vital issue of ethics and what specific ethical issues arose in this study will be examined. Finally, possible limitations associated with this methodology will be discussed.

### ***3.2 Research Aims***

As previously stated, much of the research concerning public attitudes towards Gardaí and their bodies of oversight have been confined to studies conducted by the two organisations (An Garda Síochána 2020; Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020). This creates a need for an independent study that possesses no connection to any of the relevant organisations. Therefore, the main aim and main research question of this study is ‘What type of attitudes do the Irish public retain for An Garda Síochána and Garda accountability.’ Additionally, the research endeavoured to explore the overall influence of gender, age and race on these attitudes. Moreover, the social class, employment, residence, education status and whether there is a Garda station in a participant’s area was scrutinised to discover the impact of these variables. Furthermore, the study aimed to examine the effect of previous contact with the police on public perceptions of them. These objectives were investigated by utilising a questionnaire in order to gather the necessary data. The data was then analysed and presented in a quantitative form. The following specific research questions were investigated during the study:

- 1) What type of attitudes does the Irish public possess towards An Garda Síochána and their bodies of oversight, namely GSOC?

- 2) What is the attitude of the Irish public regarding Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions?
- 3) Will the participant's gender, age and/or race influence their views of An Garda Síochána and Garda accountability?
- 4) Will the respondent's social class, employment, place of residence, station and/or education status affect attitudes towards Gardaí and Garda accountability?
- 5) Does previous contact with Gardaí have any significance in determining attitudes towards them and Garda accountability?
- 6) What is the relationship between attitudes towards An Garda Síochána and their oversight bodies?
- 7) Does the Irish public perceive Gardaí to operate within the principles of procedural justice during encounters and what are the demographic effects on these perceptions?

### ***3.3 Research Design and Research Methods***

In this study, a quantitative approach to data collection, which employs the use of statistical data to explore a wide variety of social phenomena (Watson 2015), was utilised. In addition, a quantitative methodology concerns the testing of existing theories or hypotheses which relate to the topic concerned in the research (Bows 2018). The essential component of quantitative research is its production of numerical data that can be collected utilising a wide variety of techniques such as surveys and polls (Babbie 2010; Muijs 2010). To sum up, this method of data collection is typically concerned with counting and measurements which can involve the use of questionnaires and formal records (White 2018). It must be noted that supplementary methods to data collection were also considered, for example, a qualitative approach. A qualitative methodology examines the opinions, behaviour, experiences and feelings of individuals (Bows 2018). Additionally, qualitative data is collected primarily in the form of words (Schwandt 2001) as opposed to numbers in quantitative. Furthermore, qualitative research is deeply descriptive with data being interpreted instead of testing a hypothesis (Merriam 2002; LaFrance 2016). Lastly, qualitative research can be conducted in numerous ways, for example, interviews and focus groups (LaFrance 2016).

However, as previously stated, a quantitative approach to data collection was selected as it was deemed it would satisfy the research objectives of obtaining attitudes to Gardaí and



Garda accountability. Firstly, this method was preferred as quantitative methods are common when gathering attitudes towards Gardaí and Garda accountability, as studies undertaken by Gardaí, GSOC and academics have used this approach (An Garda Síochána 2020; Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020; Feeney 2009; Barry 2014; Bohan and Yorke 1987). Secondly, the production of numerical data, as opposed to words in qualitative research, was essential to the current study in order to compare the findings of this research to existing literature on the topic. Thirdly, as qualitative research usually employs interviews and focus groups it would have been difficult to gain access to participants given Covid-19 restrictions. The scales utilised in this study were taken from studies which employed a quantitative research methodology and therefore, the same approach for the purposes of comparative research was desired. Further, in the absence of statistics, qualitative data does not produce statistically significant results (Chukwuemeka 2022), which further cemented the use of a quantitative methodology in the current study in order to establish if variables were statistically significant on attitudes. Lastly, qualitative data is difficult to randomise, creating further problems in relation to repeatability and generalisability (Gable 1994; Choy 2014).

### *3.3.1 Strengths and Limitations of Quantitative Research*

Quantitative research retains a wide variety of strengths which will be examined in this section. Firstly, one of the most striking advantages of quantitative research relates to the speed and efficiency in which data can be administered and evaluated. For example, employing the use of a survey can allow for the survey to be both administered and evaluated relatively quickly in comparison to interviews utilised in qualitative research (Choy 2014). Quantitative methods and perspectives aim to be objective (Maruna 2010) and work from the perspective that the world exists freely of human experience and construction (Bows 2018). This method is positivist and is interested in achieving scientific ‘facts’ which can be ascertained through independent testing (Bows 2018). Crucial to a quantitative methodology is validity, the importance of research instruments and whether a measure specifically evaluates the idea it intends to assess (Bryman 2016; Drost 2011; Nelson 1980), and reliability, the “consistency of measurement and replication” (Bows 2018, pp 96), with objective and scientific methods being considered the best way to gain valid and reliable knowledge. Furthermore, quantitative data provides for greater generalisability as it utilises a larger and more random sample size.

However, there are also a number of limitations associated with quantitative research. Firstly, for effective quantitative research to be carried out a large sample size is required (Choy 2014). This large sample size is also an essential component when it comes to conducting a thorough quantitative evaluation (Dudwick *et al* 2006). Furthermore, quantitative data does not produce an in-depth understanding of the relevant information as it instead focuses upon the influence of variables (Rahman 2017). Additionally, mathematical procedures employed for analyses and measurement may be complex and difficult to use due to the requirement of complete accuracy (Bryman, 2016; Queiros *et al* 2017). Finally, there are various constraints associated with survey methods. Most notably, the survey is unable to capture the participant's emotions or changes in emotion and behaviour during the study (Queiros *et al* 2017).

Despite these limitations, quantitative were chosen for the purpose of this study. Firstly, as previously mentioned, quantitative data can be collected and analysed quickly which was important in completing this study in a specified time frame and with Covid-19 restrictions. Secondly, quantitative research replicable (Maruna 2010) and the numerical data produced by quantitative methodologies can facilitate comparisons between other studies (Yauch and Steudel 2003). Finally, utilisation of a survey provides many advantages such as cost effectiveness, objectivity and high representation (Bryman 2016; Queiros *et al* 2017). For the purpose of the current study, a demographic questionnaire, attitude surveys were used and are detailed in the following section, beginning with a short description of attitudes and attitude measurement.

### *3.3.2 Attitudes and Attitude Measurement*

Early academics, such as Allport (1935), defined an attitude as a neural or mental state of preparedness, that has been formulated through experience and exerts a direct influence on a person's response to all objects and situations (cited in Bordens and Horowitz 2001). Attitudes define a person, direct future feelings and thoughts about the objects of that feeling and encapsulate one's feelings, intentions, behaviours and thoughts (Bordens and Horowitz 2001). The ABC model is of crucial importance when examining attitudes with A representing affective, which concerns attitudes based on emotions and values, B encompassing behavioural, which relates to thoughts and beliefs derived from observations of other people's behaviour, and C representing cognitive, which consists of beliefs relating to the attitude object

(Bordens and Horowitz 2001; Aronson *et al* 2007; Feeney 2009). These elements shape an individual's attitude towards objects, people and ideas (Feeney 2009). Furthermore, attitudes can be constructed through a wide variety of components including observation of others, positive and negative reinforcement, genetic factors, direct personal experience, and the influence of certain stimuli (Bordens & Horowitz 2001; De Lamater *et al.* 2018; Plomin 1989). Moreover, it is possible for attitudes to change in response to reasons such as cognitive dissonance, social influence and persuasion (De Lamater *et al* 2018; Festinger 1957; Bordens and Horowitz 2001; Aronson *et al* 2007; Petty and Cacioppo 1986). Attitudes are relevant to the present study as the research examines public attitudes towards An Garda Síochána and Garda accountability and whether they can be influenced by certain demographic variables. The most commonly used method to measure one's attitude is the attitude survey which has previously been discussed (Bordens and Horowitz 2001).

Attitudinal research has been conducted in numerous studies and is quite common in policing research. Attitudinal research relies on self-reported data and reflects participant's beliefs and perceptions (UX Research n.d.). The method involved in collecting attitudinal data generally takes the form of interviews and surveys and attitudes can be measured using instruments such as Likert-Scale style questions (Eirich and Corbett 2009). Furthermore, quantitative approaches to the collection of attitudinal data is often utilised and this possesses the advantage of allowing researchers to track changes in societal attitudes and also compare differences with other jurisdictions, for example (Eirich and Corbett 2009). Attitudinal research can also ascertain participants satisfaction, as was accomplished in the present study, although this contains certain drawbacks in relation to objectivity as a 'perceptions gap' has been identified where positive attitudes are discovered with an individual locally, but more negative attitudes are found on a nation-wide level (Eirich and Corbett). Nevertheless, such an approach was employed in the present study as it allowed for the researcher to compare findings with historical research to track societal changes and also compare results with studies conducted in other jurisdictions.

### 3.3.3 Questionnaires

An attitude questionnaire, where participants express their attitude by answering a variety of questions, is the most commonly used method to measure attitudes (Bordens and

Horowitz 2001). Questionnaires are a popular method in criminological research and were employed in the present study. Questionnaires are beneficial as they can potentially collect information from a large sample using a single instrument. They are also quick, versatile, cost-effective, efficient and add to the generalisability of the data (Bows 2018; Bachman and Schutt 2008). Generally, a questionnaire gathers data on different variables, for example, attributes (demographic information), opinions and behaviours (Aldridge and Levine 2001; Bows 201). One type of attitude survey is the rating survey where participants indicate their level of agreement or disagreement towards a range of statements by choosing a number on the survey (Brown 2006). By far, the most prevalent of these is the five-point Likert Scale which asks respondents to agree or disagree to a range of statements with, typically, 1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree, or vice-versa. In terms of determining the attitude of an individual when employing a Likert style survey, the scores chosen by the participant are added together to produce a final total score and this score will indicate whether the attitude is positive or negative (Bordens and Horowitz 2001). Furthermore, the use of the Likert Scale to measure attitudes is widespread in studies that have measured attitudes towards police (Yates and Pillai 1996; Bohan and Yorke 1987; Feeney 2009; Barkworth and Murphy 2015).

Questionnaires can contain both open-ended questions, which allow the participant to answer in their own words (Oskamp 1991), and close-ended questions, which compel a participant to select from a number of choices that are given (Bordens and Horowitz 2001). In addition to Likert style questions, close-ended questions are another approach that was used in this study. Close-ended or fixed-choice questions compel respondents to select a response from a predetermined list (Hruschka *et al* 2004) and is considered advantageous as it ensures that participants answer the required questions and allows for responses to be analysed and processed more easily (Bachman and Schutt 2012; Maxfield and Babbie 2005).

However, certain drawbacks with attitude questionnaires have been identified. Firstly, it is possible for participants to lie or respond inaccurately during completion of the questionnaire by providing generalised answers which may not accurately represent their emotions (Farrall *et al* 1997). In addition, Brown (2006) and Paulhus and Reid (1991) identified that participants may lie as they do not want to admit they failed to do a socially preferable action. Furthermore, the wording of the questionnaire is of crucial importance as if it is incorrect, it could invalidate a participant's response (Goleman 1993; Semin and Fiedler 1996). For instance, a study conducted by a polling firm discovered that altering the wording of a

question between two surveys resulted in a significant drop in confidence, 99% to 40% (Bordens and Horowitz 2001). Additionally, Bohan and Yorke (1987) found high satisfaction with Gardaí regarding positively phrased questions, however, this confidence decreased when asked more negatively phrased questions, highlighting the importance of how a question is worded. Nevertheless, attitude questionnaires and Likert Scales possess a variety of benefits such as its simplicity to interpret, ease of construction, the ability to employ a large sample size and quick response times (Allen 2017; Hartley 2013; Treadwell 2011). Despite these criticisms, the use of the Likert Scale attitude measure is common in criminological and policing research and the utilisation of such an approach in the present study was considered appropriate.

To sum, a quantitative methodology employing the use of surveys was chosen as they are abundant in criminological research (Hall 2018), are more replicable (Maruna 2010) and can provide for greater comparative research (Yauch and Steudel 2003). Surveys were selected as they are often utilised to gather public opinion and are particularly important when collecting attitudes towards the police (Frank *et al* 2005; Feeney 2009).

#### *3.3.4 Online Questionnaires*

The existence of online questionnaires possesses many strengths as it saves time and costs, provides greater anonymity for the respondent and allows initial respondents to act as contacts whereby further participants can be recruited (Biernacki and Waldorf 1981; Yar 2018; Lazar and Preece 1999; Oppermann 1995; Saris 1991; Jansen *et al* 2007). Online questionnaires allow the respondent to answer at a convenient time and permits them to take as much time as they need while completing the questionnaire (Regmi *et al* 2016). However, online questionnaires also contain some pitfalls such as low response rates and sampling problems (Yar 2018). Nevertheless, online questionnaires were employed in the present study as it was deemed they would best satisfy the research objectives. Online questionnaires can take many forms, the most notable of which, and the one employed for this study, being the web-based survey (Yar 2018; Jansen *et al* 2007). Although sites such as SurveyMonkey were considered, Microsoft Forms was chosen to host the survey as it is desktop, mobile and tablet friendly. Social media platforms and email were used to distribute the link and the utilisation of social media and email to distribute questionnaires possessed many advantages as it

authorized the researcher to recruit a large and diverse sample of respondents efficiently and effectively (Ali *et al* 2020). In addition, the use of this online, mobile/desktop/tablet friendly approach, while also utilising email and social media to distribute the surveys, permitted the researcher to deliver questionnaires faster and to reach respondents across significant distances (Andrews *et al* 2003; Jansen *et al* 2007; Yar 2018). However, this approach retained some disadvantages such as limiting respondents to those that owned computers and concerns regarding the representativeness of data obtained using social media (Anavizio Team 2019) however, to combat this, the researcher targeted specific groups, through friends and contacts, in the hope of achieving more representation. Moreover, online questionnaires have been successfully utilised in criminological research as studies such as Pickett *et al* (2013) illustrate, achieving a high response rate, a gender balance and representation from differing ethnic groups in the process. The next section will describe the surveys that were employed in the current study.

### ***3.4 Data Collection Instruments***

The present study employed the use of a questionnaire that included 5 scales adapted from previous studies. The scales included were the Policing during Covid Scale (Scottish Police Authority 2020); Procedural Justice Scale (Barkworth and Murphy 2015) Police Characteristics Scale (Bohan and Yorke 1987; Public Attitude Towards Police Scale (Bohan and Yorke 1987) and the Police Accountability Attitudes Scale (Hibberd 2008) in addition to a demographic questionnaire used to measure the variables of gender, age, race, social class, employment, education, residence, station and previous police contact. Scale reliability was examined here using Cronbach's alpha coefficient ( $\alpha$ ) which is expressed as a value between 0 (no correlation and internal reliability) to 1 (excellent correlation and internal reliability) (Tavakol and Dennick 2011). Although Cronbach's alpha has received criticism such as improper use leading to tests or scales being unjustly discarded or not producing trustworthy results (Tavakol and Dennick 2011), it has nevertheless, been used in a wide variety of studies such as Barkworth and Murphy (2015); Murphy *et al* (2017) and has been used in research obtaining public attitudes towards police, for example, Miller *et al* (2004). Furthermore, it is universally accepted that a score of 0.8 and above is an acceptable level of internal reliability, although 0.7 and even 0.6 and above has also been deemed adequate (Bryman 2016; Field

2018; Berthoud 2000). Additionally, correlation of questions was also explored with scores above 0.3 indicating good correlation and reliability (Field 2018). The scales and their reliability are discussed below.

#### *3.4.1 Policing during Covid Scale (Scottish Police Authority 2020) (Appendix (v))*

This scale was constructed by the Scottish Police Authority (2020) and was employed in the present study to obtain attitudes towards Gardaí, particularly regarding their enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions. For the purposes of the present study, only a section of the entire scale employed by the Scottish Police Authority (2020) was utilised as this part of the scale specifically related to policing and Covid-19 whereas other sections seemed to measure attitudes to police more generally. Although other parts of Scottish Police Authority (2020) survey also explored policing and Covid, the chosen section gave the best insight into police implementation of Covid-19 restrictions and ensured that the questionnaire formulated for the current study was not too long and intense for participants. The scale asked participants to select a statement which best described their attitude regarding Garda enforcement of Covid-19 regulations and statements ranged from supporting Garda actions to considering the need for a tougher approach. In addition, the scale possessed a ‘none of the above’ section for participants who did not agree with any of the statements presented. Furthermore, minor adjustments were made to the wording of the scale. For example, the word ‘police’ was changed to ‘Gardaí’ to make the survey more relatable to the Irish public. Unfortunately, the internal reliability of this scale was not obtained as it only contained one question and its reliability could not be tested.

#### *3.4.2 Procedural Justice Scale (Barkworth and Murphy 2015) (Appendix (iv))*

Taken from a study conducted by Barkworth and Murphy (2015) which examined procedural justice policing and citizen compliance behaviour, this scale explored a participant’s previous encounters with Gardaí and their attitude towards this encounter was measured as they were asked to rate possible emotions they may have felt during the encounter. Furthermore, this scale addressed participants’ perceptions of procedural justice and simultaneously provided further insight into attitudes towards Gardaí. The emotions contained in the scale were

negatively phrased and further space was provided for the participant to rate how Gardaí conducted themselves. The scale was scored on a 5-point Likert Scale with 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree and scores ranged from 5-25 on the first section of this scale (Procedural Justice Scale 1). A higher score indicated a more positive encounter and attitude with Gardaí and a belief they operate with procedural justice. Additionally, the second section (Procedural Justice Scale 2) was scored using a 5-point Likert Scale with 1=strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. Scores ranged from 5-25 with a higher score indicating a more negative attitude and encounter, while simultaneously highlighting a belief Gardaí do not operate with procedural justice. Regarding scale reliability, the PJ1 produced a reliability score of  $\alpha = 0.977$  (See Table 1) and the PJ2 yielded a reliability score of  $\alpha = 0.975$  (See Table 2). In Barkworth and Murphy’s (2015) study the PJ1 and PJ2 Scale retained reliability scores of  $\alpha = 0.88$   $\alpha = 0.92$  respectfully. Moreover, all items contained in the scale correlated well according to *The Corrected Item-Total Correlation* column (See Appendix (xii)).

Table 1 PJ1 Scale Reliability Analysis

<b>Reliability Statistics</b>		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.977	.978	5

Table 2 PJ2 Reliability Analysis

<b>Reliability Statistics</b>		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.975	.975	5

### 3.4.3 Police Characteristics Scale (Bohan and Yorke 1987) (Appendix (vi))

The present scale was developed by Bohan and Yorke (1987) for the purpose of studying a portion of the Dublin population’s perceptions of the Gardaí. The scale gave a



general overview of characteristics and asked whether participants considered Gardaí to possess any of these traits. All characteristics were positively phrased and ranged from friendly to trustworthy. The scale was particularly useful in providing a general and simplistic overview of attitudes towards Gardaí. The scale was scored on a 5-point Likert Scale with 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. Scores ranged from 13-65 with a higher score indicating a more optimistic attitude toward the Gardaí, while a lower score indicated a more pessimistic attitude. The scale generated an internal reliability score of  $\alpha = 0.990$  (See Table 3). Accordingly, all items in this scale correlated well (See Appendix (xiii)).

Table 3 PC Scale Reliability Analysis

<b>Reliability Statistics</b>		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.990	.990	13

#### *3.4.4 Public Attitudes Towards Police Scale (Bohan and Yorke 1987) (Appendix (vii))*

Again, this scale was developed by Bohan and Yorke (1987) for the purpose of studying a portion of the Dublin population's perceptions of the Gardaí. This scale differed from the previous scale concerning characteristics as it asked more direct and specific questions about Gardaí. This scale was fundamental to the research as it allowed for greater insight into how the public perceive Gardaí in reality, as opposed to generic satisfaction surveys, and additionally highlighted the importance of question wording as it contained positively and negatively phrased questions. The scale is scored on a 5-point Likert Scale with 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. For the purposes of data analysis, responses were separated into positively and negatively phrased statements. The Public Attitudes Towards Police (Positive) Scale had scores ranging from 4-20 with higher scores indicating a more positive attitude. This scale produced a reliability score  $\alpha = 0.878$  (See Table 4). The Public Attitudes Towards Police (Negative) Scale possessed scores that ranged from 6-30 and a higher score suggested a more cynical attitude towards Gardaí. This scale possessed a reliability score of  $\alpha$

= 0.681 (See Table 5). All items in these scales correlated well as they possessed scores above 0.3 in *The Corrected Item-Total Correlation* column (See Appendix (xiii)).

Table 4 PAP (Positive) Scale Reliability Analysis

<b>Reliability Statistics</b>		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.878	.877	4

Table 5 PAP (Negative) Scale Reliability Analysis

<b>Reliability Statistics</b>		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.681	.882	6

### 3.4.5 Police Accountability Attitudes Scale (Hibberd 2008) (Appendix (viii))

Created by Hibberd (2008) to explore PSNI attitudes to their body of oversight, PONI, the scale was chosen to examine public attitudes towards Garda accountability. Additionally, the scale was adapted for the purpose of relating it to an Irish audience, for example, 'Police Ombudsman Office' was changed to 'Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission.' The scale measured public attitudes towards police bodies of accountability as it asked respondents if they considered these bodies to be effective and if they have made police more accountable etc. Even though the survey was originally constructed for a police force, its straightforward language and structure made it ideal for distribution to a public audience, with only minor adjustments concerning the body of accountability being made. The survey is scored on a 5-point Likert Scale with 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. Scores vary from 11-55 with a lower score stressing a pessimistic attitude towards GSOC and a higher score depicting a more optimistic attitude for GSOC and Garda accountability. Furthermore, the scale yielded a reliability score of  $\alpha = 0.941$  (See Table 6). However, not all items in this scale correlated

well as, according to *The Corrected Item-Total Correlation* column, question 1 and 6 produced scores lower than Field's (2018) standard of 0.3 with scores of 0.173 and 0.126 (See Appendix (xiv)). Additionally, *The Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted* column portrayed that the removal of these items would increase the scale's reliability to 0.954 and 0.951 respectively. Though, as Cronbach's alpha was already over the recommended reliability score of 0.7, the researcher did not remove question 1 and 6 from the scale.

Table 6 PAAS Scale Reliability Analysis

<b>Reliability Statistics</b>		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.941	.925	11

### **3.5 Administration**

#### *3.5.1 Sample*

In the present study a sample of N=125 was attained from the general Irish public, with all participants over the age of 18. Participants from the public were recruited as the Gardaí provide service, protection and fundamentally work for the public and therefore, it was vital to understand public attitudes towards them. Additionally, this is also the case for bodies of accountability as they ensure that policing services provided to the public are carried out efficiently and effectively. Furthermore, public confidence is a vital component to the operations of An Garda Síochána and its bodies of oversight, thus adding further impetus to gather public attitudes towards them. Originally, a sample of N=142 was recruited, but 17 responses had to be discarded as these respondents stated they had no contact with Gardaí and proceeded to answer the scale regarding previous contact with Gardaí. It was feared that these responses would invalidate the results and they were thus removed, leaving a sample of N=125.

A gender balance was achieved with participation from both males (N=70) and females (N=55). Regarding race, critiques can be made surrounding the representativeness of the sample. Although representation was achieved from most ethnic groups, most participants in

this study were 'White Irish' (N=90) and responses from minority ethnic groups may not grasp the full extent of the group's attitude to Gardaí and Garda accountability. The overwhelming majority of 'White Irish' participants in this study may be due to the relatively homogenous population of Ireland with 82.8% of the population identifying as White Irish in 2017 (CSO 2017). Furthermore, there are certain limitations of this convenience sampling such as hidden biases (Leiner 2014; Etikan *et al* 2015) and again, it may not grasp the true extent of the Irish public's attitude to Gardaí. In addition, this creates further problems regarding the generalisability of the results as it cannot be stated for sure whether the sample was inclusive of differing areas across Ireland or whether the sample was confined to a specific area. Moreover, a gender balance was achieved with participation from both males (N=70) and females (N=55). Representation was achieved across all demographics barring a few such as 'mixed background', 'other racial background', 'upper class', and 'PhD'.

### *3.5.2 Data Collection Procedure*

All data was gathered online through the site Microsoft Forms. Once questionnaires were constructed and finalised, a link was created and distributed. Online networks, such as email and social media platforms (Twitter and Facebook), were utilised to disseminate the link to participants. Additionally, snowball sampling was utilised as all participants were granted permission to further disseminate the link to reach more participants (Biernacki and Waldorf 1981). Surveys were further distributed through the research supervisor's social media accounts. This allowed for a sufficient number and wide variety of participants to be accessed in the present study, although this approach may have contained certain pitfalls, such as skewing of data, resulting in the majority of respondents being academic and middle-class in nature however, this was not the case as representation was achieved from a range of differing demographics. Contained in the survey was an information sheet (Appendix (i)), which gave participants an insight into the study, and a consent form (Appendix (ii)) which had to be completed by participants in order to commence the survey. Within the information sheet and consent form participants acknowledged that their data could not be withdrawn from the point of submission of the questionnaire and were required to actively consent to participate in the research, thus ensuring that informed consent and voluntary participation was achieved. Contact information for the researcher and supervisors provided should any participant have

questions concerning the study. Respondents had as much time as they liked to complete the survey, however, it was predicted that the survey would take between 5-10 minutes to complete and the average time was noted as 8 minutes. Once participants finished their survey and submitted their response they were thanked for their participation. When all the data was gathered, the researcher downloaded the data from Microsoft Forms and inserted it into SPSS.

### ***3.6 Data Analysis Procedure***

For the purposes of data analysis, all data was inputted into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics, percentages, and bar graphs were employed to produce a visual representation of the data. Following on, the Shapiro-Wilk test was conducted to test for normality ( $p > .05$ ) (Field 2018), in order to verify what statistical tests should be performed. All the data obtained for the present study was found to be non-normal and non-parametric tests were run as a result. Non-parametric tests do not make assumptions about the underlying distribution, for example, they do not assume that a sample is normally distributed (Glen 2021; Field 2018). The following non-parametric tests were employed in the present study.

Firstly, descriptive statistics were applied in the current study to present percentages and graphical data from the survey results. Descriptive statistics describe data gathered from a sample with regard to central tendency and dispersion (Hanna and Dempster 2012), and were crucial in displaying the overall attitude of participants regarding Gardaí and Garda accountability. To examine the influence of demographic variables on study variables, Mann-Whitney tests and Kruskal-Wallis tests were utilised. Mann-Whitney tests search for discrepancies between two independent groups (Mann and Whitney 1947; Wilcoxon 1945; McKnight and Najab 2010) and is the non-parametric equivalent of an independent samples t-test. In the present study, these tests measured the effect of gender, residence, station, and time passed since previous contact with police on the study variables of attitudes towards Gardaí and Garda accountability. Furthermore, Kruskal-Wallis tests explore the discrepancies between two or more independent groups (Hanna and Dempster 2012) and are considered the non-parametric equivalent to a one-way ANOVA. In the present study, these tests examined the influence of age, race, social class, employment, education, encounter rate and encounter identity on attitudes to Gardaí and Garda accountability.

Moreover, two-way between-groups ANOVAs were utilised to measure the combined impact of the demographic variables on the study variables. ANOVAs scrutinise how two independent variables affect a dependent variable (Bevans 2020; Fields 2018; Hanna and Dempster 2012). Typically, ANOVAs can only be applied to data with a normal distribution, but it has been suggested that ANOVAs remain robust regardless of any departures from normality (Blanca *et al* 2017). Findings from Blanca *et al* (2017) indicates that ANOVAs are still a legitimate statistical procedure in terms of non-normality regarding Type 1 error. Furthermore, it has been argued that ANOVAs do not need to be substituted with non-parametric alternatives, even when the assumption of normality is violated as ANOVAs produce greater empirical power and control for Type 1 error rates (Reis and Ribeiro 2007). Although studies have favoured the use of ANOVAs only when data is normal (Keppel 1982; Lantz 2013; Montgomery 1991), the use of the two-way between-groups ANOVAs was justified in the present study as they are strong enough to remain as valid statistical tests irrespective of the normality of the data.

Cohen's *d*, an effect size that illustrates the difference amongst two means using standard deviation, was used in the present study and effect sizes were 0.2-0.5 which illustrated a small effect, 0.5-0.8 which highlighted a medium effect and 0.8 and up which showed a large effect (Cohen 1988 & 1992; Hanna and Dempster 2012; Field 2018).

Furthermore, chi-square tests, which examine whether there is a link between categorical variables (Field 2018; Kent State University 2021; Moore *et al* 2013), were employed to analyse the influence of demographic variables on attitudes concerning Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions. Finally, Kendall's Correlations, which is the non-parametric alternative to Pearsons Correlations (Magiya 2019), were used to measure the relationship between attitudes towards Gardaí and Garda accountability. This employs a coefficient that can take any value from -1 to +1, with the closer the figure is to -1 or +1 the stronger the relationship amongst the variables. A negative coefficient indicates a negative relationship, while a positive coefficient highlights a positive relationship (Magiya 2019). Additionally, a value of 0.1 indicated a small effect, 0.3 highlighted a medium effect and 0.5 illustrated a larger effect (Hanna and Dempster 2012).

### ***3.7 Ethical Issues***

Ethical approval was granted by WIT's School of Humanities Research Ethics Committee before the study commenced (see Appendix (xi)). Additionally, Epigeum training was completed by the researcher (see Appendix (x)). In the present study, 8 main ethical issues were identified, which comprised:

#### **1. Voluntary Participation/Consent**

A consent form (Appendix (ii)) and information sheet (Appendix (i)) was provided to achieve the consent of the participant and inform them that participation in the study was completely voluntary. Additionally, no individuals were forced into completing the study and participants were notified that they did not have to partake in the current study if they do not wish to. Participants were briefed on the research through the information sheet (Appendix (i)), which clearly sets out the objectives of the research as well as the implications of their participation. Furthermore, participants were given the opportunity to ask questions relating to the study with contact information of the researcher and supervisors being placed on the information sheet.

#### **2. Right to Withdraw**

Once the survey was completed and submitted, participants in the present study were not given the right to withdraw their data as it would severely undermine their anonymity. The decision not to give participants the right to withdraw after the point of submission was reached as it was highly likely that when contacting the researcher or supervisors to remove their data, participants would use a personal email address which may include their name or other identifying information. Therefore, the decision was made to remove the participants' right to withdraw in order to protect their anonymity.

#### **3. Confidentiality**

Confidentiality was achieved as only the researcher and supervisors had access to the relevant data. Further, the identity of the participant was protected as they were not asked to sign or give their name at any point of the study. All data for this study was preserved in WIT's OneDrive which is protected by password and adds an additional element of security to the protection of the respondent's identity. Critically, all data in this study was anonymised as no identifying information was obtained from the

respondent. Furthermore, IP addresses were not gathered in this study as IP addresses are not recorded in Microsoft Forms.

#### 4. Data Retention

The data will be retained for a minimum of five years after the publication date which honours WIT's Data Retention Policies. In addition, the data will be passed to the study's supervisors should the data retention policy surpass the researcher's attendance at the Institute. The relevant data will be kept in WIT's OneDrive for GDPR and Data Protection purposes.

#### 5. Storing of Data and Data Protection

Questionnaire data was held on Microsoft Forms for one month following collection (Microsoft 2021) and was then transferred to WIT's OneDrive for a period of five years. OneDrive is GDPR compliant with data being owned and in control of the researcher (Rose 2018). Additionally, OneDrive is password protected with only the researcher and supervisor having access to the OneDrive account, which adds an additional element of security. Crucially, OneDrive adheres to WIT's Data Retention Policies. A Data Protection Impact Assessment Template (Appendix (ix)) was created to safeguard against any data protection related risks that may occur in this study.

#### 6. Distress to Participants

It was expected that this study was to have minimal physical and emotional risk. However, it was possible that due to recent Garda actions, such as the killing of George Nkencho, some participants may become distressed during the study. To combat this the researcher ensured that participants were notified that participation was entirely voluntary and they would not be forced or compelled into taking part in the study. Additionally, if a participant did become upset during the study, contact information for helplines including the Samaritans and Pieta House were provided on the information sheet (Appendix (i)). Additional problems which may have caused distress could relate to a person's previous bad encounter with An Garda Síochána and when answering whether one experienced a bad encounter could stir up tragic memories and cause distress. This potential risk was addressed by providing clear explanations of the



subject matter that each data collection instrument relates to and by reinforcing their right not to participate on the information sheet.

#### 7. Microsoft Forms and GDPR Compliance

In order to distribute surveys, Microsoft Forms was utilised as it is GDPR compliant and adheres to WIT's Data Protection and GDPR Regulations. Additionally, Microsoft Forms complies with EU Data Protection and GDPR legislation to ensure that individuals know how their data will be used. Furthermore, Microsoft Forms informs individuals of why data is being collected, who will have access to the data, how it will be stored and how long it will be kept. Regarding security, data was further safeguarded by encryption through protocols such as Transport Layer Security/Secure Sockets Layer (TLS/SSL), Internet Protocol Security (IPSec), and Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) (Microsoft 2019). Data will be stored for a minimum of five years after publication in line with WIT's Data Retention Policies. If the retaining of the data exceeds the researcher's attendance at the college, the data will be passed on the supervisors.

#### 8. Reputational Risk

It was expected that the current study would have minimal risk to WIT's reputation and to ensure this, numerous steps were undertaken. To uphold WIT's guidelines regarding the protection of the participant, no identifying information was taken, participants were informed of the study they were partaking in through the use of an information sheet. The GDPR complaint website of Microsoft Forms was used to create surveys as it does not gather any identifying information and all data was stored on a password protected WIT OneDrive file. Furthermore, four measures outlined by the European Commission (2020), additional security measures, further safety measures, adjustment of research design and limitation of dissemination, were employed to further safeguard WIT's reputation and prevent corruption of research. Firstly, additional security measures, such as data encryption and the use of GDPR compliant sites were exercised. Secondly, increased safety measures including contact information for helplines, an information sheet and consent form were utilised. Thirdly, the research design was adjusted as the right to withdraw was removed for the purposes of protecting the participant's

anonymity. Lastly, dissemination of results was limited to academic websites and academic forms of social media. As a result of these actions, WIT's reputation was protected.

### ***3.8 Possible Limitations of Research Methodology***

Crucially, limitations were identified in the present study. Firstly, only a relatively small sample size of 125 participants were recruited. Given that the population of Ireland in 2022 was approximately 5,023,789 (Worldometer 2022), the current sample may not reflect the attitude of the entire population of Ireland in relation to An Garda Síochána and Garda accountability. However, it must be noted, steps were taken in the hope of achieving a greater sample which included reposting the survey on social media sites a month after it was originally posted and snowball sampling to allow participants to share the post to acquire more respondents. Additionally, the location of participants is unclear as respondents were not asked to give their address for ethical reasons. Thus, it was impossible to state whether the sample was inclusive of all areas across Ireland or whether it simply reflected the attitude of a certain place. Additionally, it may be possible that some responses were obtained from other jurisdictions such as the UK or USA, although questions did specifically relate to An Garda Síochána and experiences during Covid-19 restrictions in an Irish context. As a result, the generalisability of results and conclusions in the present study may be limited. Although a gender balance was achieved, with similar representation from males and females, a racial/ethnic balance was harder to attain. Though, representation from all ethnic groups was acquired, most participants in this study identified as White Irish. Moreover, there were also limitations with the type of sampling utilised, that being online convenience sampling. This type of sampling involves selecting participants that are the most accessible for the researcher to in the research (Etikan *et al* 2015), however, this type of sampling is extremely susceptible to response bias and social desirability bias and undermines the researcher's ability to make generalisations (Nikolopoulou 2022). Further limitations within this methodology relate to the use of online questionnaires themselves. In addition to problems already mentioned, such as low response rates and sampling problems (Yar 2018), it has also been considered that participants are less likely to respond accurately and honestly when data is being gathered online and there is an increased likelihood of thoughtless answering (Aust *et al* 2013; Harde *et al* 2012; Ward and Pond 2015). Furthermore, certain studies have suggested that online surveys

are not fully representative of the population of interest and may even lead to biased conclusions (Duda and Nobile 2010). Critically, in the present study, the utilisation of an online survey restricted access to those with internet access and meant that only these could be studied. Additional limitations identified in the present study will be explored in the Discussion Chapter.

### ***3.9 Conclusion***

In conclusion, this research employed a quantitative methodology and used surveys to collect the required data. These surveys were distributed to members of the public through social media platforms and email. Participation was open to all members of the public over the age of 18 and participation was received from males and females to ensure a gender balance. However, a racial balance was harder to achieve due to Ireland's relatively homogenous population. All data was gathered online through Microsoft Forms with ethical guidelines such as informed consent and voluntary participation being followed. Limitations regarding the methodology employed in this study were identified, most notably the use of online data collection, and will be further discussed. Furthermore, all data was coded into SPSS for analysis and the results will be scrutinized in the next chapter.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS & DATA ANALYSIS**

### ***4.1 Introduction***

This chapter presents the results of the present study and the outcome of each statistical test employed. This study aims to examine public attitudes towards An Garda Síochána and Garda accountability, while simultaneously assessing the impact of the demographic variables of gender, age, ethnicity, social class, education, employment, residence and previous police contact on these attitudes. Additionally, attitudes regarding Garda enforcement of Covid-19 regulations and perceptions of encounters with Gardaí were sought. Data was gathered using a demographic questionnaire, the Policing during Covid Scale, the Procedural Justice Scale 1 and 2, the Police Characteristics Scale, Public Attitudes Towards Police Scale and the Police Accountability Attitudes Scale. Data was entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 26, scored and analysed. Firstly, the sample population size and the tests utilised to examine the normality of the data will be explored. Employing the relevant statistical tests, the following research questions will be assessed:

- 1) What type of attitudes do the Irish public possess towards An Garda Síochána and their bodies of oversight, namely GSOC?
- 2) What is the attitude of the Irish public regarding Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions?
- 3) Will the participant's gender, age and/or race influence their views of An Garda Síochána and Garda accountability?
- 4) Will the respondent's social class, employment, place of residence, station and/or education status affect attitudes towards Gardaí and Garda accountability?
- 5) Does previous contact with Gardaí have any significance in determining attitudes towards them and Garda accountability?
- 6) What is the relationship between attitudes towards An Garda Síochána and their oversight bodies?
- 7) Does the Irish public perceive Gardaí to operate within the principles of procedural justice during encounters and what are the demographic effects on these perceptions?

## 4.2 Sample Population

Access to the survey was given to all members of the public, over the age of 18, through social media sites and email. 142 responses were received however, seventeen of these responses were excluded for the purposes of data analysis which brought the total sample to N=125. Additionally, the vast majority, 75%, of the sample were under the age of 44, which does indicate the sample to be quite young overall, however representation was still achieved from older age groups. The demographic structure of the sample can be seen below.

Table 7 Frequency Distribution of the Sample by Gender

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
<b>Male</b>	70 (56%)
<b>Female</b>	55 (44%)

Table 8 Frequency Distribution of the Sample by Age

<b>Age</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
<b>18-24</b>	51 (40.8%)
<b>25-44</b>	41 (32.8%)
<b>44-54</b>	15 (12%)
<b>55+</b>	18 (14.4%)

Table 9 Frequency Distribution of the Sample by Race v CSO (2016) Statistics

<b>Race/Ethnicity</b>	<b>My Sample</b>	<b>CSO (2016)</b>
<b>White Irish</b>	90 (72%)	3, 817, 353
<b>Irish Traveller</b>	1 (0.8%)	29, 862
<b>Other White Background</b>	7 (5.6%)	60, 313
<b>Black Irish</b>	10 (8%)	39, 834
<b>Other Black Background</b>	8 (6.4%)	2, 863
<b>Asian Irish</b>	6 (4.8%)	7, 760
<b>Other Asian Background</b>	3 (2.4%)	44, 149

Table 10 Frequency Distribution of the Sample by Class

<b>Social Class</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
<b>Lower</b>	6 (4.8%)
<b>Working</b>	57 (45.6%)
<b>Middle</b>	56 (44.8%)
<b>Upper Middle</b>	6 (4.8%)
<b>Upper</b>	0

Table 11 Frequency Distribution of the Sample by Employment

<b>Employment</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
<b>Working for payment/profit</b>	50 (40%)
<b>Looking for first regular job</b>	5 (4%)
<b>Unemployed</b>	5 (4%)
<b>Student</b>	37 (29.6%)
<b>Looking after family/home</b>	12 (9.6%)
<b>Retired</b>	14 (11.2%)
<b>Unable to work due to sickness/disability</b>	2 (1.6%)

Table 12 Frequency Distribution of the Sample by Education

<b>Education</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
<b>No Formal Certifications</b>	21 (16.8%)
<b>Leaving Certificate</b>	48 (38.4%)
<b>Diploma</b>	8 (6.4%)
<b>Bachelors Degree</b>	35 (28%)
<b>Masters Degree</b>	7 (5.6%)
<b>PhD</b>	0
<b>Other</b>	6 (4.8%)

Table 13 Frequency Distribution of the Sample by Residence

<b>Residence</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
<b>Urban</b>	54 (43.2%)
<b>Rural</b>	71 (56.8%)

Table 14 Frequency Distribution of the Sample by Whether there is a Garda Station in Respondents' Areas

<b>Station</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
<b>Yes</b>	89 (71.2%)
<b>No</b>	36 (28.8%)

Table 15 Frequency Distribution of the Sample by Type of Encounter with Gardaí

<b>Encounter Rate</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Positive	73 (58.4%)
Neutral	23 (18.4%)
Negative	29 (23.2%)

Table 16 Frequency Distribution of the Sample by Time Passed Since Encounter with Gardaí

<b>Time Passed</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Within the last year	90 (72%)
Before last year	35 (28%)

Table 17 Frequency Distribution of the Sample by Participant Identity during Encounter with Gardaí

<b>Encounter Identity</b>	<b>Frequencies</b>
Victim	14 (11.2%)
Witness	19 (15.2%)
Charged with an offence	13 (10.4%)
None of the above	79 (63.2%)

### 4.3 Tests of Normality

None of the data obtained for the present study was found to be normal. A Shapiro-Wilk test, which tests for normality and measures any departures from normality (Shapiro and Wilk 1965; Field 2018), concluded each scale possessed a score of  $p < 0.05$  (See Table 18). As a result of this, non-parametric tests will be used in analysing the data. Furthermore, histograms depicting the spread of the data are contained in Appendix (xv).

Table 18 Test of Normality Results

Scale	Shapiro-Wilk Score
Procedural Justice Scale 1	$p = .000$
Procedural Justice Scale 2	$p = .000$
Police Characteristics Scale	$p = .000$
Public Attitudes Towards Police (Positive) Scale	$p = .000$
Public Attitudes Towards Police (Negative) Scale	$p = .000$
Police Accountability Attitudes Scale	$p = .000$

### 4.4 Research Question Analysis

#### 4.4.1 Research Question 1:

What type of attitude does the Irish public possess towards An Garda Síochána and their bodies of oversight, namely GSOC?

This research question possesses two parts: (1) Attitudes towards Gardaí, and (2) Attitudes to Garda accountability.

##### 4.4.1.1 Attitudes Towards Gardaí

To gather a general overview of perceptions of members of An Garda Síochána, the Police Characteristics scale was utilised which contained a series of possible traits that police



may possess. Participants were asked whether they believed Gardaí possessed these traits and to rate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the assertions. Descriptive statistics were employed to convey the respondents' responses to items included in the scale and the results are illustrated in Table 19. Most participants 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that Gardaí retained the traits mentioned in the scale. The most universally agreed upon traits that participants in this sample considered Gardaí to maintain were helpfulness (63.2%), politeness (59.2%) and courtesy (56.8%). However, 36% of respondents did not believe Gardaí to be efficient or modern and an additional, 34.4% did not consider them to be sympathetic.

Table 19 Participant (N=125) Endorsement of PC Scale items in (%)

PC Scale Item	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree	
	Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Agree	
<b>Q1 Helpful</b>	16.0	9.6	11.2	31.2	32.0	
<b>Q2 Courteous</b>	15.2	15.2	12.8	26.4	30.4	
<b>Q3 Friendly</b>	13.6	16.0	16.8	25.6	28.0	
<b>Q4 Trustworthy</b>	17.6	13.6	20.0	27.2	21.6	
<b>Q5 Polite</b>	16.0	13.6	11.2	29.6	29.6	
<b>Q6 Honest</b>	19.2	9.6	19.2	30.4	21.6	
<b>Q7 Sympathetic</b>	16.8	17.6	16.8	24.0	24.8	
<b>Q8 Fair</b>	16.8	10.4	20.0	23.2	29.6	
<b>Q9 Tolerant</b>	15.2	15.2	17.6	21.6	30.4	
<b>Q10 Well-trained</b>	21.6	9.6	14.4	31.2	23.2	
<b>Q11 Likeable</b>	17.6	12.8	22.4	21.6	25.6	
<b>Q12 Efficient</b>	21.6	14.4	9.6	27.2	27.2	
<b>Q13 Modern</b>	27.2	8.8	15.2	25.6	23.2	

In order to grasp a more realistic and comprehensive view of how the public perceive members of An Garda Síochána, The Public Attitudes Towards Police Scale was employed. Respondents were provided with a series of statements concerning Gardaí and were asked the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with the assertions. Critically, this scale contained negatively phrased questions to grasp a deeper understanding of public views regarding Gardaí. Although questions in this scale were asked in collectively, responses were separated along the lines of the positively and negatively phrased statements for the purposes of analysis. Again, descriptive statistics were used to illustrate a participant’s answer to the scale items and the data is exhibited in Table 20 and 21.

With regard to positively phrased questions (Q 1, 2, 5, 8), the majority of individuals agreed with the statements included in the scale (See Table 20). Statements such as ‘The Gardaí do not get enough thanks for risking their lives in carrying out their duties’ and ‘The Gardaí are fighting a losing battle against crime where the law favours the criminal over the police’ received agreement rates of 62.4% and 61.6% respectively. However, subsequent positively phrased questions obtained lower levels of agreement and similar levels of disagreement. For example, the assertion of ‘The Gardaí in your area make a genuine effort to find out the real needs of the community’ received an agreement figure of 44% and a disagreement rate of 40.8%. Additionally, ‘The media tend to run down the Garda Síochána which give them a poor public image’ acquired an agreement rate of 37.6%, while the level of disagreement was at 36.8%.

Table 20 Participant (N=125) Endorsement of PAP (Positive) Scale items in (%)

<b>PAP Scale Item</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<b>Q1 The Gardaí do not get enough thanks for risking their lives in carrying out their duties</b>	12.8	17.6	7.2	43.2	19.2
<b>Q2 The Gardaí are fighting a losing battle against crime</b>	16.8	13.6	8.0	48.0	13.6

<b>where the law favours the criminal over the police</b>					
<b>Q5 The Gardaí in your area make a genuine effort to find out the real needs of the community</b>	19.2	21.6	15.2	28.8	15.2
<b>Q8 The media in Ireland tend to run down the Garda Síochána which give them a poor public image</b>	12.8	24.0	25.6	28.8	8.8

In respect to the negatively phrased replies (Q3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10), it was evident that there was a much higher proportion of agreement with the statements (See Table 21). Specifically, 66.4% of participants agreed that ‘Gardaí tend to go easier on certain segments of the population and are harder on others.’ Furthermore, 60.4% acknowledged that ‘Gardaí are never around when you need them’ and 47.2% consider Gardaí to ‘accept bribes and favours from members of the public’ (See Table 21). Statements such as Gardaí ‘exceed their powers by abusing suspects’ and that they ‘cover up the facts’ in court obtained lower levels of agreement, but the figures still remained at 45.6% and 42.4%. These negatively phrased statements were taken from Bohan and Yorke (1987) and although they may seem arbitrary, there is evidence to support them. For example, members of the garda ‘heavy gang’, routinely abused suspects physically and mentally in order to extract confessions (Lally 2017; McCullagh 1996). Furthermore, 26% of Irish respondents to a European survey believed Gardaí accept bribes and abuse their power for personal gain (European Commission 2022). Lastly, and most notably, Bohan and Yorke (1987) found high levels of agreement with these statements providing further impetus to examine them in this study.

Table 21 Participant (N=125) response to PAP (Negative) Scale items in (%)

PAP Scale Item	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree	
	Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Agree	
<b>Q3 The Gardaí tend to go easier on certain segments of the population and harder on others</b>	7.2	16.0	10.4	36.0	30.4	
<b>Q4 The Garda Síochána sometimes exceed their powers by abusing suspects physically or mentally</b>	9.6	29.6	14.4	21.6	24.0	
<b>Q6 In certain circumstances the Garda Síochána accept bribes and favours from members of the public</b>	9.6	24.0	19.2	24.8	22.4	
<b>Q7 In court, some Gardaí would rather cover up the facts than lose face</b>	11.2	25.6	20.8	19.2	23.2	
<b>Q9 The Gardaí are never around when you need them</b>	10.4	15.2	13.6	26.4	34.4	
<b>Q10 Neighbourhood Watch is a scheme to keep worried house-owners happy and has little to do with preventing crime.</b>	8.0	16.0	31.2	28.0	16.8	

In summary, high levels of agreement were found amongst all scales used to investigate attitudes to An Garda Síochána (See Table 19, 20, 21). Firstly, most respondents to this study

agreed or strongly agreed that Gardaí possessed certain positively phrased characteristics, with the most commonly agreed upon being helpfulness, courtesy and politeness. Yet, data was also obtained which indicated that 36% of participants did not judge Gardaí to be ‘modern’ or ‘efficient’. Positively phrased statements such as ‘The Gardaí do not get enough thanks for risking their lives in carrying out their duties’ and ‘The Gardaí are fighting a losing battle against crime where the law favours the criminal over the police’ also acquired strong levels of agreement indicating positive attitudes for Gardaí. However, not all scale items were phrased positively and, simultaneously, compelling levels of agreement were discovered amongst negatively phrased declarations, the most notable of which being ‘Gardaí tend to go easier on certain segments of the population and are harder on others’ and ‘Gardaí are never around when you need them.’ This illustrates the ambiguity regarding attitudes to Gardaí as, initially, positive attitudes were found amongst the sample, but attitudes became increasingly more negative upon the introduction of negatively phrased statements, highlighting a clear attitude shift and the importance of question wording.

#### *4.4.1.2 Attitudes to Garda Accountability*

To investigate attitudes towards Garda accountability and, in particular, towards GSOC participants were given a series of statements regarding the workings and effectiveness of GSOC and were asked the level to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements. Descriptive statistics were run to indicate the participant’s response to the items contained in the scale and the results are shown in Table 22. Overall, the majority of respondents ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ with the items contained in the scale. Particularly, 96.4% of participants agreed or strongly agreed that ‘complaints against Gardaí should be investigated independently’, highlighting the need for GSOC. Additionally, it must be noted that 0% of participants disagreed with this statement, providing further impetus for an independent body of Garda oversight. In terms of GSOC’s effectiveness, 56% of respondents believed that GSOC has improved the accountability of Gardaí, with a further 55.2% indicating that GSOC has improved policing in Ireland. Further, 51.2% of respondents believed GSOC does a good job at holding Gardaí accountable for their misconduct. In relation to GSOC’s workings, 53.6% felt that GSOC conducts thorough investigations and 49.6% considered that GSOC conducts impartial investigations. In addition, 75.2% agreed that GSOC investigations are not biased in

favour of the person making the complaint and crucially, 55.2% of participants believed that the work of GSOC has made the public more confident in Gardaí, however, 32% disagreed with this highlighting their disdain for the organisation. Furthermore, 34% disagreed with the statement ‘There is less misconduct in An Garda Síochána than in most other police services’, suggesting the need for improvement regarding the removal of misconduct and corruption from Gardaí.

Table 22 Participant (N=125) Endorsement of PAAS Scale items in (%)

<b>PAAS Scale Item</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>				<b>Strongly Agree</b>	
	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	
<b>Q1 Most people who make complaints against the police do so with good intentions</b>	2.4	5.6	15.2	35.2	41.6	
<b>Q2 The Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission (GSOC) conducts thorough investigations</b>	16.0	12.8	17.6	33.6	20.0	
<b>Q3 Investigations of complaints by GSOC are not biased in favour of the Gardaí</b>	16.0	12.0	21.6	32.0	18.4	
<b>Q4 The work of GSOC is likely to make the public more confident in the Gardaí</b>	16.8	15.2	12.8	31.2	24.0	
<b>Q5 GSOC conducts impartial investigations</b>	15.2	12.8	22.4	30.4	19.2	
<b>Q6 Complaints against the Gardaí should be investigated independently</b>	0	0	3.2	26.4	70.4	

<b>Q7 Investigations of the complaints by GSOC are not biased in favour of the person making the complaint</b>	0.8	3.2	20.8	51.2	24.0
<b>Q8 GSOC has improved the accountability of the Gardaí in the Republic of Ireland</b>	16.0	14.4	13.6	36.8	19.2
<b>Q9 There is less misconduct in An Garda Síochána than in most other police services</b>	20.0	14.4	22.4	21.6	21.6
<b>Q10 GSOC has helped to improve policing in the Republic of Ireland</b>	16.8	11.2	16.8	34.4	20.8
<b>Q11 Overall, GSOC does a good job at holding the Gardaí accountable for their misconduct</b>	19.2	10.4	19.2	31.2	20.0

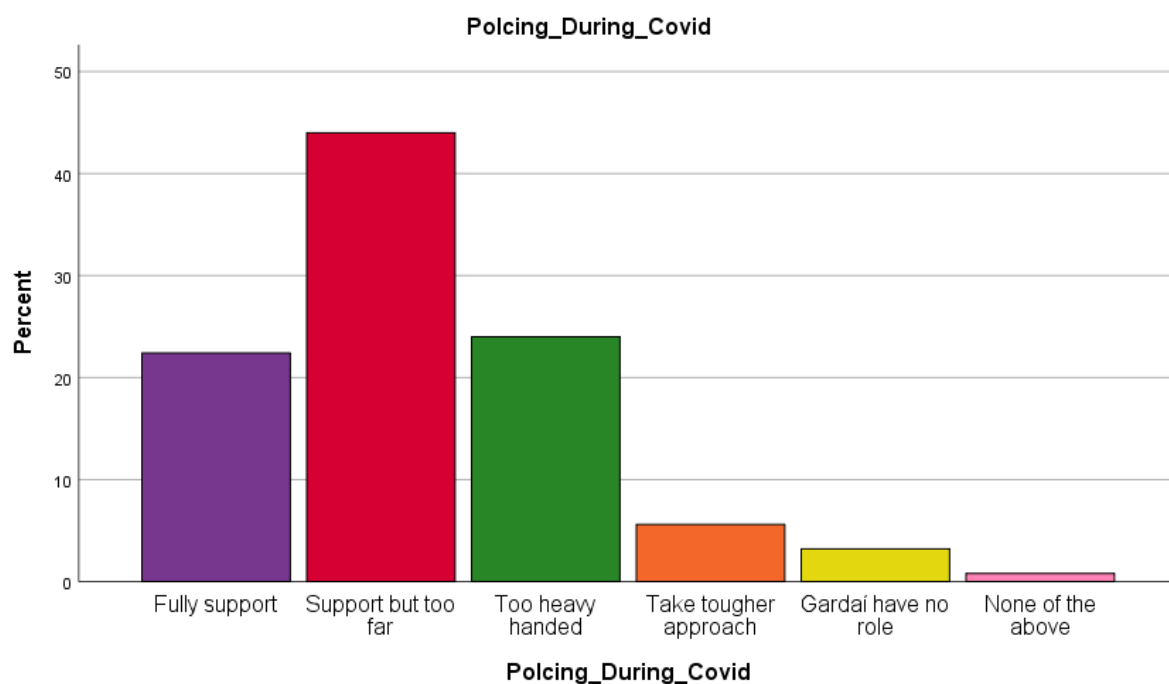
To sum up, sharp levels of agreement were identified with the scale examining attitudes towards Garda accountability (See Table 22). 96.4% of respondents acknowledged that complaints against Gardaí needed to be investigated independently, while a further 55.2% thought the work of GSOC was likely to make the public more confident in Gardaí. Furthermore, statements concerning the workings and effectiveness of GSOC attained higher proportions of agreement than disagreement, indicating a sufficient degree of confidence in the organisation. Moreover, data was gathered identifying that 34% did not believe that there was less misconduct in An Garda Síochána than in other police services, which may question GSOC effectiveness in relation to Garda corruption and misconduct. However, attitudes to Garda accountability in the present study were positive particularly in relation to the workings and effectiveness of GSOC.

#### 4.4.2 Research Question 2:

What is the attitude of the Irish public regarding Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions?

In relation to attitudes towards Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions, this research employed the use of a questionnaire that asked participants to select an option which best suited their opinion surrounding Garda implementation of Covid-19 regulations. It was found that 22.4% fully supported the approach taken by Gardaí, while 44% supported Gardaí, but believed they were going too far in some cases. Further, 24% of respondents considered the enforcement of restrictions to be too heavy handed, with an additional 5.6% highlighting the need for a tougher approach to be taken by Gardaí. 3.2% of participants believed that Gardaí should have no role in the enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions, instead it should be up to individuals to comply. Finally, 0.8% selected the ‘none of the above’ option, indicating their disagreement with all choices in this scale (See Figure 1).

Figure 1 Attitudes Regarding Garda Enforcement of Covid-19 Restrictions





#### 4.4.2.1 *Demographic Effect on Attitudes Towards Garda Enforcement of Covid-19 Restrictions*

In the present study, chi-square tests were employed to investigate the effect of variables contained in this study on attitudes towards Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions. The Likelihood Ratio was used and compared to a significance value of 0.05. If the stated value of the variable was below 0.05, then it was considered statistically significant, whereas if it was above 0.05 it was not deemed statistically significant (Hanna and Dempster 2012). It was discovered that gender ( $X^2$  (5, N=125) = 14.18,  $p = .14$ ) (See Table 23); age ( $X^2$  (15, N=125) = 34.93,  $p = .003$ ) (See Table 24); race ( $X^2$  (30, N=125) = 46.29,  $p = .029$ ) (See Table 25); employment ( $X^2$  (30, N=125) = 84.21,  $p = .000$ ) (See Table 26) were significant on attitudes, in addition to previous police contact variables of encounter rate ( $X^2$  (10, N=125) = 63.42,  $p = .000$ ) (See Table 27); time passed ( $X^2$  (5, N=125) = 11.57,  $p = .041$ ) (See Table 28) and encounter identity ( $X^2$  (15, N=125) = 52.38,  $p = .000$ ) (See Table 29). Social class ( $X^2$  (15, N=125) = 23.62,  $p = .072$ ) (See Table 30); education ( $X^2$  (25, N=125) = 30.60,  $p = .203$ ) (See Table 31); residence ( $X^2$  (5, N=125) = 8.64,  $p = .124$ ) (See Table 32) and station ( $X^2$  (5, N=125) = 2.08,  $p = .838$ ) (See Table 33) had no effect.

The majority of participants were moderate in their attitudes regarding Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions, however, there were some segments that fully supported Gardaí and others who did not agree with the approach taken by Gardaí. Additionally, gender, age, race, employment and previous police contact were significant on these attitudes.

Table 23 Gender Effect

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13.091 <sup>a</sup>	5	.023
Likelihood Ratio	14.181	5	.014
Linear-by-Linear Association	.294	1	.588
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 6 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .44.

Table 24 Age Effect

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	33.390 <sup>a</sup>	15	.004
Likelihood Ratio	34.932	15	.003
Linear-by-Linear Association	11.636	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 16 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .12.

Table 25 Race Effect

### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	42.563 <sup>a</sup>	30	.064
Likelihood Ratio	46.292	30	.029
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.226	1	.040
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 38 cells (90.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .01.

Table 26 Employment Effect

### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	89.734 <sup>a</sup>	30	.000
Likelihood Ratio	84.209	30	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	10.919	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 34 cells (81.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .02.

Table 27 Type of Encounter with Police Effect

### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2- sided)
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Pearson Chi-Square	61.991 <sup>a</sup>	10	.000
Likelihood Ratio	63.417	10	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	33.723	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 9 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .18.

Table 28 Time Passed Since Encounter Effect

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.380 <sup>a</sup>	5	.044
Likelihood Ratio	11.566	5	.041
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.879	1	.170
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 5 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .28.

Table 29 Encounter Identity Effect

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	55.760 <sup>a</sup>	15	.000
Likelihood Ratio	52.376	15	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.320	1	.251
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 18 cells (75.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .10.

Table 30 Social Class Effect

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22.860 <sup>a</sup>	15	.087
Likelihood Ratio	23.624	15	.072
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.361	1	.243

N of Valid Cases	125		
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a. 18 cells (75.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .05.

Table 31 Education Effect

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	29.511 <sup>a</sup>	25	.243
Likelihood Ratio	30.596	25	.203
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.851	1	.091
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 28 cells (77.8%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .05.

Table 32 Residence Effect

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.071 <sup>a</sup>	5	.152
Likelihood Ratio	8.637	5	.124
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.622	1	.105
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 6 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .43.

Table 33 Station Effect

**Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.873 <sup>a</sup>	5	.866
Likelihood Ratio	2.080	5	.838
Linear-by-Linear Association	.055	1	.814
N of Valid Cases	125		

a. 6 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .29.

#### 4.4.3 Research Question 3:

Will the participant's gender, age and/or race influence their views of An Garda Síochána and Garda accountability?

##### 4.4.3.1 Gender Influence on Attitudes Towards An Garda Síochána?

A Mann-Whitney test was used to examine the effect of gender on attitudes towards Gardaí. During this analysis, gender was measured against the scales concerning attitudes towards Gardaí, the Police Characteristics Scale and the Public Attitudes Towards Police Scale (Positive) and (Negative). For the PC Scale, the means differed slightly between males ( $M = 40.17$   $SD = 19.41$ ) and females ( $M = 46.49$   $SD = 14.60$ ) as females possessed a higher mean (See Appendix (xvi)). However, the Mann-Whitney test showed that gender was not statistically significant on this occasion,  $U = 1581$ ,  $z = -1.719$ ,  $p = .086$ ,  $r = 0.02$  (See Table 34). Conversely gender was significant on the PAP (Positive) Scale with a Mann-Whitney test concluding the disparity between males ( $M = 11.61$   $SD = 4.75$ ) and females ( $M = 13.91$   $SD = 3.74$ ) (See Appendix (xvi)) to be statistically significant  $U = 1406.5$ ,  $z = -2.593$ ,  $p = .01$ ,  $r = 0.05$  (See Table 35). Likewise with the PC Scale, gender was not influential on attitudes in the PAP (Negative) Scale,  $U = 1613$ ,  $z = -1.554$ ,  $p = .120$ ,  $r = 0.02$  (See Table 36), although a differentiation in scores was identified, males ( $M = 21.71$   $SD = 9.94$ ), females ( $M = 19.22$   $SD = 6.17$ ) (See Appendix (xvi)). Although mean scores suggested females, albeit slightly, viewed Gardaí more favourably, overall gender was not influential on attitudes to Gardaí as it was only significant on one scale, PAP (Positive) Scale.

Table 34 Gender/PC Scale Mann-Whitney Test

<b>Test Statistics<sup>a</sup></b>	
	PC_TotalScore
Mann-Whitney U	1581.000
Wilcoxon W	4066.000
Z	-1.719
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.086

a. Grouping Variable: Gender

Table 35 Gender/PAP (Positive) Scale Mann-Whitney Test

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

PAP_POS_Total	
Score	
Mann-Whitney U	1406.500
Wilcoxon W	3891.500
Z	-2.592
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.010

a. Grouping Variable: Gender

Table 36 Gender/PAP (Negative) Scale Mann-Whitney Test

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

PAP_NEG_Total	
Score	
Mann-Whitney U	1613.000
Wilcoxon W	3153.000
Z	-1.554
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.120

a. Grouping Variable: Gender

#### 4.4.3.2 Gender Influence on Attitudes to Garda Accountability

A Mann-Whitney test was employed to determine the influence of gender on attitudes to Garda accountability with the total scores from the Police Accountability Attitudes Scale (PAAS) being analysed against the independent variable of gender. A variation concerning means was illustrated through descriptive statistics as females (M = 39.87 SD 9.1) produced a higher mean than males (M = 37.81 SD = 12.04) (See Appendix (xvi)) which may illustrate a more favourable attitude on the part of females towards GSOC. However, the Mann-Whitney test concluded that this disparity was not statistically significant as it possessed a *p* score greater than 0.05,  $U = 1764$ ,  $z = -.802$ ,  $p = .423$ ,  $r = 0.005$  (See Table 37). Hence, gender did not play a significant role in the determination of an individual's attitude to Garda accountability.

Table 37 Gender/PAAS Scale Mann-Whitney Test

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

PAAS_TotalScor	
e	

Mann-Whitney U	1764.000
Wilcoxon W	4249.000
Z	-.802
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.423

a. Grouping Variable: Gender

#### 4.4.3.3 Age Influence on Attitudes Towards Gardaí and Garda Accountability

Age was found to have an effect on an individual's attitude towards Gardaí and Garda accountability in the present study. Age was influential on all scales measuring attitudes and was proven to be statistically significant by Kruskal-Wallis tests (See Table 38 for PC  $H(3) = 27.21, p = .000$ ; Table 39 for PAP (Positive)  $H(3) = 24.32, p = .000$ ; Table 40 for PAP (Negative)  $H(3) = 21.01, p = .000$ ; Table 41 for PAAS  $H(3) = 39.00, p = .000$ ). Furthermore, a *Pairwise Comparison Table* was created to identify the discrepancies between each age group and the 55+ age category was found to be the outlier as it differed most significantly (See Appendix (xvii)). Overall, it was clear that participants aged in the 55+ age column retained a high degree of confidence in Gardaí and maintained the most positive attitude with the highest mean scores on the positively phrased PC and PAP (Positive) Scale ( $M = 61.83$  for PC (Figure 2) and  $M = 17.22$  for PAP (Positive) (Figure 3)) and the lowest mean score on the negatively phrased PAP (Negative) Scale ( $M = 11.44$ ) (Figure 4). Conversely, 25-44 possessed the lowest degree of confidence and most negative attitude towards Gardaí as they retained the lowest mean score in the PC and PAP (Positive) Scale ( $M = 37.41$  for PC (Figure 2) and  $M = 11.56$  for PAP (Positive) (Figure 3)) and gathered the highest score in the negatively phrased PAP (Negative) Scale ( $M = 24.17$ ) (Figure 4). In terms of 18–24-year-olds, they maintained mean scores closer to the 25-44 age category with a mean of 40.80 on the PC Scale, 11.59 on the PAP (Positive) Scale and 21.31 on the PAP (Negative) Scale. This indicates a moderate attitude towards Gardaí as scores range from 5-65 on PC Scale, 5-20 on PAP (Positive) Scale and 5-30 on PAP (Negative) Scale. However, as the mean score on the PAP (Negative) Scale is relatively high, this could illustrate a more negative attitude. Regarding respondents aged between 45-54, they held mean scores of 45.93 for PC Scale, 13.53 for PAP (Positive) Scale and 19.53 for PAP (Negative) Scale, which indicates a moderate attitude regarding the positively phrased surveys but, again, the score on the negatively phrased PAP (Negative) Scale points to a more negative outlook. Similarly with attitudes to Gardaí, participants aged 55+ ( $M = 50.61$   $SD = 5.92$ ) (Figure 5) held the most positive attitude for Garda accountability, whereas those aged

25-44 (M = 34.24 SD = 9.20) (Figure 5) maintained a more negative outlook, although it was moderate overall. Other age categories in this study retained mean scores closer to the 25-44 age category, although they were slightly more positive.

In summary, the age category of 55+ retains the most optimistic attitude for Gardaí and Garda accountability as opposed to the other age groups with a more moderate and, in some cases, negative outlook. Evidently, younger age groups possessed a more negative attitude than those in the older age categories in the present study.

Table 38 Age/PC Test Results

<b>Hypothesis Test Summary</b>				
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PC_TotalScore is the same across categories of Age.	Independent-Samples Test Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 2 Age/PC Means

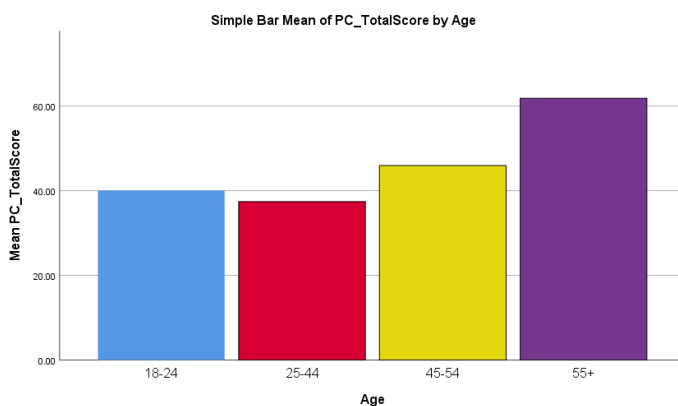


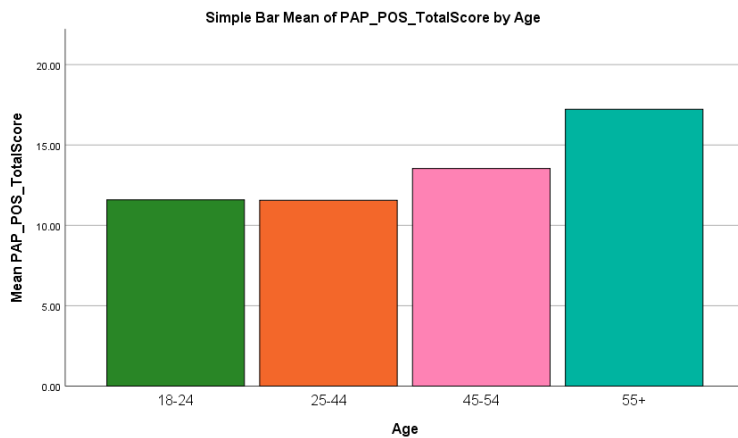
Table 39 Age/PAP (Positive) Test Results

<b>Hypothesis Test Summary</b>				
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PAP_POS_TotalScore is the same across categories of Age.	Independent-Samples Test Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.



**Figure 3 Age/PAP (Positive) Means**



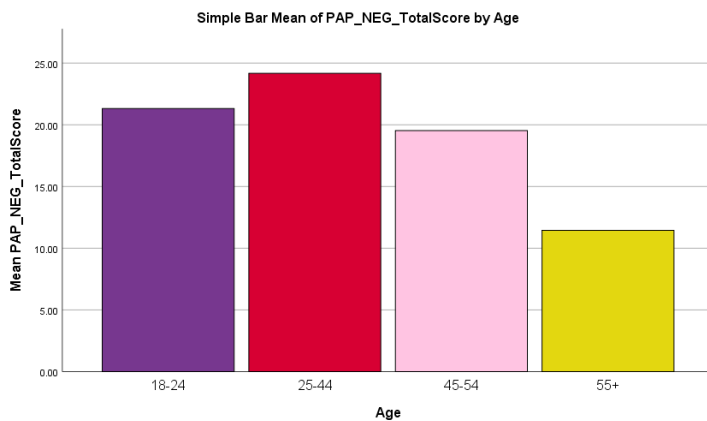
**Table 40 Age/PAP (Negative) Test Results**

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PAP_NEG_TotalScore is the same across categories of Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

**Figure 4 Age/PAP (Negative) Means**



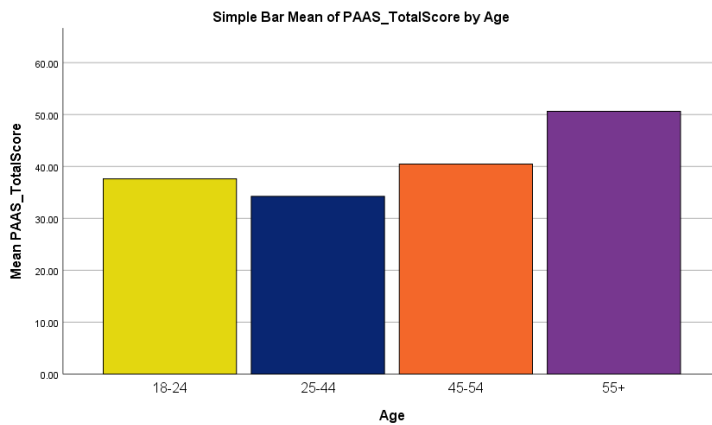
**Table 41 Age/PAAS Test Results**

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PAAS_TotalScore is the same across categories of Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 5 Age/PAAS Means



#### 4.4.3.4 Race Influence on Attitudes to Gardaí and Garda Accountability

Again, a Kruskal-Wallis test was employed to determine the influence of race on attitudes to Gardaí and Garda accountability. Although race was not considered to be significant on the PC Scale ( $H(6) = 5.14, p = .059$ ) (See Table 42), it showed significance on the PAP (Positive) Scales ( $H(6) = 6.34, p = .040$ ) (See Table 43) and (Negative) ( $H(6) = 7.94, p = .026$ ) (See Table 44) and was ultimately deemed significant on attitudes to Gardaí as these scales give a clearer insight into attitudes towards police. Mean scores differed throughout the scales (Figure 6 and 7), but it was clear that the White Irish category possessed the most favourable attitude with the highest score on the PC and PAP (Positive) Scale and the lowest score on the PAP (Negative) Scale. In contrast, the Traveller group retained the opposite to the White Irish group indicating them to have the most negative attitude. However, the differences between these two groups were not considered statistically significant (See Appendix (xviii)), which may be due to only one participant being in the Traveller group. In relation to Black Irish and Other Black participants, they seemed to maintain a moderate attitude towards Gardaí in terms of the PAP (Positive) and PC Scale with mean scores in the middle region of these scales. However, their attitude seemed to become more negative regarding the PAP (Negative) Scale. Furthermore, this also seemed to be the case for Asian Irish and Other Asian respondents, although their mean scores do differ. Regarding participants who identified as Other White, their attitude seemed to be more negative in relation to the PC and PAP (Positive) Scale as they retained lower mean scores, but their attitude appeared to be the same as Black Irish, Other Black, Asian Irish and Other Asian in terms of the PAP (Negative) Scale. Thus, race was influential regarding attitudes towards Gardaí, with the

differences between White Irish and Black Irish, and Other Asian and White Irish being statistically significant (See Appendix (xviii)).

On the contrary, race was not found to be statistically significant on attitudes towards Garda accountability in the present study ( $H(6) = 3.06, p = .150$ ) (See Table 45). Though discrepancies in relation to mean scores were identified, with similar trends regarding attitudes to Gardaí for example, White Irish retaining means which indicated more positive attitudes and Travellers retaining means which illustrated more negative attitudes, race was not influential on attitudes to Garda accountability.

Table 42 Race/PC Test Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PC_TotalScore is the same across categories of Race.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.059	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

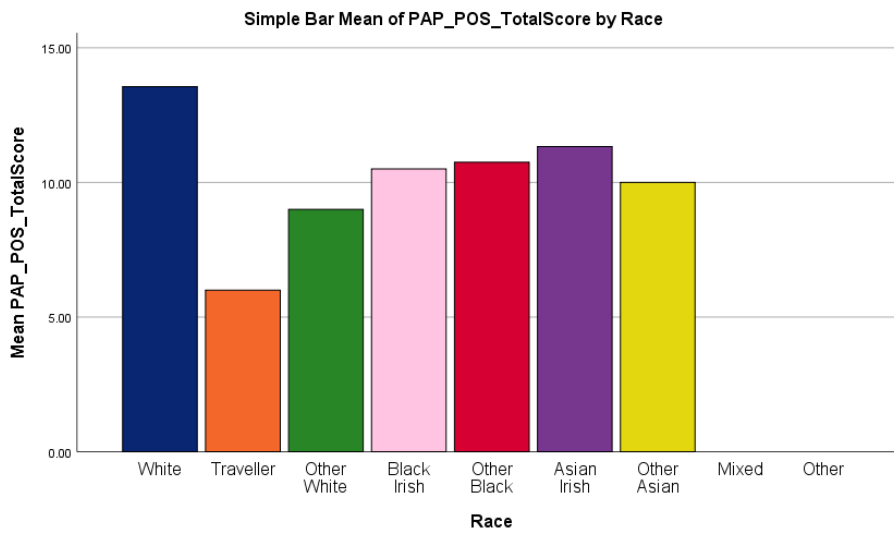
Table 43 Race/PAP (Positive) Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PAP_POS_TotalScore is the same across categories of Race.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.040	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

**Figure 6 Race/PAP (Positive) Means**



**Table 44 Race/PAP (Negative) Results**

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PAP_NEG_TotalScore is the same across categories of Race.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.026	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

**Figure 7 Race/PAP (Negative) Means**

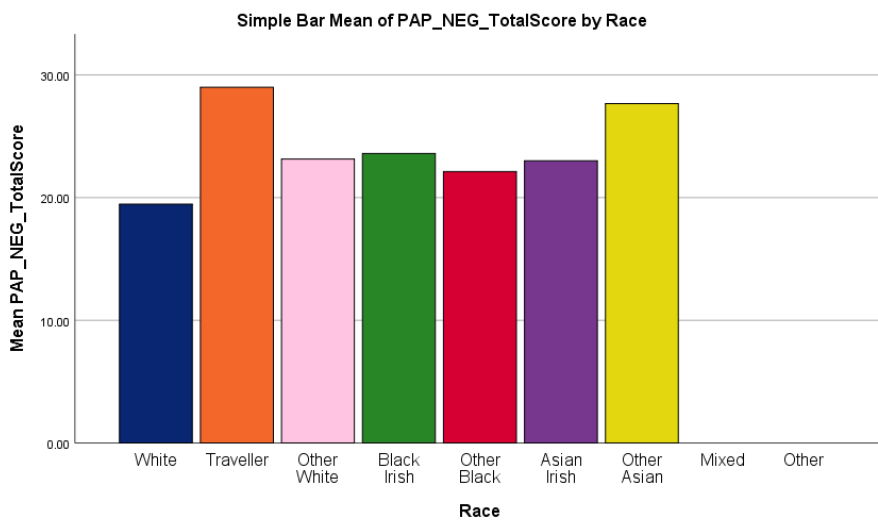


Table 45 Race/PAAS Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PAAS_TotalScore is the same across categories of Race.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.150	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

*4.4.3.5 Combined Effects*

To examine the combined influence of gender, age and race on attitudes to Gardaí and Garda accountability a two-way between-groups ANOVA was utilised (See Methodology Chapter for justification of this test). The combined impact of gender, age and race was examined against attitudes to Gardaí (PC, PAP (Positive) and (Negative) Scales) and attitudes to Garda accountability (PAAS Scale). However, significance values were not all above .05 according to Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances for three scales (See Appendix (xix))), but the ANOVA is powerful enough to violate this assumption and remain a legitimate test (Grande 2015).

The combined effect of gender, age and race was only found to be influential on the PC Scale ( $F(2, 99) = 3.44, p = .036$  See Table 46) and overall, it was not deemed significant on attitudes to Gardaí or Garda accountability ( $F(2,99) = 2.73, p = .07$  for PAP (Positive) See Table 47;  $F(2,99) = 2.21, p = .115$  for PAP (Negative) See Table 48;  $F(2,99) = 2.19, p = .117$  for PAAS See Table 49). Age remained the only significant variable throughout. Although the combined effects of these variables were not deemed statistically significant, interaction plots were created and yielded some interesting results. They showed that the most positive attitudes belonged to males aged 55+ (See Figures 45, 48, 51 and 54 Appendix (xx)), Other Black females (See Figures 46, 52 and 55 Appendix (xx)), Whites aged 55+ (See Figures 47, 50 and 53 Appendix (xx)), Other Black participants aged 45-54 (See Figures 47 and 56 Appendix (xx)) and Other Black females (See Figure 49 Appendix (xx)). In contrast, the more negative attitudes were found amongst male Travellers (See Figures 46, 49 and 52 Appendix (xx)), females aged 25-44 (See Figures 45 and 48 Appendix (xx)), Other Black respondents aged 18-24 (See Figures 47, and 53 Appendix (xx)), Other White participants aged 25-44 (See Figures 47 and 50 Appendix (xx)), males aged 25-44 (See Figures 51 and 54 Appendix (xx)), Other White males and Travellers aged 18-24 (See Figure 56 Appendix (xx)).

Table 46 Combined Influence of Gender, Age and Race on PC

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: PC\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	16370.349 <sup>a</sup>	25	654.814	2.868	.000	.420
Intercept	43273.781	1	43273.781	189.525	.000	.657
Gender	243.264	1	243.264	1.065	.304	.011
Age	6862.874	3	2287.625	10.019	.000	.233
Race	1496.017	6	249.336	1.092	.373	.062
Gender * Age	1104.862	3	368.287	1.613	.191	.047
Gender * Race	431.020	4	107.755	.472	.756	.019
Age * Race	2135.521	6	355.920	1.559	.167	.086
Gender * Age * Race	1570.116	2	785.058	3.438	.036	.065
Error	22604.451	99	228.328			
Total	270530.000	125				
Corrected Total	38974.800	124				

a. R Squared = .420 (Adjusted R Squared = .274)

Table 47 Combined Influence of Gender, Age and Race on PAP (Positive)

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: PAP\_POS\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	1044.412 <sup>a</sup>	25	41.776	2.890	.000	.422
Intercept	3670.894	1	3670.894	253.976	.000	.720
Gender	9.332	1	9.332	.646	.424	.006
Age	396.364	3	132.121	9.141	.000	.217
Race	103.982	6	17.330	1.199	.313	.068
Gender * Age	71.021	3	23.674	1.638	.185	.047
Gender * Race	30.172	4	7.543	.522	.720	.021
Age * Race	155.857	6	25.976	1.797	.107	.098
Gender * Age * Race	78.880	2	39.440	2.729	.070	.052
Error	1430.916	99	14.454			
Total	22396.000	125				
Corrected Total	2475.328	124				

a. R Squared = .422 (Adjusted R Squared = .276)

Table 48 Combined Influence of Gender, Age and Race on PAP (Negative)

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: PAP\_NEG\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	3348.199 <sup>a</sup>	25	133.928	2.318	.002	.369
Intercept	12671.693	1	12671.693	219.342	.000	.689
Gender	6.657	1	6.657	.115	.735	.001
Age	1793.233	3	597.744	10.347	.000	.239
Race	126.501	6	21.084	.365	.899	.022
Gender * Age	229.669	3	76.556	1.325	.271	.039
Gender * Race	38.638	4	9.659	.167	.955	.007
Age * Race	129.232	6	21.539	.373	.895	.022
Gender * Age * Race	255.727	2	127.864	2.213	.115	.043
Error	5719.369	99	57.771			
Total	62195.000	125				
Corrected Total	9067.568	124				

a. R Squared = .369 (Adjusted R Squared = .210)

Table 49 Combined Influence of Gender, Age and Race on PAAS

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: PAAS\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	6741.096 <sup>a</sup>	25	269.644	3.394	.000	.461
Intercept	40771.908	1	40771.908	513.141	.000	.838
Gender	278.895	1	278.895	3.510	.064	.034
Age	3253.759	3	1084.586	13.650	.000	.293
Race	570.821	6	95.137	1.197	.314	.068
Gender * Age	318.699	3	106.233	1.337	.267	.039
Gender * Race	539.903	4	134.976	1.699	.156	.064
Age * Race	767.309	6	127.885	1.610	.152	.089
Gender * Age * Race	347.906	2	173.953	2.189	.117	.042
Error	7866.104	99	79.456			
Total	202012.000	125				
Corrected Total	14607.200	124				

a. R Squared = .461 (Adjusted R Squared = .326)

The present study deduced that age and race were significant variables on attitudes to Gardaí, whereas only age was significant on attitudes to Garda accountability in this study and the combined effect of gender, age and race was not influential. The next section of this research will answer research question 4 by examining the impact of social class, employment, education, residence and station on attitudes.

#### *4.4.4 Research Question 4:*

Will the respondent's social class, employment, place of residence, and/or education status affect attitudes towards Gardaí and Garda accountability?

Kruskal-Wallis tests were used to determine the impact of an individual's social class, employment and education on their attitude to Gardaí and Garda accountability, with Mann-Whitney tests being utilised to assess the influence of residence and station. The total score from the PC, PAP (Positive) and (Negative) and PAAS were analysed against the relevant independent variables and if a Kruskal-Wallis test found significance a *Pairwise Comparison Table* was created which helped to detect what differences were significant in each group.

##### *4.4.4.1 Social Class Impact on Attitudes to Gardaí and Garda Accountability*

Though it was not significant on the PAP (Positive) Scale ( $H(3) = 4.46, p = .058$ , See Table 50), social class was still considered influential on an individual's attitude towards Gardaí and Garda accountability, as it was proven to be statistically significant by Kruskal-Wallis tests on other scales ( $H(3) = 13.41, p = .001$  for PC See Table 51;  $H(3) = 9.21, p = .005$  for PAP (Negative) See Table 52;  $H(3) = 14.74, p = .011$  for PAAS See Table 54). Regarding attitudes to Gardaí, mean scores of each group varied considerably, with the Middle class holding the most positive attitude to Gardaí as they scored highest on the PC ( $M = 49.64$   $SD = 15.78$ ) (Figure 9) and PAP (Positive) Scale ( $M = 13.48$   $SD = 3.38$ ) (Figure 8) and lowest on the PAP (Negative) Scale ( $M = 20.00$   $SD = 9.91$ ) (Figure 10). On the other hand, it was evident that the Lower class possessed the least favourable and overall, quite a negative attitude to Gardaí with low means on the PC ( $M = 20.33$   $SD = 11.80$ ) (Figure 9) and PAP (Positive) Scale ( $M = 7.00$   $SD = 5.48$ ) (Figure 8) and a sizeable mean on the PAP (Negative) Scale ( $M = 28.50$   $SD = 2.35$ ) (Figure 10). In addition, Working and Upper Middle retained mean scores



closer to the Middle class indicating their slightly favourable attitude to Gardaí. However, it must be noted that all groups retained mean scores over twenty in relation to the PAP (Negative) Scale. With the highest value attainable on this scale being thirty, this illustrates a more negative outlook on the part of each social class towards Gardaí when asked more specific and negatively phrased questions about them. Furthermore, the variations between the Lower class and the other classes were deemed statistically significant regarding the PC and PAP (Negative) Scale (See Appendix (xxi)). Generally, the Middle class possessed the most positive attitude towards Gardaí in the present study, followed closely by the Working and Upper Middle classes, with the Lower class producing the most pessimistic attitude.

In relation to Garda accountability, likewise with attitudes to Gardaí, the Middle class (M = 41.52 SD = 10.50) held the highest mean score illustrating the most positive attitude while the Lower class (M = 27.67 SD = 6.71) scored the lowest highlighting their dissatisfaction. Furthermore, the Working (M = 37.02 SD = 11.00) and the Upper Middle (M = 39.83 SD = 6.18) (Figure 11) retained mean scores closer to the Middle class, which indicated positive attitudes. Considering the highest score to achieve on this scale is 55, the Working, Middle and Upper Middle classes seemed to view Garda accountability quite positively, while the Lower class viewed them more moderately in essence. Conclusively, an individual's social class did have an effect on their attitude to Gardaí and Garda accountability, with those in higher social classes possessing more favourable attitudes than those in the Lower class. The next section will explore the influence of employment in attitudes.

Table 50 Class/PAP (Positive) Results

### Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PAP_POS_TotalScore is the same across categories of Class.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.058	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 8 Class/PAP (Positive) Means

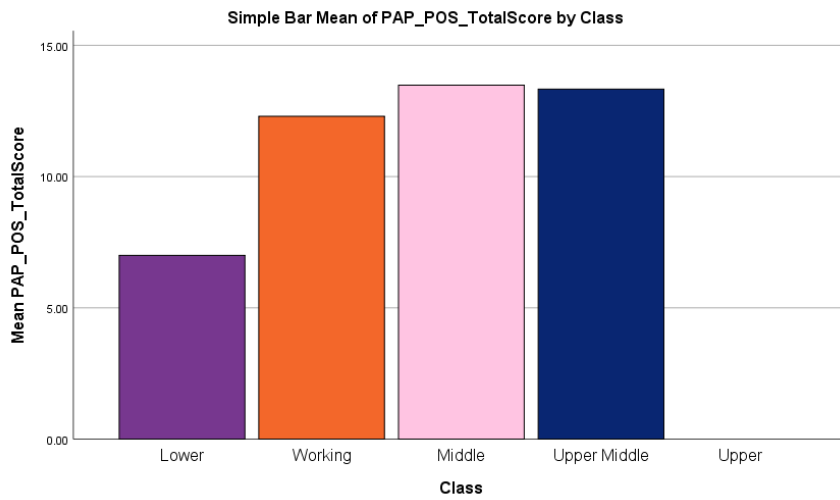


Table 51 Class/PC Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PC_TotalScore is the same across categories of Class.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.001	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 9 Class/PC Means

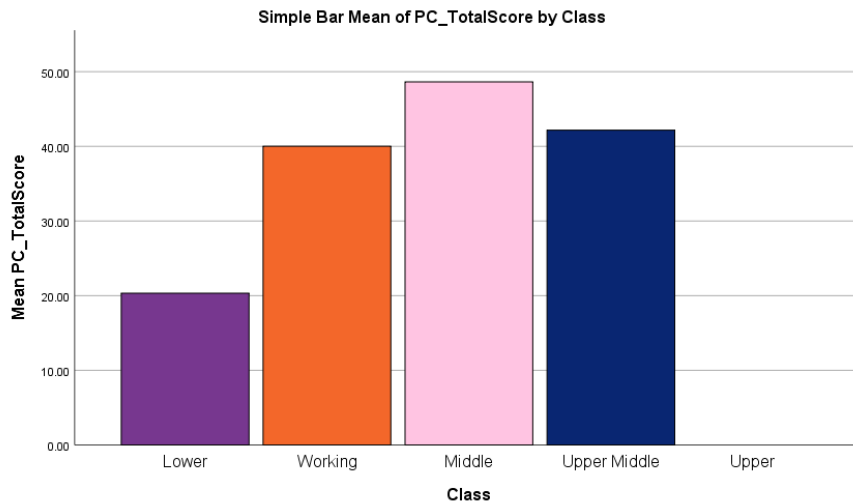


Table 52 Class/PAP (Negative) Results

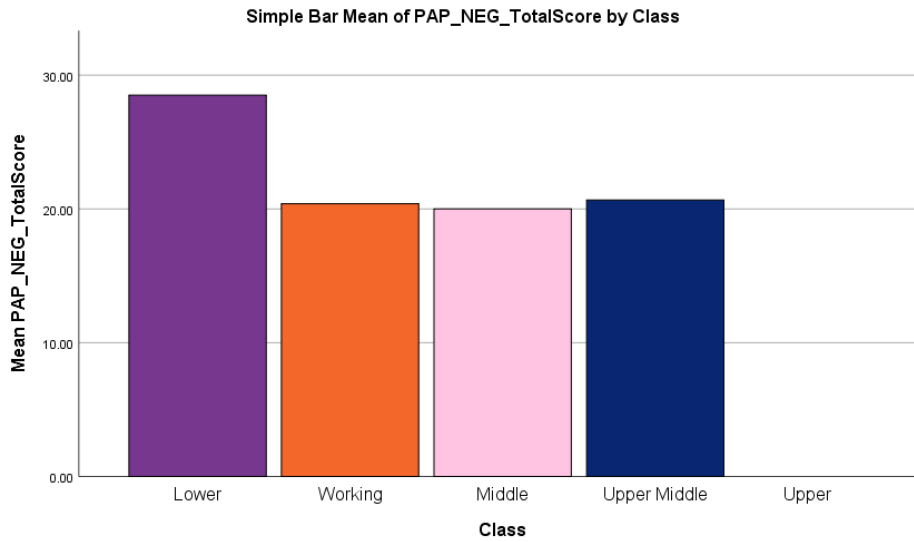
**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
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1	The distribution of PAP_NEG_TotalScore is the same across categories of Class.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.005	Reject the null hypothesis.
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Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

**Figure 10 Class/PAP (Negative) Means**



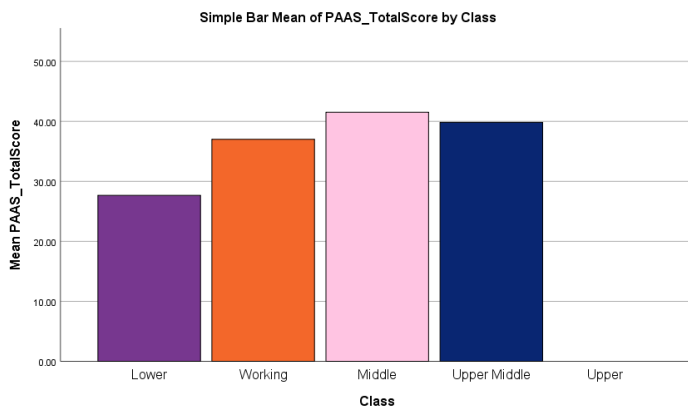
**Table 53 Class/PAAS Results**

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PAAS_TotalScore is the same across categories of Class.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.011	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

**Figure 11 Class/PAAS Means**



#### 4.4.4.2 *Employment effect on Attitudes to Gardaí and Garda Accountability*

Fundamentally, an individual's employment status was a dominant factor on their attitude toward Gardaí and Garda accountability in the present study, with the variable itself being significant on all scales as concluded by Kruskal-Wallis tests ( $H(6) = 29.40, p = .000$  for PC, See Table 54;  $H(6) = 28.00, p = .000$  for PAP (Positive), See Table 55;  $H(6) = 24.28, p = .000$  for PAP (Negative), See Table 56;  $H(6) = 27.20, p = .000$  for PAAS, See Table 57). Concerning attitudes to Gardaí it was evident that participants who were retired from employment possessed the most favourable attitude with the highest scores on the PC ( $M = 63.21, SD = 3.96$ ) (Figure 12) and PAP (Positive) Scale ( $M = 18.00, SD = 1.41$ ) (Figure 13) and the lowest score on the PAP (Negative) ( $M = 9.75, SD = 1.03$ ) (Figure 14). Additionally, retired participants scored extremely high on positively phrased scales and extremely low on negatively phrased scales illustrating a high degree of trust in An Garda Síochána. Other employment categories of Working, Student, Looking after home/family and Unable to work scored relatively high on the positively phrased scales, like the retired group, but their confidence in Gardaí seemed to decrease regarding the negatively phrased scale as they scored higher on this. Furthermore, those unemployed retained the most negative attitude towards Gardaí in this sample with low scores on the PC ( $M = 13.00, SD = 0$ ) (Figure 12) and PAP (Positive) Scale ( $M = 4.40, SD = 0.89$ ) (Figure 13) and high scores on the PAP (Negative) ( $M = 29.40, SD = 0.60$ ) (Figure 14). This group was followed closely by those Looking for their first regular job. In addition, unemployed participants scored considerably low on positively phrased scales and substantially high on negatively phrased scales indicating a severe level of distrust and an extremely negative attitude regarding Gardaí. Further, it seemed, through the *Pairwise Comparison Table*, that respondents in the Retired and Unemployed categories differed most considerably to others in this sample (See Appendix (xxii)). Overall, the employment status of an individual was significant on their attitude toward Gardaí in the current study, with participants in the unemployed and retired groups differing most significantly to the others. Further, the ideal of 'an increase in age leads to an increase in satisfaction' ties in here as all 'Retired' participants in this study were aged 55+, the age category that viewed Gardaí most favourably, while 'Unemployed' respondents were all aged in categories lower than this.

A similar trend regarding attitudes was identified in relation to Garda accountability with those Retired ( $M = 52.35, SD = 3.74$ ) (Figure 15) possessing the most favourable attitude

and those Unemployed ( $M = 24.60$   $SD = 4.16$ ) (Figure 15) retaining the most negative. Further, those in the Retired group possessed the most favourable attitude towards Garda accountability with an extremely high mean score of 52.43. Considering the highest attainable score on this scale was 55, this figure highlights an exceptionally positive attitude. Conversely, the most negative attitude remained with those who were unemployed who had a relatively low mean score. Although their attitude towards Garda accountability was quite negative, it was not as pessimistic as their attitude to Gardaí. Mean scores of the other groups ranged between the 30 and 40 mark illustrating a moderate to positive attitude to Garda accountability (See Figure 15). Additionally, it was also evident that participants in the retired and unemployed groups differed most significantly than the others (See Appendix (xxii)).

Table 54 Employment/PC Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PC_TotalScore is the same across categories of Employment.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 12 Employment/PC Means

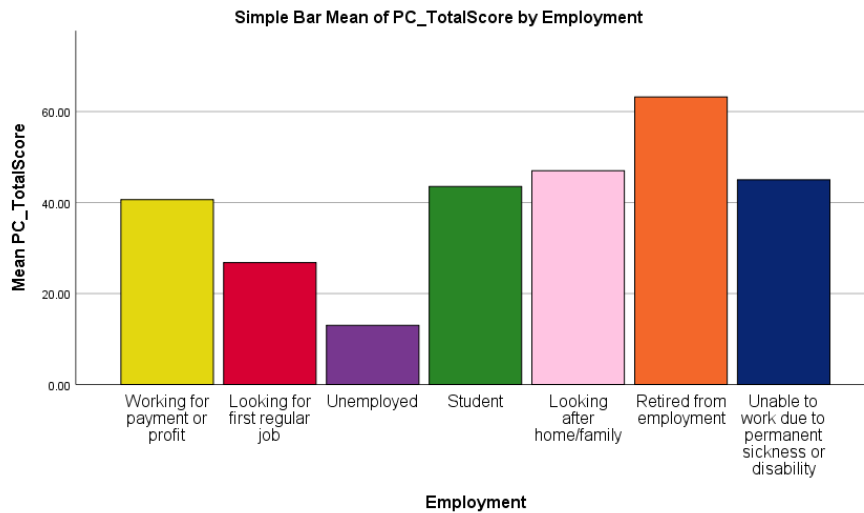


Table 55 Employment/PAP (Positive) Results

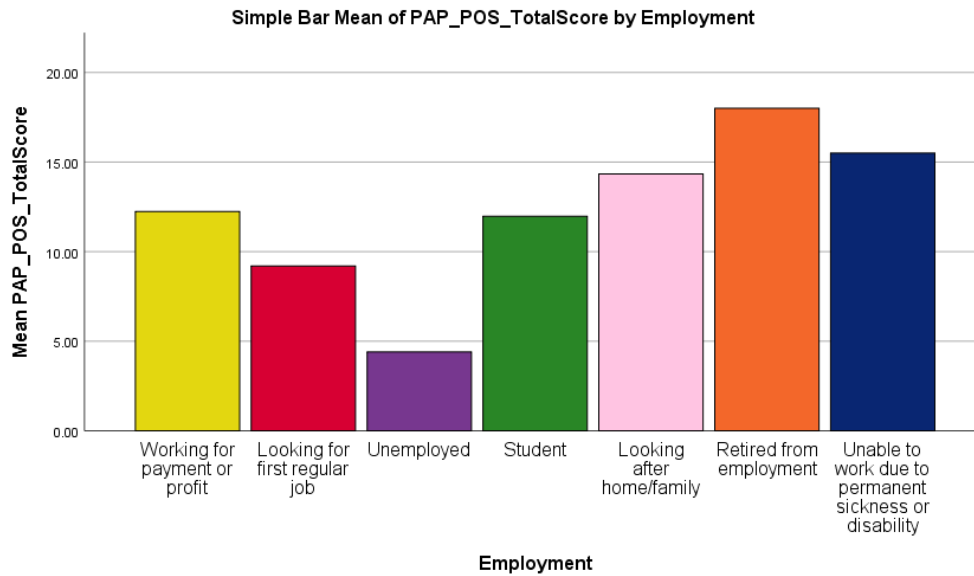
**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
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1	The distribution of PAP_POS_TotalScore is the same across categories of Employment.	Independent-Samples Test	Kruskal-Wallis	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
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Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

**Figure 13 Employment/PAP (Positive) Means**



**Table 56 Employment/PAP (Negative) Results**

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision	
1	The distribution of PAP_NEG_TotalScore is the same across categories of Employment.	Independent-Samples Test	Kruskal-Wallis	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 14 Employment/PAP (Negative) Means

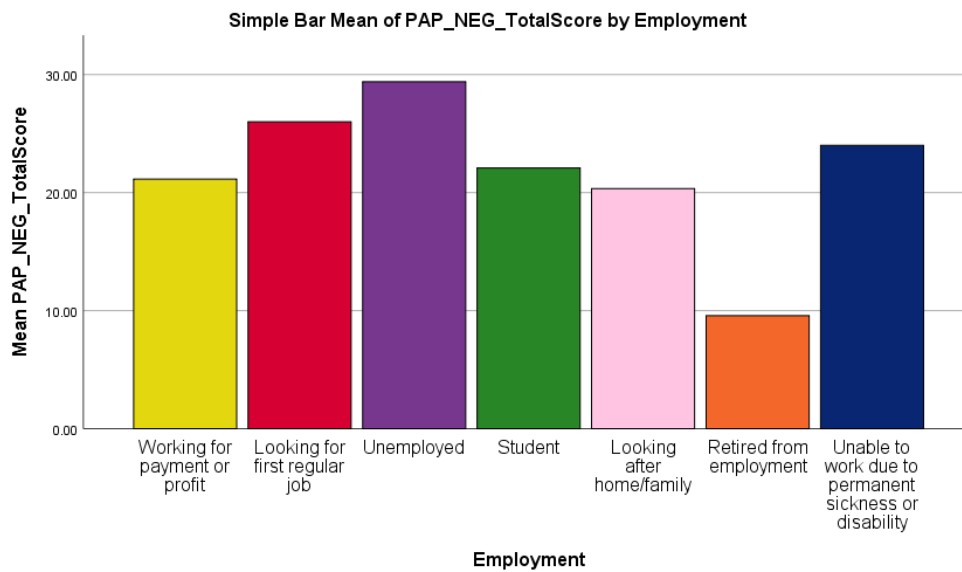


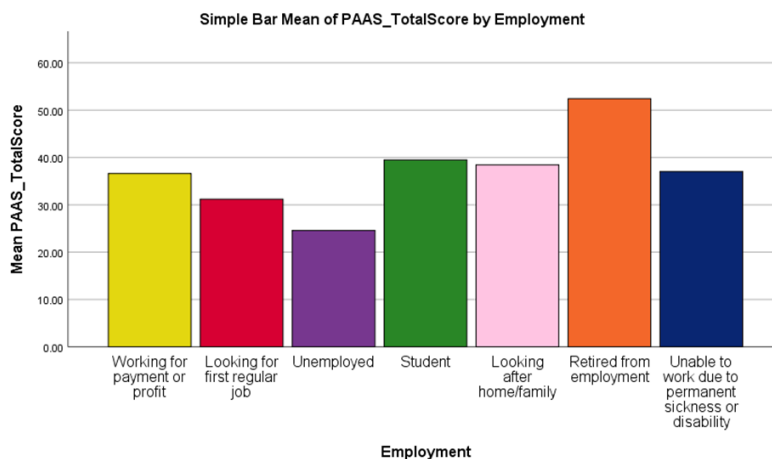
Table 57 Employment/PAAS Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PAAS_TotalScore is the same across categories of Employment.	Independent-Samples Test Kruskal-Wallis	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 15 Employment/PAAS Means



Employment position was influential on attitudes to Gardaí and Garda accountability in this study, with the retired group possessing the most positive attitude and those unemployed

producing the most negative attitude, highlighting how those in the poorer sections of society view police more negatively as opposed to others. Next, the influence of education on attitudes will be discussed.

#### 4.4.4.3 Education Influence on Attitudes to Gardaí and Garda Accountability

Overall, education was not a significant variable on attitudes to Gardaí in the present study as it was only influential on one scale (PAP (Positive) Scale  $H(5) = 11.73, p = .030$ , See Table 58) and held no significance on other scales regarding attitudes to Gardaí (PC  $H(5) = 8.34, p = .131$ , See Table 59; PAP (Negative)  $H(5) = 9.48, p = .051$ , See Table 60). Although education was not influential in this study, from mean scores alone, it was evident that the group who possessed ‘no formal certifications’ retained the most favourable attitude to Gardaí with the highest mean score on the positively phrased scales and the lowest score on the negatively phrased scale. Further, all other groups possessed strikingly similar means regarding each scale in this study with the ‘other’ group maintaining the lowest mean in the positively phrased scales and those with a ‘diploma’ displaying the highest mean on the negatively phrased scale (See Appendix xxiii)).

Unlike with attitudes to Gardaí, education was significant on attitudes to Garda accountability ( $H(5) = 7.52, p = .027$ , See Table 61). A *Pairwise Comparison Table* found the differences between: Other and No formal certifications; Diploma and No formal certifications; Leaving Certificate and No formal certifications and Bachelor Degree and No formal certifications to be statistically significant (See Appendix (xxiv)). Furthermore, it was apparent that participants with ‘no formal certifications’ ( $M = 44.67$   $SD = 12.66$ ) (See Figure 16) retained the most favourable attitude to Garda accountability as they possessed the highest mean score. The lowest mean score belonged to respondents with ‘other’ ( $M = 29.83$   $SD = 7.14$ ) (See Figure 16) qualifications, although their attitude seemed to be more moderate than negative. Additionally, it is fair to say that the other groups (Leaving Certificate, Diploma, Bachelors Degree, Masters Degree) possessed moderate to positive attitudes to Garda accountability (See Figure 16).

Table 58 Education/PAP (Positive) Results

### Hypothesis Test Summary

Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
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1	The distribution of PAP_POS_TotalScore is the same across categories of Education.	Independent-Samples Test	Kruskal-Wallis	.030	Reject the null hypothesis.
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Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Table 59 Education/PC Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test		Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PC_TotalScore is the same across categories of Education.	Independent-Samples Test	Kruskal-Wallis	.131	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Table 60 Education/PAP (Negative) Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test		Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PAP_NEG_TotalScore is the same across categories of Education.	Independent-Samples Test	Kruskal-Wallis	.051	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

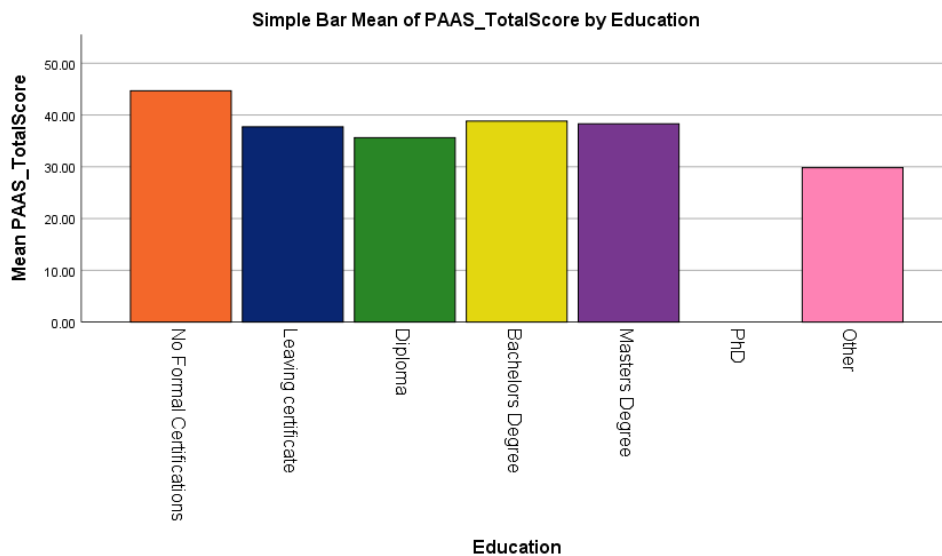
Table 61 Education/PAAS Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test		Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PAAS_TotalScore is the same across categories of Education.	Independent-Samples Test	Kruskal-Wallis	.027	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 16 Education/PAAS Means



Accordingly, education was not found to be significant on attitudes to Gardaí, however, it was found to be significant on attitudes to Garda accountability as those with ‘no formal certifications’ retained the most positive attitude and other groups maintained quite a moderate attitude. The combined effects of class, employment and education will be examined in the following section.

#### 4.4.4.4 Combined Effect of Class, Employment and Education on Attitudes to Gardaí and Garda Accountability

Once again, a two-way ANOVA was used to examine the combined effect of variables which in this case encompassed social class, employment and education. Additionally, it must be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated on three scales (PC, PAP (Positive) and PAAS, See Appendix (xxv)). Even though no effect was found regarding the PAP (Negative) Scale ( $F(2,87) = .43, p = .649$ , See Table 62), the combined effect of the three variables was still influential on attitudes to Gardaí and Garda accountability as significance was identified on the other scales (PC  $F(2,87) = 3.47, p = .035$ , See Table 63; PAP (Positive)  $F(2,87) = 4.14, p = .019$ , See Table 64; PAAS  $F(2,87) = 4.19, p = .018$ , See Table 65). Further, interaction plots were created (See Appendix (xxvi)) and showed the most positive attitude rested with participants in the Middle Class with no formal certifications (See Figures 61, 64 and 67 Appendix (xxvi)); Retired with no formal certifications (See Figures 62 and 68

Appendix (xxvi)); Retired in the Working Class (See Figures 60, 63, 66 and 69 Appendix (xxvi)); Students with 'other' qualifications (See Figure 65 Appendix (xxvi)); Upper Middle Class with a Masters Degree (See Figure 70 Appendix (xxvi)) and Retired with a Diploma (See Figure 71 Appendix (xxvi)). Conversely, more pessimistic attitudes were discovered amongst respondents who were unemployed or looking for their first regular job in the Lower Class (See Figure 60, 66 and 69 Appendix (xxvi)); Lower Class with no formal certifications (See Figures 61, 67 and 70 Appendix (xxvi)); Working Class with no formal certifications (See Figure 62 Appendix (xxvi)); those looking for their first regular job with a Leaving Cert or no formal certifications (See Figure 62 and 71 Appendix (xxvi)); unemployed with a Leaving Cert or no formal certs (See Figure 62, 65 and 71 Appendix (xxvi)); Students in the Lower Class (See Figure 63 Appendix (xxvi)); those in the Lower Class with a Masters Degree (See Figure 64 Appendix (xxvi)) and those unemployed in the Working Class (See Figure 63 Appendix (xxvi)).

Table 62 Class, Employment and Education/PAP (Negative) Scale

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: PAP\_NEG\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	3263.866 <sup>a</sup>	37	88.213	1.322	.145	.360
Intercept	14878.384	1	14878.384	223.033	.000	.719
Class	24.647	3	8.216	.123	.946	.004
Employment	533.392	6	88.899	1.333	.251	.084
Education	111.022	5	22.204	.333	.892	.019
Class * Employment	137.094	5	27.419	.411	.840	.023
Class * Education	24.231	3	8.077	.121	.947	.004
Employment * Education	126.809	6	21.135	.317	.927	.021
Class * Employment * Education	57.968	2	28.984	.434	.649	.010
Error	5803.702	87	66.709			
Total	62195.000	125				
Corrected Total	9067.568	124				

a. R Squared = .360 (Adjusted R Squared = .088)

Table 63 Class, Employment and Education/PC Scale

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: PC\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	21379.222 <sup>a</sup>	37	577.817	2.857	.000	.549
Intercept	44555.185	1	44555.185	220.300	.000	.717
Class	588.395	3	196.132	.970	.411	.032
Employment	4415.171	6	735.862	3.638	.003	.201
Education	1077.832	5	215.566	1.066	.385	.058
Class * Employment	515.739	5	103.148	.510	.768	.028
Class * Education	119.706	3	39.902	.197	.898	.007
Employment * Education	1628.784	6	271.464	1.342	.247	.085
Class * Employment * Education	1405.404	2	702.702	3.474	.035	.074
Error	17595.578	87	202.248			
Total	270530.000	125				
Corrected Total	38974.800	124				

a. R Squared = .549 (Adjusted R Squared = .357)

Table 64 Class, Employment and Education/PAP (Positive)

### Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PAP\_POS\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	1507.796 <sup>a</sup>	37	40.751	3.664	.000	.609
Intercept	4217.509	1	4217.509	379.236	.000	.813
Class	27.514	3	9.171	.825	.484	.028
Employment	433.925	6	72.321	6.503	.000	.310
Education	118.488	5	23.698	2.131	.069	.109
Class * Employment	26.294	5	5.259	.473	.796	.026
Class * Education	15.379	3	5.126	.461	.710	.016
Employment * Education	184.803	6	30.801	2.770	.016	.160
Class * Employment * Education	92.015	2	46.007	4.137	.019	.087
Error	967.532	87	11.121			
Total	22396.000	125				
Corrected Total	2475.328	124				

a. R Squared = .609 (Adjusted R Squared = .443)

Table 65 Class, Employment and Education/PAAS Scale

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: PAP\_NEG\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	3263.866 <sup>a</sup>	37	88.213	1.322	.145	.360
Intercept	14878.384	1	14878.384	223.033	.000	.719
Class	24.647	3	8.216	.123	.946	.004
Employment	533.392	6	88.899	1.333	.251	.084
Education	111.022	5	22.204	.333	.892	.019
Class * Employment	137.094	5	27.419	.411	.840	.023
Class * Education	24.231	3	8.077	.121	.947	.004
Employment * Education	126.809	6	21.135	.317	.927	.021
Class * Employment * Education	57.968	2	28.984	.434	.649	.010
Error	5803.702	87	66.709			
Total	62195.000	125				
Corrected Total	9067.568	124				

a. R Squared = .360 (Adjusted R Squared = .088)

In contrast to the combined effect of gender, age and race, the combined effect of social class, employment and education was influential on attitudes in the present study. The effect of residence and station on attitudes will be assessed next.

4.4.4.5 Residence Impact on Attitudes to Gardaí and Garda Accountability

It was discovered that residence was statistically significant on attitudes towards the Gardaí in the present study. Mean scores differed in relation to each scale with those in rural areas retaining higher means on the PC and PAP (Positive) Scales (See Figure 17 and 18), while participants in urban areas possessed the highest mean on the PAP (Negative) Scale (See Figure 19). In relation to all scales regarding attitudes to Gardaí, a Mann-Whitney test concluded that residence was statistically significant, PC  $U = 1453.5$ ,  $z = -2.321$ ,  $p = .02$ ,  $r = .043$  (See Table 66), PAP (Positive)  $U = 1312$ ,  $z = -3.03$ ,  $p = .002$ ,  $r = .074$  (See Table 67), PAP (Negative)  $U = 1396.5$ ,  $z = -2.598$ ,  $p = .009$ ,  $r = .054$  (See Table 68). According to mean scores, it was noticeable that those in rural areas possessed more favourable attitudes to Gardaí

than their urban counterparts. Participants living in rural areas scored highest on the PC and PAP (Positive) Scales (See Figure 17 and 18) and lowest on the PAP (Negative) Scale (See Figure 19), indicating their favourability and confidence in Gardaí. Those in urban areas contrasted to this and although their attitude was more negative than their rural equivalents, their mean scores did not indicate that they had an entirely negative attitude to Gardaí overall.

In contrast to attitudes to Gardaí, residence was not judged to be influential on attitudes to Garda accountability. Although mean scores slightly contrasted, urban ( $M = 36.83$   $SD = 11.55$ ) rural ( $M = 40.15$   $SD = 10.14$ ) (See Figure 20), a Mann-Whitney test discovered that residence was not influential on attitudes to garda accountability in this study,  $U = 1608$ ,  $z = -1.542$ ,  $p = .123$ ,  $r = .019$  (See Table 69).

Table 66 Residence/PC Results

<b>Test Statistics<sup>a</sup></b>	
	PC_TotalScore
Mann-Whitney U	1453.500
Wilcoxon W	2938.500
Z	-2.321
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.020

a. Grouping Variable: Residence

Figure 17 Residence/PC Means

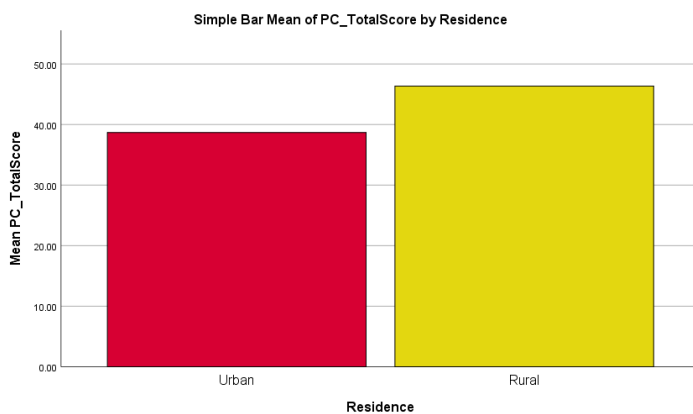


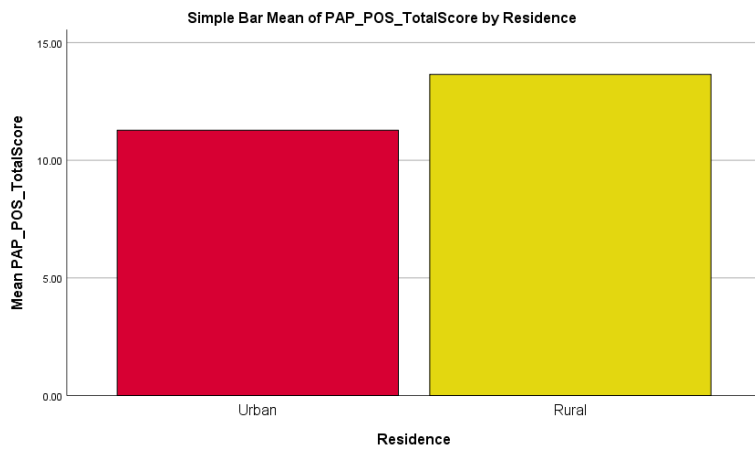
Table 67 Residence/PAP (Positive) Results

<b>Test Statistics<sup>a</sup></b>	
	PAP_POS_Total Score

Mann-Whitney U	1312.000
Wilcoxon W	2797.000
Z	-3.030
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.002

a. Grouping Variable: Residence

**Figure 18 Residence/PAP (Positive) Means**



**Table 68 Residence/PAP (Negative) Results**

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

PAP_NEG_Total Score	
Mann-Whitney U	1396.500
Wilcoxon W	3952.500
Z	-2.598
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.009

a. Grouping Variable: Residence

Figure 19 Residence/PAP (Negative) Means

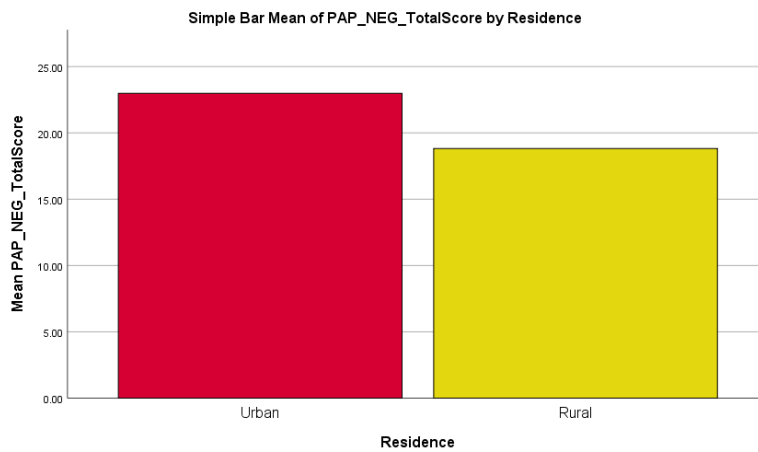


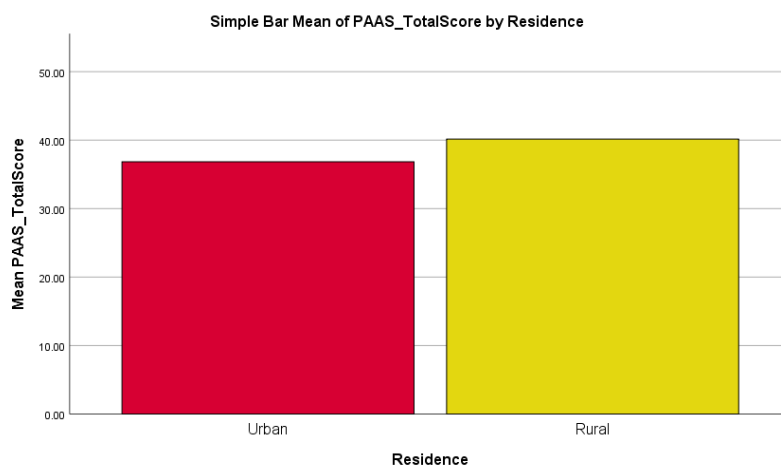
Table 69 Residence/PAAS Results

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

PAAS_TotalScore	
e	
Mann-Whitney U	1608.000
Wilcoxon W	3093.000
Z	-1.542
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.123

a. Grouping Variable: Residence

Figure 20 Residence/PAAS Means



Conclusively, residence was significant on attitudes to Gardaí with those in rural areas viewing Gardaí more favourably than their urban counterparts, however it was not influential



on attitudes to Garda accountability. The next section will consider the influence of the presence of a Garda station on attitudes.

#### 4.4.4.6 Station and attitudes to Gardaí and Garda Accountability

Whether or not there is a Garda station in an individual's area did not have an impact on their attitude to Gardaí in this study. Mean scores were virtually identical regarding each scale item (See Appendix (xxvii)) and Mann-Whitney tests established this variable to have no significance on a participant's attitude to Gardaí;  $U = 1563, z = -.214, p = .831, r = .0004$  (PC) (See Table 70);  $U = 1444.5, z = -.863, p = .388, r = .006$  (PAP (Positive)) (See Table 71);  $U = 1571.5, z = -.167, p = .868, r = .0002$  (PAP (Negative)) (See Table 72). Likewise, with attitudes to Gardaí, this variable had no influence on an individual's attitude to Garda accountability in the present study, as concluded by a Mann-Whitney test;  $U = 1565, z = -.202, p = .840, r = .0003$  (See Table 73). Thus, the existence of a station in an individual's area was not significant on their attitudes towards Gardaí or Garda accountability in the present study.

Table 70 Station/PC Results

<b>Test Statistics<sup>a</sup></b>	
	PC_TotalScore
Mann-Whitney U	1563.000
Wilcoxon W	2229.000
Z	-.214
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.831

a. Grouping Variable: Station

Table 71 Station/PAP (Positive) Results

<b>Test Statistics<sup>a</sup></b>	
	PAP_POS_Total Score
Mann-Whitney U	1444.500
Wilcoxon W	2110.500
Z	-.863
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.388

a. Grouping Variable: Station

Table 72 Station/PAP (Negative) Results

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

PAP_NEG_Total	
Score	
Mann-Whitney U	1571.500
Wilcoxon W	5576.500
Z	-.167
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.868

a. Grouping Variable: Station

Table 73 Station/PAAS Results

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

PAAS_TotalScor	
e	
Mann-Whitney U	1565.000
Wilcoxon W	2231.000
Z	-.202
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.840

a. Grouping Variable: Station

4.4.4.7 Combined Effect of Residence and Station on Attitudes to Gardaí and Garda Accountability

The present study found that the combined effect of residence and station had no influence on an individual's attitude towards An Garda Síochána or Garda accountability ( $F(1,121) = .29, p = .593$  See Table 74 for PC;  $F(1,121) = .91, p = .343$  75 for PAP (Positive);  $F(1,121) = .46, p = .501$  76 for PAP (Negative) and  $F(1,121) = .28, p = .595$  for PAAS) (See Appendix (xxviii)). However, regarding attitudes towards Gardaí, it was clear that those in rural areas with a Garda station viewed Gardaí more positively (See Figures 76, 77, and 78 Appendix (xxix)), while those in urban areas with a Garda station viewed them in a more negative, albeit moderate light (See Figures 76, 77 and 78 Appendix (xxix)). In relation to Garda accountability, respondents in rural areas with a Garda station possessed the most positive attitude, while those in urban areas without a station recorded the more negative/neutral attitude (See Figure 79 Appendix (xxix)).

Comprehensively, the present study found that social class, employment and residence were significant on attitudes to Gardaí, while education, in addition to social class and employment, were influential on attitudes to Garda accountability. The following segment of this research will assess the influence of previous police contact, in particular, the type of encounter, time passed since encounter and one's identity during the encounter, and answer research question 5.

#### *4.4.5 Research Question 5:*

Does previous contact with Gardaí have any significance in determining attitudes towards them and Garda accountability?

In the present study, every participant had experienced contact with Gardaí. As a result, the encounter itself, time passed since the encounter and the identity of a participant during the encounter was analysed against the PC, PAP (Positive) and PAP (Negative) Scale using a Kruskal-Wallis test and Mann-Whitney test. Furthermore, if significance was discovered, a *Pairwise Comparison Table* was constructed to examine the deviations between each group.

##### *4.4.5.1 Type of Encounter and Attitudes to Gardaí and Garda Accountability*

The type of encounter a participant experienced with Gardaí, whether that be positive, neutral or negative, was influential on their overall attitude towards the Gardaí in the present study (PC  $H(2) = 64.50, p = .000$ , See Table 74; PAP (Positive)  $H(2) = 43.74, p = .000$ , See Table 75; PAP (Negative)  $H(2) = 55.62, p = .000$ , See Table 76). It was evident that those who experienced positive encounters with Gardaí possessed the most favourable and positive attitudes towards them with the highest scores on the PC ( $M = 54.82$   $SD = 9.81$ ) (Figure 21) and PAP (Positive) Scales ( $M = 15.41$   $SD = 2.09$ ) (Figure 22) and the lowest score on the PAP (Negative) Scale ( $M = 16.22$   $SD = 5.39$ ) (Figure 23). Participants who experienced negative encounters contrasted to this (PC  $M = 19.45$   $SD = 9.65$  (Figure 21); PAP (Positive)  $M = 6.79$   $SD = 3.10$  (Figure 22); PAP (Negative)  $M = 27.52$   $SD = 2.79$  (Figure 23)), illustrating their negative and pessimistic outlook towards Gardaí. Participants with neutral contact retained moderate attitudes in relation to the PC ( $M = 35.39$   $SD = 9.09$ ) (Figure 21) and PAP (Positive) Scales ( $M = 11.13$   $SD = 3.61$ ) (Figure 22) but their attitude became more negative regarding

the PAP (Negative) Scale ( $M = 25.87$   $SD = 12.30$ ) (Figure 23). Furthermore, a *Pairwise Comparison Table* concluded that the discrepancies between each group was statistically significant on all scales pertaining to attitudes to Gardaí (See Appendix (xxx)).

As with attitudes towards Gardaí, the type of experience encountered was influential on their attitude to Garda accountability ( $H(2) = 38.42, p = .000$ , See Table 77). Participants with positive encounters ( $M = 45.07$   $SD = 7.69$ ) (Figure 35) retained the most optimistic attitude while those with negative contact ( $M = 27.28$   $SD = 6.50$ ) (Figure 24) retained a pessimistic perception of Garda accountability, although their mean score may indicate a moderate attitude. Additionally, those with neutral encounters ( $M = 33$   $SD = 8.71$ ) (Figure 24) seemed to have retained a moderate, slightly positive attitude to Garda accountability. Further, the differences between positive and negative and positive and neutral were deemed statistically significant (See Appendix (xxx)).

Table 74 Encounter Type/PC Results

### Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PC_TotalScore is the same across categories of Previous_Experience_Rate.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 21 Encounter Type/PC Means

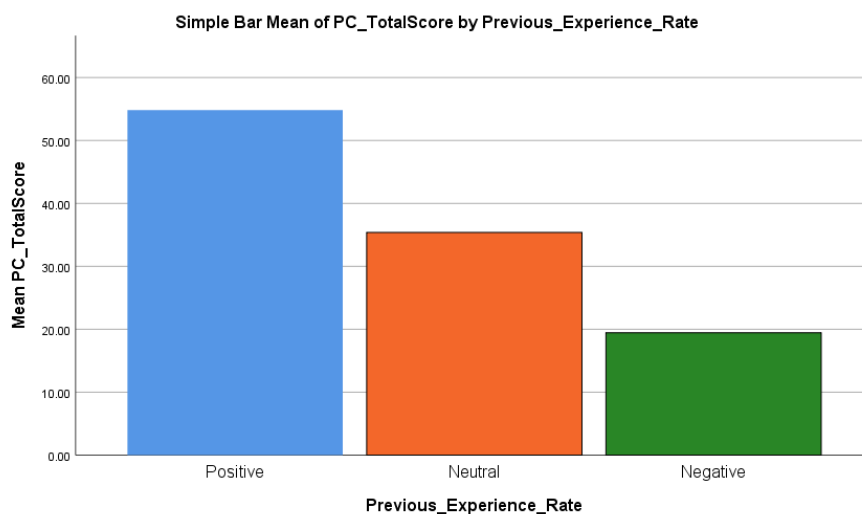


Table 75 Encounter Type/ PAP (Positive) Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PAP_POS_TotalScore is the same across categories of Previous_Experience_Rate.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 22 Encounter Type/PAP (Positive) Means

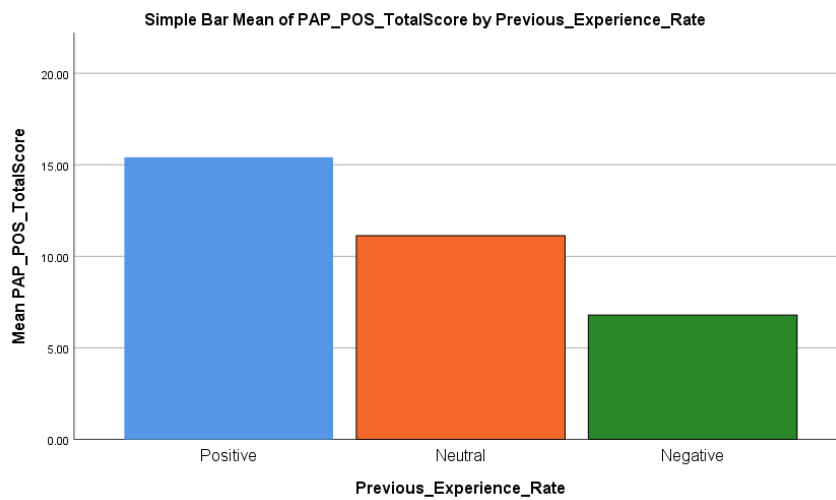


Table 76 Encounter Type/PAP (Negative) Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PAP_NEG_TotalScore is the same across categories of Previous_Experience_Rate.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 23 Encounter Type/PAP (Negative) Means

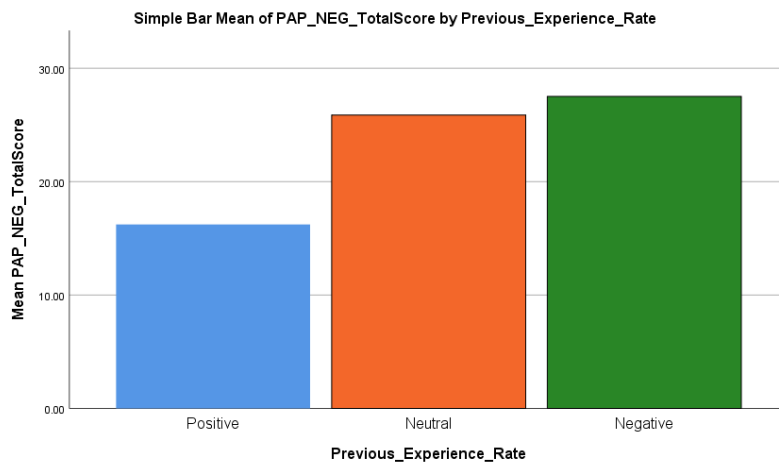


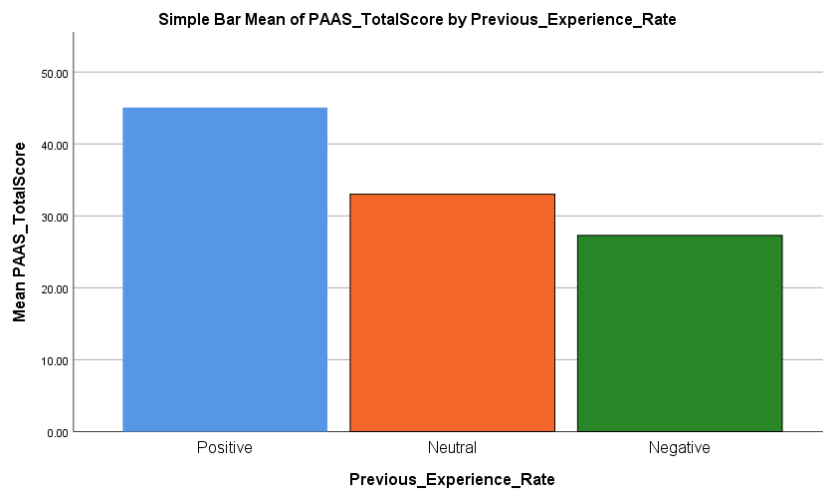
Table 77 Encounter Type/PAAS Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PAAS_TotalScore is the same across categories of Previous_Experience_Rate.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 24 Encounter Type/PAAS Means



Therefore, the type of encounter a person experienced with Gardaí was found to be influential on attitudes to both Gardaí and Garda accountability in the present study as positive contact resulted in positive attitudes, whereas negative contact resulted in negative attitudes.

The proceeding section will examine the impact of time passed since an encounter with Gardaí on attitudes.

4.4.5.2 Time Passed Since Encounter Impact on Attitudes to Gardaí and Garda Accountability

Mann-Whitney tests concluded that the time passed since an encounter with Gardaí was influential on an individual’s attitude towards Gardaí on the PC and PAP (Negative) Scales ( $U = 1208.5, z = -2.025, p = .043, r = .033$  for PC, See Table 78;  $U = 1189.5, z = -2.123, p = .034, r = .036$  for PAP (Negative), See Table 79), however, it had no impact on attitudes regarding the PAP (Positive) Scale ( $U = 1327, z = -1.370, p = .171, r = .015$ ) (See Table 80). Accordingly, the time passed since an encounter with Gardaí was deemed influential on attitudes towards Gardaí overall and it was evident that those with contact within the last year possessed more favourable attitudes to Gardaí as opposed to those with contact before last year (See Appendix (xxxi)). Furthermore, the time passed since an encounter had no influence on a participant’s attitude towards Garda accountability in the present study ( $U = 1276.5, z = -1.643, p = .100, r = .022$ ) (See Table 81).

Table 78 Time Passed/PC Mann-Whitney Results

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	PC_TotalScore
Mann-Whitney U	1208.500
Wilcoxon W	1838.500
Z	-2.025
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.043

a. Grouping Variable:  
Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter

Table 79 Time Passed/PAP (Negative) Mann-Whitney Results

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	PAP_NEG_Total Score
Mann-Whitney U	1189.500
Wilcoxon W	5284.500
Z	-2.123
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.034

a. Grouping Variable:  
Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter

Table 80 Time Passed/PAP (Positive) Mann-Whitney Results

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	PAP_POS_Total Score
Mann-Whitney U	1327.000
Wilcoxon W	1957.000
Z	-1.370
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.171

a. Grouping Variable:  
Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter

Table 81 Time Passed/PAAS Mann-Whitney Results

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	PAAS_TotalScor e
Mann-Whitney U	1276.500
Wilcoxon W	1906.500
Z	-1.643
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.100

a. Grouping Variable:  
Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter

Therefore, the time passed since an encounter with Gardaí was impactful on attitudes towards them as those who experienced contact within the last year viewed Gardaí more optimistically than participants with contact before last year. Additionally, the variable held no significance on attitudes to Garda accountability. In the next section, the impact of a person's identity during an encounter, whether that be victim, witness, charged with an offence (suspect) or none of these, will be scrutinised.



4.4.5.3 Encounter Identity Impact on Attitudes to Gardaí and Garda Accountability

The overall identity of an encounter with Gardaí, whether a person was a victim, witness, charged with an offence or none of these, was found to be influential on attitudes towards Gardaí and Garda accountability in this study, as established by Kruskal-Wallis tests ( $H(3) = 15.47, p = .000$  for PC, See Table 82); ( $H(3) = 11.43, p = .000$  for PAP (Positive), See Table 83); ( $H(3) = 16.01, p = .000$  for PAP (Negative), See Table 84); ( $H(3) = 14.91, p = .000$  for PAAS, See Table 85). Furthermore, participants that were ‘Charged with an offence’ differed significantly to all other groups regarding attitudes to Gardaí and Garda accountability, with a  $p$  value of .000 on all *Pairwise Comparison Tables* (See Appendix (xxxii)). Additionally, the mean scores generated by respondents that were ‘Charged with an offence’ indicated an extremely negative attitude towards Gardaí, while scores produced by the other groups, victims, witnesses and none of these, highlighted a more positive outlook (See Appendix (xxxiii)). Regarding Garda accountability, attitudes amongst those ‘charged with an offence’ did not seem as pessimistic as their attitudes to Gardaí, however, this does not mean their attitude to Garda accountability was overwhelmingly positive (See Appendix (xxxiii)). In addition, other groups attitudes remained positive in relation to Garda accountability.

Table 82 Encounter Identity/PC Kruskal-Wallis Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PC_TotalScore is the same across categories of Encounter_Identity.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Table 83 Encounter Identity/PAP (Positive) Kruskal-Wallis Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PAP_POS_TotalScore is the same across categories of Encounter_Identity.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Table 84 Encounter Identity/PAP (Negative) Kruskal-Wallis Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PAP_NEG_TotalScore is the same across categories of Encounter_Identity.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

**Table 85 Encounter Identity/PAAS Kruskal-Wallis Results**

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PAAS_TotalScore is the same across categories of Encounter_Identity.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

In summary, the status of a person during an encounter with Gardaí, whether that be a witness, victim, charged with an offence or none of these, was hugely impactful on their attitude towards Gardaí and Garda accountability, as those ‘charged with an offence’ retained extremely negative attitudes as opposed to other groups. The combined effect of previous police contact variables will be investigated next.

**4.4.5.4 Combined Effects**

To examine the combined effect of the variables, encounter rate, time passed since encounter and encounter identity, a two-way between-groups ANOVA was exercised. It must be noted that two scales, PC and PAAS, violated the assumption of homogeneity of variances (See Appendix (xxxiv)). Nonetheless, it was concluded that the combined effects of the three variables were not influential on attitudes to Gardaí or Garda accountability ( $F(4,104) = .89, p = .471$  for PC;  $F(4,104) = 1.91, p = .114$  for PAP (Positive);  $F(4,104) = 1.20, p = .316$  for PAP (Negative);  $F(4,104) = .25, p = .912$  for PAAS) (See Appendix (xxxv)). However, it was discovered that encounter rate was influential on all scales,  $F(2, 104) = 54.18, p = .000$  for PC;  $F(2,104) = 42.85, p = .000$  for PAP (Positive);  $F(2,104) = 11.25, p = .000$  for PAP (Negative);  $F(2,104) = 29.06, p = .000$  for PAAS (See Appendix (xxxv)), and identity was impactful on the PAP (Positive) Scale,  $F(3,104) = 9.29, p = .000$ , and PAAS Scale,  $F(3,104) = 4.00, p = .010$  (See Appendix (xxxv)). Additionally, rate and identity,  $F(5,104) = 3.94, p = .003$ , and

time passed and identity,  $F(3,104) = 3.28, p = .024$ , were significant on the PAP (Positive) Scale (See Appendix (xxxv)).

Interaction plots (Appendix (xxxvi)) illustrated that the more positive attitudes rested with those who experienced positive encounters before last year (See Figures 88, 91, 94 and 97 Appendix (xxxvi)); witnesses who experienced positive contact (See Figure 89, 92 and 95 Appendix (xxxvi)); victims who experienced contact before last year (See Figure 90, 96 and 99 Appendix (xxxvi)); victims with contact within the last year (See Figure 93 Appendix (xxxvi)) and victims with positive contact (See Figure 98 Appendix (xxxvi)). Conversely, the more negative attitudes were found amongst those charged with an offence with contact before last year (See Figures 90, 93 and 99 Appendix (xxxvi)); those charged with an offence who experienced a negative encounter (See Figure 89 Appendix (xxxvi)); witnesses with a negative encounter (See Figures 89 and 92 Appendix (xxxvi)); participants who experienced negative contact before last year (See Figure 88, 91 and 97 Appendix (xxxvi)); respondents with neutral contact within the last year (See Figure 94 Appendix (xxxvi)); respondents who were charged with an offence with neutral contact (See Figure 95 and 98 Appendix (xxxvi)) and those charged with an offence within the last year (See Figure 96 Appendix (xxxvi)).

Though the combined effect of the three variables was not deemed influential in the present study, the variables were heavily influential on attitudes on their own. In the next section, the study will investigate the impact of attitudes to Gardaí on attitudes to Garda accountability.

#### *4.4.6 Research Question 6:*

What is the relationship between attitudes towards An Garda Síochána and their oversight bodies?

In the present study, it was found that attitudes towards Gardaí can influence attitudes towards Garda accountability. This was identified using a Kendall's Correlation which discovered that all scales pertaining to attitudes towards the Gardaí, PC, PAP (Positive) and PAP (Negative), were statistically significant on scales regarding Garda accountability, PAAS;  $r(123) = .72, p = .000$  for PC and PAAS;  $r(123) = .60, p = .000$  for PAP (Positive) and PAAS;  $r(123) = -.63, p = .000$  for PAP (Negative) and PAAS (See Table 86). Furthermore, PC and

PAP (Positive) had a positive relationship with PAAS, while PAP (Negative) retained a negative relationship. Additionally, all scales had a large effect size. Conclusively, a participant's attitude towards Gardaí was influential on their overall attitude to Garda accountability in the current study.

Table 86 Correlations

			<b>Correlations</b>			
			PC_TotalScore	PAP_POS_T	PAP_NEG_T	PAAS_Total
			re	otalScore	otalScore	Score
Kendall's tau_b	PC_TotalScore	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.706**	-.744**	.719**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.000
		N	125	125	125	125
	PAP_POS_TotalScore	Correlation Coefficient	.706**	1.000	-.668**	.602**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000	.000
		N	125	125	125	125
	PAP_NEG_TotalScore	Correlation Coefficient	-.744**	-.668**	1.000	-.626**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.	.000
		N	125	125	125	125
	PAAS_TotalScore	Correlation Coefficient	.719**	.602**	-.626**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.
		N	125	125	125	125

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

#### 4.4.7 Research Question 7:

How does the Irish public perceive Gardaí to operate during encounters and what are the demographic effects on these perceptions?

Firstly, descriptive statistics were used to address this question to provide an overall insight into attitudes. Then, Mann-Whitney tests were used to examine the influence of the variables of gender, residence, station and time passed since an encounter on these perceptions,

while Kruskal-Wallis tests were used to explore the influence of the other variables contained in this study. The results are discussed below.

From the descriptive statistics contained in Table 87, it is evident that a slight majority of participants agreed or strongly agreed with the positively phrased statements of the PJ1 Scale. For example, 64.8% believed Gardaí acted fairly during their encounter and 55.4% agreed their views were considered before a decision was made by Gardaí. Conversely, it was clear that similar amounts of respondents disagreed with the negatively phrased statements of the PJ2 Scale, for instance, 60.8% stated they did not feel resentful about their experience with Gardaí, while a further 53.6% declared they did not feel tense when they reflected on said encounter (See Table 88). Conversely, there were also participants who were not so favourable in their assessments of encounters with Gardaí as 30.4% did not believe their views were considered before a decision was made and 34.4% stated they felt anxious during the encounter, with a further 36.8% feeling frustrated during the encounter. Thus, it is hard to say for certain whether Gardaí operate fairly during encounters as only a slight majority were positive in their overall assessments and as will be illustrated below, demographic factors can have an influence.

Table 87 PJ1 Descriptive Statistics

PJ1 Item	Scale	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Q1						
Approachable and friendly		<b>12.8%</b>	<b>14.4%</b>	<b>12%</b>	<b>30.4%</b>	<b>30.4%</b>
Q2	Polite, respectful and courteous	<b>14.4%</b>	<b>12%</b>	<b>12%</b>	<b>27.2%</b>	<b>34.4%</b>
Q3	Fair	<b>15.2%</b>	<b>9.6%</b>	<b>10.4%</b>	<b>30.4%</b>	<b>34.4%</b>
Q4	Were you given the opportunity to express your views	<b>11.2%</b>	<b>15.2%</b>	<b>16.8%</b>	<b>33.6%</b>	<b>23.2%</b>

before a decision was made?					
Q5 Were your views considered before a decision was made?	<b>12%</b>	<b>18.4%</b>	<b>15.2%</b>	<b>32%</b>	<b>22.4%</b>

Table 88 PJ2 Descriptive Statistics

PJ2 Item	Scale	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Q6 Tense		<b>40%</b>	<b>13.6%</b>	<b>13.6%</b>	<b>19.3%</b>	<b>13.6%</b>
Q7 Anxious		<b>37.6%</b>	<b>17.6%</b>	<b>10.4%</b>	<b>20%</b>	<b>14.4%</b>
Q8 Angry		<b>42.4%</b>	<b>18.4%</b>	<b>8.8%</b>	<b>14.4%</b>	<b>16%</b>
Q9 Resentful		<b>40.8%</b>	<b>20%</b>	<b>11.2%</b>	<b>12.8%</b>	<b>15.2%</b>
Q10 Frustrated		<b>40.4%</b>	<b>14.4%</b>	<b>8.8%</b>	<b>16.8%</b>	<b>20%</b>

#### 4.4.7.1 *Demographic Influences*

##### 4.4.7.1.1 *Gender*

Gender was found to have no influence on perceptions in the present study,  $U = 1679$ ,  $z = -1.229$ ,  $p = .219$ ,  $r = .012$  for PJ1 (See Table 89);  $U = 1745$ ,  $z = -.907$ ,  $p = .365$ ,  $r = .007$  for PJ2 (See Table 90).

Table 89 Gender/PJ1 Mann-Whitney Results

Test Statistics <sup>a</sup>	
	PJ1_TotalScore
Mann-Whitney U	1679.000
Wilcoxon W	4164.000
Z	-1.229

Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.219
------------------------	------

a. Grouping Variable: Gender

**Table 90 Gender/PJ2 Mann-Whitney Results**

<b>Test Statistics<sup>a</sup></b>	
	PJ2_TotalScore
Mann-Whitney U	1745.500
Wilcoxon W	3285.500
Z	-.907
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.364

a. Grouping Variable: Gender

#### 4.4.7.1.2 Age

Age did have an influence on attitudes towards encounters with Gardaí as concluded by a Kruskal Wallis test,  $H(3) = 26.17, p = .000$  for PJ1 (See Table 91);  $H(3) = 25.53, p = .000$  for PJ2 (See Table 92). Regarding the PJ1 Scale, differences were significant between the age categories of 25-44 and 55+, 18-24 and 55+ and 45-54 and 55+ (See Appendix (xxxvii)), with 55+ also differing significantly from other groups in the PJ2 Scale (See Appendix (xxxvii)). Thus, age was significant here with those aged 55+ varying most significantly from other groups. Additionally, from mean scores it was evident that those aged 55+ possessed the most favourable attitude with the highest score on the PJ1 Scale ( $M = 23.67$   $SD = 1.94$ ) (Figure 25) and the lowest on the PJ2 Scale ( $M = 5.94$   $SD = 2.65$ ) (Figure 26). Further, the other age categories examined in this study retained mean scores close in nature to each other which would indicate a moderate attitude overall.

**Table 91 Age/PJ1 Kruskal-Wallis Results**

<b>Hypothesis Test Summary</b>				
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PJ1_TotalScore is the same across categories of Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 25 Age/PJ1 Means

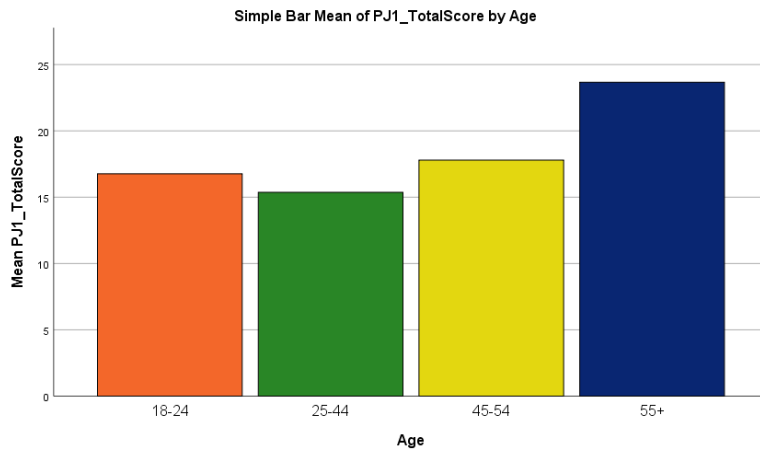


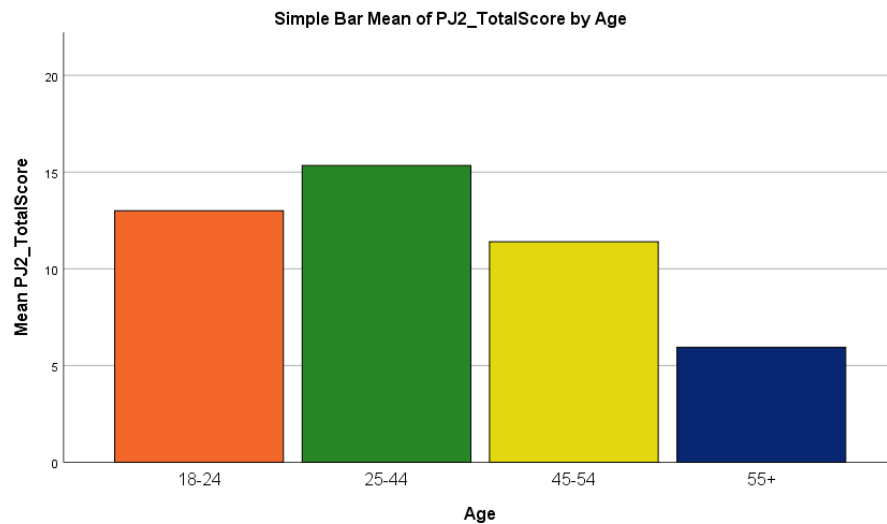
Table 92 Age/PJ2 Kruskal-Wallis Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PJ2_TotalScore is the same across categories of Age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 26 Age/PJ2 Means



4.4.7.1.3 Race

Race was found to have no impact on attitudes to encounters with Gardaí as established by Kruskal-Wallis tests  $H(6) = 7.89, p = .06$  for PJ1 (See Table 93);  $H(6) = 5.99, p = .094$  for PJ2 (See Table 94).



Table 93 Race/PJ1 Kruskal-Wallis Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PJ1_TotalScore is the same across categories of Race.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.060	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Table 94 Race/PJ2 Kruskal-Wallis Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PJ2_TotalScore is the same across categories of Race.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.094	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

4.4.7.1.4 Social Class

A participant’s social class was influential on their perceptions of Gardaí during encounters according to Kruskal-Wallis tests,  $H(3) = 7.19, p = .004$  for PJ1 (See Table 95);  $H(3) = 5.27, p = .004$  for PJ2 (See Table 96). Differences were significant between the Lower and Working Class, Lower and Middle Class, and Middle and Working Class on both scales (See Appendix (xxxviii)). Further, respondents in the Middle Class ( $M = 19.41$   $SD = 5.21$ ) (Figure 27) ( $M = 10.38$   $SD = 6.36$ ) (Figure 28) retained the most optimistic attitude and had the most positive encounters with Gardaí. In contrast, those in the Lower Class ( $M = 9$   $SD = 5.48$ ) (Figure 27) ( $M = 20.67$   $SD = 6.77$ ) (Figure 28) possessed the most negative attitude and experienced more negative encounters with Gardaí. The Working and Upper Middle Class possessed scores similar to the Middle Class, indicating a more positive attitude (See Figure 27 and 28).

Table 95 Class/PJ1 Kruskal-Wallis Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PJ1_TotalScore is the same across categories of Class.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.004	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 27 Class/PJ1 Means

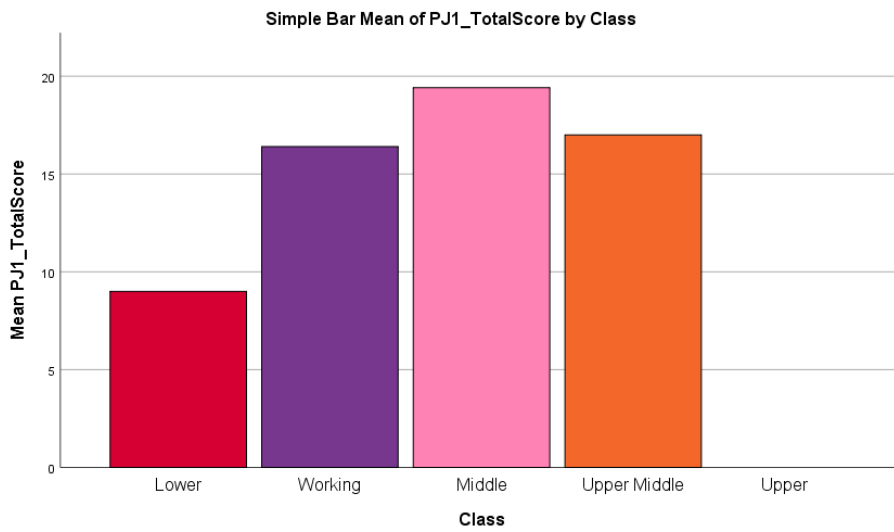


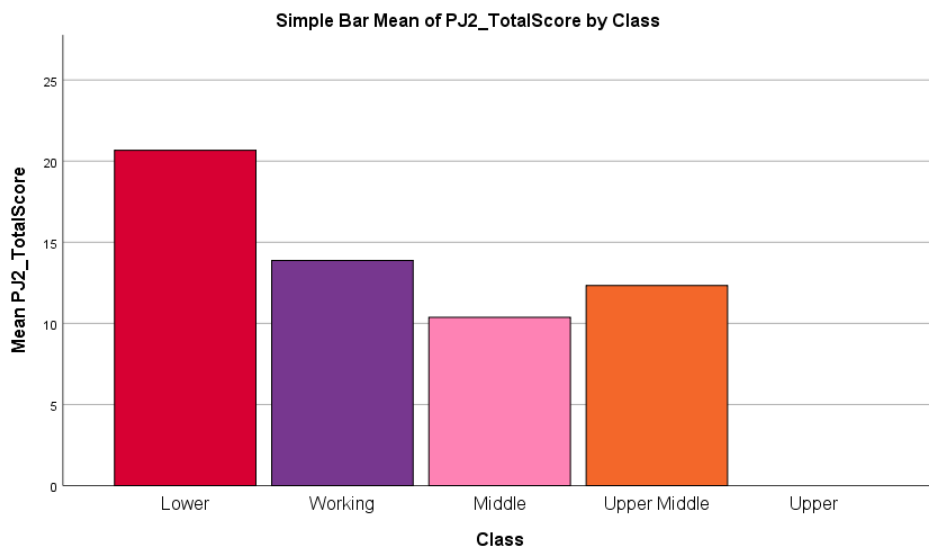
Table 96 Class/PJ2 Kruskal-Wallis Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PJ2_TotalScore is the same across categories of Class.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.004	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 28 Class/PJ2 Means



#### 4.4.7.1.5 Employment

An individual's employment status was found to be impactful on their perception of Gardaí during encounters as concluded by Kruskal-Wallis tests,  $H(6) = 28.02, p = .000$  for PJ1 (See Table 97);  $H(6) = 32.82, p = .000$  for PJ2 (See Table 98). For the PJ1 Scale discrepancies were significant between: Unemployed and Working; Unemployed and Student; Unemployed and Looking after family/home; Unemployed and Retired; Looking for first job and Looking after family/home; Looking for first job and Retired; Student and Retired; Looking after family/home and Retired (See Appendix (xxxix)). In relation to the PJ2 Scale differences were significant between: Retired and Student; Retired and Looking after family/home; Retired and Working; Retired and Looking for first job; Retired and Unemployed; Unable to work and Unemployed; Student and Looking for first job; Student and Unemployed; Looking after family/home and Unemployed; Working and Looking for first job (See Appendix (xxxix)). Furthermore, it was clear from mean scores that those who were retired ( $M = 24.21$   $SD = 1.42$ ) (Figure 29)  $M = 5.41$   $SD = .54$  (Figure 30) retained the highest confidence that Gardaí operate fairly and had the most positive encounters. Additionally, those unemployed ( $M = 5$   $SD = 0$ ) (Figure 29)  $M = 25$   $SD = 0$  (Figure 30) maintained an extremely negative attitude and also experienced the most negative encounters.

Table 97 Employment/PJ1 Kruskal-Wallis Results

<b>Hypothesis Test Summary</b>				
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PJ1_TotalScore is the same across categories of Employment.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 29 Employment/PJ1 Means

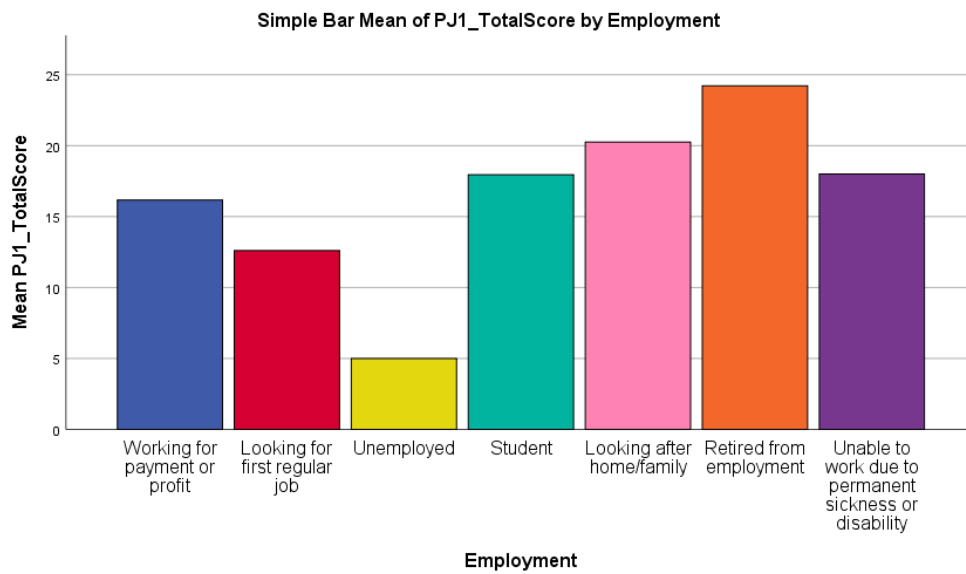


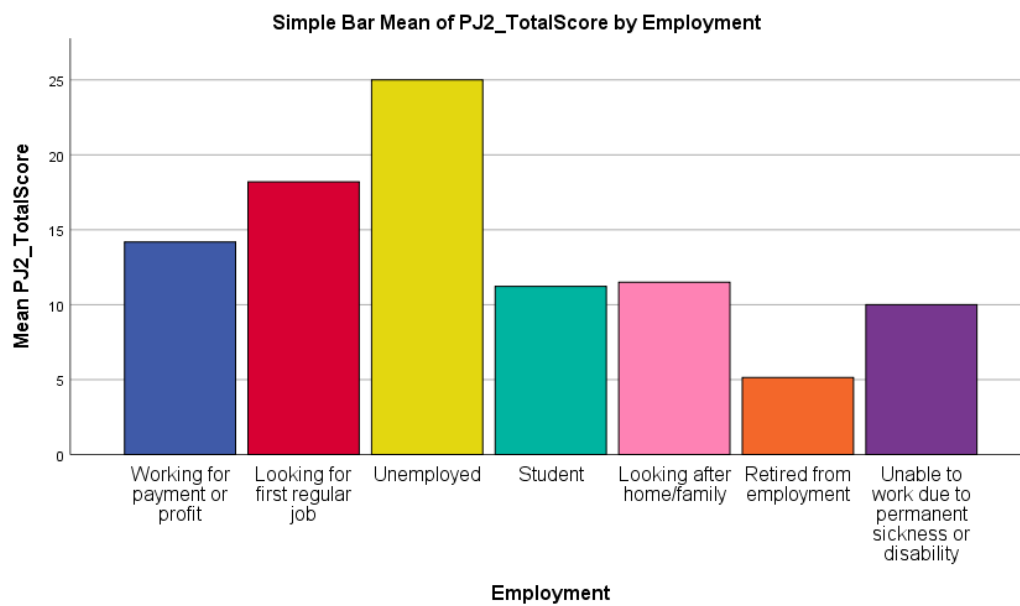
Table 98 Employment/PJ2 Kruskal-Wallis Results

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PJ2_TotalScore is the same across categories of Employment.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 30 Employment/PJ2 Means



#### 4.4.7.1.6 Education

Education was not found to be significant on perceptions of encounters as determined by a Kruskal-Wallis test,  $H(5) = 11.31, p = .327$  for PJ1 (See Table 99);  $H(5) = 11.41, p = .133$  for PJ2 (See Table 100).

Table 99 Education/PJ1 Kruskal-Wallis Results

#### Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PJ1_TotalScore is the same across categories of Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.327	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Table 100 Education/PJ2 Kruskal-Wallis Results

#### Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PJ2_TotalScore is the same across categories of Education.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.133	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

#### 4.4.7.1.7 Residence

Mann-Whitney tests concluded that residence was influential in this instance,  $U = 1470, z = -2.238, p = .025, r = .04$  for PJ1 (See Table 101);  $U = 1346.5, z = -2.888, p = .004, r = .067$  for PJ2 (See Table 102). Furthermore, it was evident those in rural areas possessed the more favourable attitude with higher mean scores in the positively phrased PJ1 (See Figure 31) and a lower mean in the negative phrased PJ2 (See Figure 32).

Table 101 Residence/PJ1 Mann-Whitney Results

#### Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

	PJ1_TotalScore
Mann-Whitney U	1470.000
Wilcoxon W	2955.000
Z	-2.238
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.025

a. Grouping Variable: Residence

Figure 31 Residence/PJ1 Means

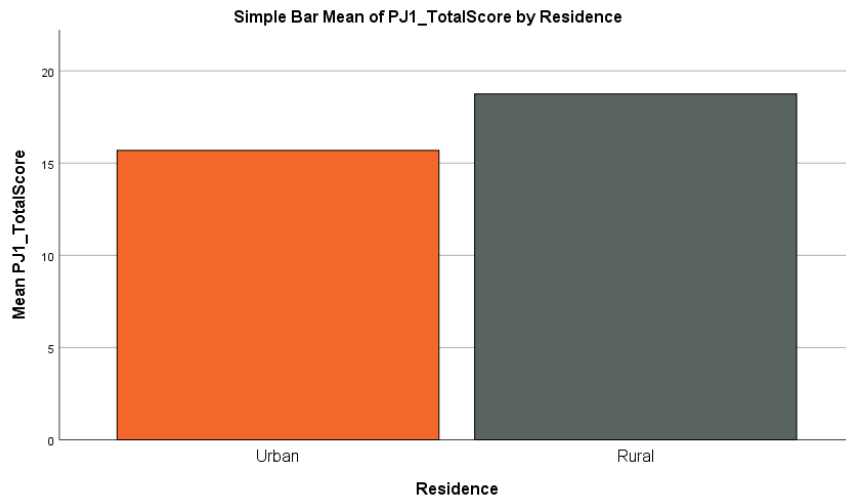


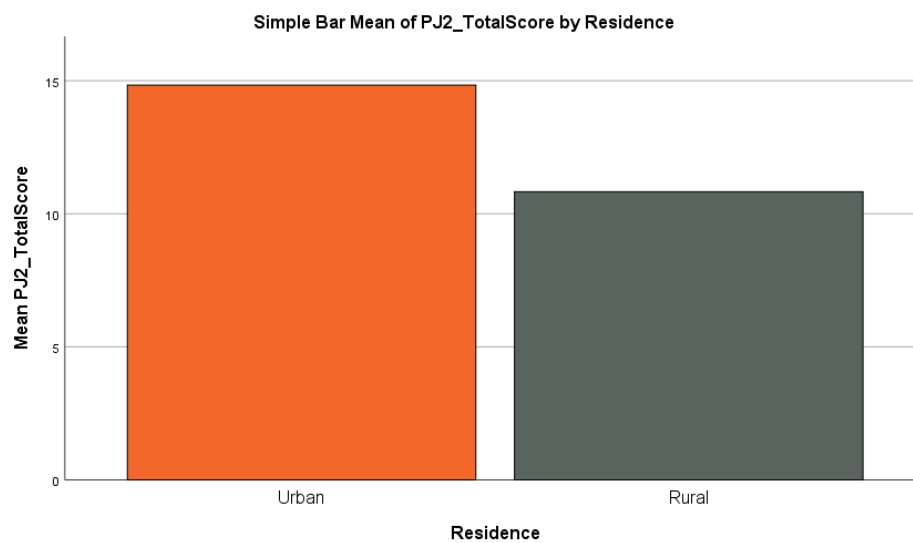
Table 102 Residence/PJ2 Mann-Whitney Results

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	PJ2_TotalScore
Mann-Whitney U	1346.500
Wilcoxon W	3902.500
Z	-2.888
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.004

a. Grouping Variable: Residence

Figure 32 Residence/PJ2 Means



#### 4.4.7.1.8 Station

Whether or not there is a Garda station in an individual's area was not established to be significant on encounters with Gardaí in the present study by way of Mann-Whitney tests,  $U = 1598$ ,  $z = -.071$ ,  $p = .934$ ,  $r = .000$  for PJ1 (See Table 103);  $U = 1471$ ,  $z = -.723$ ,  $p = .470$ ,  $r = .004$  for PJ2 (See Table 104).

Table 103 Station/PJ1 Mann-Whitney Results

<b>Test Statistics<sup>a</sup></b>	
	PJ1_TotalScore
Mann-Whitney U	1589.000
Wilcoxon W	5594.000
Z	-.071
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.943

a. Grouping Variable: Station

Table 104 Station/PJ2 Mann-Whitney Results

<b>Test Statistics<sup>a</sup></b>	
	PJ2_TotalScore
Mann-Whitney U	1471.500
Wilcoxon W	2137.500
Z	-.723
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.470

a. Grouping Variable: Station

Primarily, the demographic variables of age, social class, employment and residence were found to be influential on encounters with Gardaí in the present study. The next segment of this research will examine the influence of the previous police contact variables on encounters with Gardaí.

#### 4.4.7.2 Previous Police Contact – Experience Rate

Unsurprisingly, the type of encounter an individual experienced with Gardaí was extremely influential on their attitudes towards this encounter as determined by Kruskal-Wallis tests,  $H(2) = 52.02$ ,  $p = .000$  for PJ1 (See Table 105);  $H(2) = 71.82$ ,  $p = .000$  (See Table 106). Additionally, all differences between each of the groups of positive, neutral and negative was

deemed statistically significant (See Appendix (x1)). Furthermore, it was evident that those with positive (M = 21.95) (Figure 33) (M = 7.49) (Figure 34) encounters retained the most favourable attitude with the highest mean in the positively phrased PJ1 Scale and lowest mean in the negatively phrased PJ2 Scale. Conversely, those with negative (M = 8.24) (Figure 33) (M = 22.93) (Figure 34) encounters maintained the lowest mean in the PJ1 Scale and highest mean in the PJ2 Scale indicating their negative attitude and pessimism towards their encounter with Gardaí. Lastly, those with neutral (M = 14.65) (Figure 33) (M = 15.57) (Figure 34) encounters retained moderate attitudes.

Table 105 Encounter Rate/PJ1 Kruskal-Wallis Results

<b>Hypothesis Test Summary</b>				
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PJ1_TotalScore is the same across categories of Previous_Experience_Rate.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 33 Encounter Type/PJ1 Means

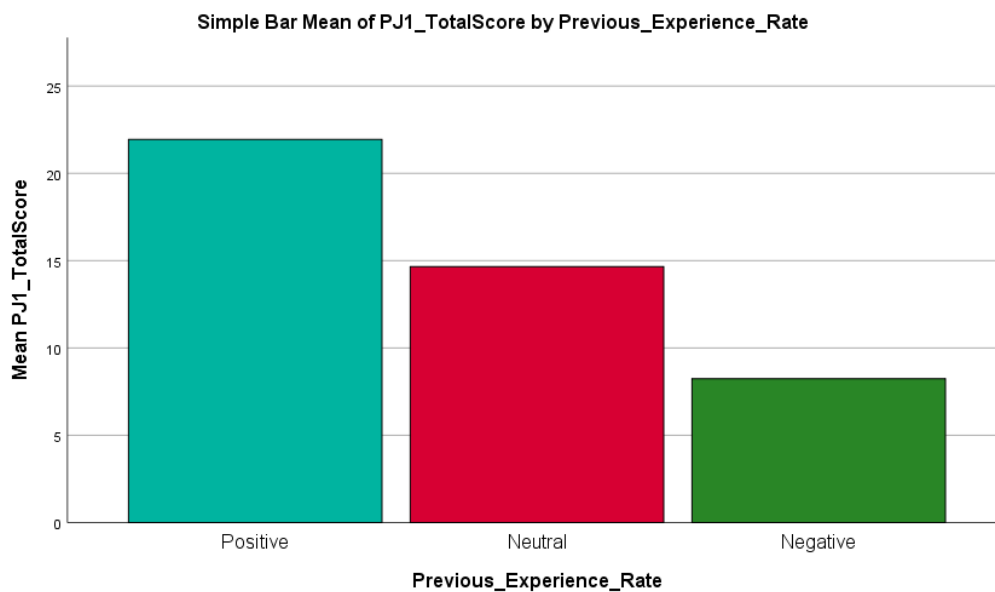


Table 106 Encounter Rate/PJ2 Kruskal-Wallis Results

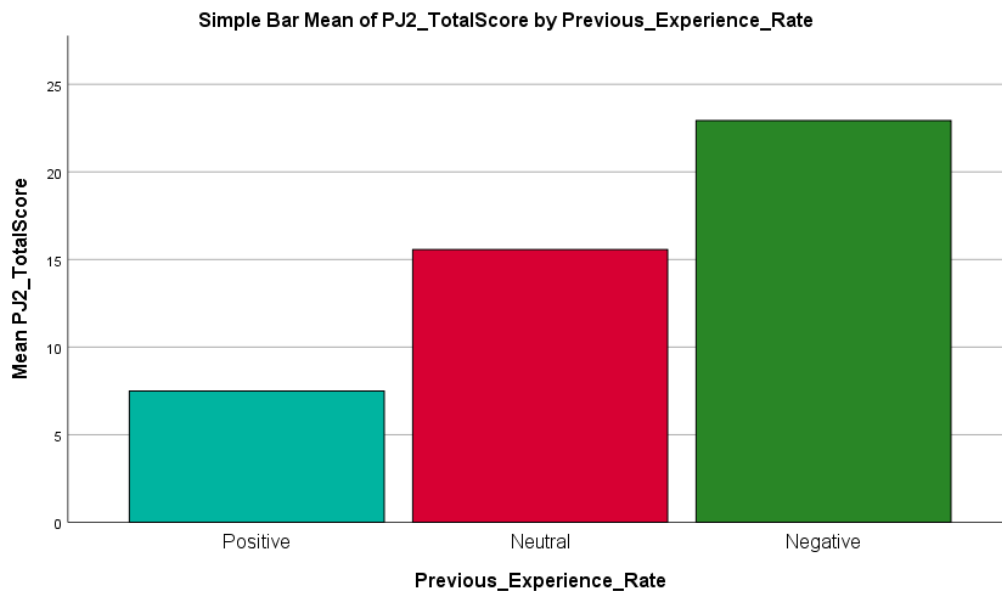
<b>Hypothesis Test Summary</b>				
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision



1	The distribution of PJ2_TotalScore is the same across categories of Previous_Experience_Rate.	Independent-Samples Test	Kruskal-Wallis	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
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Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

**Figure 34 Encounter Type/PJ2 Means**



**4.4.7.2.1 Time Passed Since Encounter**

The time passed since an encounter with Gardaí was also found to be influential on this occasion by way of Mann-Whitney tests,  $U = 1190$ ,  $z = -2.127$ ,  $p = .033$ ,  $r = .036$  for PJ1 (See Table 107);  $U = 1097$ ,  $z = -2.670$ ,  $p = .008$ ,  $r = .057$  for PJ2 (See Table 108). According to mean scores it was clear that participants who experienced contact within the last year ( $M = 18.19$ ) (Figure 35) ( $M = 11.51$ ) (Figure 36) held more favourable attitudes than those who experienced contact before last year ( $M = 15.4$ ) (Figure 35) ( $M = 15.26$ ) (Figure 36).

**Table 107 Time Passed/PJ1 Mann-Whitney Results**

<b>Test Statistics<sup>a</sup></b>	
	PJ1_TotalScore
Mann-Whitney U	1190.000
Wilcoxon W	1820.000
Z	-2.127
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.033

a. Grouping Variable:  
Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter

Figure 35 Time Passed/PJ1 Means

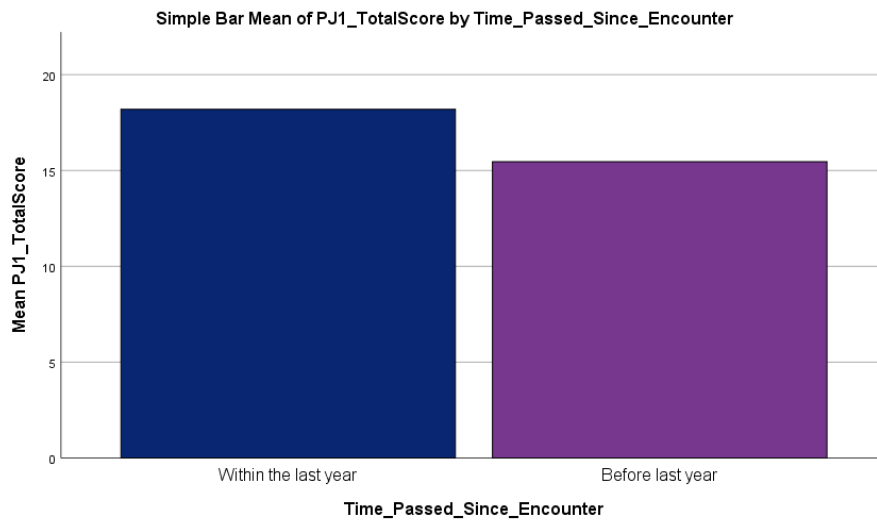


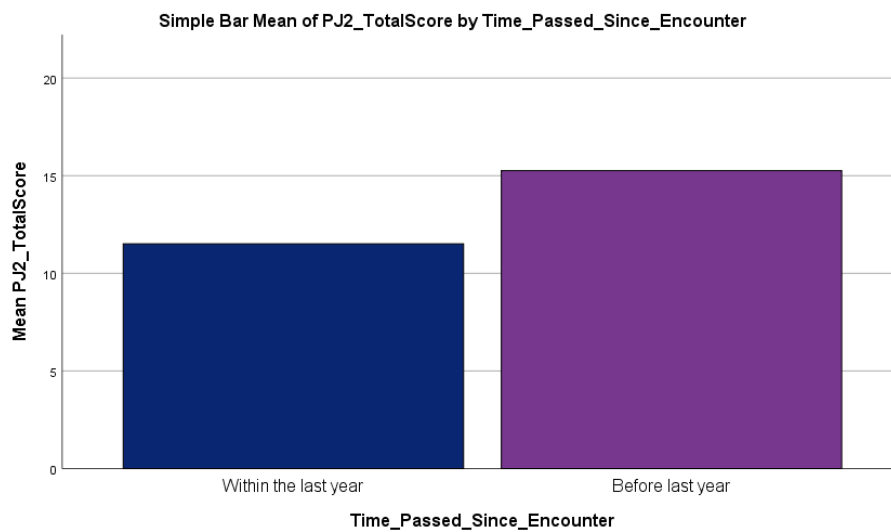
Table 108 Time Passed/PJ2 Mann-Whitney Results

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	PJ2_TotalScore
Mann-Whitney U	1097.000
Wilcoxon W	5192.000
Z	-2.670
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.008

a. Grouping Variable:  
Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter

Figure 36 Time Passed/PJ2 Means



#### 4.4.7.2.2 Encounter Identity

A person's status, whether that be victim, witness, charged with an offence or none of the above, was discovered to be influential on their attitudes to encounters with Gardaí as concluded by Kruskal-Wallis tests;  $H(3) = 9.87, p = .000$  for PJ1 (See Table 109);  $H(3) = 17.59, p = .000$  for PJ2 (See Table 110). Additionally, those who were charged with an offence varied significantly from the other groups on both scales (See Appendix (xli)). Furthermore, mean scores illustrated that victims ( $M = 17.57$ ) (Figure 37) ( $M = 13.86$ ) (Figure 38), witnesses ( $M = 18.32$ ) (Figure 37) ( $M = 11.21$ ) (Figure 38) and people who selected none of the above ( $M = 18.99$ ) (Figure 37) ( $M = 10.82$ ) (Figure 38) retained similar positive and moderate attitudes, while those charged with an offence ( $M = 6.46$ ) (Figure 37) ( $M = 23.69$ ) (Figure 38) maintained an extremely negative attitude.

Table 109 Encounter Result/PJ1 Kruskal-Wallis Result

<b>Hypothesis Test Summary</b>				
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PJ1_TotalScore is the same across categories of Encounter_Identity.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 37 Encounter Identity/PJ1 Means

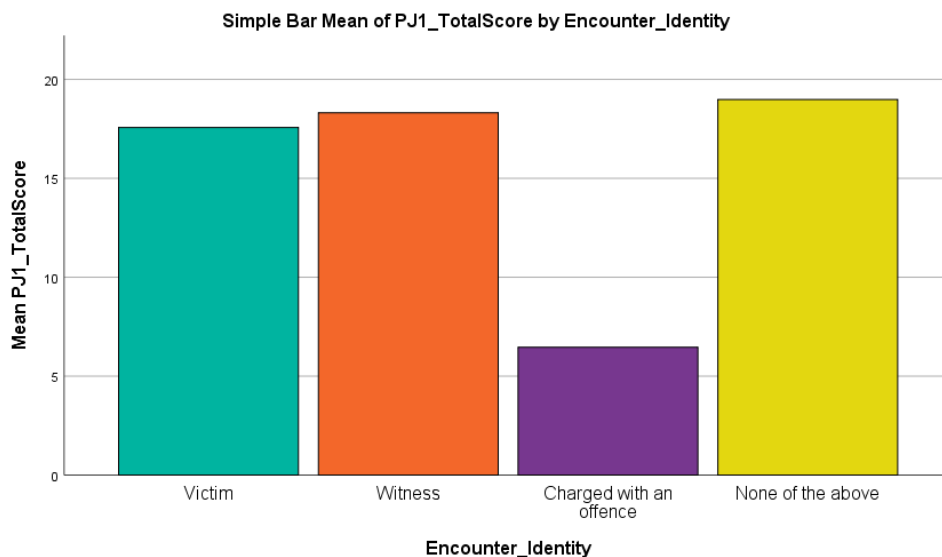


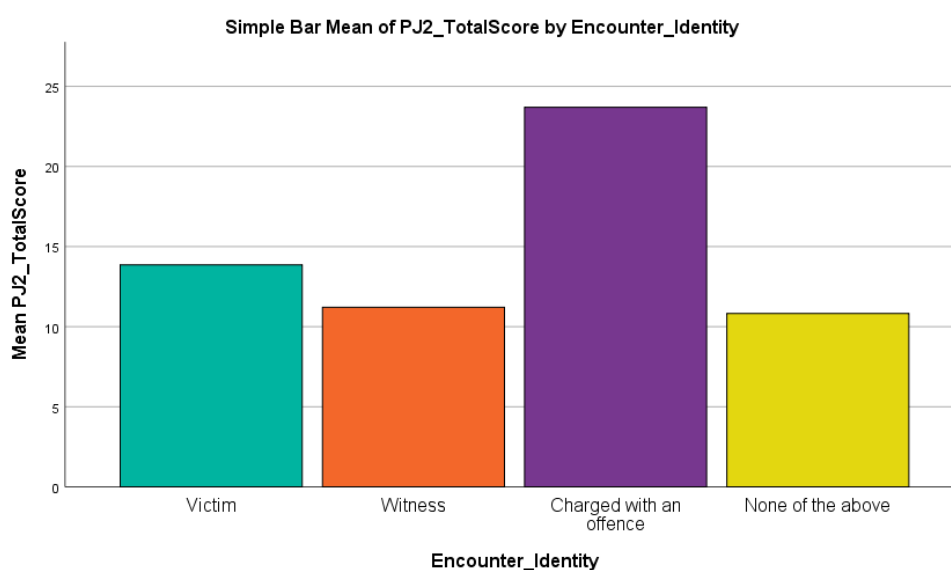
Table 110 Encounter Result/PJ2 Kruskal-Wallis Result

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of PJ2_TotalScore is the same across categories of Encounter_Identity.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .050.

Figure 38 Encounter Identity/PJ2 Means



In brief, all variables pertaining to previous police contact were influential on attitudes to encounters with Gardaí, which in essence is rather unsurprising. In the proceeding section, the combined effect of variables will be explored.

4.4.7.3 Combined Effects

To explore the combined effects of variables on perceptions of encounters with Gardaí a two-way between-groups ANOVA was employed. For this analysis variables were separated into gender, age and race; class, employment and education; residence and station; encounter rate, time passed since encounter and encounter identity. It must be considered that the homogeneity of variances was violated in all cases (See Appendix (xlii)).

#### 4.4.7.3.1 Gender, Age and Race

The combined effect of gender, age and race was not significant,  $F(2,99) = 2.73, p = .070$  (PJ1)(See Table 111);  $F(2,99) = 2.42, p = .095$  (PJ2) (See Table 112), on encounters with Gardaí in the present study. However, it was deduced that age was significant on both scales,  $F(3,99) = 8.33, p = .000$  for PJ1;  $F(3,99) = 7.76, p = .000$  for PJ2, in addition to age and race on the PJ1 Scale,  $F(6,99) = 2.29, p = .041$ . Further, interaction plots were created and depicted fascinating results. Regarding the PJ1 Scale, higher scores and more positive attitudes were identified with females aged 55+ (Figure 100), Other Black Females (Figure 101) and Whites aged 55+ (Figure 102) (See Appendix (xliii)), whereas negative attitudes and lower scores were associated with Other Whites aged 25-44 (Figure 102), Male Travellers (Figures 101) and Females aged 25-44 (Figure 100) (Appendix (xliii)). In relation to the PJ2 Scale, high scores and negative attitudes were found amongst females aged 25-44 (Figure 103), Male Travellers (Figure 104), Other Whites aged 25-44 and Other Blacks aged 18-24 (Figure 105) (Appendix (xliii)). Lower Scores and positive attitudes were seen amid Other Blacks aged 45-54 (Figure 105), Other Black females (Figure 104) and females aged 55+ (Figure 103) (See Appendix (xliii)).

Table 111 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Influence of Gender, Age and Race on PJ1 Scale

#### Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PJ1\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	2024.658 <sup>a</sup>	25	80.986	2.372	.001	.375
Intercept	6239.003	1	6239.003	182.747	.000	.649
Gender	.610	1	.610	.018	.894	.000
Age	853.170	3	284.390	8.330	.000	.202
Race	285.127	6	47.521	1.392	.225	.078
Gender * Age	113.638	3	37.879	1.110	.349	.033
Gender * Race	50.073	4	12.518	.367	.832	.015
Age * Race	468.774	6	78.129	2.288	.041	.122
Gender * Age * Race	186.286	2	93.143	2.728	.070	.052
Error	3379.870	99	34.140			
Total	43354.000	125				
Corrected Total	5404.528	124				

a. R Squared = .375 (Adjusted R Squared = .217)

Table 112 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Influence of Gender, Age and Race on PJ2 Scale

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: PJ2\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	2491.408 <sup>a</sup>	25	99.656	2.386	.001	.376
Intercept	5678.837	1	5678.837	135.950	.000	.579
Gender	28.674	1	28.674	.686	.409	.007
Age	972.040	3	324.013	7.757	.000	.190
Race	319.548	6	53.258	1.275	.276	.072
Gender * Age	113.445	3	37.815	.905	.441	.027
Gender * Race	95.214	4	23.804	.570	.685	.023
Age * Race	469.265	6	78.211	1.872	.093	.102
Gender * Age * Race	201.825	2	100.913	2.416	.095	.047
Error	4135.392	99	41.772			
Total	26346.000	125				
Corrected Total	6626.800	124				

a. R Squared = .376 (Adjusted R Squared = .218)

4.4.7.3.2 Class, Employment and Education

The combined effect of these variables had no influence on encounters with Gardaí,  $F(2,87) = 2.90, p = .060$  (PJ1) (See Table 113);  $F(2,87) = 1.68, p = .193$  (PJ2) (See Table 114). The only variable found to be significant was employment,  $F(6,87) = 4.39, p = .001$  (PJ1) (See Table 113);  $F(6, 87) = 3.33, p = .005$  (PJ2) (See Table 114). For the PJ1 Scale, positive attitudes were found among those retired in the Working Class (Figure 106), participants in the Middle Class with no formal certifications (Figure 107) and participants retired with a Diploma (Figure 108) (See Appendix (xliv)), whereas those unemployed with a leaving cert (Figure 108), unemployed with no formal certifications (Figure 108), those in the Lower Class with no formal certifications (Figure 107), those unemployed in the Lower Class and those Unemployed in the Working Class (Figure 106) (See Appendix (xliv)) retained negative attitudes. For the PJ2 Scale, negative attitudes were maintained by respondents unemployed in the Lower Class and the Working Class (Figure 109), in the Lower Class with no formal certifications (Figure 110), unemployed with a Leaving Cert and unemployed with no formal certifications (Figure 111) (See Appendix (xliv)). Positive attitudes and lower scale scores rested with those retired with

a Diploma (Figure 111), unable to work with no formal certifications (Figure 111), Middle Class with no formal certifications (Figure 110), unable to work in the Working Class and retired in the Working Class (Figure 109) (See Appendix (xliv)).

Table 113 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Influence of Class, Employment and Education on PJ1 Scale

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: PJ1\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	3034.450 <sup>a</sup>	37	82.012	3.010	.000	.561
Intercept	8015.915	1	8015.915	294.245	.000	.772
Class	51.930	3	17.310	.635	.594	.021
Employment	717.525	6	119.587	4.390	.001	.232
Education	145.636	5	29.127	1.069	.383	.058
Class * Employment	78.540	5	15.708	.577	.718	.032
Class * Education	45.960	3	15.320	.562	.641	.019
Employment * Education	275.510	6	45.918	1.686	.134	.104
Class * Employment * Education	157.913	2	78.956	2.898	.060	.062
Error	2370.078	87	27.242			
Total	43354.000	125				
Corrected Total	5404.528	124				

a. R Squared = .561 (Adjusted R Squared = .375)

Table 114 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Influence of Class, Employment and Education on PJ2 Scale

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: PJ2\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	3710.760 <sup>a</sup>	37	100.291	2.992	.000	.560
Intercept	5533.792	1	5533.792	165.101	.000	.655
Class	112.868	3	37.623	1.122	.344	.037
Employment	669.783	6	111.631	3.330	.005	.187
Education	226.535	5	45.307	1.352	.250	.072
Class * Employment	117.009	5	23.402	.698	.626	.039
Class * Education	96.173	3	32.058	.956	.417	.032

Employment * Education	395.551	6	65.925	1.967	.079	.119
Class * Employment * Education	112.313	2	56.156	1.675	.193	.037
Error	2916.040	87	33.518			
Total	26346.000	125				
Corrected Total	6626.800	124				

a. R Squared = .560 (Adjusted R Squared = .373)

#### 4.4.7.3.3 Residence and Station

The combined effect of residence and station had no significance on encounters with Gardaí,  $F(1,121) = .05, p = .820$  (PJ1)(See Table 115);  $F(1,121) = .03, p = .853$  (PJ2)(See Table 116). Furthermore, concerning the PJ1 Scale, positive perceptions and high scores were identified with rural participants with a Garda station (Figure 112) and negative, albeit moderate attitudes and lower scores were found with those in urban areas without a station (Figure 112) (See Appendix (xlv)). In terms of the PJ2 Scale, higher scores and negative/moderate attitudes belonged to those in urban areas without a station (Figure 113) and positive attitudes remained with participants in rural areas with a station (Figure 113) (See Appendix (xlv)).

Table 115 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Influence of Residence and Station on PJ1 Scale

#### Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PJ1\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	347.593 <sup>a</sup>	3	115.864	2.772	.044	.064
Intercept	8062.483	1	8062.483	192.915	.000	.615
Residence	78.077	1	78.077	1.868	.174	.015
Station	11.199	1	11.199	.268	.606	.002
Residence * Station	2.163	1	2.163	.052	.820	.000
Error	5056.935	121	41.793			
Total	43354.000	125				
Corrected Total	5404.528	124				

a. R Squared = .064 (Adjusted R Squared = .041)



Table 116 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Influence of Residence and Station on PJ2 Scale

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: PJ2\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	515.678 <sup>a</sup>	3	171.893	3.403	.020	.078
Intercept	4614.112	1	4614.112	91.359	.000	.430
Residence	114.408	1	114.408	2.265	.135	.018
Station	3.138	1	3.138	.062	.804	.001
Residence * Station	1.730	1	1.730	.034	.853	.000
Error	6111.122	121	50.505			
Total	26346.000	125				
Corrected Total	6626.800	124				

a. R Squared = .078 (Adjusted R Squared = .055)

4.4.7.3.4 Encounter Rate, Time Passed and Encounter Identity

The combined effect of these variables was not influential on encounters with Gardaí,  $F(4, 104) = 1.90, p = .115$  (PJ1)(See Table 117);  $F(4,104) = .45, p = .771$  (PJ2)(See Table 118). However, encounter rate was always significant,  $F(2,104) = 77.55, p = .000$  (PJ1)(See Table 117);  $F(2,104) = 85.45, p = .000$  (PJ2)(See Table 118), and identity,  $F(3,104) = 4.02, p = .009$ , and identity and rate,  $F(5,104) = 2.32, p = .049$ , were significant on PJ1 Scale (See Table 117). Moreover, on the PJ1 Scale, positive attitudes were discovered amongst participants with positive contact before last year (Figure 125), witnesses with positive contact (Figure 126) and victims who experienced contact before last year (Figure 127) (See Appendix (xlvi)). Meanwhile, negative attitudes were associated with respondents charged with an offence before last year (Figure 127), charged with an offence and had negative contact (Figure 126), witnesses with negative contact (Figure 126) and participants who had negative contact before last year (Figure 125) (See Appendix (xlvi)). In relation to the PJ2 Scale, negative attitudes were associated with participants who had negative contact within the last year (Figure 128), charged with an offence and experienced negative contact (Figure 129) and those charged with an offence before last year (Figure 130) (See Appendix (xlvi)), whereas victims who experienced contact before last year (Figure 130), witnesses with positive contact (Figure 129) and respondents with positive contact before last year (Figure 128) (See Appendix (xlvi)) possessed positive attitudes.

**Table 117 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Influence of Encounter Rate, Time Passed and Encounter Identity on PJ1 Scale**

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: PJ1\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	4480.475 <sup>a</sup>	20	224.024	25.213	.000	.829
Intercept	8837.729	1	8837.729	994.666	.000	.905
Previous_Experience_Rate	1378.148	2	689.074	77.554	.000	.599
Time_Passed_Since_Encounter	17.580	1	17.580	1.979	.163	.019
Encounter_Identity	107.173	3	35.724	4.021	.009	.104
Previous_Experience_Rate * Time_Passed_Since_Encounter	23.298	2	11.649	1.311	.274	.025
Previous_Experience_Rate * Encounter_Identity	102.977	5	20.595	2.318	.049	.100
Time_Passed_Since_Encounter * Encounter_Identity	26.536	3	8.845	.996	.398	.028
Previous_Experience_Rate * Time_Passed_Since_Encounter * Encounter_Identity	67.648	4	16.912	1.903	.115	.068
Error	924.053	104	8.885			
Total	43354.000	125				
Corrected Total	5404.528	124				

a. R Squared = .829 (Adjusted R Squared = .796)

**Table 118 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Influence of Encounter Rate, Time Passed and Encounter Identity on PJ2 Scale**

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: PJ2\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	5425.430 <sup>a</sup>	20	271.272	23.483	.000	.819
Intercept	10451.905	1	10451.905	904.799	.000	.897
Previous_Experience_Rate	1976.341	2	988.170	85.544	.000	.622
Time_Passed_Since_Encounter	19.093	1	19.093	1.653	.201	.016

Encounter_Identity	14.105	3	4.702	.407	.748	.012
Previous_Experience_Rate * Time_Passed_Since_Encounter	5.111	2	2.556	.221	.802	.004
Previous_Experience_Rate * Encounter_Identity	58.851	5	11.770	1.019	.410	.047
Time_Passed_Since_Encounter * Encounter_Identity	60.797	3	20.266	1.754	.161	.048
Previous_Experience_Rate * Time_Passed_Since_Encounter * Encounter_Identity	20.852	4	5.213	.451	.771	.017
Error	1201.370	104	11.552			
Total	26346.000	125				
Corrected Total	6626.800	124				

a. R Squared = .819 (Adjusted R Squared = .784)

Although some variables were significant on their own, the combined effect was not influential on perceptions of encounters with Gardaí in the present study.

#### **4.5 Conclusion**

To conclude, attitudes towards An Garda Síochána were ambiguous as perceptions were initially high but, positivity diminished significantly when participants encountered negatively phrased statements contained in the PAP (Negative) Scale. Further, high levels of satisfaction were identified regarding Garda accountability. In relation to variables, differentiations were identified between attitudes to Gardaí and Garda accountability as age, race, social class, employment, residence, type of encounter, time passed since encounter and encounter identity were seen as influential on attitudes towards Gardaí. Meanwhile, age, social class, employment, education, type of encounter and encounter identity were impactful on attitudes to Garda accountability. Furthermore, it was found that attitudes towards Gardaí were influential on attitudes towards Garda accountability. Regarding Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions, this study discovered that attitudes varied on the topic and the variables of gender, age, race, employment, type of contact, time passed since contact and encounter identity were influential on these attitudes. Lastly, concerning encounters with Gardaí, a small majority of respondents believed they had been treated fairly by Gardaí, while others were not so positive in their assessments. Furthermore, the variables of age, social class, employment, residence, type of contact, time passed since contact and encounter identity were influential on

these perceptions. These findings will be further discussed and compared to previous literature in the proceeding Discussion chapter.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### ***5.1 Introduction***

This chapter will discuss the main findings of the research and make comparisons to previous literature explored in the literature review. Firstly, attitudes to Gardaí and Garda accountability will be discussed. Secondly, the impact of variables on these attitudes will be examined. Thirdly, perceptions of encounters with Gardaí and the demographic influences on these perceptions will be scrutinized. Fourthly, attitudes towards Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions will be analysed, in addition to the impact of variables on these attitudes. Fifthly, limitations identified within the research will be explored. Following on, recommendations for future research will be highlighted. Lastly, this chapter will end by stating the main conclusions from the study.

### ***5.2 Discussion***

#### ***5.2.1 Attitudes to An Garda Síochána***

Mulcahy (2016, pp 275) described Ireland's confidence in the police as "strikingly and stubbornly high", but findings from the present study found attitudes to be more ambiguous and sometimes inconsistent. While positive attitudes were found, this positivity deteriorated significantly upon the introduction of negatively phrased statements. Furthermore, it was evident that the results from the present study differed to those circulated by both An Garda Síochána (2020) and Bohan and Yorke (1987). For example, regarding Gardaí and communities, An Garda Síochána (2020) found that 80% of participants were satisfied with Garda service to local communities and a further 73% believed Gardaí were community-focused. In contrast, this study discovered that only 44% of respondents considered that Gardaí make a genuine effort to find out the needs of the community, while only 26.7% of Bohan and Yorke's (1987) sample agreed with this. Another difference relates to Garda characteristics as An Garda Síochána (2020) stated 94% believed Gardaí to be friendly or helpful, while 63.2% of the current sample and 73.7% (Bohan and Yorke 1987) deemed Gardaí helpful with a further 53.6% (current sample) and 69.3% (Bohan and Yorke 1987) regarding them as friendly. In relation to trust in police, An Garda Síochána (2020) found that 91% of participants trusted

Gardaí and a European Social Survey found Irish respondents to be second only to Nordic countries in terms of trust levels for Gardaí, exposing an extremely high level of trust in the organisation (Breen and Healy 2016; Hamilton and Black 2021) Conversely, only 48.8% of this sample and 67.8% of Bohan and Yorke's sample considered Gardaí trustworthy, undermining these high levels of reported trust. Although figures fluctuated between the present study and Bohan and Yorke (1987), striking similarities are apparent between the studies. Most notably, both studies identified high levels of confidence and positive attitudes towards Gardaí when asked positively phrased questions. However, when negatively phrased questions were introduced confidence in Gardaí and positive attitudes significantly decreased amongst the samples. For instance, Bohan and Yorke (1987) discovered that 73.6% of respondents believed that Gardaí did not get enough thanks for risking their lives, but also deduced that 67.7% considered Gardaí go easier on certain segments of the population. Likewise, this study found that 62.4% of participants believed that Gardaí do not get enough thanks for risking their lives, and similarly that 66.4% acknowledged that Gardaí go easier on certain segments of the population. These examples highlight how positive attitudes were identified amongst the samples, but when negatively phrased questions were presented, attitudes became more negative in both studies.

From these statistics it is evident that the results presented in the current study differed to previous research. Although attitudes were not entirely negative in the present study, with positive attitudes found in relation to positively phrased questions, it was apparent that results produced by An Garda Síochána (2020) show the public to have a much more positive attitude to Gardaí as opposed to the findings of the current research. Even in relation to positively phrased assertions it was apparent that attitudes were more positive in An Garda Síochána's (2020) study. This indicates that attitudes have become more negative over the last few years. As the Gardaí's (2020) study was conducted in 2019, before the outbreak of the Covid-19 pandemic, and the present study was conducted in 2021, at the height of Covid-19 and lockdowns, it is possible that this may have had an influence in diminishing attitudes to Gardaí however, this cannot be said for certain. Crucially, as with Bohan and Yorke (1987), this study established that confidence in Gardaí significantly decreases when asked more specific and negatively phrased questions concerning them. This finding is not surprising as question wording can be hugely influential (Bordens and Horowitz 2001; Bohan and Yorke 1987) and this study illustrated that fact as positive attitudes were found with positively phrased

statements, while negative attitudes were identified with negatively phrased assertions. Had it not been for the negatively phrased questions in the current study, it is highly likely that the results produced in this study would have mirrored that of generic Garda satisfaction surveys, i.e., high satisfaction and extremely positive attitudes for Gardaí. As this study was not limited to positively phrased statements, it provided an additional dimension and perhaps a more realistic insight into how the Irish public view An Garda Síochána. This study further serves to highlight the importance of question wording with changes in attitudes noted regarding the phrasing of questions.

### *5.2.2 Attitudes to Garda Accountability*

In the present study most participants ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ with the scale items indicating positive attitudes to GSOC and Garda accountability. Additionally, discrepancies were identified between the current sample and previous research (Hibberd 2008; Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020; Police Ombudsman for Northern Ireland 2020). While not directly comparable, it was interesting to note that the public sample in the present study possessed much more favourable attitudes than Hibberd’s (2008) PSNI sample. For example, 55.2% of this sample believed that the work of GSOC was likely to increase public confidence in Gardaí, while just 34.2% of Hibberd’s (2008) sample considered the PONI to increase public confidence. Additionally, 56% of this sample agreed that GSOC has improved the accountability of Gardaí, whereas 36.8% of PSNI stated the PONI has improved police accountability (Hibberd 2008). Furthermore, 96.4% of this sample declared that complaints should be investigated independently highlighting the need for a fully independent body of oversight. In contrast, Hibberd (2008) discovered that only 67.7% of PSNI agreed with this, showing more reluctance than the current sample to independent oversight. Thus, Hibberd’s (2008) police sample were much more negative to police accountability than the current study’s public sample. Supplementary studies have also noted this phenomenon as the public possess more motivation to ensure that police are both answerable and accountable (Morin *et al* 2017).

Further contrasts were found with findings published by Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission (2020) and Police Ombudsman for Northern Ireland (2020). Firstly, GSOC and PONI deduced that 81% and 85% of their samples considered them to conduct impartial investigations (Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2020; Police Ombudsman for

Northern Ireland 2020), whereas only 49.6% of this sample judged GSOC to conduct impartial investigations. Although GSOC found that 84% agreed they have increased the accountability of Gardaí, only 56% of this sample considered that GSOC have improved the accountability of Gardaí, questioning GSOC's overall impact on Garda accountability. Further, the PONI found that 87% believe that the PONI has ensured police do a good job, whereas only 55.2% of this sample believe GSOC has helped improve policing. Therefore, it seems figures produced by the relevant organisations, GSOC and PONI, are much more inflated than those circulated by the present study.

These results serve to highlight that although attitudes towards Garda accountability were positive in the present study, figures produced in studies conducted by GSOC and PONI were much more inflated. It is fair to say that figures circulated by the relevant organisations may not give a true indication into how the public perceive them as figures from the current study undermine the high percentages associated with their studies. It was also apparent that the public possess more favourable attitudes to police accountability than the police themselves as was seen through comparisons with Hibberd (2008). However, unlike the survey concerning attitudes to Gardaí, the survey employed to measure attitudes to Garda accountability only contained positively phrased questions. The negatively phrased questions proved paramount in relation to attitudes to Gardaí and amending the survey to include negatively phrased questions about Garda accountability would provide greater insight in future research. Furthermore, this study found that attitudes towards Gardaí can influence attitudes to Garda accountability, which is similar to findings from De Angelis and Wolf (2016) who established that attitudes to police accountability impact on attitudes to police. The next section will discuss the influence of variables.

### *5.2.3 Influence of Gender on Attitudes to Gardaí and Garda Accountability*

Previous literature has illustrated a gender divide regarding perceptions of police with males usually retaining a more negative outlook (Denno 1994; Hurst *et al* 2000; Miller and Davis 2008; Bohan and Yorke 1987). However, studies have shown gender to have no influence on attitudes to police (An Garda Síochána 2020; Benedict *et al* 2000; Davis 1990; Parker *et al* 1995; Murty *et al* 1990; Jesilow *et al* 1995; Worrall 1999; Mbuba 2010). Crucially, the current study supports this as it was discovered that gender had no significance on attitudes



to Gardaí, with the variable only influential on one scale (PAP (Positive) Scale). Furthermore, concerning police accountability, Hibberd (2008) identified gender to be significant on attitudes with females viewing bodies slightly more favourably. However, additional studies have found no gender divide, for example Police Ombudsman for Northern Ireland (2020) discovered that the same number of males and females agreed they would be treated fairly if they made a complaint. Unfortunately, research has ignored this area in the Republic of Ireland, however, the present study found that gender played no significance on attitudes to Garda accountability.

#### *5.2.4 Influence of Age on Attitudes to Gardaí and Garda Accountability*

Early studies (McCaghy *et al* 1968; Bayley and Mendelsohn 1969) did not consider age to have any influence on attitudes to police. However, the present study found age to be significantly influential as older age categories had the most positive attitudes to Gardaí. This is supported by more recent research which considered age influential and concluded that older people possess more positive attitudes (Jesilow *et al* 1995; Bohan and Yorke 1987; An Garda Síochána 2020; Cao 2001; Cao *et al* 1996; Dowler 2002; Webb and Marshall 1995; Hurst and Frank 2000; Nofziger and Williams 2005; O'Connor 2008). Furthermore, An Garda Síochána (2020) found that an increase in age lead to an increase in trust to Gardaí. In contrast, studies have identified that people aged between 25-34 and 18-24 expressed the highest satisfaction with police (BMG Research 2019; An Garda Síochána 2020), which is not in line with findings of the current study as these age groups retained more pessimistic outlooks overall. This study found the most favourable attitudes belonged to those in the older age categories (55+) and fundamentally ties in with An Garda Síochána (2020) findings that an increase in age leads to an increase in trust in Gardaí. Likewise with attitudes to Gardaí, age was significant in relation to attitudes to Garda accountability. This study discovered that older participants, particularly those aged 55+, held the most favourable attitudes towards GSOC. This is supported by Police Ombudsman for Northern Ireland (2020) which found that older participants also retained the most positive opinions. Additionally, Police Ombudsman for Northern Ireland (2020) highlighted that younger categories were more pessimistic and this was also identified in the present study. Overall, age was influential on attitudes to Gardaí and Garda accountability in

the present study with older participants maintaining more positive attitudes, in line with more up to date research on the topic.

#### *5.2.5 Influence of Race/Ethnicity on Attitudes to Gardaí and Garda Accountability*

It has been suggested that race is the most important predictor of an individual's attitude toward police (Webb and Marshall 1995; Lee and Gibbs 2015), with racial minorities retaining more negative attitudes to police than their white equivalents (Miller and Davis 2008; Reisig and Parks 2000; Schuck *et al* 2008; Mbuba 2010; O'Connor 2008; Mulcahy and O' Mahony 2005). Conversely, there have been findings which highlight the insignificance of race (Chandek 1999; Jesilow *et al* 1995) and some studies have found minorities to have more favourable attitudes (Sims *et al* 2002). Accordingly, the present study deduced race to be significant, with minorities looking less favourably on Gardaí than the majority 'White Irish', however, no significance was identified regarding police characteristics (PC Scale). US based research suggests that the more negative attitudes belong to black participants (Frank *et al* 2005; Leiber *et al* 1998; Tuch and Weitzer 1997; Webb and Marshall 1995; Murty *et al* 1990), while the current study found Travellers to hold the most negative attitude. However, it must be noted that only one Traveller participated in this study which questions the validity of this finding and therefore cannot accurately represent the views of the entire group. Additionally, this study found the most positive attitudes were amongst those who identified as White Irish, while 'Black' and 'Asian' groups retained moderate, slightly negative perceptions. This could indicate that Gardaí are tougher on ethnic minorities as opposed to the majority 'White Irish'. Furthermore, limited research has been conducted concerning the effect of race on attitudes to police accountability. Nevertheless, De Angelis (2015) found race to have some significance as, in their study, Latino participants were less likely to be content with police accountability than white participants. In contrast, race was not found to be influential regarding attitudes to Garda accountability in the present study. Thus, race was impactful on attitudes to Gardaí with minorities having less optimistic attitudes when compared to the majority 'White Irish', however, race had no influence on attitudes to Garda accountability in this study. In particular, this study highlighted that relations between Travellers and Gardaí are still problematic and questions the effectiveness of initiatives brought in to combat discrimination and improve

relations between the two as Travellers were found to hold the most negative attitude for Gardaí in the present study.

#### *5.2.6 Influence of Social Class, Employment and Education on Attitudes to Gardaí and Garda Accountability*

The variables of social class and employment were influential on attitudes to Gardaí in the present study, however, education was not deemed significant. Literature has stressed that, typically, those from the lower social classes with lower rates of income retain less favourable attitudes for police (Bohan and Yorke 1987; Payne and Gainey 2007; Gossett 2009; Sampson and Jeglum-Bartusch 1998; Boateng 2016; Kilcommins *et al* 2018). Furthermore, it has been considered that as income increased so did confidence in police (Frank *et al* 2005; Murty *et al* 1990). Findings from the present study support these assertions as those unemployed in the lower social class retained the most negative attitudes for Gardaí, highlighting how those in lower classes with poorer rates of income view police more negatively. Additionally, the most favourable attitudes belonged to participants retired in the middle class. Regarding education, previous research on the topic is ambiguous. Certain studies established that those with higher education think more positively of police (Jesilow *et al* 1995), whilst other studies found higher confidence levels with those less educated (Cao 2001) and further research suggested it had no influence (Cao *et al* 1996; Correia *et al* 1996; O'Connor 2008). The current study found those with 'no formal certifications' produced the most positive attitude for Gardaí, suggesting those less educated to have the highest confidence levels, however, education was not deemed a statistically significant variable in this study. Furthermore, the combined effect of social class, employment and education was found to be significant on attitudes to Gardaí as the higher societal classes with better rates of income possessed the more favourable attitudes, particularly retired participants in the Working or Middle Class with no formal certifications.

In relation to attitudes towards Garda accountability, this study discovered that all three variables were significant, with the combined effect of the variables also being influential. Likewise with attitudes to Gardaí, those in the lower social class possessed the most negative attitudes, while those in the middle class retained the most positive perception. Regarding employment, participants who were 'unemployed' held the most negative attitude and those 'retired' maintained the most positive. These findings highlight that, as with attitudes to Gardaí,

those in the lower social classes and with lower rates of income view police accountability more negatively. In terms of education, respondents with ‘no formal certifications’ expressed the most positive attitude whereas participants with ‘other qualifications’ retained the most negative attitude, although it was more moderate in nature.

Ultimately, the present study discovered that those in the lower social classes with poorer levels of income view the police more negatively and this finding is supported by previous research on the topic (Bohan and Yorke 1987; Payne and Gainey 2007; Gossett 2009; Sampson and Jeglum-Bartusch 1998; Boateng 2016; Kilcommins *et al* 2018). This was also the case for attitudes to Garda accountability. In relation to education, this variable was not regarded as influential concerning attitudes to Gardaí, although it was significant on the PAP (Positive) Scale, however, it was noted that those less educated produced scores that indicated them to view police most favourably. This was also seen regarding attitudes to Garda accountability, although education was statistically significant in this instance. Therefore, individuals in the lower social classes and with lesser rates of income view Gardaí and Garda accountability with pessimism as opposed to those in higher social classes with more steady rates of income. Furthermore, those less educated view Gardaí and Garda accountability most optimistically, though educated participants still retained moderate/positive outlooks.

#### *5.2.7 Influence of Residence and Station on Attitudes to Gardaí and Garda Accountability*

Research has noted that a region in which a person resides, whether that be rural or urban, can significantly impact their attitude to police (An Garda Síochána 2020; Scottish Government 2020). In Ireland, people residing in rural areas tend to look more favourably on Gardaí with lower levels of dissatisfaction and higher degrees of trust (An Garda Síochána 2020). Conversely, a Scottish study discovered that those living in urban areas retained more confidence in police and showed a higher belief that police catch criminals and solve crimes (Scottish Government 2020). Findings produced from the present study support the influence of residence on attitudes to police, as it was deemed statistically significant, but is in line with Irish research on the topic as it found those in rural areas to possess more favourable attitudes to Gardaí. This could be the case as it was carried out on an Irish sample but nevertheless highlights the more favourable outlook of the rural populous as opposed to urban dwellers. A plausible explanation for this disparity could involve the lower crime rates associated with rural

areas (Weisheit and Wells 1996) and thus lead to a belief of greater Garda effectiveness. Furthermore, research has neglected the influence of residence on attitudes to Garda accountability, however, the present study did not find that it was statistically significant, although it seemed the rural populous viewed it slightly more favourably. Likewise, the impact of a Garda station in an individual's area on attitudes to Gardaí and Garda accountability has also been overlooked in research. Nevertheless, the current study found this variable to have no significance on attitudes to Gardaí or Garda accountability, with attitudes being similar regardless of the presence of a Garda station. Therefore, findings from the present study support the impact of residence on attitudes to Gardaí and is aligned with Irish research on the subject. In contrast, station presence did not adequately affect attitudes to Gardaí and the variables of residence and station were non-influential on attitudes to Garda accountability. Further, the combined effects of these variables had no influence on attitudes.

#### *5.2.8 Influence of Previous Police Contact on Attitudes to Gardaí and Garda Accountability*

Perhaps unsurprisingly, the type of encounter with Gardaí, whether that be positive, neutral or negative, was influential on attitudes to Gardaí and Garda accountability. Previous research has noted that positive encounters result in the formulation of positive attitudes, while, conversely, negative encounters result in the development of negative attitudes (Hinds 2009; Logan *et al* 2001; Miller and Davis 2008; Rosenbaum *et al* 2005; Schuck and Rosenbaum 2005; Mbuba 2010; Taylor 1986; Miller *et al* 2004). Therefore, the conclusions obtained from the present study were expected as those with positive encounters possessed much more favourable attitudes for Gardaí as opposed to those with negative contact who retained high levels of pessimism. This was also the case regarding attitudes to Garda accountability, although this subject has been neglected by prior research, so it is unclear whether this finding is universal or contained to this sample. Meanwhile, those with neutral contact maintained moderate attitudes, although it became increasingly negative regarding negatively phrased questions. Likewise with 'encounter type' on attitudes to Garda accountability, previous studies have overlooked the influence of time passed since encounters with Gardaí on attitudes. Nonetheless, the present study found this to be significant on attitudes to Gardaí, although it was not influential on attitudes to Garda accountability. Particularly, it was discovered that participants who encountered Gardaí 'within the last year' possessed more favourable attitudes

than those ‘before last year’. This may indicate that the way in which Gardaí have conducted themselves within the last year, especially during encounters, has improved and resulted in more positive attitudes. Finally, it was deduced that whether an individual was a victim, witness, charged with an offence or none of these, was influential on their perceptions of Gardaí and Garda accountability. Typically, those charged with an offence, or ‘suspects’, tend to hold an unfavourable view of police (Maxfield 1988; Dobash *et al* 1990; Scottish Government 2012), and findings from the current study supports this conclusion as those ‘charged with an offence’ held the most negative attitude. It has also been considered that victims are more likely to report lower satisfaction with police (Lai and Zhao 2010; Ren *et al* 2005; Weitzer and Tuch 2005; De Angelis and Wolf 2016; Scottish Government 2021), however, findings from this research contradict this claim as victims showed favourable attitudes similar in nature to witnesses and those who selected ‘none of the above’. These findings may add to research which has illustrated improved attitudes on the part of victims towards Gardaí as An Garda Síochána (2020) observed that 61% of victims were satisfied with Garda service. Again, this perspective is unknown in relation to Garda accountability, but this study found it to be similar with attitudes to Gardaí.

### *5.2.9 Encounters with Gardaí and Procedural Justice*

As previously stated, contact with police is extremely influential in establishing an individual’s attitude to police and if police act procedurally just during this contact it can lead to increased trust, higher satisfaction and better compliance with the law (Tyler and Huo 2002; Magner *et al* 1998; Tyler and Lind 1992; Tyler 1997; Murphy 2003; Murphy *et al* 2014; Hinds and Murphy 2007; McCluskey 2003; Paernoster *et al* 1997). When asked about encounters with Gardaí, a small majority of this sample agreed with positively phrased scale items on the PJ1 Scale and disagreed with the negatively phrased items on the PJ2 Scale. This could suggest that Gardaí operate procedurally fair during encounters as 64.8% of this sample believed they were treated fairly by Gardaí, 56.8% were given the opportunity to express their views before a decision was made and a further 54.4% believed their views were considered before a decision was made. Furthermore, 60.8% disagreed that they felt angry during encounters and an additional 60.8% stated they felt no resentment towards the meeting. Findings from this research tie in with Barkworth and Murphy (2015) who asserted that if people believed they

were treated fairly during an encounter they were less likely to convey negative emotions regarding that contact. Although the majority of participants were positive about their encounters with Gardaí, it was also apparent that not all participants felt this way. For example, 30.4% of participants did not believe that Gardaí considered their views before a decision was made and 34.4% felt anxious during the encounter. Therefore, findings from the current research cannot say with certainty that Gardaí act within the principles of procedural justice. Although a small majority of participants were positive in their assessment of Gardaí, this positivity was not shared by all participants suggesting that Gardaí act differently in relation to different members of society and this phenomenon will be discussed below.

Regarding the influence of demographic variables on perceptions of encounters, age, social class, employment and residence were influential. In terms of age, those aged 55+ retained the most positive perception which was also the case in An Garda Síochána (2020) who found this age category were more likely to agree Gardaí treat you fairly and that an increase in age led to an increase in agreement that Gardaí treat you with respect. Further, 60% of people who made a complaint to GSOC in 2021 were under the age of 40 indicating younger people to have more negative contact with Gardaí as they felt the need to make a complaint (Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2022). In relation to social class, this study discovered that those identifying as Lower Class had the more negative outlook regarding interactions with Gardaí, while other classes retained similar positive attitudes. Further, those with lower rates of income experienced negative contact with Gardaí especially those unemployed who experienced extremely negative contact. Literature has illustrated that those from the lower social classes with lower rates of income retain less favourable attitudes for police (Bohan and Yorke 1987; Payne and Gainey 2007; Gossett 2009; Sampson and Jeglum-Bartusch 1998; Boateng 2016; Kilcommins *et al* 2018) and findings from the current research suggest this is also the case regarding encounters with An Garda Síochána. Concerning residence, those in rural areas looked more favourably on their encounters with Gardaí than those in urban areas, which may be due to less crime in rural areas and thus less interactions with police (Liederbach and Frank 2003; Weisner *et al* 2020). Race did not hold any significance in this instance, which may be considered surprising as race was significant on attitudes to Gardaí. However, this finding may serve to highlight the jurisdictional differences between American and Irish research findings as race has been found to play a significant role in American research which suggests that minorities, such as African Americans and Latinos,

are at a much higher lifetime risk of being killed by police than their white counterparts (Edwards *et al* 2019). Furthermore, the encounter rate, with positive encounters resulting in positive attitudes and negative contact causing negative perceptions; time passed, those with contact within the last year possessing more favourable attitudes; and encounter identity, participants charged with an offence retaining the most negative attitude, were influential here. Thus, findings from the current study suggest that younger unemployed participants in the lower classes and who may have been charged with an offence have much more negative encounters with Gardaí as opposed to older, retired, Middle Class participants. This finding is backed up by research which concluded that encounters between Gardaí and marginalised groups (young people, ethnic minorities and those in deprived areas) are confrontational and often involve high levels of harassment and misconduct (Mulcahy and O' Mahony 2005; Bowling 1999; Chan 1996; Crowther 2000; Ellison 2001; Holdaway 1996; Loader 1996; Newburn 2002).

#### *5.2.10 Gardaí and Covid-19*

It was evident that attitudes towards police handling of Covid-19 restrictions varied significantly across jurisdictions, Ireland, Scotland and Teeside (England), with the current study's Irish sample possessing more negative attitudes. For example, 46% of the Scottish sample and 30% of the Teeside sample fully supported the approach taken by police, whereas only 22.4% of the Irish sample showed full support. Additionally, 24% of the Irish sample considered the police approach to be too heavy handed, as opposed to 2% of the Scottish and Teeside samples (Scottish Police Authority 2020; Chamberlain 2020). Moreover, attitudes were not entirely negative on the part of the Irish sample with 44% supporting Garda actions but considering them to go too far in some cases. Furthermore, only 5.6% of this sample believed police needed to take a tougher approach, while 28% of Scotland and 53% of Teeside considered it necessary (Scottish Police Authority 2020; Chamberlain 2020). Although attitudes of the Irish public were not entirely negative towards Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions, it was apparent that the population in Scotland maintained the most favourable attitude, with the Teeside sample also showing a slightly more positive attitude. Crucially, figures produced by UK studies were obtained in 2020, while the current study's statistics were gathered in 2021 following the introduction of a third lockdown. The Policing Authority (2021)



found that confidence decreased since the introduction of a third lockdown, with an increase in protests and an increase of suspicion towards Gardaí. In addition to the cross jurisdictional differences, the fact that the data was obtained at different times may further explain the disparities between the statistics and highlight how attitudes have shifted and became more negative on the topic. However, it must be noted that it is impossible to say whether these attitudes towards restrictions were directed solely towards Gardaí or whether they were aimed more towards the government who created the restrictions. It is possible that respondents may have felt the government restrictions went too far as opposed to Gardaí going too far and may have illustrated this in the survey. Although this may be speculation, it nevertheless must be considered.

Furthermore, the present study found the variables of gender, age, race, employment, encounter rate, time passed and encounter identity to be influential on attitudes to Garda enforcement of Covid-19 regulations. Unfortunately, the impact of variables is underexamined in this area. Nevertheless, in Scottish Police Authority's (2020) study gender was not significant as attitudes were similar between males and females, which contrasts to the findings of the present study. Further, slight differences were identified regarding age as those aged 35 and over were marginally more likely to fully support the approach taken by police, however, overall, it was unlikely that age was significant as perceptions were similar between age groups in relation to the other scale items (Scottish Police Authority 2020). Moreover, social class, education, residence and station were not found to be significant in the present study and is comparable to Scottish Police Authority (2020) as notable differences were not recorded regarding social grade and residence. Overall, the variables of gender, age, race, employment, encounter rate, time passed and encounter identity influenced participant attitudes to Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions and provides a valuable insight into this new and under-researched topic.

### ***5.3 Limitations of the Study***

Though the present study provides greater insight into public attitudes towards Gardaí and Garda accountability, the study itself is not without its shortcomings. In conjunction with previous pitfalls identified in the Methodology Chapter, such as sampling issues, weaknesses

of quantitative methodologies and problems associated with online research, further limitations will be discussed here.

Firstly, problems were identified with the sample size. Only a comparatively small sample size of N=125 was recruited for the present study. Having a small sample size can result in a number of issues, most notably, the collection of non-normal data (Altman and Bland 1995; Krithikadatta 2014) which was seen in the current study. As a result, non-parametric tests were used to analyse the data, and this is problematic as certain researchers have considered non-parametric tests to be less powerful than their parametric counterparts (Conover 1999; Savani and Barrett 2009). However, researchers have argued that non-parametric tests are just as powerful (Chin and Lee 2008). Additional problems associated with a small sample size relate to difficulties in the determination of a particular outcome, statistical irregularities and problems with alpha and reliability testing (Clancy 2019; Faber and Fonseca 2014; Yurdugul 2008). Furthermore, limitations were identified with the representativeness of the sample in the current study. Although representation from all ethnic groups, excluding 'Mixed Background' and 'Other', was achieved, 72% of participants identified as White Irish. This is concerning as the representation that was achieved from minority ethnic groups in Ireland may not be indicative of the entire group's attitudes towards Gardaí and may question the validity of the results produced in this research. Moreover, the use of a convenience sample in the present study was problematic. As previously discussed, this type of sampling possesses pitfalls such as hidden biases (Leiner 2014; Etikan *et al* 2015) which can lead to additional problems in relation to generalisability. Overall, it seems the statistical power of the research is limited with studies stating that a sample of 250 is needed to produce stable results (Schonbrodt and Perugini 2013; Rahman 2013).

Secondly, the utilisation of self-report measures may be considered a limitation in the current study. Self-report measures ask participants to directly report their behaviours, attitudes and beliefs and are commonly associated with Likert Scales (Lavrakas 2008). This approach is problematic as it increases the likelihood of thoughtless answering as participants may not respond accurately and honestly, instead they select what they believe to be the more socially desirable option (Aust *et al* 2013; Harde *et al* 2012; Ward and Pond 2015). This may undermine the accuracy of the results produced, however, scholars have argued that the use of online questionnaires, as was used in the present study, may alleviate the bias of social desirability (Atkeson *et al* 2014; Poder *et al* 2015). Furthermore, the length of time in which the survey

was available also possessed its limitations. The survey was only available for a limited amount of time, July to November 2021, to those with internet access and it is possible that more participants may have been recruited if it was open for longer. This in turn may have alleviated some of the problems associated with the sample size. Regrettably, due to the time constraints of the research this was not achievable. Lastly, the use of a negatively phrased scale regarding attitudes to Garda accountability, in addition to the positively phrased scale, would have been desirable. The use of this type of scale was paramount in relation to attitudes to Gardaí as it showed an attitude shift and gave greater insight into public perceptions (Bohan and Yorke 1987). Such an approach for attitudes to Garda accountability may have produced the same outcome as previous studies have highlighted the influence of question wording (Bordens and Horowitz 2001; Bohan and Yorke 1987).

These limitations need to be considered when interpreting the results of the present study. However, despite these limitations the study provides a deeper understanding into attitudes to Gardaí and Garda accountability and sheds light on areas that have been underexamined in Irish literature, particularly demographic influences on attitudes to Garda accountability.

#### ***5.4 Recommendations for Future Research***

One of the most significant findings of this research related to attitudes towards Gardaí. A clear shift in attitudes, from optimistic to pessimistic, was identified upon the introduction of negatively phrased questions. Although Garda satisfaction surveys do contain a very limited amount of negatively phrased questions, an even split between both positively and negatively phrased questions would be advantageous instead of having an abundance of positively phrased statements and only a few negatively phrased. This may produce a significantly deeper understanding into attitudes to Gardaí and give a more realistic view of how Gardaí are perceived by the public. Similarly, the use of such an approach regarding attitudes to Garda accountability is also desirable.

The small sample size in the present study was problematic. Findings from the current study are difficult to generalise due to the small sample size (N=125) and unbalanced racial divide. Thus, it is recommended that future research employ a larger sample size and achieve

more representation from minority ethnic groups in order to grasp a deeper insight into their perceptions of Gardaí.

Furthermore, this study did not assess the attitudes of young people, under the age of 18, towards Gardaí. Research has shown young people view Gardaí in a more negative light due to high rates of victimisation and high levels of Garda-initiated contact involving stop and question procedures (Hinds 2007; British Home Office 1995; Sanders and Young 2007; Feeney 2009). Although studies have assessed young people's attitudes to Gardaí (Feeney 2009; An Garda Síochána 2020), the use of a negatively phrased questionnaire, like that in the present study, could yield some interesting results. Further, assessing this age group's attitudes and knowledge of Garda oversight bodies would also be worthwhile.

Finally, a more in-depth analysis of encounters with Gardaí would be advantageous. Though the present study investigated encounters with Gardaí, it only scratched the surface and a more in-depth study, like those regarding procedural justice, would be beneficial and provide greater insight into how Gardaí conduct themselves towards members of the public and whether they operate fairly and within the principles of procedural justice.

### ***5.5 Research Conclusions***

The primary goal of this research was to investigate public attitudes towards An Garda Síochána and Garda accountability. The effect of demographic factors was also explored in addition to previous police contact. Furthermore, space was given to examine interactions with Gardaí and how people perceived they were treated during this encounter whether that be fair or arbitrary.

The scales used to examine attitudes to Gardaí produced some interesting results. Initially, overwhelmingly positive attitudes and high levels of confidence were found for Gardaí however, this decreased significantly when negatively phrased questions were introduced which is concerning and questions figures produced by generic satisfaction surveys. Just like in Bohan and Yorke (1987) a clear shift in attitudes was identified when negatively phrased questions were presented and emphasises the importance of question wording when carrying out research. Without these negatively phrased questions, results formulated by this study would have been the same as those circulated by An Garda Síochána and would not have

given an accurate depiction of attitudes towards Gardaí. In addition, it is possible that an attitude shift would not have been identified had the current study been confined to positively phrased statements. This study also asked different questions that would not normally be seen in Garda satisfaction surveys, such as Gardaí cover up facts in court and that they accept bribes from members of the public, and results showed that more participants agreed than disagreed with these statements which raises concerns about policing in Ireland today. Furthermore, the research deduced that the following demographic variables of age, race, social class, employment and residence were influential on perceptions of Gardaí in addition to previous contact with police, in particular, the type of encounter, time passed since encounter and identity during the encounter.

Further, this study went deeper and obtained attitudes to Garda enforcement of Covid-19 restrictions and found opposing views on the topic as 44% stated they supported Gardaí but believed they were going too far in some cases, indicating a moderate attitude, whereas 22.4% were fully supportive of Gardaí and 24% believed they were too heavy handed, highlighting the opposing views on the subject. In addition, it was discovered that gender, age, race, employment and encounters with police were significant on these perceptions which provides valuable information on this new and underexamined topic. In relation to encounters with Gardaí, a small majority of participants believed they were treated fairly and were optimistic in their evaluations of interactions, although not all respondents were as positive in their assessments which undermines Garda actions during encounters and suggests they treat members of the public differently. The influence of the demographic variables of age, social class and employment proved this point as younger, lower class, unemployed participants who had been charged with an offence were more negative in their assessments.

Positive attitudes were found for GSOC and Garda accountability in the current study. High levels of agreement were identified amongst scale items, in particular, 96.4% agreed that complaints against Gardaí should be investigated independently. This figure is of crucial importance as it shows the need for GSOC however, it can also be considered a criticism as not all complaints are investigated independently by GSOC. For example, in 2020, 34% of complaints were investigated by Gardaí without GSOC supervision (Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission 2021). This highlights the need for GSOC to expand its remit and investigate complaints independently to inspire increased confidence in both itself and Gardaí. Although investigating every complaint may not be feasible due to resource limitations,

systematically decreasing the number of referrals to Gardaí may pay dividends and greater legitimise GSOC. Further, this research discovered that demographic variables of age, social class, employment and education were influential on attitudes to Garda accountability and produces an important understanding into this topic that has been forgotten by Irish literature. In addition, previous contact with police was found to be impactful on attitudes to Garda accountability with the type of encounter and encounter identity showing significance. Furthermore, attitudes to Gardaí and Garda accountability are inextricably linked, with attitudes to Gardaí being extremely influential on attitudes to Garda accountability in the present study.

Ultimately, the current study produced valuable statistical information on public attitudes to Gardaí and Garda accountability. Initially, high levels of confidence were identified for Gardaí, but attitudes became more pessimistic when negative statements were presented. In relation to Garda accountability, attitudes were positive although no negatively phrased questions were introduced. Certain demographic variables were influential on attitudes, as was previous contact with Gardaí. Therefore, the current study produced a detailed understanding into attitudes towards Gardaí and Garda accountability and gave an insight into what demographic factors can impact on these attitudes.

Moreover, a profile can be created of the type of person who typically has high confidence in Gardaí. Findings from the present study portray that older, retired/employed, middle class, white Irish citizens possess the most positive attitude and retain high degrees of confidence in An Garda Síochána. This is supported by previous research as typically it is older (Jesilow *et al* 1995; Bohan and Yorke 1987; An Garda Síochána 2020; Cao 2001; Cao *et al* 1996; Dowler 2002; Webb and Marshall 1995; Hurst and Frank 2000; Nofziger and Williams 2005; O'Connor 2008, white citizens (Miller and Davis 2008; Reisig and Parks 2000; Schuck *et al* 2008; Mbuba 2010; O'Connor 2008) in higher social classes with increased and steady rates of income that view police favourably (Bohan and Yorke 1987; Payne and Gainey 2007; Gossett 2009; Sampson and Jeglum-Bartusch 1998; Boateng 2016; Kilcommins *et al* 2018; Frank *et al* 2005; Murty *et al* 1990) It was also evident that these types of people were more positive in their assessments of contact with Gardaí which is not surprising as this group is less likely to be stopped by police in comparison to minority groups (Skogan 2005).

Alternatively, a profile can also be constructed regarding the type of person who is most likely to have low confidence and a particularly negative attitude towards Gardaí. This study found that younger, unemployed, ethnic minorities in the lower social class and often from marginalised communities had the most negative perception of Gardaí. There have been many reasons put forward as to why these people view police more negatively. Lee (1981) and Connolly (2002) stated that marginalised groups were often considered ‘police property’ and the police could treat them however they wished. As a result, marginalised communities were both ‘over-policed’ and ‘under-protected’ as policing in these areas was very harsh but at the same time quite minimalist as encounters were usually confrontational and victimisation of marginalised groups was not seen to be taken seriously (Mulcahy and O’ Mahony 2005). These factors led to a severe decrease in confidence towards Gardaí and as a result of this low confidence marginalised groups were unlikely to produce information to Gardaí which hindered police in detecting and preventing crime (Reiner 2000; Mulcahy and O’ Mahony 2005). Due to this lack of information, police were more likely to utilise stop and search procedures on these individuals which further reduces confidence (Mulcahy and O’ Mahony 2005). Furthermore, these individuals, ethnic minorities, marginalised groups etc, have more contact with police (Alpert *et al* 2007; Mbuba 2010), however this contact is usually more confrontational and abusive (Mulcahy and O’ Mahony 2005) and thus stains relationships.

Findings from this research suggests that policing in Ireland is still biased in favour of the higher and more well-off sections of society. These findings also undermine the effectiveness of community policing and Garda efforts to improve relations with impoverished communities as marginalised sectors of society, such as young, unemployed, lower class, ethnic minorities, recorded more negative attitudes and had more negative encounters with Gardaí. Numerous scandals have hit An Garda Síochána over the past 20 years and each scandal has required a new body of accountability. As governments have been preoccupied with responding to these scandals by immediately creating a new body of accountability, it seems that the perennial finding of a lack of confidence in Gardaí from those in marginalised communities has been overlooked. Numerous bodies of accountability, such as GSOC and the Policing Authority, have been brought in to safeguard public support, but it is still evident that attitudes of those in marginalised communities towards Gardaí are fraught and findings from the current research and studies conducted over the past 40 years (Bohan and Yorke 1987; Mulcahy and O’ Mahony 2005) support this claim. Therefore, if the proposed Policing and

Community Safety Authority can make provisions to ensure that Gardaí improve relations with impoverished communities, the decades long lack of confidence may be addressed. However, this may not come to fruition as scholars have argued that the Policing and Community Safety Authority is a step back in terms of accountability and control of policing will rest with the government (Shieber 2021; Maguire 2022). Findings from this research convey that current and more powerful bodies, such as the Policing Authority, were unable to improve the confidence of marginalised communities in Gardaí, so it is unlikely that the Policing and Community Safety Authority, in a somewhat weaker and less powerful state, will be able to do so. Although, if the proposed body is given the freedom and independence, from both An Garda Síochána and the government, it may be able to institute a strategic plan or initiative, different than those that came before it, to improve relations between marginalised communities and An Garda Síochána.



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## **APPENDICES**

## **Appendix (i) Information Sheet**

Dear Participant,

You are being invited to partake in a research study which is being undertaken as part of my Masters degree in WIT. The purpose of this study is to understand public attitudes towards An Garda Síochána and their bodies of accountability. In addition, factors such as age, gender, previous police contact, race, social class, employment status, education and whether residence is rural/urban are included to examine their influence on these attitudes. I am working under the supervision of Dr Niamh Maguire and Dr Lorraine Bowman-Grieve and contact details are provided at the end of this sheet.

You must be over 18 to partake in this study and participation is entirely voluntary. If you agree to participate in the study, you will be requested to read the information sheet and complete the consent form. The questionnaire is expected to take approximately 10 minutes to complete. Once you have completed the questionnaire, you can submit your finalised survey by clicking the submit button. You have the right not to partake in the study if you desire and you also have the right to discontinue at any time. Once your survey has been submitted, your data cannot be withdrawn from the study in order to protect your anonymity.

Ethical approval was granted by the School of Humanities Ethics Committee at Waterford Institute of Technology. Individual information collected in relation to this study will remain confidential to the researcher and supervisors. Collection of your IP address will be blocked and data will not be examined on an individual level so the researcher cannot identify you. All data will be stored on WIT's OneDrive which is password protected and will be kept here for the duration of the project. The data will be held for a maximum of 5 years and will then be destroyed which is in line with WIT's Data Retention Policies and Protections and the Data Protection Act (2018) and GDPR (2018).

If you have any further questions about the research you can contact:

RESEARCHER: Brandon Cogley Email: 20079959@mail.wit.ie

SUPERVISOR: Dr Niamh Maguire Email: nmaguire@wit.ie

Dr Lorraine Bowman-Grieve Email: lbowmangrieve@wit.ie



## Helplines

Pieta House Tel: (01) 4585490

Samaritans Ireland Tel: 116 123

YourMentalHealth Tel: 1800 111 888

I would like to sincerely thank you for taking the time to read this information sheet.

**Appendix (ii) Consent Form**

1. I have read the information sheet and consent to take part in the study

Yes \_\_\_\_\_

No \_\_\_\_\_

2. By ticking this box I acknowledge that my data cannot be withdrawn from this study

Yes \_\_\_\_\_

**Appendix (iii) DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE**

**Please read the questions below and tick the appropriate box.**

**1. Gender**

Male \_\_\_\_\_

Female \_\_\_\_\_

Other \_\_\_\_\_

**2. Age**

18-24 \_\_\_\_\_

25-44 \_\_\_\_\_

45-54 \_\_\_\_\_

55+ \_\_\_\_\_

**3. Race**

What is your ethnic or cultural background?

White Irish \_\_\_

Irish Traveller \_\_\_

Any other white background \_\_\_

Black Irish \_\_\_

Any other Black background \_\_\_

Asian Irish \_\_\_

Any other Asian background \_\_\_

Mixed background \_\_

#### **4. Social Class**

Please choose one of the following that best describes your social class.

Lower\_\_

Working\_\_

Middle\_\_

Upper Middle\_\_

Upper\_\_

#### **5. Employment**

How would you describe your present principal status?

Working for payment or profit\_\_

Looking for first regular job\_\_

Unemployed\_\_

Student\_\_

Looking after home/family\_\_

Retired from employment\_\_

Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability\_\_

#### **6. Education**

What is the highest level of education/training (full-time or part-time) which you have completed to date?

No formal certifications\_\_

Leaving Certificate\_\_

Diploma\_\_

Bachelors Degree\_\_

Masters Degree\_\_

PhD\_\_

Other\_\_

## 7. Rural/Urban

What type of area do you live in?

Urban\_\_

(Towns, cities, suburbs, high population density).

Rural\_\_

(countryside, low population density).

Is there a garda station in your area?

Yes\_\_ No\_\_

## 8. Previous Police Contact

Have you experienced previous contact with An Garda Síochána?

Yes \_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_

If yes, how would you rate this experience overall?

Positive\_\_\_\_ Neutral\_\_\_\_ Negative\_\_\_\_

How long ago was this encounter?

Within the last year\_\_\_\_ Before last year\_\_\_\_

During this encounter, were you a:

Victim\_\_\_\_ Witness\_\_\_\_ Charged with an offence?\_\_\_\_

**Appendix (iv) Procedural Justice Scale (Barkworth and Murphy (2015))**

**Please read the statements below and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. You may interpret the scale in the following way.**

1= Strongly Disagree    2= Disagree    3= Neutral    4= Agree    5= Strongly Agree

**Thinking about your most recent contact with police, were they:**

**1. Approachable and friendly.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**2. Polite, respectful and courteous.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**3. Fair.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**4. Were you given the opportunity to express your views before decisions were made?**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**5. Were your views considered before a decision was made.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**When you think about how you were treated by police do you feel:**

**6. Tense.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**7. Anxious.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**8. Angry.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**9. Resentful.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**10. Frustrated.**

1

2

3

4

5

**Appendix (v) Policing during Covid 19 Scale (Scottish Police Authority (2020))**

**Please read the following statements and select the appropriate answer.**

Which of the following statements comes closest to your view of how An Garda Síochána in your area are handling the Covid 19 lockdown?

1. I fully support the approach taken by the Gardaí.
2. I support the approach taken by the Gardaí but in some cases they are going too far.
3. The approach taken by the Gardaí to enforcing the Covid 19 lockdown is too heavy handed.
4. The Gardaí should take tougher action to ensure public compliance.
5. The Gardaí have no role in enforcing the Covid 19 lockdown, compliance should be a matter for individuals.
6. None of the above.



**Appendix (vi) Police Characteristics Scale (Bohan and Yorke (1987))**

**Please read the statements below and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. You may interpret the scale in the following way.**

1= Strongly Disagree    2= Disagree    3= Neutral    4= Agree    5= Strongly Agree

**Members of the Gardaí are:**

**1. Helpful.**

1                    2                    3                    4                    5

**2. Courteous.**

1                    2                    3                    4                    5

**3. Friendly.**

1                    2                    3                    4                    5

**4. Trustworthy.**

1                    2                    3                    4                    5

**5. Polite.**

1                    2                    3                    4                    5

**6. Honest.**

1                    2                    3                    4                    5

**7. Sympathetic.**

1                    2                    3                    4                    5

**8. Fair.**

1                    2                    3                    4                    5

**9. Tolerant.**

1                    2                    3                    4                    5

**10. Well-trained.**

1                    2                    3                    4                    5

**11. Likeable.**

1                    2                    3                    4                    5

**12. Efficient.**

1                    2                    3                    4                    5

**13. Modern.**

1                    2                    3                    4                    5

**Appendix (vii) Public Attitudes towards Police Scale (Bohan and Yorke (1987))**

**Please read the statements below and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. You may interpret the scale in the following way.**

1= Strongly Disagree    2= Disagree    3= Neutral    4= Agree    5= Strongly Agree

- 1. The Gardaí do not get enough thanks for risking their lives in carrying out their duties.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

- 2. The Gardaí are fighting a losing battle against crime where the law favours the criminal over the police.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

- 3. The Gardaí tend to go easier on certain segments of the population and harder on others.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

- 4. The Garda Síochána sometimes exceed their powers by abusing suspects physically or mentally.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

- 5. The Gardaí in your area make a genuine effort to find out the real needs of the community.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

- 6. In certain circumstances the Garda Síochána accept bribes and favours from members of the public.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

- 7. In court, some Gardaí would rather cover up the facts than lose face.**

1                    2                    3                    4                    5

**8. The media in Ireland tend to run down the Garda Síochána which give them a poor public image.**

1                    2                    3                    4                    5

**9. The Gardaí are never around when you need them.**

1                    2                    3                    4                    5

**10. Neighbourhood Watch is a scheme to keep worried house-owners happy and has little to do with preventing crime.**

1                    2                    3                    4                    5

**Appendix (viii) Police Accountability Attitudes Scale (Questions adapted from PSNI views and attitudes towards the Office of the Police Ombudsman for Northern Ireland, Hibberd (2008)).**

**Please read the statements below and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. You may interpret the scale in the following way.**

1= Strongly Disagree    2= Tend to Disagree    3= Mixed Views    4= Tend to Agree  
5= Strongly Agree

**1. Most people who make complaints against the police do so with good intentions.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**2. The Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission conducts thorough investigations.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**3. Investigations of complaints by The Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission are not biased in favour of the Gardaí.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**4. The work of The Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission is likely to make the public more confident in the Gardaí.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**5. The Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission conducts impartial investigations.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**6. Complaints against the Gardaí should be investigated independently.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**7. Investigations of the complaints by The Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission are not biased in favour of the person making the complaint.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**8. The Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission has improved the accountability of the Gardaí in the Republic of Ireland.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**9. There is less misconduct in An Garda Síochána than in most other police services.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**10. The Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission has helped to improve policing in the Republic of Ireland.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

**11. Overall, The Garda Síochána Ombudsman Commission does a good job at holding the Gardaí accountable for their misconduct.**

1                      2                      3                      4                      5



## Appendix (ix) Data Protection Impact Assessment Template

### **Background:**

Data Protection Impact Assessments ('DPIAs') can be used to identify and mitigate against any data protection related risks arising from a new project, which may affect Waterford Institute of Technology. DPIAs are mandatory for any new high risk processing projects.

### **When to use a DPIA:**

Under the GDPR, a DPIA is mandatory where data processing "is likely to result in a high risk to the rights and freedoms of data subjects (the person to which the data relates). However, carrying out a DPIA is required as a standard practice in WIT and will serve as a useful tool to help comply with data protection law. The DPIA should be carried out prior to the processing of data and a copy sent to the Data Protection Coordinator to retain on file.

### **Who must carry out the DPIA:**

It is the responsibility of the project team to ensure that a DPIA is carried out for any new data processing projects.

### **DPIA Process:**

#### **1. Need for DPIA:**

Summarise the need for a DPIA

#### **2. Describe the information flows:**

Describe the collection, use and deletion of personal data here and it may also be useful to refer to a flow diagram or another way of explaining data flows. You should also say how many individuals are likely to be affected by the project.

#### **3. Identify data protection and related risks**

Identify the key privacy risks and the associated compliance and corporate risks.

#### **4. Identifying data protection solutions to reduce or eliminate the risks**

Describe the actions you could take to reduce the risks, and any future steps which would be necessary.

#### **5. Signing off on the outcomes of the DPIA**

Ensure appropriate sign off of outcomes is formally documented and retained.

#### **6. Integrating data protection solutions into the project**

Ensure the controls and actions identified are tracked through to completion to ensure the rights of the data subject are upheld.

### **Template**

<b>1. Need for a DPIA</b> Please answer the below questions	
Will the project involve the collection of new information about individuals?	Yes
Will the project compel individuals to provide information about themselves?	Yes
Will information about individuals be disclosed to organisations or people who have not previously had routine access to the information?	No
Are you using information about individuals for a purpose it is not currently used or in a way it is not currently used?	No
Does the project involve you using new technology that might be perceived as being privacy intrusive? For example, the use of biometrics or facial recognition.	No
Will the project result in you making decisions or taking action against individuals in ways that can have a significant impact on them?	No
Is the information about individuals of a kind particularly likely to raise privacy concerns or expectations? For example, health records, criminal records or other information that people would consider to be private.	No
Will the project require you to contact individuals in ways that they may find intrusive?	No



<b>2. Describe the information flows</b>	
Date of Assessment:	18-03-2021
Assessment performed by:	Brandon Cogley
Function/Department:	Masters Student, Department of Applied Arts
Process Name:	
Description of the envisaged processing operations: (Including collection, deletion and use)	All data will be collected online due to the Covid-19 pandemic, with Microsoft Forms being used to distribute surveys as it is GDPR compliant and will not violate WIT's GDPR and Data Regulations Policies. Additionally, the researcher will guarantee no identifying information or IP addresses are taken from participants while utilising Microsoft Forms. Privacy and confidentiality will be ensured as the data will be held in a password protected file on WIT's OneDrive and access to this file will be limited to the researcher and supervisors. Data will not be analysed on an individual level, instead an aggregate level, and at no point in the study will participants be asked to produce their name to further guarantee anonymity. In addition, participants will be notified that no personal information will be taken from them and no unauthorised sharing of the data will take place. Data will be retained for a minimum of 5 years following publication, in line with WIT's Data Retention Policies, and if this time exceeds the researcher's time at the college, the data will be passed to the project's supervisors. The data will be stored in WIT's OneDrive in order to ensure compliance with GDPR and Data Protection Regulations. When 5 years have passed, all data will be deleted and

	the services of computer services will be availed of the ensure that all data is completely destroyed.
Purposes of the processing:	To guarantee compliance with GDPR and WIT's Data Retention Policies and adherence to WIT's GDPR and Data Protection Regulations.
Legal basis for processing:	To comply with GDPR, WIT's Data Retention Policies and WIT's Data Protection Regulations.
Necessity of the processing (Justification)	To ensure adherence to GDPR, WIT's Data Retention Policies and WIT's Data Protection Regulations.
Proportionality of the processing (Estimated number of Data Subjects Affected)	An estimated sample of N=150 will be employed in the present study.
Individuals consulted during the performance of DPIA (Include internal and external consultations held)	Dr Niamh Maguire Dr Lorraine Bowman-Grieve

3. Identify data protection and related risks			4. Identifying data protection solutions to reduce or eliminate the risks				
No.	Privacy Issue	Risk	Existing Controls Identified	Risk Rating L x I	Additional Controls/ Actions Required	Action Owner	Deadline Date
1.	Anonymisation procedures may prove to be unsuccessful and breaches of electronic data may occur.	1. Unlikely	1. No identifying information will be taken from the participant and data will be stored in a password	1. 3-5	1. Only non-identifying information will be collected.		
2.	Microsoft Forms may gather	2. Unlikely		2. 3-5	2. At no point in the		

	identifying information from participants.		<p>protected file on WIT's OneDrive.</p> <p>2. The collection of IP addresses and other identifying information will be blocked from the site.</p>	<p>study will participants be asked to produce their name and no other identifying information will be taken from them. Additionally, data will not be analysed on an individual level.</p>		
--	--	--	--	---	--	--

**5. Signing off on the outcomes of the DPIA**

DPIA Assessment result: (Pass- risk eliminated, avoided or accepted; Fail- risk un-avoided)	Pass
---	------

Approved by:	Brandon Cogley
--------------	----------------

**6. Integrating data protection solutions into the project**

Next steps/Actions	To ensure that the rights of the participants are upheld and they are treated fairly, all the procedures outlined above will be utilised.
--------------------	---

**Guidance**

*Example Risks to Individuals:*

- Inappropriate disclosure of personal data internally due to a lack of appropriate controls being in place.
- Accidental loss of electronic equipment may lead to risk of disclosure of personal information to third parties.
- Breach of data held electronically by “hackers”.
- Vulnerable individuals or individuals about whom sensitive data is kept might be affected to a very high degree by inappropriate disclosure of personal data.
- Information released in anonymised form might lead to disclosure of personal data if anonymisation techniques chosen turn out not to be effective.
- Personal data being used in a manner not anticipated by data subjects due to an evolution in the nature of the project.
- Personal data being used for purposes not expected by data subjects due to failure to explain effectively how their data would be used.
- Personal data being used for automated decision making may be seen as excessively intrusive.
- Merging of datasets may result in a data controller having far more information about individuals than anticipated by the individuals.
- Merging of datasets may inadvertently allow individuals to be identified from anonymised data.
- Use of technology capable of making visual or audio recordings may be unacceptably intrusive.
- Collection of data containing identifiers may prevent users from using a service anonymously.
- Data may be kept longer than required in the absence of appropriate policies.
- Data unnecessary for the project may be collected if appropriate policies not in place, leading to unnecessary risks.
- Data may be transferred to countries with inadequate data protection regimes.

#### *Corporate Risks:*

- Failure to comply with the GDPR may result in investigation, administrative fines, prosecution, or other sanctions. Failure to adequately conduct a DPIA where appropriate can itself be a breach of the GDPR.
- Data breaches or failure to live up to customer expectations regarding privacy and personal data are likely to cause reputational risk.
- Public distrust of organisation’s use of personal information may lead to a reluctance on the part of individuals to deal with the organisation.
- Problems with project design identified late in the design process, or after completion, may be expensive and cumbersome to fix.
- Failure to manage how your company keeps and uses information can lead to inefficient duplication, or the expensive collection and storage of unnecessary information. Unnecessary processing and retention of information can also leave you at risk of non-compliance with the GDPR.

- Any harm caused to individuals by reason of mishandling of personal data may lead to claims for compensation against the organisation. Under the GDPR the organisation may also be liable for non-material damage.

*Compliance Risks:*

The organisation may face risks of prosecution, significant financial penalties, or reputational damage if it fails to comply with the GDPR. Individuals affected by a breach of the GDPR can seek compensation for both material and non-material damage.

Failure to carry out a DPIA where appropriate is itself a breach of the legislation, as well as a lost opportunity to identify and mitigate against the future compliance risks a new project may bring.

Examples of data protection solutions:

- Deciding not to collect or store particular types of information.
- Putting in place strict retention periods, designed to minimise the length of time that personal data is retained.
- Reviewing physical and/or IT security in your organisation or for a particular project team and making appropriate improvements where necessary.
- Conducting general or project-specific training to ensure that personal data is handled securely.
- Creating protocols for information handling within the project, and ensuring that all relevant staff are trained in operating under the protocol.
- Producing guidance for staff as reference point in the event of any uncertainty relating to the handling of information.
- Assessing the need for new IT systems to safely process and store the data, and providing staff with training in any new system adopted.
- Assessing the portability of using anonymised or pseudonymised data as part of the project to reduce identification risks, and developing an appropriate anonymisation protocol if the use of anonymised data is suitable.
- Ensuring that individuals are fully informed about how their information will be used.
- Providing a contact point for individuals to raise any concerns they may have with the organisation.
- If using external data processors, selecting appropriately experienced data processors and putting in place legal arrangements to ensure compliance with data protection legislation.
- Deciding not to proceed with a particular element of a project if the data privacy risks associated with it are inescapable and the benefits expected from this part of the project cannot justify those risks.

Likelihood/Potential for an Incident to occur	Impact/Outcome of Incident	Risk Level Calculation L X I	Guideline Action Timetable
<b>1 - Rare:</b> No history of event occurring over period of years. This event may occur but in exceptional circumstances.	<b>1.</b> Minor compromise of privacy (e.g. un-sensitive personal data such as helpdesk ticket compromised)	1 – 2 Acceptable	No Action
<b>2 - Unlikely:</b> The event would be expected to occur annually	<b>2.</b> Minor data breach (e.g. inappropriate contact of data subject via email)	3 – 5 Low	Prioritise after medium risk actions complete
<b>3 - Possible:</b> This could occur monthly, as such it has a reasonable chance of occurring.	<b>3.</b> Moderate data breach (Sensitive data e.g. payroll compromised)	6 – 10 Medium	Prioritise after high risk actions complete
<b>4 - Likely:</b> Expected to occur at least weekly, the event will occur in most situations	<b>4.</b> Significant data breach (Financial loss, severe stress for a data subject or data subjects)	11 – 15 High	Prioritise Action as soon as Practical
<b>5 - Certain:</b> Expected to occur almost daily, it is more likely to occur than not.	<b>5.</b> Major data breach (Risk of severe financial loss to a large number of data subjects)	16 – 25 Very High	Action Urgent

Appendix (x) Epigeum Certificate



# Certificate

Number: 6364620692

This is to certify that

**Brandon Cogley**

Successfully completed the course

**Research Integrity - Arts and Humanities**

as part of the Epigeum Online Course System with a score of 91%.

Dated: 29 October 2020

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## Appendix (xi) Ethical Approval

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10th June, 2021.

Mr. Brandon Cogley,

Student Number: 20079959

[20079959@mail.wit.ie](mailto:20079959@mail.wit.ie)

Dear Brandon,

◆ Thank you for submitting your project and amended documentation in relation to your study 'An Investigation into Public Attitudes Towards An Garda Síochána and their bodies of oversight' to the School of Humanities Research Ethics Committee, WIT.

Based on the revised WIT ethical approval application form and supporting documentation, I am pleased to inform you that we now fully approve the conduct of this project.

We will convey this decision to Academic Council.

We wish you well in the work ahead.

WIT  
Yours sincerely,

Dr. Michael Bergin,

Chairperson,

◆ School of Humanities Research Ethics Committee, WIT

cc: Dr Niamh Maguire

Dr. Lorraine Bowman Grieve



**Appendix (xii) Procedural Justice Scale 1 and 2 Internal Reliability Analysis**

Table 119 Procedural Justice Scale 1 Item-Total Statistics

<b>Item-Total Statistics</b>					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
PJ_Q1	13.91	27.839	.943	.926	.970
PJ_Q2	13.87	27.225	.956	.945	.968
PJ_Q3	13.83	27.641	.923	.873	.974
PJ_Q4	14.00	29.032	.915	.880	.975
PJ_Q5	14.08	28.526	.933	.901	.972

Table 120 Procedural Justice Scale 2 Item-Total Statistics

<b>Item-Total Statistics</b>					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
PJ_Q6	10.03	34.483	.944	.926	.967
PJ_Q7	10.00	35.161	.893	.878	.974
PJ_Q8	10.13	34.338	.930	.893	.969
PJ_Q9	10.14	34.592	.942	.916	.967
PJ_Q10	9.94	33.496	.931	.882	.969

**Appendix (xiii) Police Characteristics and Public Attitudes Towards Police Scales**

**Internal Reliability Analysis**

Table 121 Police Characteristics Scale Item-Total Statistics

<b>Item-Total Statistics</b>					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
PC_Q1	39.50	268.462	.932	.911	.989
PC_Q2	39.62	267.091	.957	.951	.988
PC_Q3	39.66	268.986	.947	.916	.989
PC_Q4	39.82	268.807	.953	.934	.989
PC_Q5	39.61	267.966	.936	.926	.989
PC_Q6	39.78	268.961	.939	.918	.989
PC_Q7	39.82	267.829	.949	.916	.989
PC_Q8	39.66	267.260	.959	.950	.988
PC_Q9	39.67	267.109	.959	.944	.988
PC_Q10	39.79	268.150	.915	.924	.989
PC_Q11	39.79	267.876	.953	.918	.989
PC_Q12	39.80	266.661	.909	.891	.989
PC_Q13	39.95	269.449	.841	.787	.991

Table 122 Public Attitudes Towards Police Scale (Positive Questions) Item-Total Statistics

<b>Item-Total Statistics</b>					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
PAP_Q1	9.24	10.684	.869	.758	.789
PAP_Q2	9.34	11.163	.791	.649	.821
PAP_Q5	9.63	11.702	.676	.558	.869
PAP_Q8	9.66	13.195	.624	.468	.884

Table 123 Public Attitudes Towards Police Scale (Negative Questions) Item – Total Statistics

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
PAP_Q3	16.95	58.498	.674	.702	.608
PAP_Q4	16.99	31.121	.348	.135	.915
PAP_Q6	17.35	57.972	.675	.671	.605
PAP_Q7	17.44	56.361	.741	.801	.589
PAP_Q9	17.02	58.249	.623	.600	.611
PAP_Q10	17.32	61.929	.537	.468	.639

**Appendix (xiv) Police Accountability Attitudes Scale Reliability Analysis**

Table 124 Police Accountability Attitudes Scale Item-Total Statistics

<b>Item-Total Statistics</b>					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
PAAS_Q1	34.64	113.103	.173	.409	.954
PAAS_Q2	35.43	92.747	.890	.853	.929
PAAS_Q3	35.47	92.945	.900	.859	.929
PAAS_Q4	35.42	90.713	.926	.894	.927
PAAS_Q5	35.46	93.235	.891	.863	.929
PAAS_Q6	34.05	116.062	.126	.468	.951
PAAS_Q7	34.78	111.449	.335	.519	.948
PAAS_Q8	35.43	92.651	.889	.880	.929
PAAS_Q9	35.62	91.787	.879	.795	.929
PAAS_Q10	35.41	91.663	.925	.931	.927
PAAS_Q11	35.50	90.881	.938	.939	.927

## Appendix (xv) Tests of Normality

Figure 39 Procedural Justice Scale 1 Normality Histogram

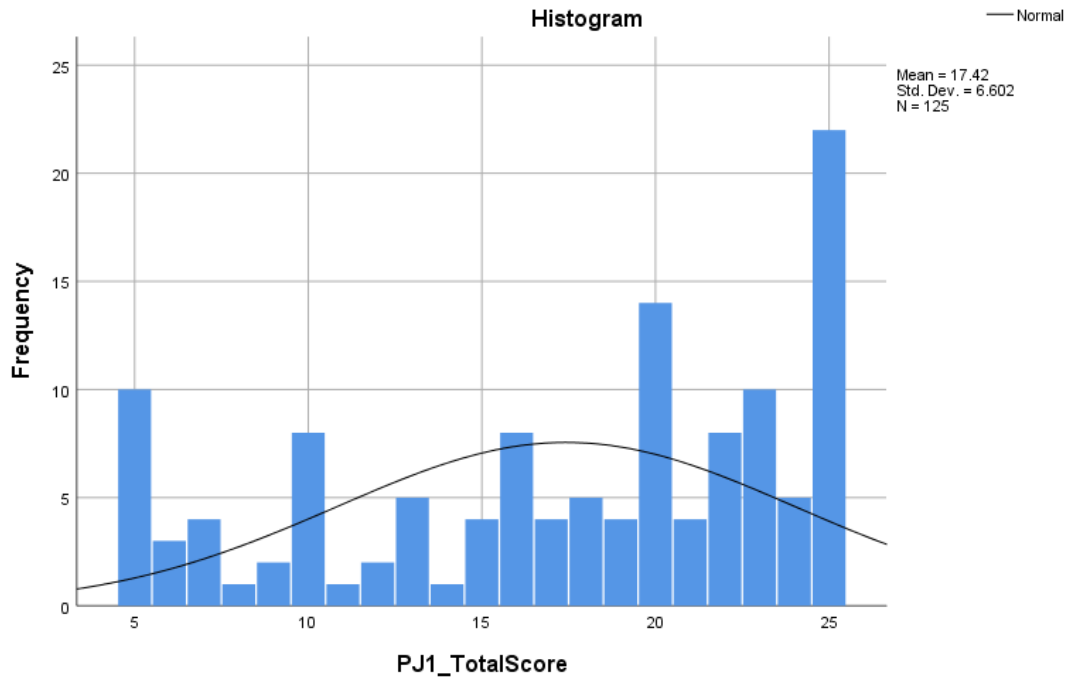


Figure 40 Procedural Justice Scale 2 Normality Histogram

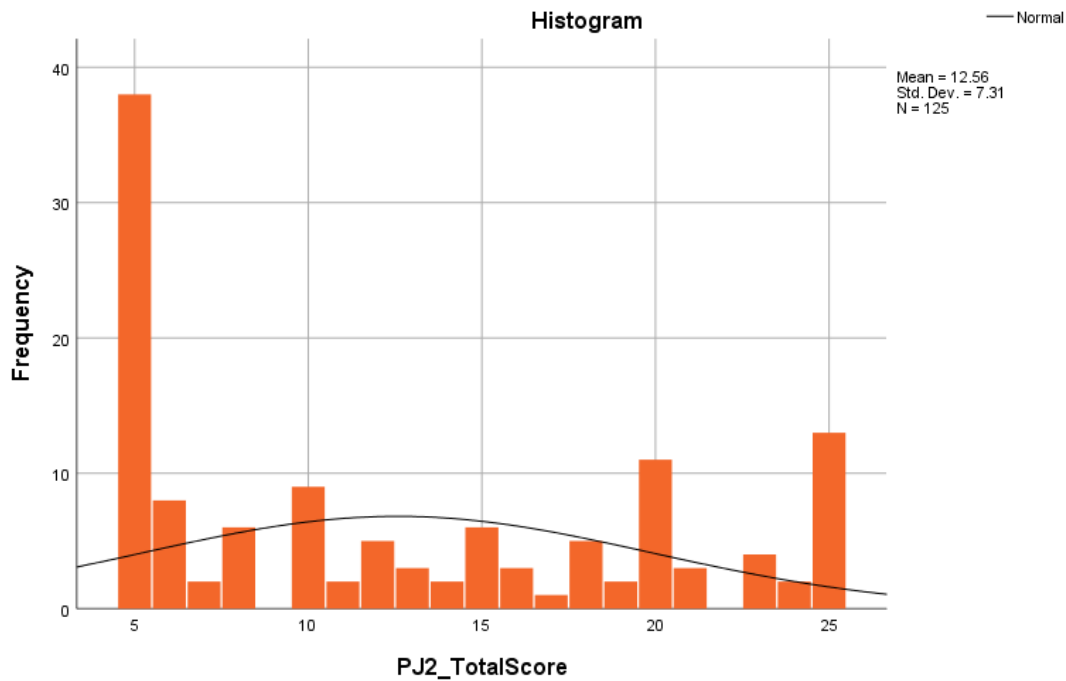


Figure 41 Police Characteristics Scale Normality Histogram

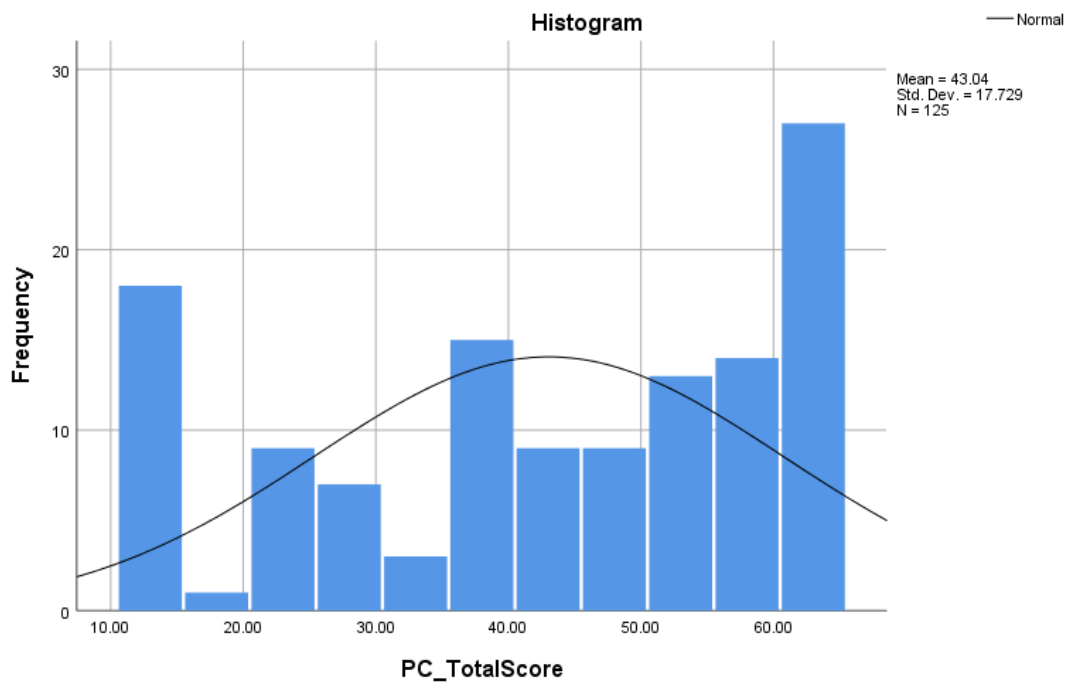


Figure 42 Public Attitudes Towards Police Scale (Positive Questions) Normality Histogram

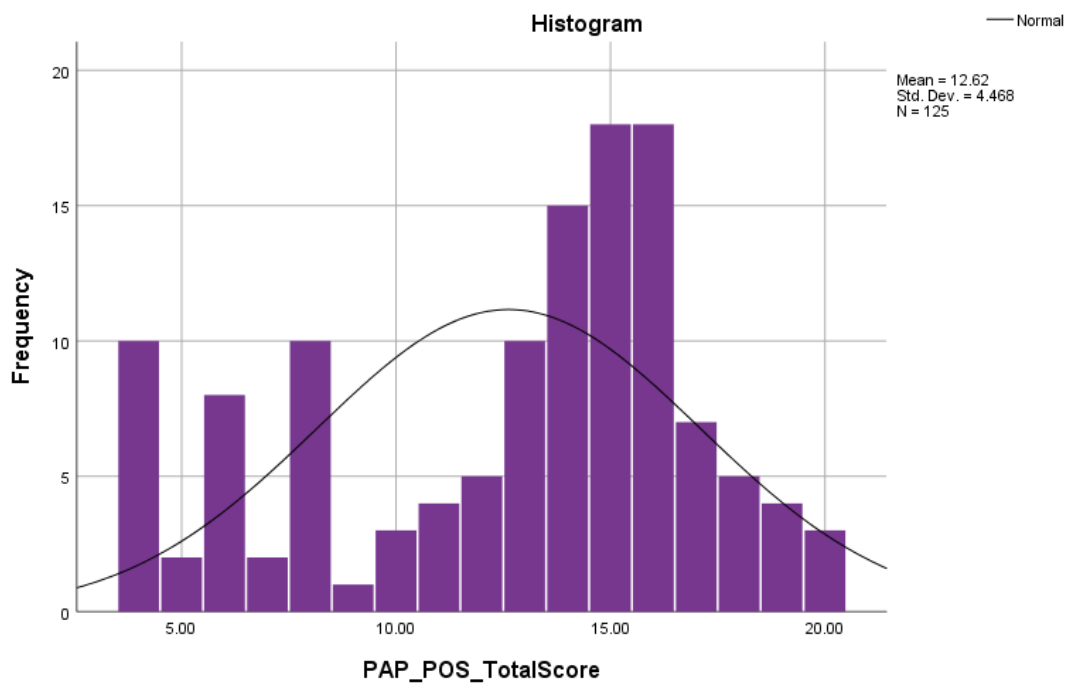


Figure 43 Public Attitudes Towards Police Scale (Negative Questions) Normality Histogram

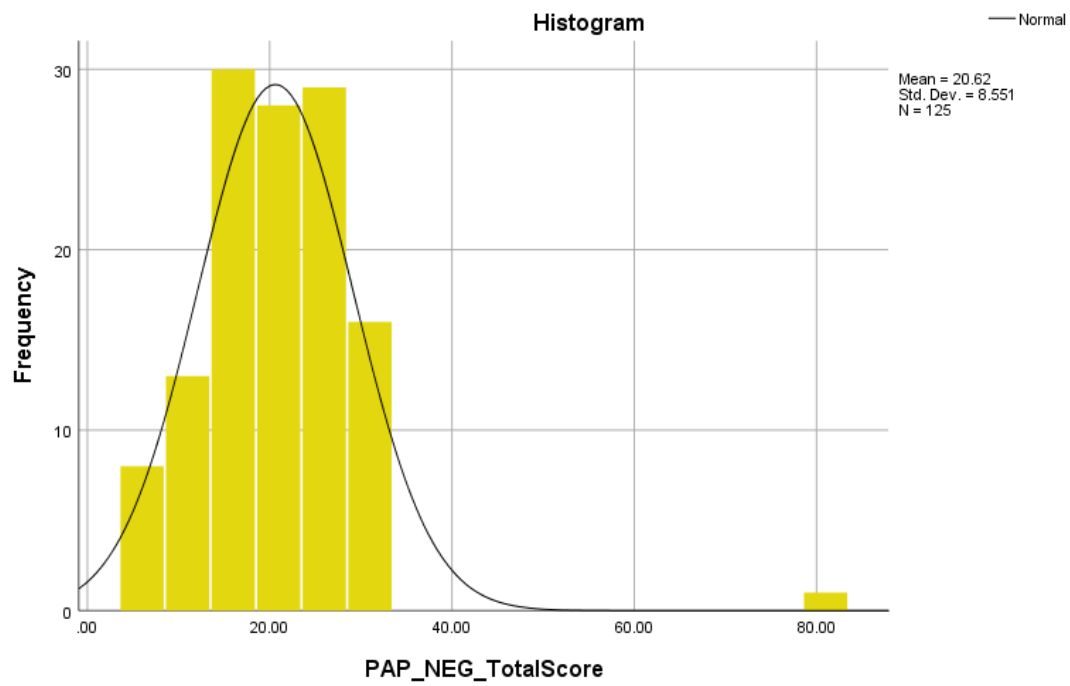
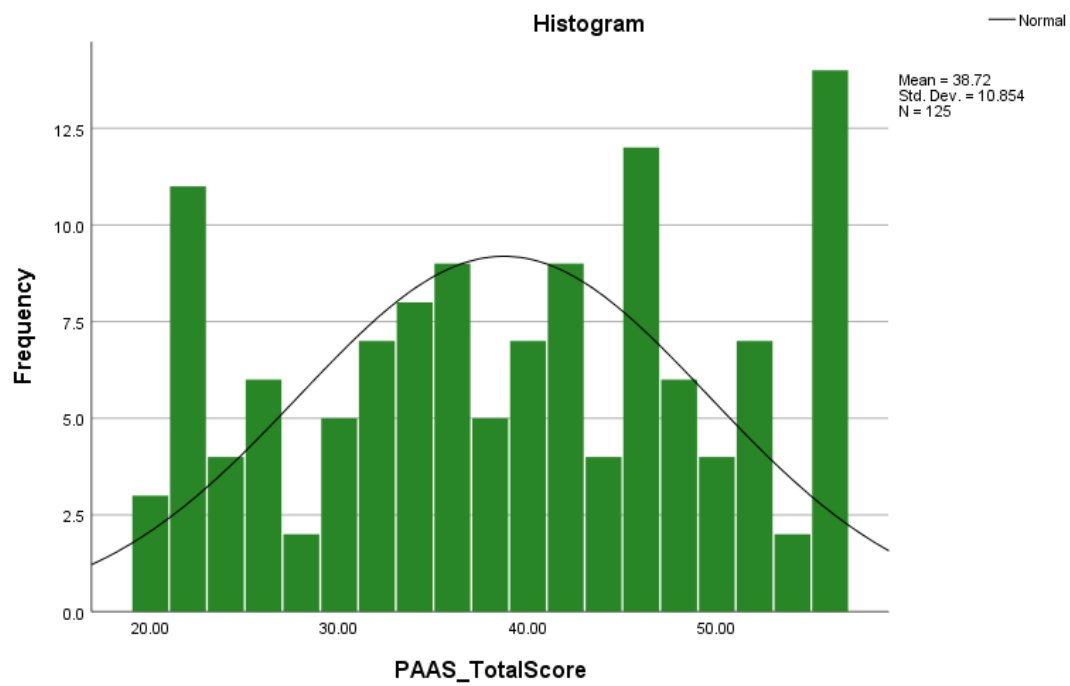


Figure 44 Police Accountability Attitudes Scale Normality Histogram



**Appendix (xvi) Gender Descriptive**

Table 125 Gender/PC Scale Descriptive

<b>Statistics</b>			
PC_TotalScore			
Male	N	Valid	70
		Missing	0
	Mean		40.1714
	Median		43.5000
	Std. Deviation		19.46753
	Skewness		-.184
	Std. Error of Skewness		.287
	Kurtosis		-1.476
	Std. Error of Kurtosis		.566
Female	N	Valid	55
		Missing	0
	Mean		46.6909
	Median		49.0000
	Std. Deviation		14.60324
	Skewness		-.489
	Std. Error of Skewness		.322
	Kurtosis		-.477
	Std. Error of Kurtosis		.634

Table 126 Gender/PAP (Positive) Descriptive

<b>Statistics</b>			
PAP_POS_TotalScore			
Male	N	Valid	70
		Missing	0
	Mean		11.6143
	Median		13.5000
	Std. Deviation		4.75270
	Skewness		-.323
	Std. Error of Skewness		.287
	Kurtosis		-1.280
	Std. Error of Kurtosis		.566
Female	N	Valid	55
		Missing	0
	Mean		13.9091
	Median		15.0000
	Std. Deviation		3.73806
	Skewness		-.891
	Std. Error of Skewness		.322
	Kurtosis		.593
	Std. Error of Kurtosis		.634



Table 127 Gender/PAP (Negative) Descriptive

<b>Statistics</b>			
PAP_NEG_TotalScore			
Male	N	Valid	70
		Missing	0
	Mean		21.7143
	Median		22.0000
	Std. Deviation		9.94061
	Skewness		2.576
	Std. Error of Skewness		.287
	Kurtosis		14.973
	Std. Error of Kurtosis		.566
Female	N	Valid	55
		Missing	0
	Mean		19.2182
	Median		19.0000
	Std. Deviation		6.17249
	Skewness		-.303
	Std. Error of Skewness		.322
	Kurtosis		-.583
	Std. Error of Kurtosis		.634

Table 128 Gender/PAAS Descriptive

<b>Statistics</b>			
PAAS_TotalScore			
Male	N	Valid	70
		Missing	0
	Mean		37.8143
	Median		40.5000
	Std. Deviation		12.04255
	Skewness		-.118
	Std. Error of Skewness		.287
	Kurtosis		-1.461
	Std. Error of Kurtosis		.566
Female	N	Valid	55
		Missing	0
	Mean		39.8727
	Median		39.0000
	Std. Deviation		9.09834
	Skewness		.161
	Std. Error of Skewness		.322
	Kurtosis		-.701
	Std. Error of Kurtosis		.634

## Appendix (xvii) Age Pairwise Comparison Tables

Table 129 Age/PC Pairwise Comparison Table

<b>Pairwise Comparisons of Age</b>					
Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test		Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
			Statistic	Sig.	
25-44-18-24	6.708	7.564	.887	.375	1.000
25-44-45-54	-17.043	10.881	-1.566	.117	.704
25-44-55+	-54.360	10.196	-5.332	.000	.000
18-24-45-54	-10.335	10.591	-.976	.329	1.000
18-24-55+	-47.652	9.886	-4.820	.000	.000
45-54-55+	-37.317	12.606	-2.960	.003	.018

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

Table 130 Age/PAP (Positive) Pairwise Comparison Table

<b>Pairwise Comparisons of Age</b>					
Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test		Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
			Statistic	Sig.	
25-44-18-24	1.105	7.562	.146	.884	1.000
25-44-45-54	-17.321	10.878	-1.592	.111	.668
25-44-55+	-51.793	10.193	-5.081	.000	.000
18-24-45-54	-16.216	10.589	-1.531	.126	.754
18-24-55+	-50.688	9.883	-5.129	.000	.000
45-54-55+	-34.472	12.603	-2.735	.006	.037

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

Table 131 Age/PAP (Negative) Pairwise Comparison Table

<b>Pairwise Comparisons of Age</b>					
Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test		Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
			Statistic	Sig.	
55+-45-54	37.483	12.648	2.964	.003	.018
55+-18-24	47.623	9.918	4.801	.000	.000
55+-25-44	56.876	10.229	5.560	.000	.000
45-54-18-24	10.139	10.626	.954	.340	1.000

45-54-25-44	19.393	10.917	1.776	.076	.454
18-24-25-44	-9.253	7.588	-1.219	.223	1.000

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

Table 132 Age/PAAS Pairwise Comparison Table

**Pairwise Comparisons of Age**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
25-44-18-24	12.392	7.589	1.633	.103	.615
25-44-45-54	-20.167	10.918	-1.847	.065	.388
25-44-55+	-55.722	10.230	-5.447	.000	.000
18-24-45-54	-7.775	10.627	-.732	.464	1.000
18-24-55+	-43.330	9.920	-4.368	.000	.000
45-54-55+	-35.556	12.649	-2.811	.005	.030

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

## Appendix (xviii) Race Pairwise Comparison Tables

Table 133 Race/PAP (Positive) Pairwise Comparison Table

<b>Pairwise Comparisons of Race</b>					
Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
Traveller-Other Asian	-20.500	41.627	-.492	.622	1.000
Traveller-Other White	-22.143	38.539	-.575	.566	1.000
Traveller-Black Irish	-29.500	37.809	-.780	.435	1.000
Traveller-Asian Irish	-34.667	38.938	-.890	.373	1.000
Traveller-Other Black	-36.187	38.237	-.946	.344	1.000
Traveller-White	53.372	36.249	1.472	.141	1.000
Other Asian-Other White	1.643	24.877	.066	.947	1.000
Other Asian-Black Irish	9.000	23.731	.379	.704	1.000
Other Asian-Asian Irish	14.167	25.491	.556	.578	1.000
Other Asian-Other Black	15.688	24.406	.643	.520	1.000
Other Asian-White	32.872	21.157	1.554	.120	1.000
Other White-Black Irish	-7.357	17.766	-.414	.679	1.000
Other White-Asian Irish	-12.524	20.056	-.624	.532	1.000
Other White-Other Black	-14.045	18.658	-.753	.452	1.000
Other White-White	31.229	14.145	2.208	.027	.573
Black Irish-Asian Irish	-5.167	18.616	-.278	.781	1.000
Black Irish-Other Black	-6.687	17.100	-.391	.696	1.000
Black Irish-White	23.872	12.017	1.987	.047	.986
Asian Irish-Other Black	1.521	19.469	.078	.938	1.000
Asian Irish-White	18.706	15.200	1.231	.218	1.000
Other Black-White	17.185	13.300	1.292	.196	1.000

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

Table 134 Race/PAP (Negative) Pairwise Comparison Table

<b>Pairwise Comparisons of Race</b>					
Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
White-Other Black	-15.678	13.347	-1.175	.240	1.000
White-Asian Irish	-22.011	15.254	-1.443	.149	1.000
White-Other White	-22.213	14.195	-1.565	.118	1.000
White-Black Irish	-25.228	12.059	-2.092	.036	.765

White-Other Asian	-48.261	21.232	-2.273	.023	.484
White-Traveller	-55.928	36.378	-1.537	.124	1.000
Other Black-Asian Irish	-6.333	19.538	-.324	.746	1.000
Other Black-Other White	6.536	18.723	.349	.727	1.000
Other Black-Black Irish	9.550	17.160	.557	.578	1.000
Other Black-Other Asian	-32.583	24.492	-1.330	.183	1.000
Other Black-Traveller	40.250	38.372	1.049	.294	1.000
Asian Irish-Other White	.202	20.127	.010	.992	1.000
Asian Irish-Black Irish	3.217	18.682	.172	.863	1.000
Asian Irish-Other Asian	-26.250	25.581	-1.026	.305	1.000
Asian Irish-Traveller	33.917	39.076	.868	.385	1.000
Other White-Black Irish	-3.014	17.828	-.169	.866	1.000
Other White-Other Asian	-26.048	24.965	-1.043	.297	1.000
Other White-Traveller	33.714	38.675	.872	.383	1.000
Black Irish-Other Asian	-23.033	23.815	-.967	.333	1.000
Black Irish-Traveller	30.700	37.943	.809	.418	1.000
Other Asian-Traveller	7.667	41.774	.184	.854	1.000

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

**Appendix (xix) Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances – Gender, Age, Race**

Table 135 Levene's Test PC Scale

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances<sup>a,b</sup>**

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PC_TotalScore	Based on Mean	4.459	14	99	.000
	Based on Median	2.152	14	99	.015
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	2.152	14	41.458	.028
	Based on trimmed mean	4.260	14	99	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: PC\_TotalScore

b. Design: Intercept + Gender + Age + Race + Gender \* Age + Gender \* Race + Age \* Race + Gender \* Age \* Race

Table 136 Levene's Test PAP (Positive) Scale

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances<sup>a,b</sup>**

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PAP_POS_TotalScore	Based on Mean	2.740	14	99	.002
	Based on Median	1.034	14	99	.427
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.034	14	55.893	.435
	Based on trimmed mean	2.478	14	99	.005

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: PAP\_POS\_TotalScore

b. Design: Intercept + Gender + Age + Race + Gender \* Age + Gender \* Race + Age \* Race + Gender \* Age \* Race

Table 137 Levene's Test PAAS Scale

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances<sup>a,b</sup>**

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PAAS_TotalScore	Based on Mean	2.470	14	99	.005
	Based on Median	1.217	14	99	.275
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.217	14	67.261	.284
	Based on trimmed mean	2.378	14	99	.007

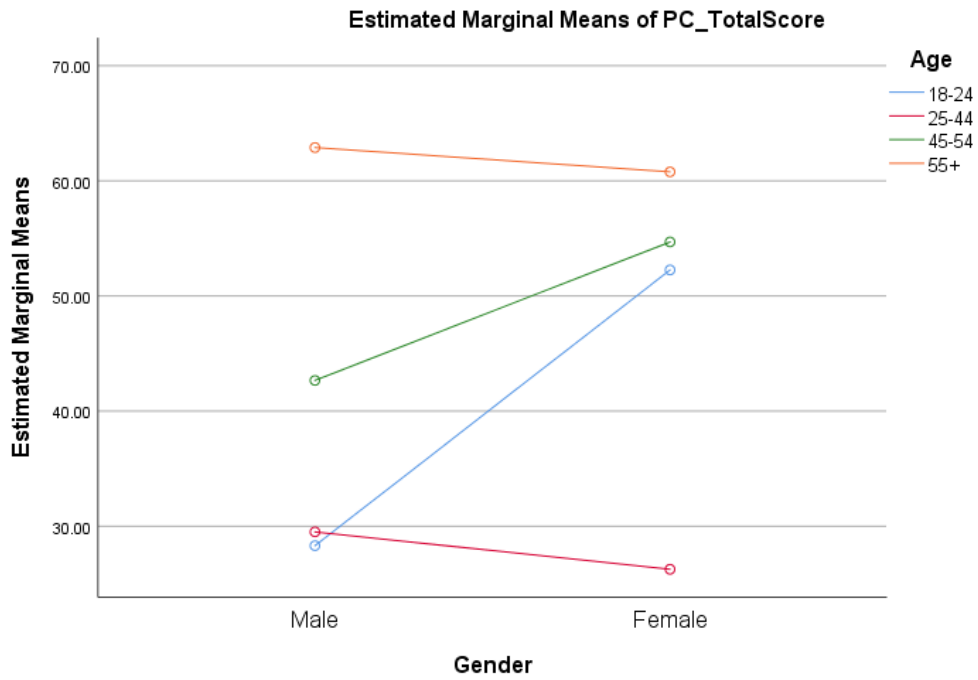
Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: PAAS\_TotalScore

b. Design: Intercept + Gender + Age + Race + Gender \* Age + Gender \* Race + Age \* Race + Gender \* Age \* Race

**Appendix (xx) Interaction Plots Gender, Age and Race**

**Figure 45 Gender/Age PC Scale**



**Figure 46 Gender/Race PC Scale**

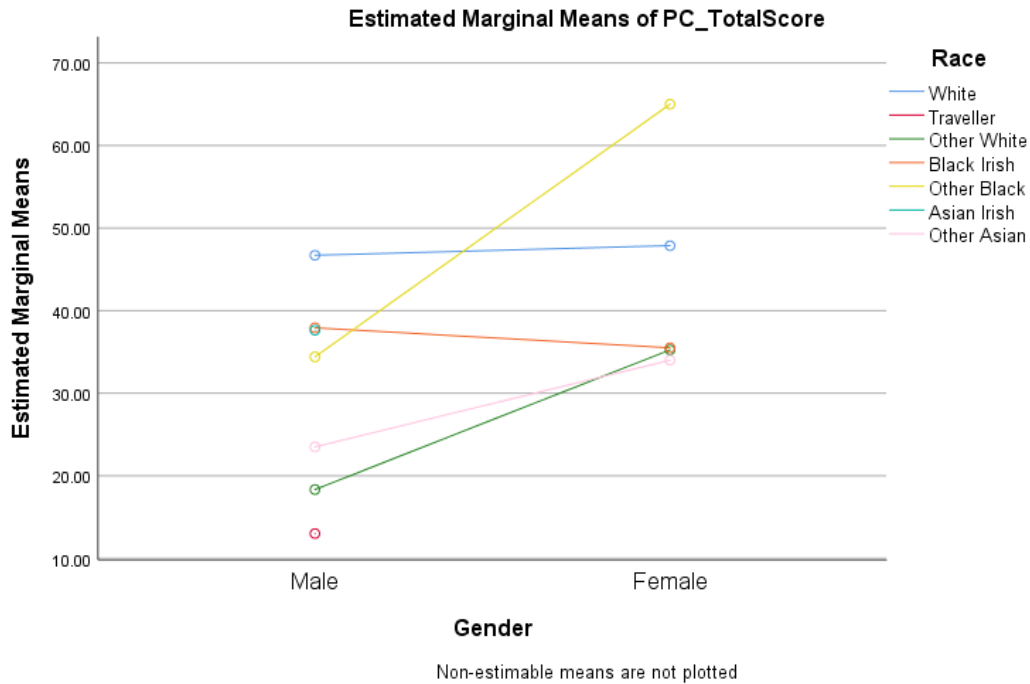




Figure 47 Age/Race PC Scale

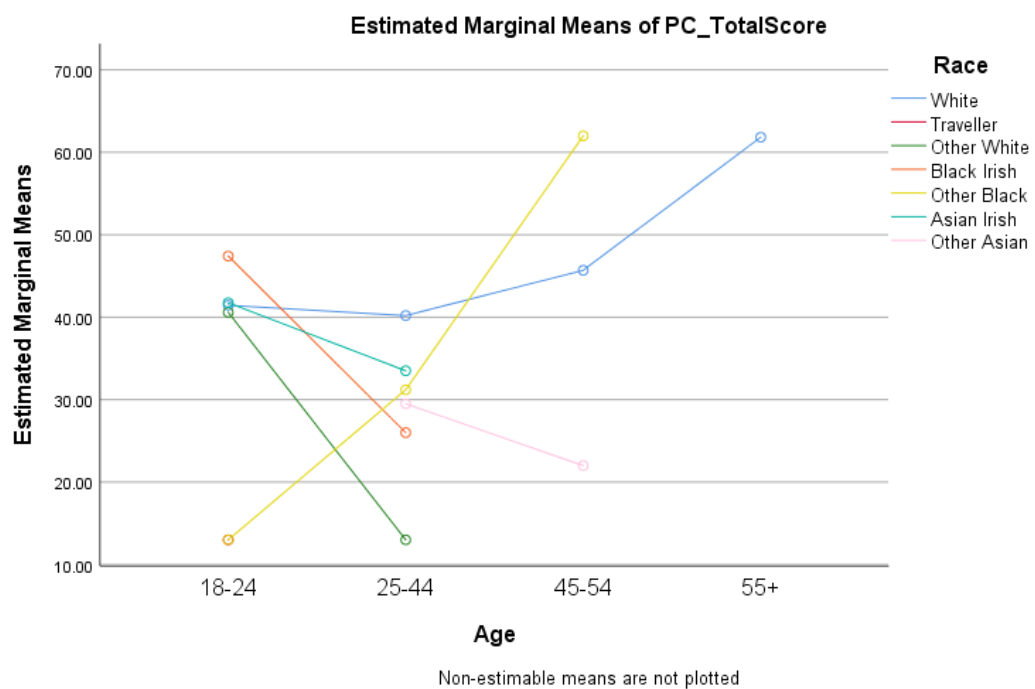


Figure 48 Gender/Age PAP (Positive) Scale

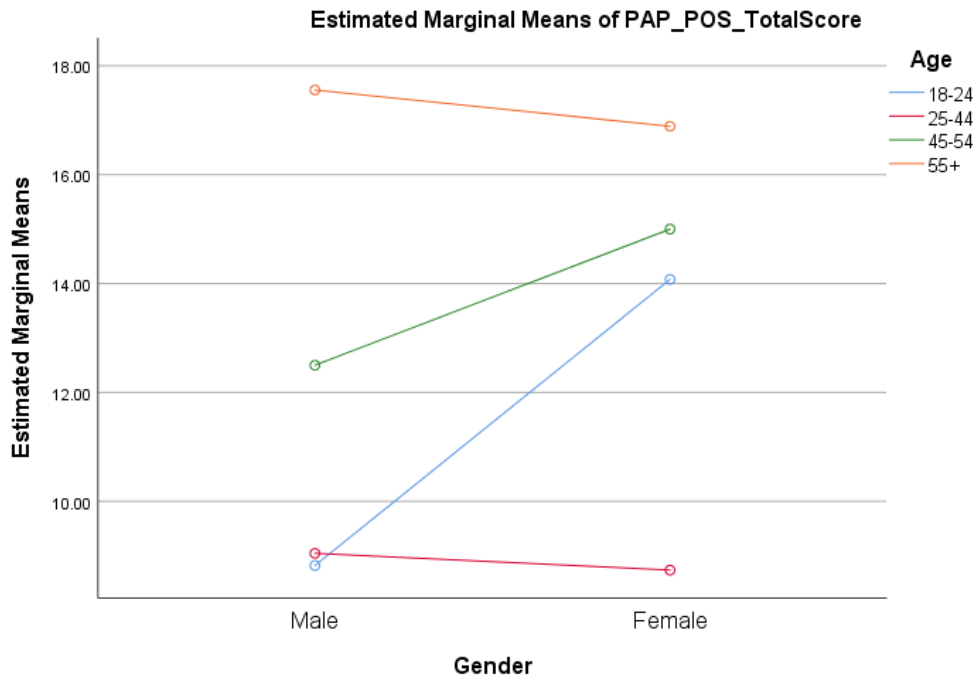


Figure 49 Gender/Race PAP (Positive) Scale

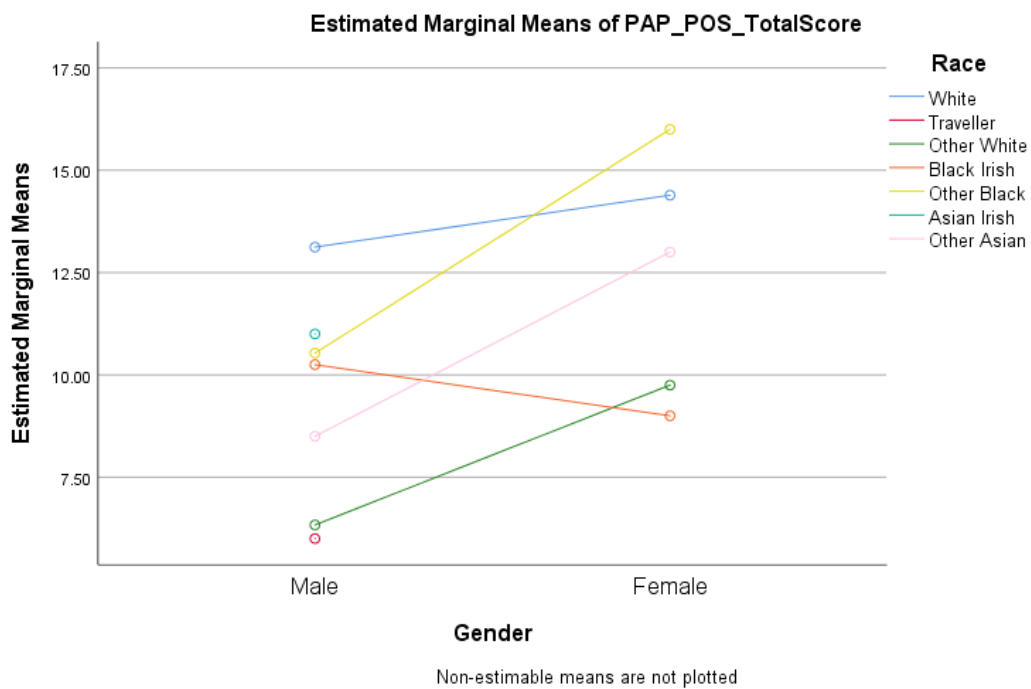


Figure 50 Age/Race PAP (Positive) Scale

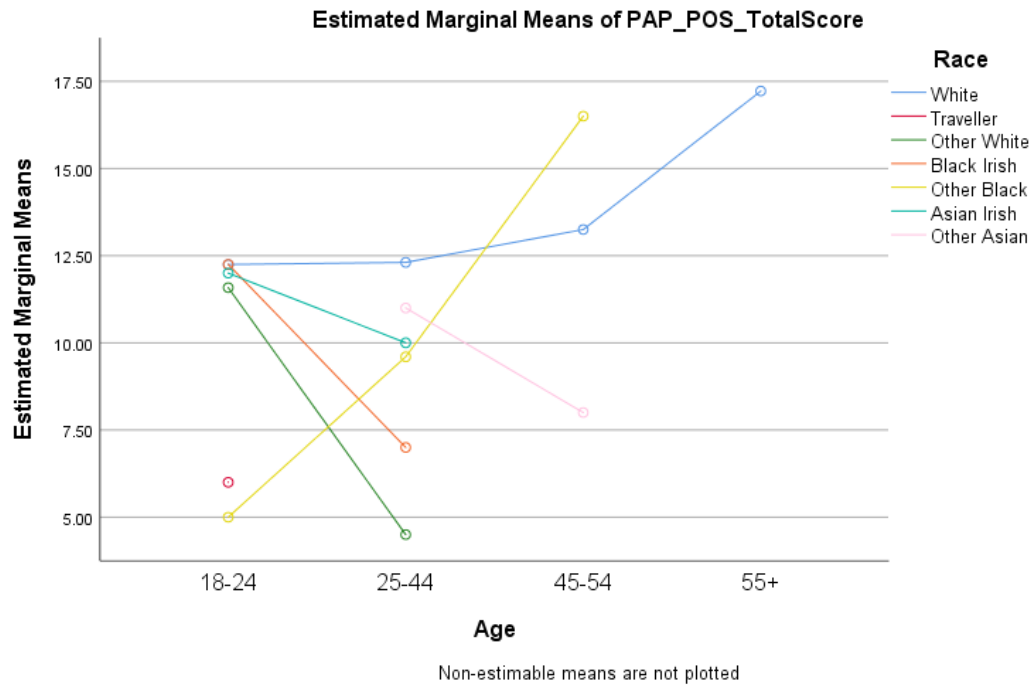


Figure 51 Gender/Age PAP (Negative) Scale

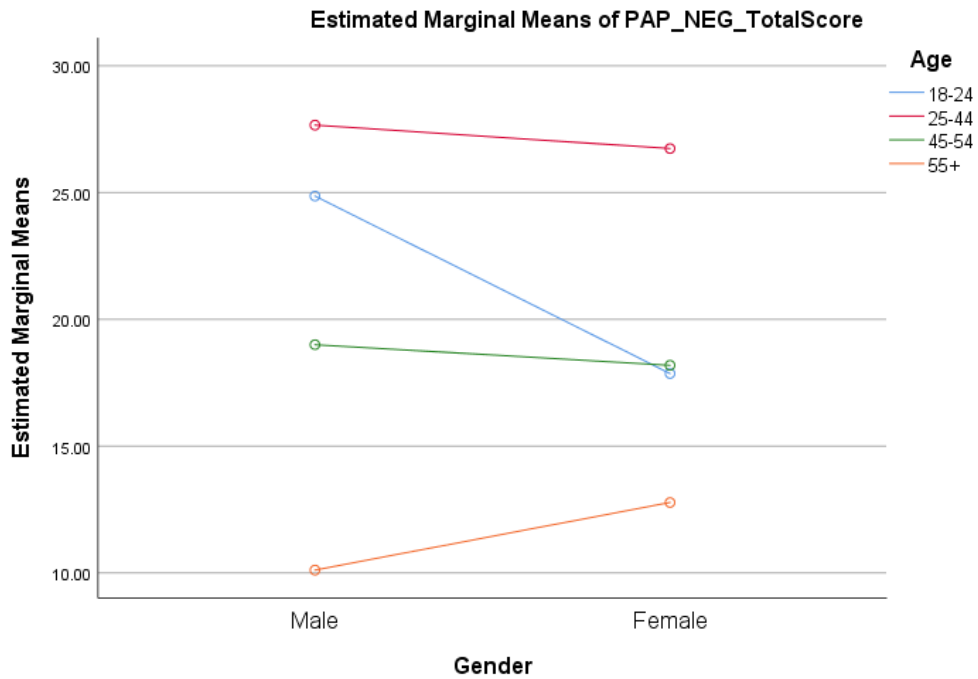


Figure 52 Gender/Race PAP (Negative) Scale

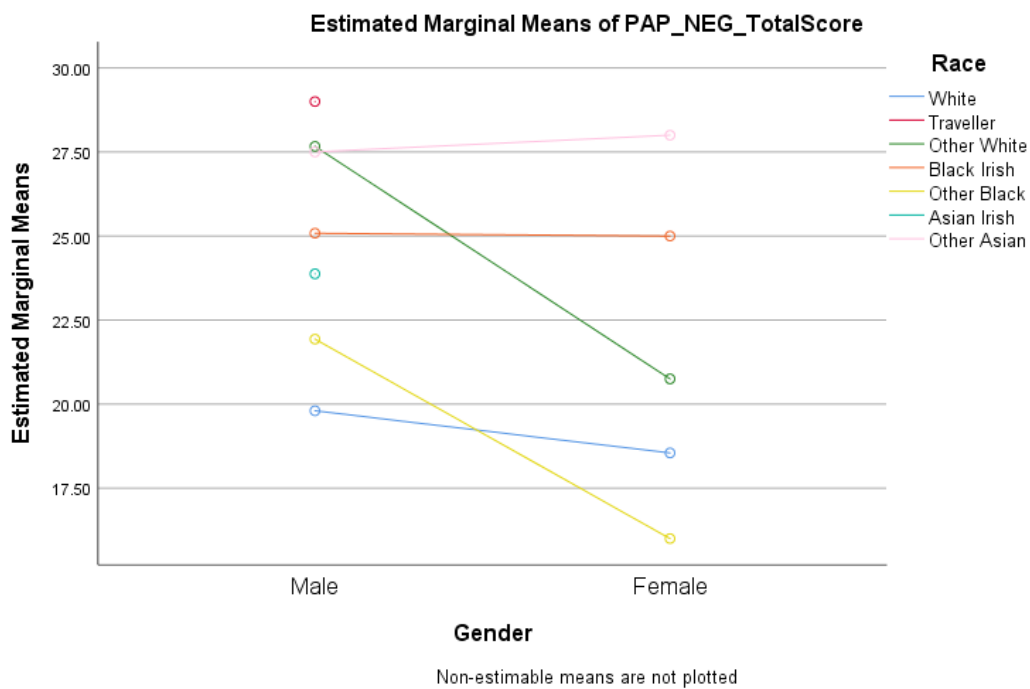


Figure 53 Age/Race PAP (Negative) Scale

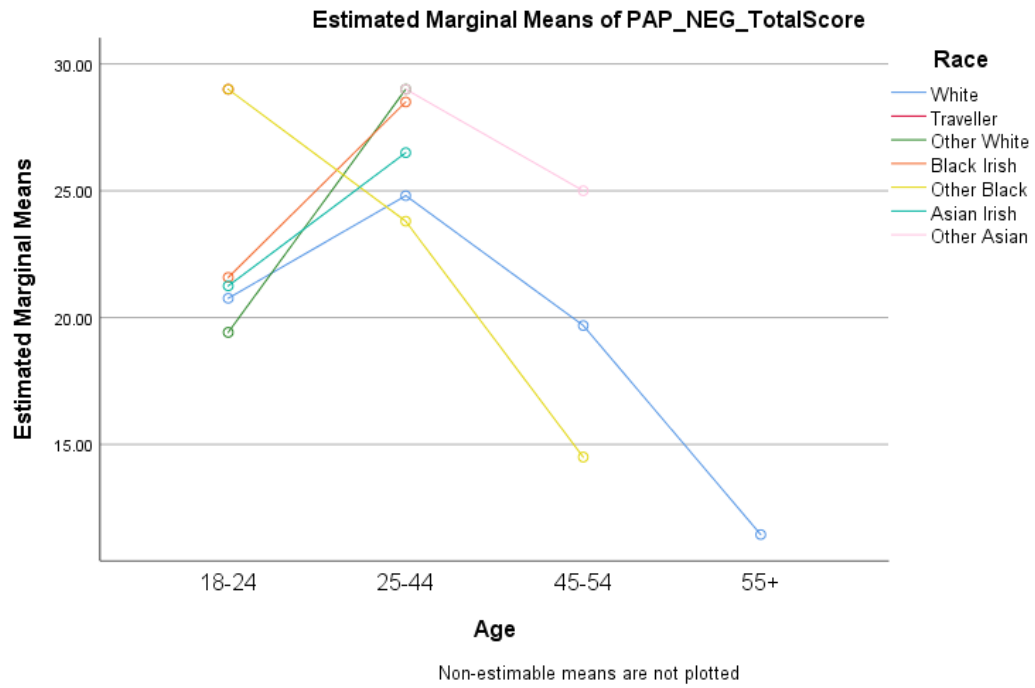


Figure 54 Gender/Age PAAS Scale

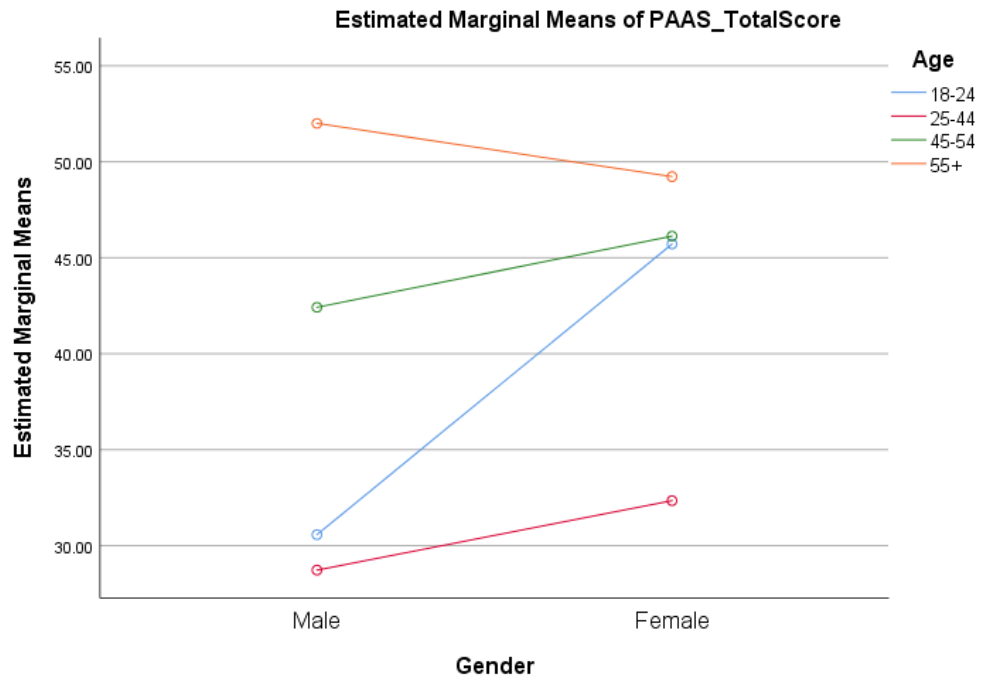


Figure 55 Gender/Race PAAS Scale

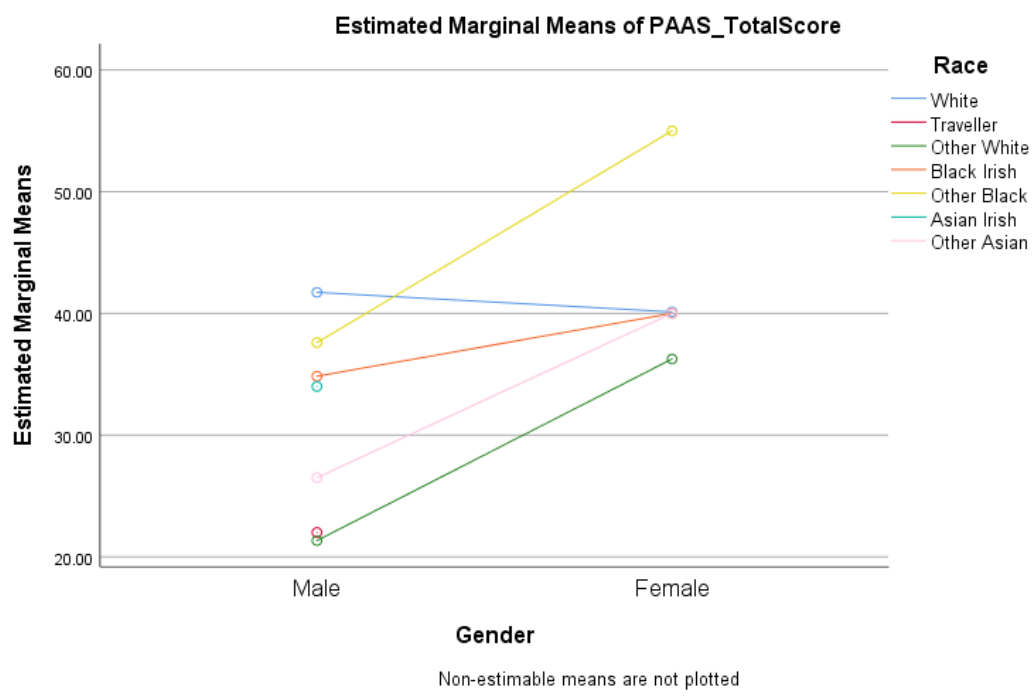
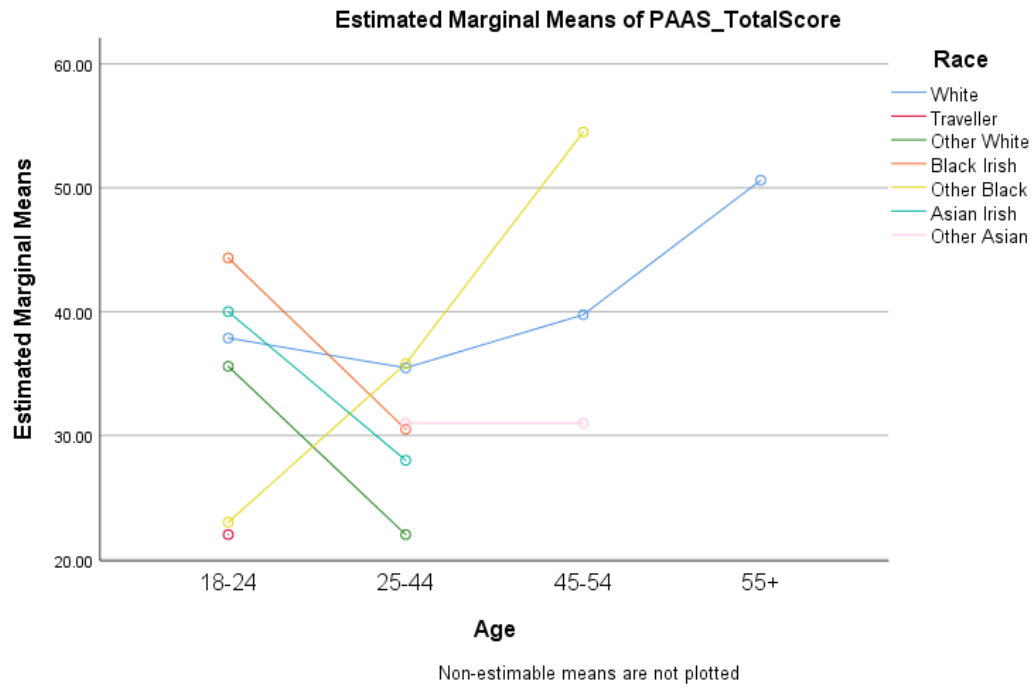


Figure 56 Age/Race PAAS Scale



**Appendix (xxi) Social Class Pairwise Comparison Tables**

Table 138 Class/PC Pairwise Comparison Table

**Pairwise Comparisons of Class**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test		Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
			Statistic	Sig.	
Lower-Upper Middle	-35.167	20.819	-1.689	.091	.547
Lower-Working	-37.303	15.476	-2.410	.016	.096
Lower-Middle	-54.060	15.490	-3.490	.000	.003
Upper Middle-Working	2.136	15.476	.138	.890	1.000
Upper Middle-Middle	18.893	15.490	1.220	.223	1.000
Working-Middle	-16.757	6.785	-2.470	.014	.081

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

Table 139 Class/PAP (Negative) Pairwise Comparison Table

**Pairwise Comparisons of Class**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test		Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
			Statistic	Sig.	
Middle-Upper Middle	-8.723	15.540	-.561	.575	1.000
Middle-Working	9.736	6.807	1.430	.153	.916
Middle-Lower	54.473	15.540	3.505	.000	.003
Upper Middle-Working	1.013	15.527	.065	.948	1.000
Upper Middle-Lower	45.750	20.887	2.190	.028	.171
Working-Lower	44.737	15.527	2.881	.004	.024

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

Table 140 Class/PAAS Pairwise Comparison Table

**Pairwise Comparisons of Class**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test		Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
			Statistic	Sig.	
Lower-Working	-28.737	15.529	-1.851	.064	.385
Lower-Upper Middle	-37.583	20.889	-1.799	.072	.432
Lower-Middle	-44.476	15.542	-2.862	.004	.025
Working-Upper Middle	-8.846	15.529	-.570	.569	1.000



Working-Middle	-15.739	6.808	-2.312	.021	.125
Upper Middle-Middle	6.893	15.542	.443	.657	1.000

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

**Appendix (xxii) Employment Pairwise Comparison Tables**

**Table 141 Employment/PC Pairwise Comparison Table**

<b>Pairwise Comparisons of Employment</b>					
Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
Unemployed-Looking for first regular job	21.400	22.806	.938	.348	1.000
Unemployed-Working for payment or profit	48.670	16.913	2.878	.004	.084
Unemployed-Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-53.750	30.169	-1.782	.075	1.000
Unemployed-Student	-55.649	17.181	-3.239	.001	.025
Unemployed-Looking after home/family	-58.500	19.194	-3.048	.002	.048
Unemployed-Retired from employment	-100.250	18.786	-5.336	.000	.000
Looking for first regular job-Working for payment or profit	27.270	16.913	1.612	.107	1.000
Looking for first regular job-Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-32.350	30.169	-1.072	.284	1.000
Looking for first regular job-Student	-34.249	17.181	-1.993	.046	.971
Looking for first regular job-Looking after home/family	-37.100	19.194	-1.933	.053	1.000
Looking for first regular job-Retired from employment	-78.850	18.786	-4.197	.000	.001
Working for payment or profit-Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-5.080	26.002	-.195	.845	1.000
Working for payment or profit-Student	-6.979	7.820	-.892	.372	1.000
Working for payment or profit-Looking after home/family	-9.830	11.591	-.848	.396	1.000
Working for payment or profit-Retired from employment	-51.580	10.903	-4.731	.000	.000

Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Student	1.899	26.178	.073	.942	1.000
Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Looking after home/family	4.750	27.541	.172	.863	1.000
Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Retired from employment	46.500	27.258	1.706	.088	1.000
Student-Looking after home/family	-2.851	11.979	-.238	.812	1.000
Student-Retired from employment	-44.601	11.314	-3.942	.000	.002
Looking after home/family-Retired from employment	-41.750	14.186	-2.943	.003	.068

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

**Table 142 Employment/PAP (Positive) Pairwise Comparison Table**

**Pairwise Comparisons of Employment**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
Unemployed-Looking for first regular job	26.100	22.800	1.145	.252	1.000
Unemployed-Student	-48.611	17.177	-2.830	.005	.098
Unemployed-Working for payment or profit	50.540	16.909	2.989	.003	.059
Unemployed-Looking after home/family	-67.550	19.189	-3.520	.000	.009
Unemployed-Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-78.800	30.161	-2.613	.009	.189
Unemployed-Retired from employment	-106.300	18.781	-5.660	.000	.000
Looking for first regular job-Student	-22.511	17.177	-1.311	.190	1.000

Looking for first regular job- Working for payment or profit	24.440	16.909	1.445	.148	1.000
Looking for first regular job- Looking after home/family	-41.450	19.189	-2.160	.031	.646
Looking for first regular job- Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-52.700	30.161	-1.747	.081	1.000
Looking for first regular job- Retired from employment	-80.200	18.781	-4.270	.000	.000
Student-Working for payment or profit	1.929	7.818	.247	.805	1.000
Student-Looking after home/family	-18.939	11.976	-1.581	.114	1.000
Student-Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-30.189	26.171	-1.154	.249	1.000
Student-Retired from employment	-57.689	11.312	-5.100	.000	.000
Working for payment or profit- Looking after home/family	-17.010	11.588	-1.468	.142	1.000
Working for payment or profit- Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-28.260	25.996	-1.087	.277	1.000
Working for payment or profit- Retired from employment	-55.760	10.900	-5.115	.000	.000
Looking after home/family- Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-11.250	27.533	-.409	.683	1.000
Looking after home/family- Retired from employment	-38.750	14.182	-2.732	.006	.132
Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Retired from employment	27.500	27.251	1.009	.313	1.000

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

Table 143 Employment/PAP (Negative) Pairwise Comparison Table

**Pairwise Comparisons of Employment**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
Retired from employment- Looking after home/family	49.393	14.232	3.471	.001	.011
Retired from employment- Student	52.528	11.352	4.627	.000	.000
Retired from employment- Working for payment or profit	53.973	10.939	4.934	.000	.000
Retired from employment- Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-71.143	27.347	-2.601	.009	.195
Retired from employment- Looking for first regular job	81.293	18.848	4.313	.000	.000
Retired from employment- Unemployed	103.093	18.848	5.470	.000	.000
Looking after home/family- Student	3.135	12.018	.261	.794	1.000
Looking after home/family- Working for payment or profit	4.580	11.629	.394	.694	1.000
Looking after home/family- Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-21.750	27.631	-.787	.431	1.000
Looking after home/family- Looking for first regular job	31.900	19.257	1.657	.098	1.000
Looking after home/family- Unemployed	53.700	19.257	2.789	.005	.111
Student-Working for payment or profit	1.445	7.845	.184	.854	1.000
Student-Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-18.615	26.263	-.709	.478	1.000
Student-Looking for first regular job	28.765	17.237	1.669	.095	1.000
Student-Unemployed	50.565	17.237	2.933	.003	.070

Working for payment or profit-Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-17.170	26.088	-.658	.510	1.000
Working for payment or profit-Looking for first regular job	-27.320	16.969	-1.610	.107	1.000
Working for payment or profit-Unemployed	-49.120	16.969	-2.895	.004	.080
Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Looking for first regular job	10.150	30.268	.335	.737	1.000
Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Unemployed	31.950	30.268	1.056	.291	1.000
Looking for first regular job-Unemployed	-21.800	22.880	-.953	.341	1.000

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

**Table 144 Employment/PAAS Pairwise Comparison Table**

### Pairwise Comparisons of Employment

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
Unemployed-Looking for first regular job	20.600	22.883	.900	.368	1.000
Unemployed-Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-36.400	30.272	-1.202	.229	1.000
Unemployed-Working for payment or profit	37.310	16.971	2.198	.028	.586
Unemployed-Looking after home/family	-42.733	19.259	-2.219	.026	.556
Unemployed-Student	-48.008	17.240	-2.785	.005	.112
Unemployed-Retired from employment	-91.579	18.850	-4.858	.000	.000
Looking for first regular job-Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-15.800	30.272	-.522	.602	1.000

Looking for first regular job- Working for payment or profit	16.710	16.971	.985	.325	1.000
Looking for first regular job- Looking after home/family	-22.133	19.259	-1.149	.250	1.000
Looking for first regular job- Student	-27.408	17.240	-1.590	.112	1.000
Looking for first regular job- Retired from employment	-70.979	18.850	-3.765	.000	.003
Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Working for payment or profit	.910	26.091	.035	.972	1.000
Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Looking after home/family	6.333	27.634	.229	.819	1.000
Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Student	11.608	26.267	.442	.659	1.000
Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Retired from employment	55.179	27.351	2.017	.044	.917
Working for payment or profit- Looking after home/family	-5.423	11.631	-.466	.641	1.000
Working for payment or profit- Student	-10.698	7.846	-1.363	.173	1.000
Working for payment or profit- Retired from employment	-54.269	10.940	-4.960	.000	.000
Looking after home/family- Student	5.275	12.020	.439	.661	1.000
Looking after home/family- Retired from employment	-48.845	14.234	-3.432	.001	.013
Student-Retired from employment	-43.570	11.353	-3.838	.000	.003

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

## Appendix (xxiii) Education Mean Scores (Bar Charts)

Figure 57 Education/PC Means

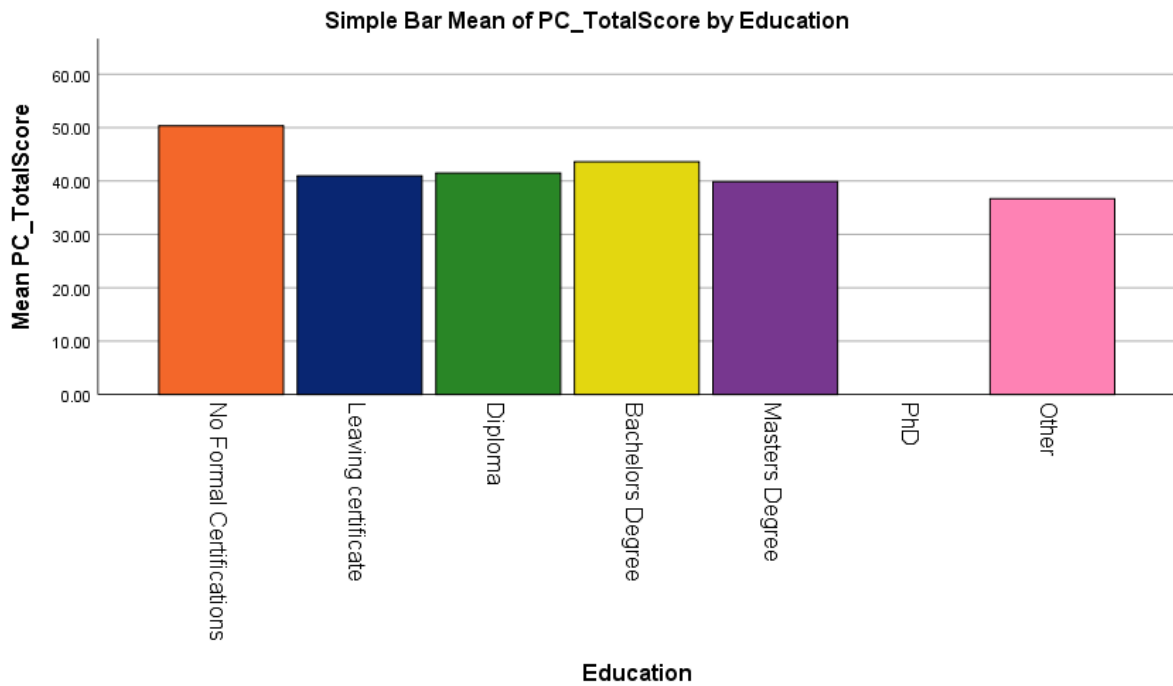


Figure 58 Education/PAP (Positive) Means

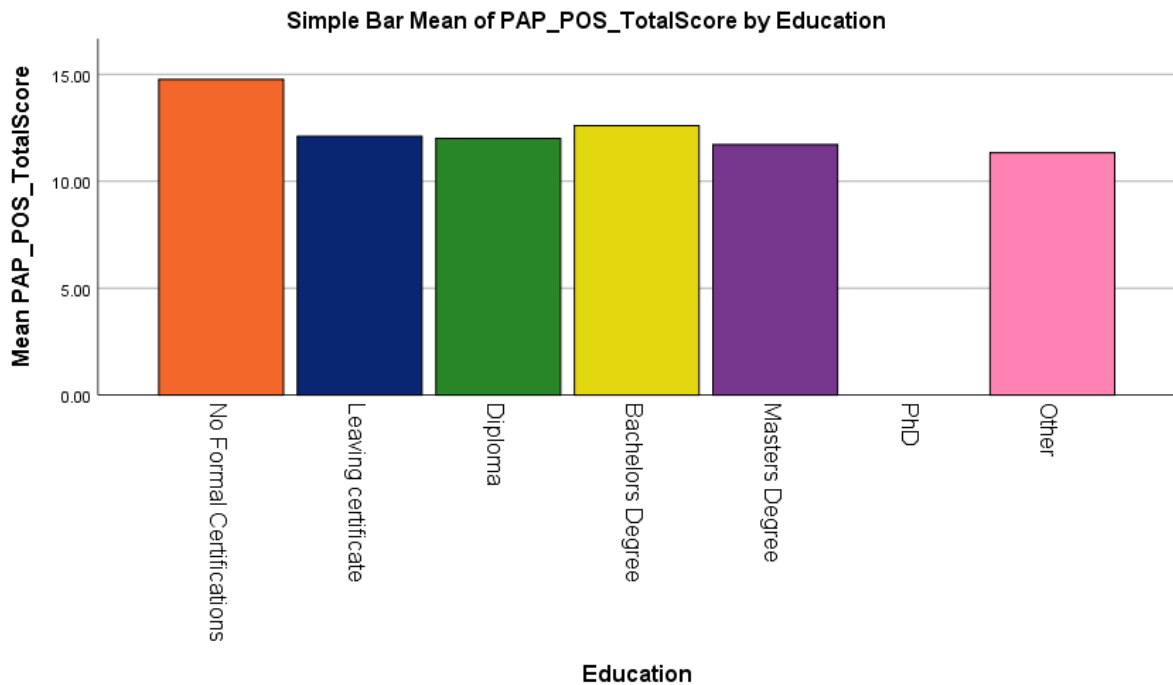
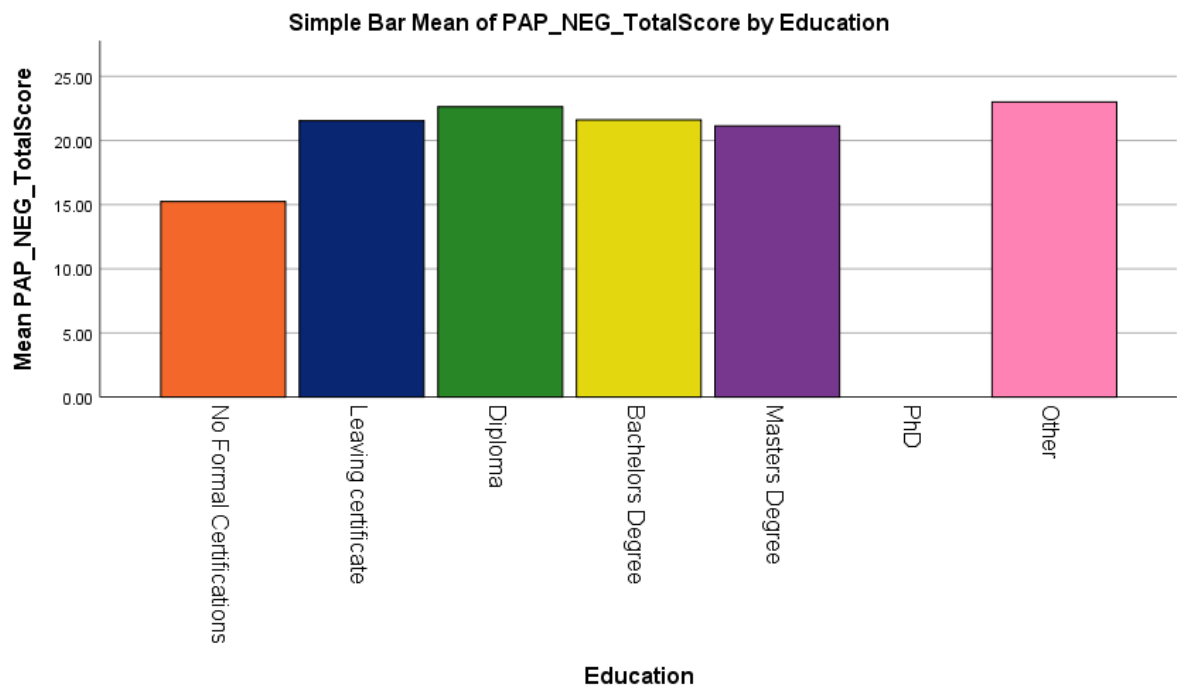




Figure 59 Education/PAP (Negative) Means



**Appendix (xxiv) Education Pairwise Comparison Tables**

Table 145 Education/PAP (Positive) Pairwise Comparison Table

Sample 1-Sample 2		Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
				Statistic		
Diploma-Other		-2.375	19.469	-.122	.903	1.000
Diploma-Leaving certificate		5.750	13.767	.418	.676	1.000
Diploma-Masters Degree		-6.839	18.658	-.367	.714	1.000
Diploma-Bachelors Degree		-6.968	14.127	-.493	.622	1.000
Diploma-No	Formal	35.530	14.978	2.372	.018	.265
Certifications						
Other-Leaving certificate		3.375	15.610	.216	.829	1.000
Other-Masters Degree		4.464	20.056	.223	.824	1.000
Other-Bachelors Degree		4.593	15.929	.288	.773	1.000
Other-No	Formal	33.155	16.688	1.987	.047	.704
Certifications						
Leaving certificate-Masters Degree		-1.089	14.585	-.075	.940	1.000
Leaving certificate-Bachelors Degree		-1.218	8.013	-.152	.879	1.000
Leaving certificate-No Formal Certifications		29.780	9.432	3.157	.002	.024
Masters Degree-Bachelors Degree		.129	14.926	.009	.993	1.000
Masters Degree-No Formal Certifications		28.690	15.733	1.824	.068	1.000
Bachelors Degree-No Formal Certifications		28.562	9.951	2.870	.004	.062

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

Table 146 Education/PAAS Pairwise Comparison Table

Sample 1-Sample 2		Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
				Statistic		
Other-Diploma		19.229	19.540	.984	.325	1.000
Other-Leaving certificate		27.292	15.667	1.742	.082	1.000

Other-Masters Degree	29.310	20.130	1.456	.145	1.000
Other-Bachelors Degree	30.795	15.987	1.926	.054	.811
Other-No Formal Certifications	51.738	16.749	3.089	.002	.030
Diploma-Leaving certificate	8.063	13.817	.584	.560	1.000
Diploma-Masters Degree	-10.080	18.726	-.538	.590	1.000
Diploma-Bachelors Degree	-11.566	14.179	-.816	.415	1.000
Diploma-No Formal Certifications	32.509	15.033	2.163	.031	.459
Leaving certificate-Masters Degree	-2.018	14.639	-.138	.890	1.000
Leaving certificate-Bachelors Degree	-3.504	8.042	-.436	.663	1.000
Leaving certificate-No Formal Certifications	24.446	9.466	2.582	.010	.147
Masters Degree-Bachelors Degree	1.486	14.981	.099	.921	1.000
Masters Degree-No Formal Certifications	22.429	15.791	1.420	.156	1.000
Bachelors Degree-No Formal Certifications	20.943	9.987	2.097	.036	.540

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

**Appendix (xxv) Levene's Test of Error Variances Class, Employment and Education**

Table 147 Levene's Test PC Scale

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances<sup>a,b</sup>**

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PC_TotalScore	Based on Mean	2.769	23	87	.000
	Based on Median	1.160	23	87	.303
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.160	23	48.127	.324
	Based on trimmed mean	2.573	23	87	.001

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: PC\_TotalScore

b. Design: Intercept + Class + Employment + Education + Class \* Employment + Class \* Education + Employment \* Education + Class \* Employment \* Education

Table 148 Levene's Test PAP (Positive) Scale

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances<sup>a,b</sup>**

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PAP_POS_TotalScore	Based on Mean	3.035	23	87	.000
	Based on Median	.950	23	87	.535
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.950	23	41.222	.540
	Based on trimmed mean	2.718	23	87	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: PAP\_POS\_TotalScore

b. Design: Intercept + Class + Employment + Education + Class \* Employment + Class \* Education + Employment \* Education + Class \* Employment \* Education

Table 149 Levene's Test PAAS Scale

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances<sup>a,b</sup>**

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PAAS_TotalScore	Based on Mean	2.404	23	87	.002
	Based on Median	.920	23	87	.573
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.920	23	43.825	.575
	Based on trimmed mean	2.260	23	87	.004

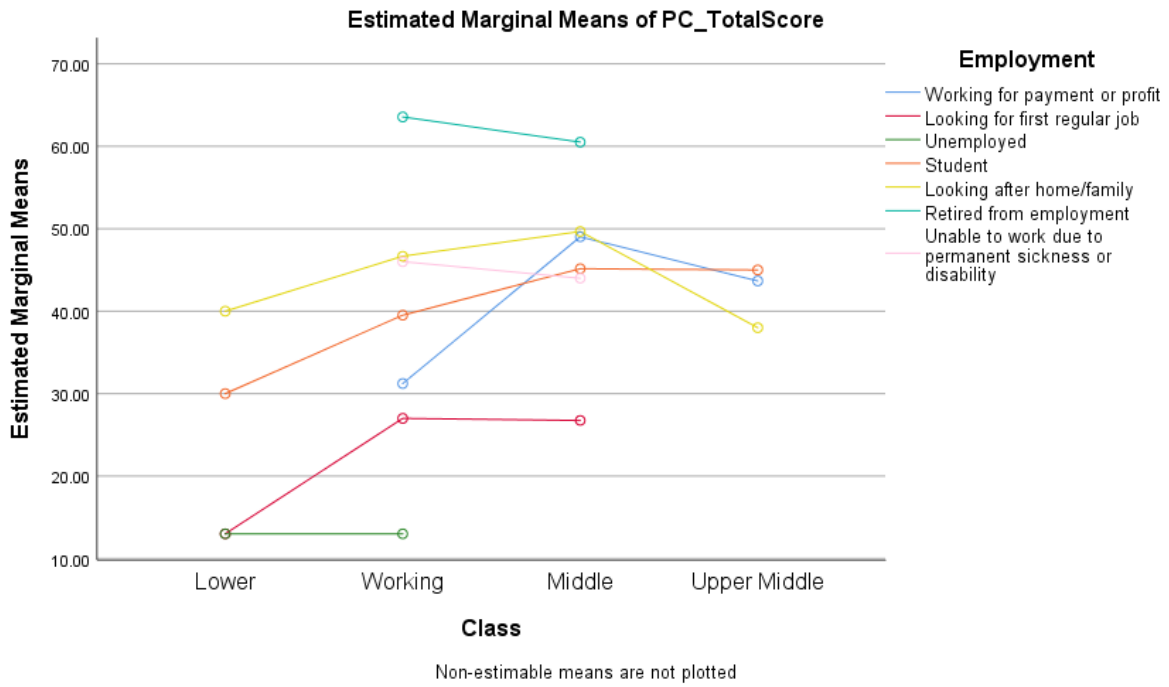
Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: PAAS\_TotalScore

b. Design: Intercept + Class + Employment + Education + Class \* Employment + Class \* Education + Employment \* Education + Class \* Employment \* Education

**Appendix (xxvi) Social Class, Employment and Education Interaction Plots**

**Figure 60 Class/Employment PC Scale**



**Figure 61 Class/Education PC Scale**

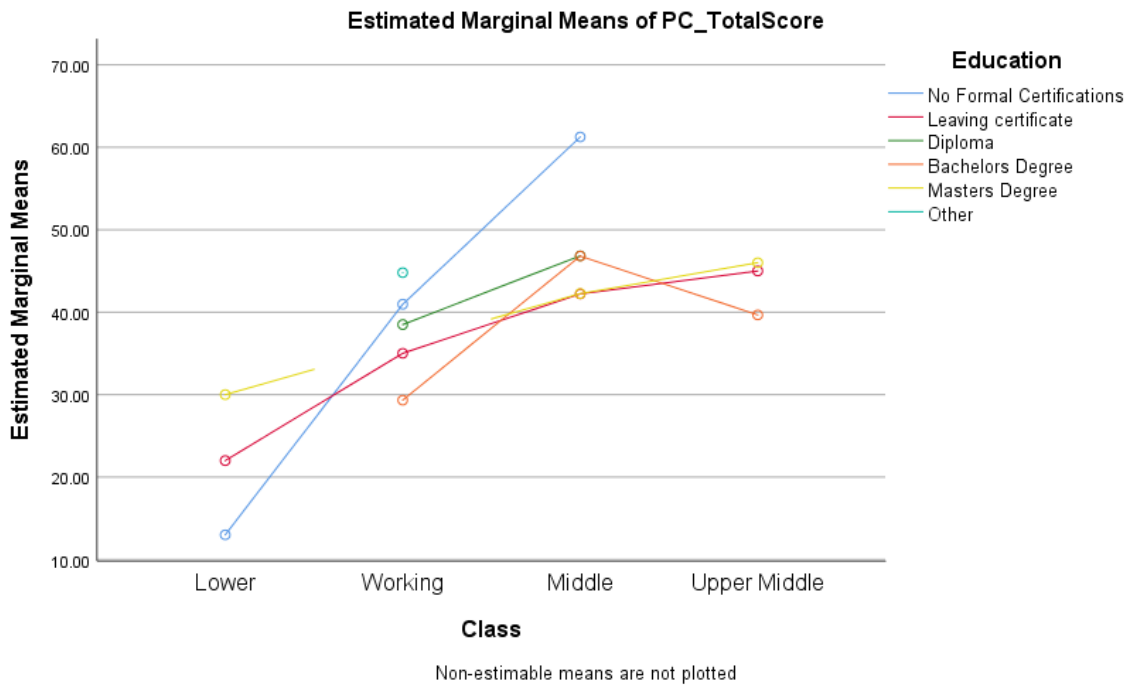


Figure 62 Employment/Education PC Scale

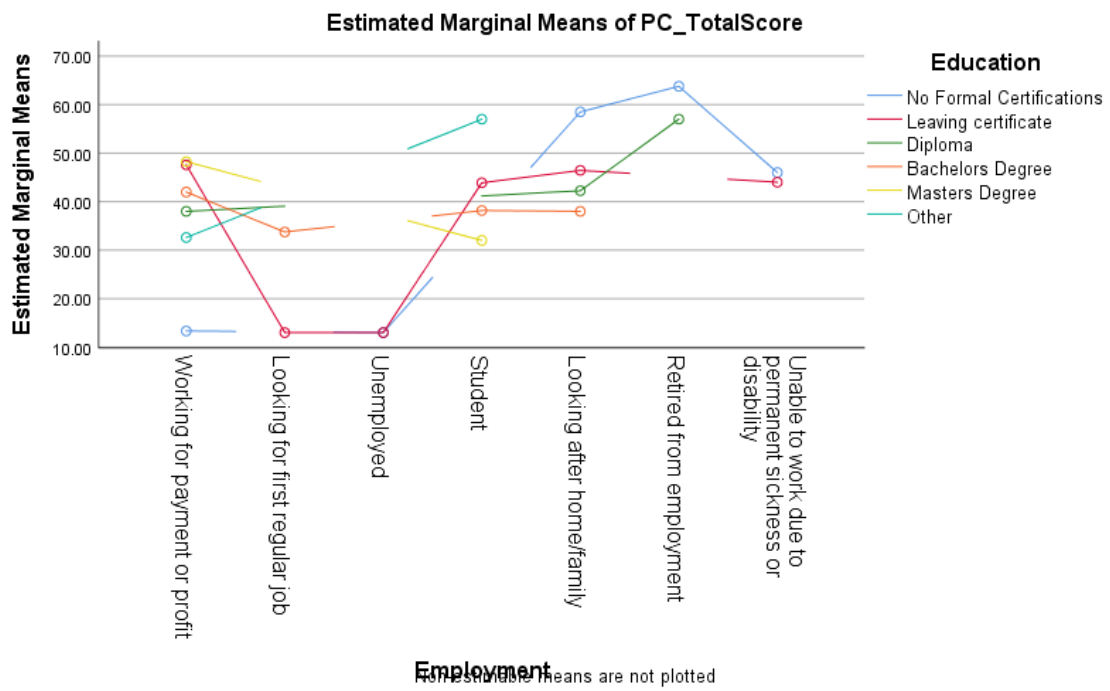


Figure 63 Class/Employment PAP (Positive) Scale

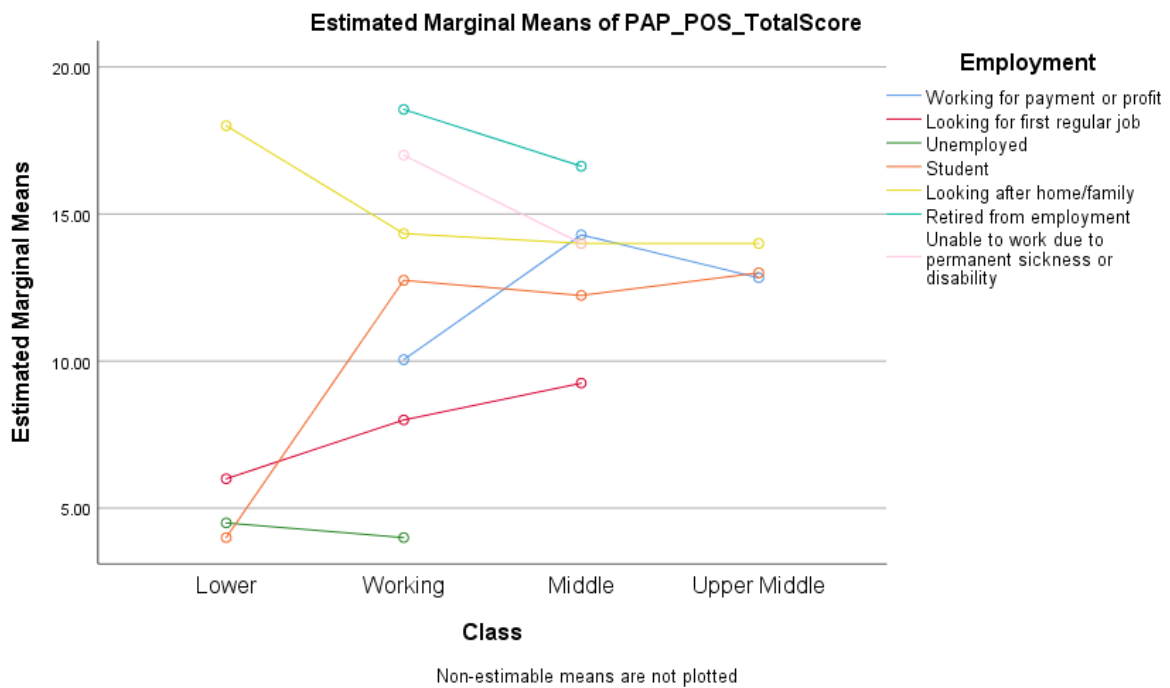


Figure 64 Class/Education PAP (Positive) Scale

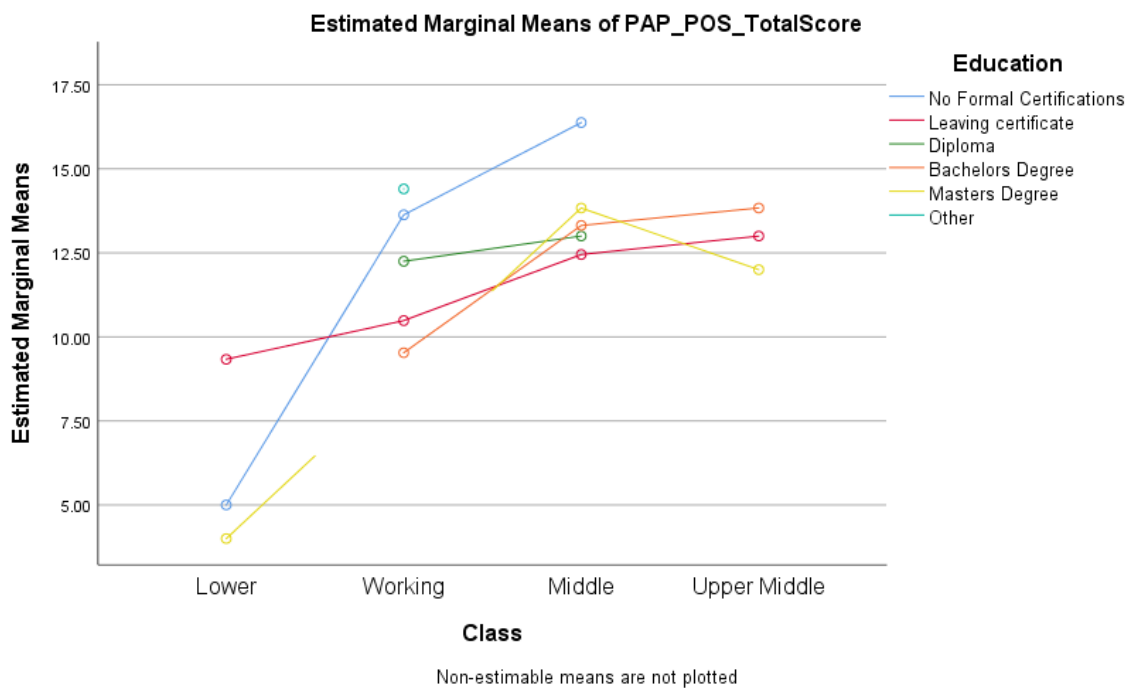




Figure 65 Employment/Education PAP (Positive) Scale

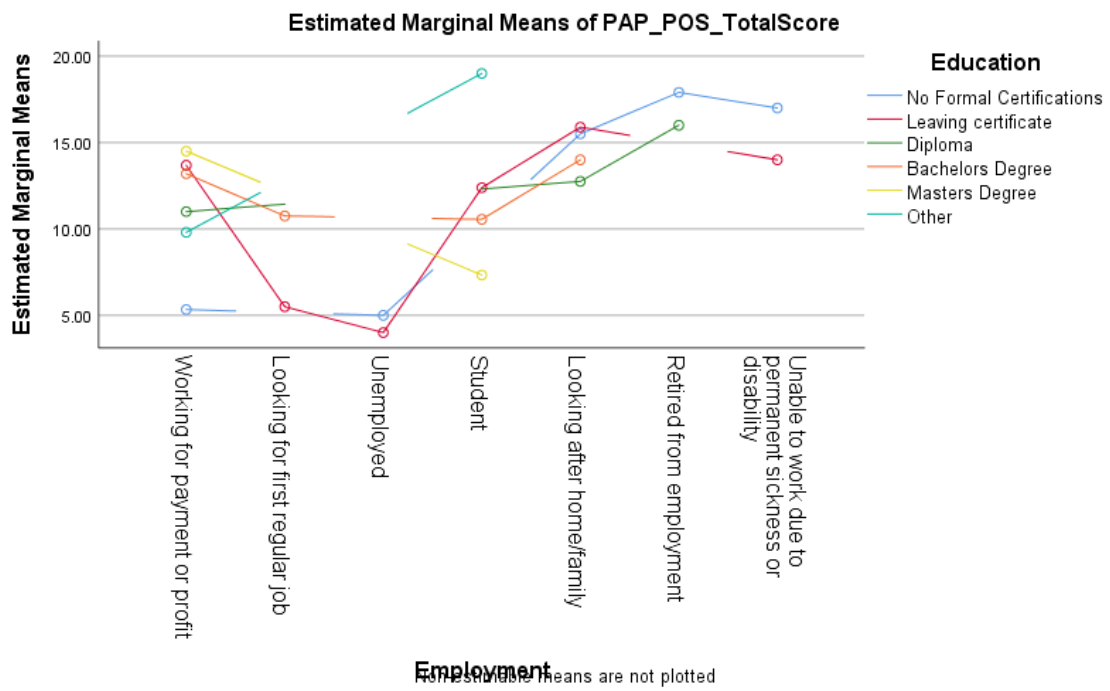


Figure 66 Class/Employment PAP (Negative) Scale

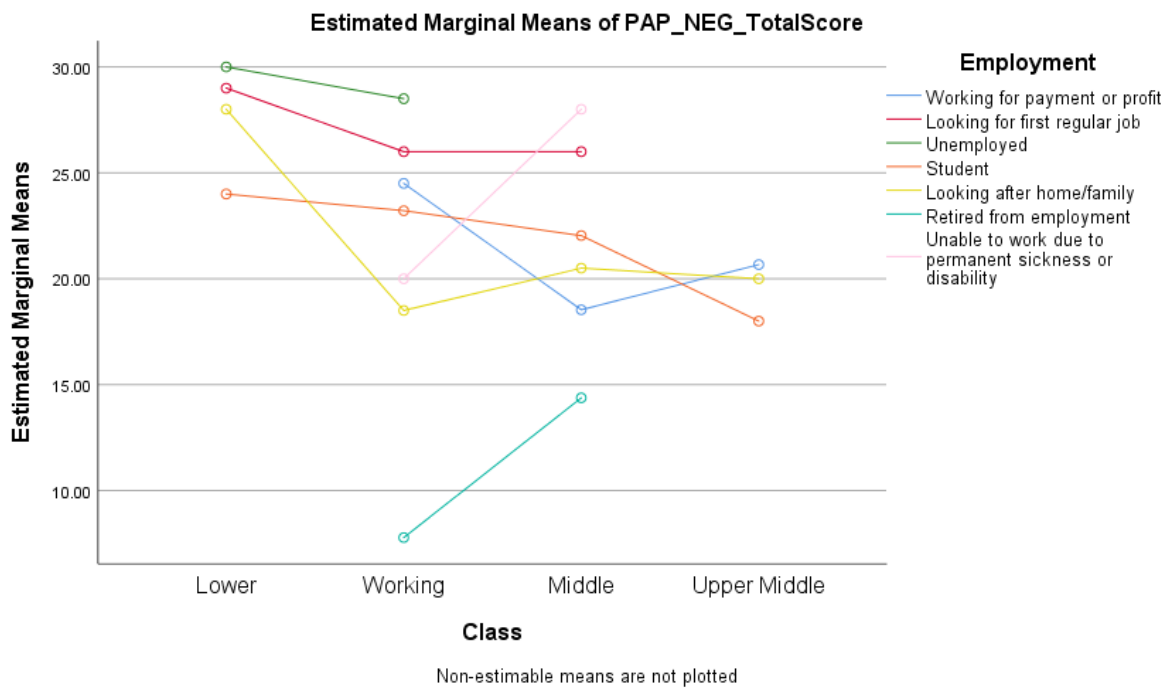


Figure 67 Class/Education PAP (Negative) Scale

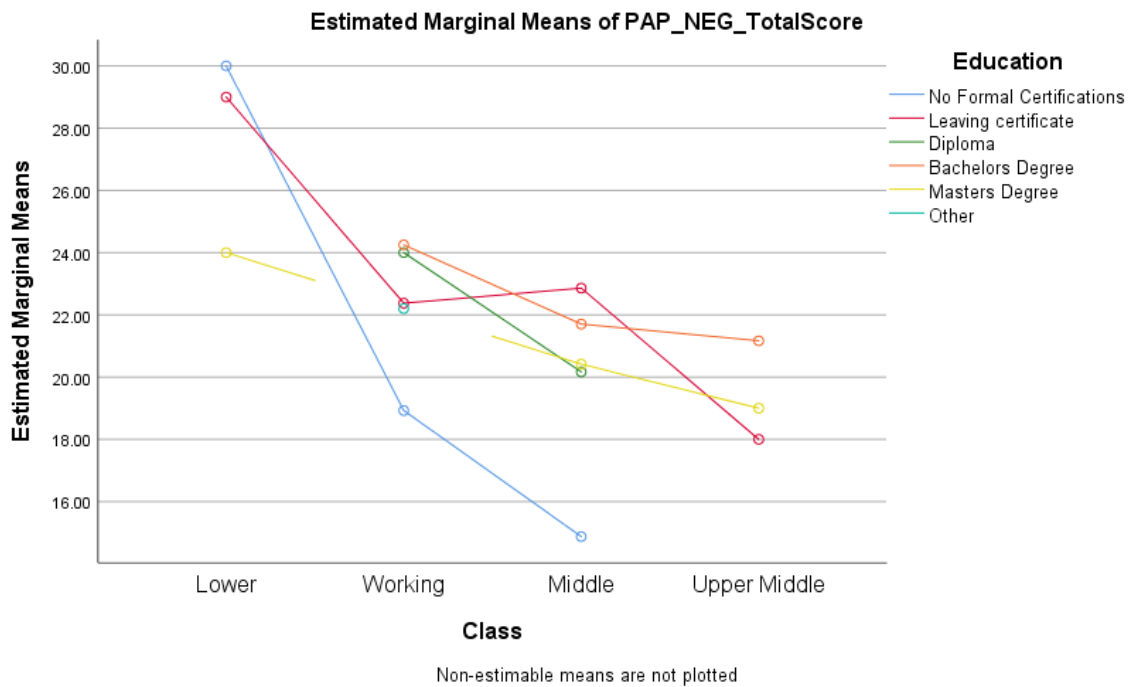


Figure 68 Employment/Education PAP (Negative) Scale

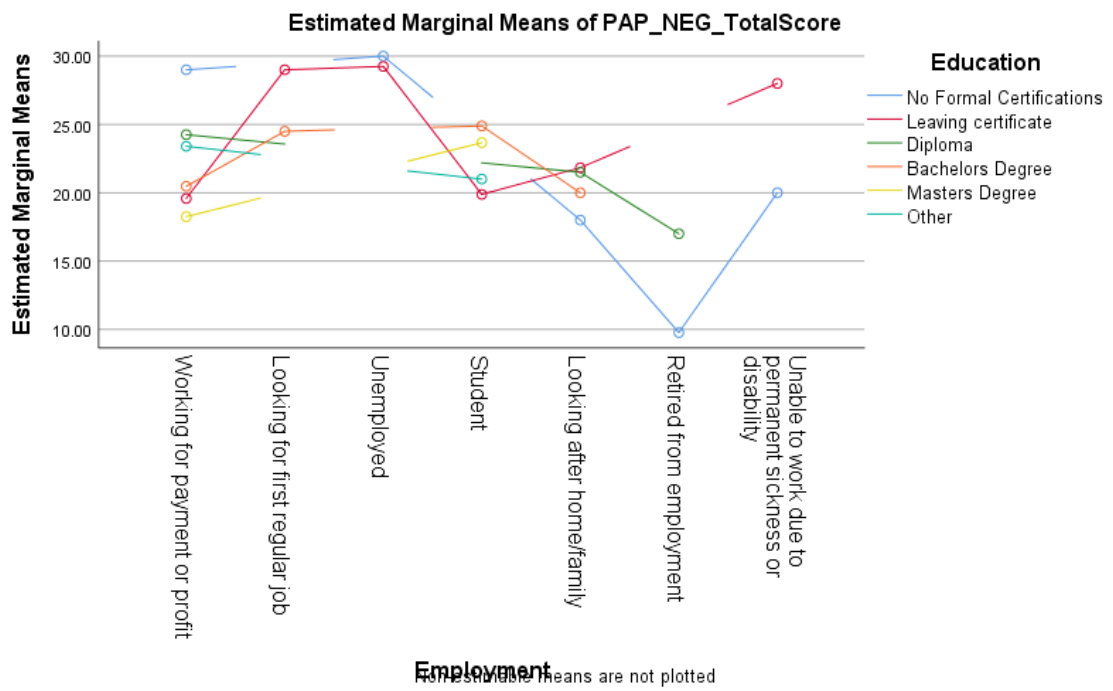


Figure 69 Class/Employment PAAS Scale

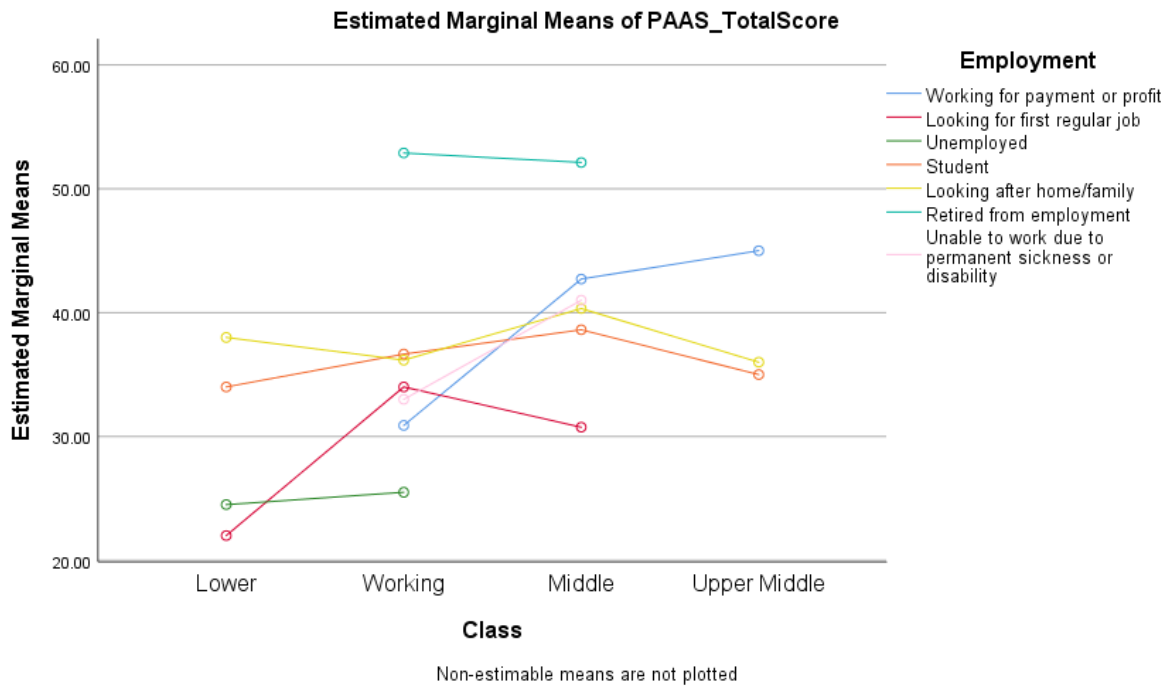


Figure 70 Class/Education PAAS Scale

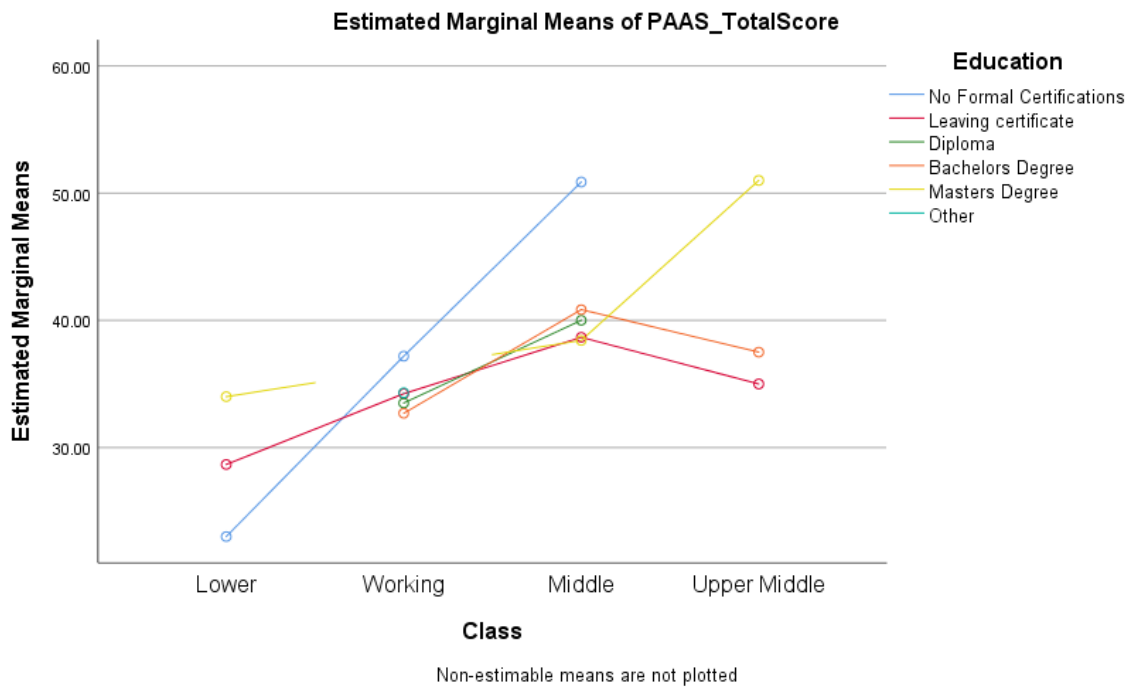
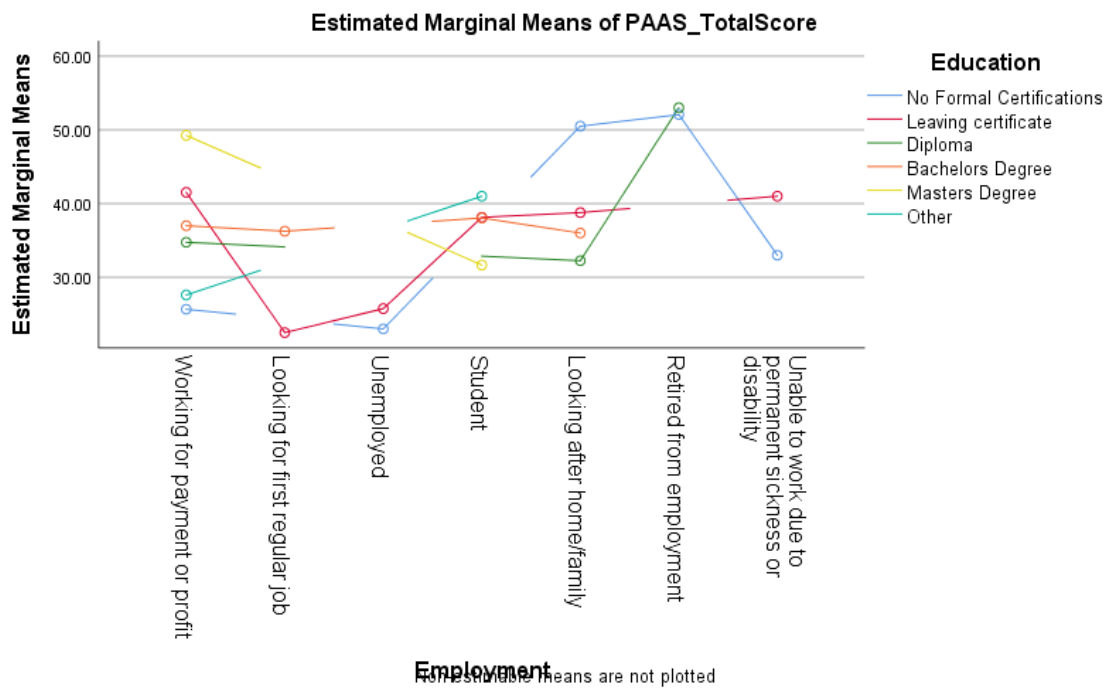
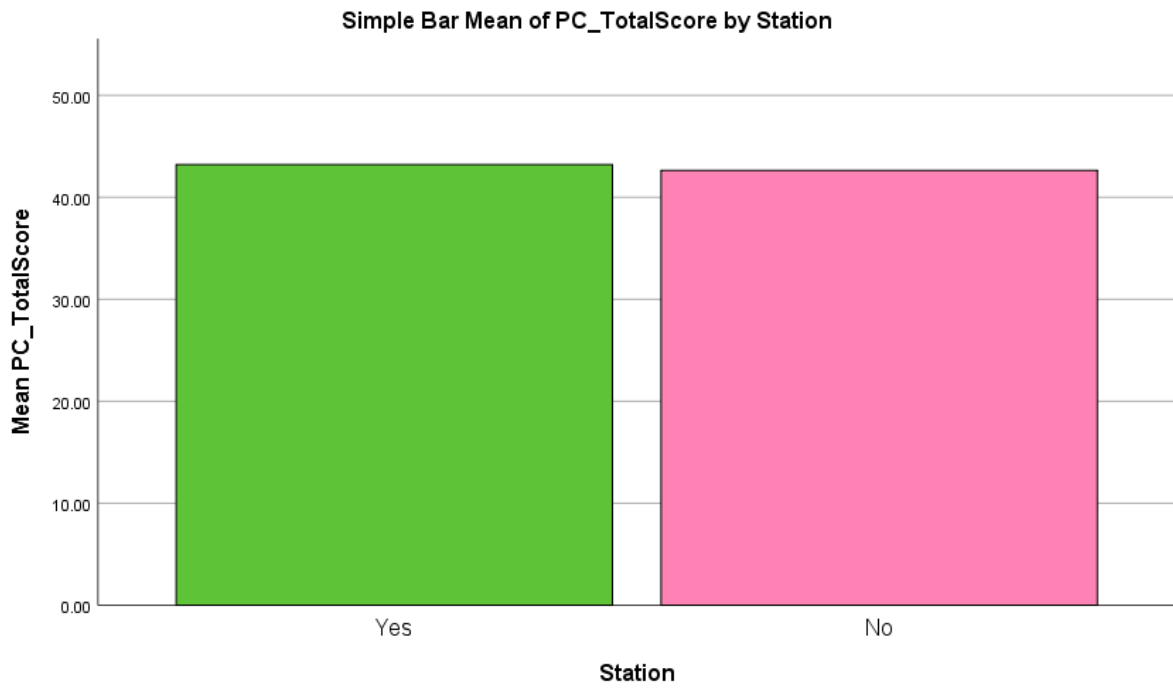


Figure 71 Employment/Education PAAS Scale



**Appendix (xxvii) Station Mean Scores (Bar Charts)**

**Figure 72 Station/PC Means**



**Figure 73 Station/PAP (Positive) Means**

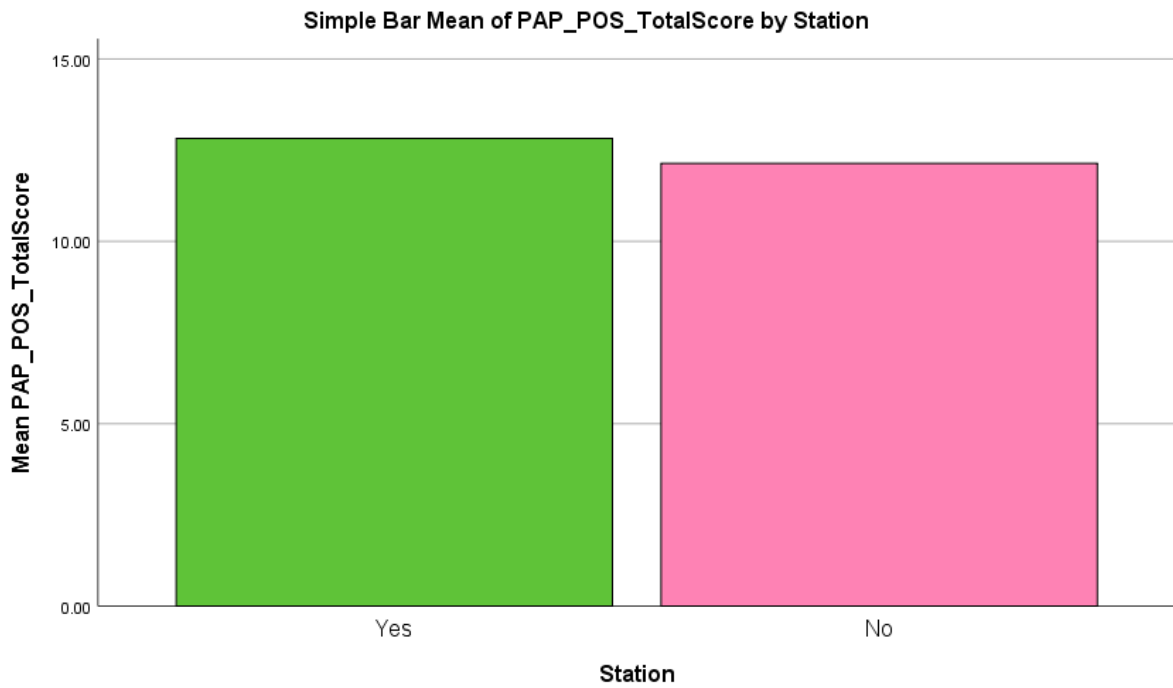


Figure 74 Station/PAP (Negative) Means

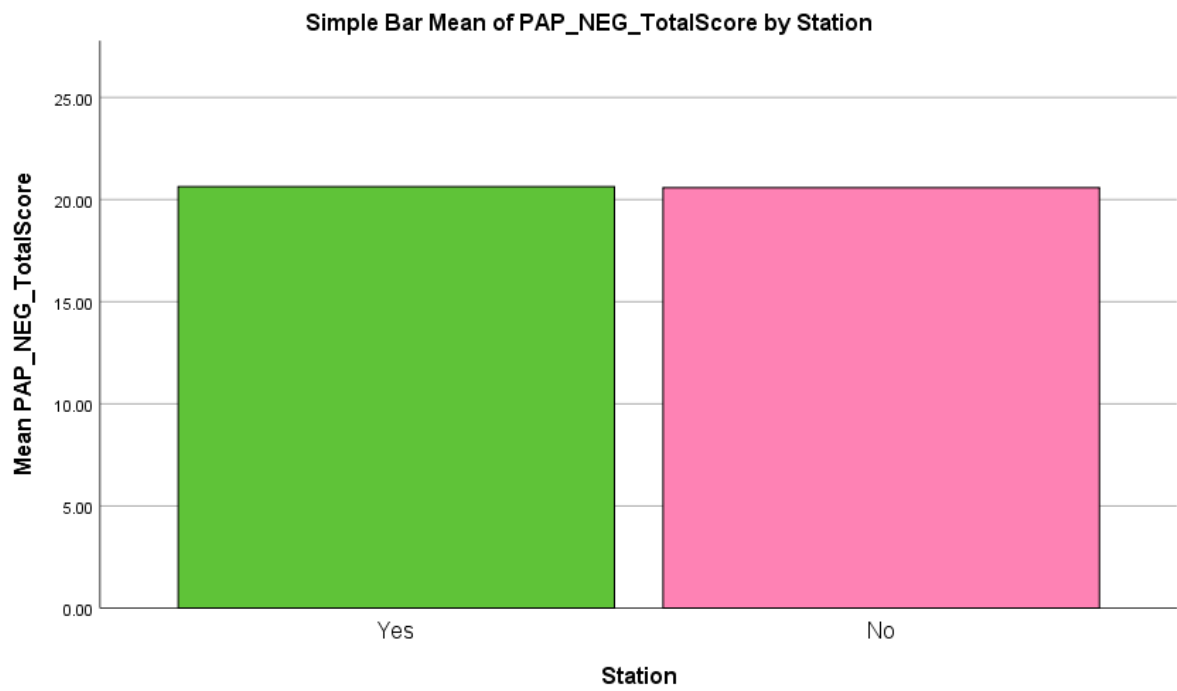
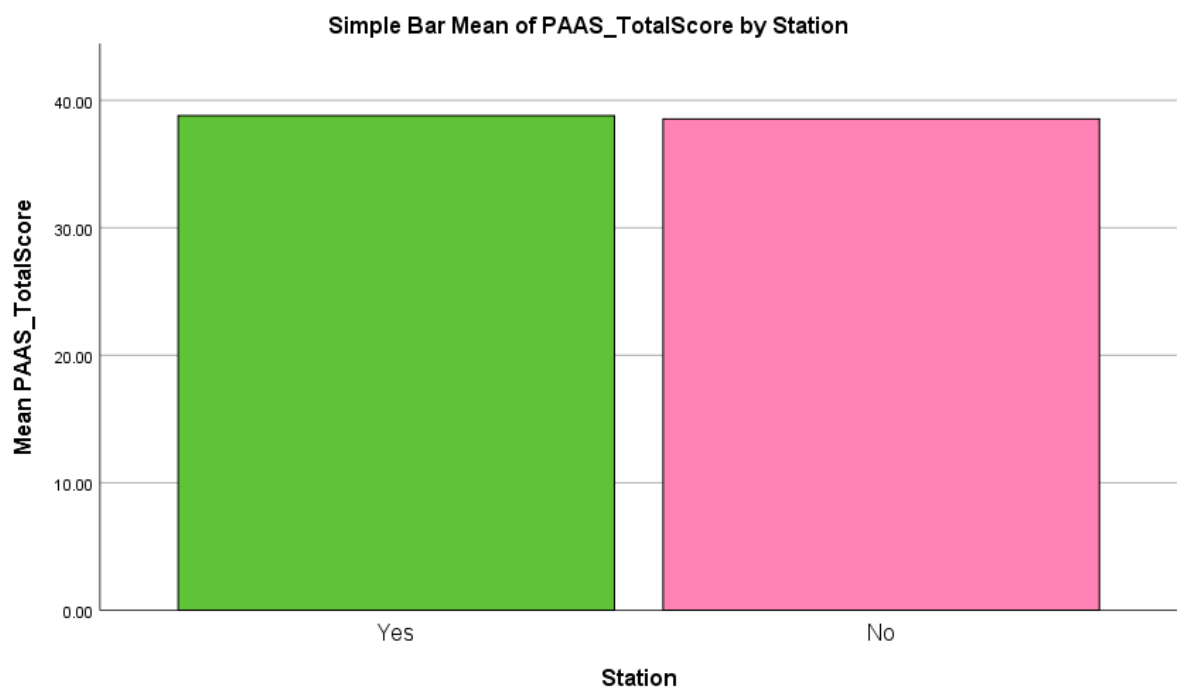


Figure 75 Station/PAAS Means



## Appendix (xxviii) Residence and Station ANOVA Results

Table 150 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Influence of Residence and Station on PC Scale

### Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PC\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	2602.012 <sup>a</sup>	3	867.337	2.885	.039	.067
Intercept	50257.700	1	50257.700	167.190	.000	.580
Residence	377.798	1	377.798	1.257	.264	.010
Station	70.879	1	70.879	.236	.628	.002
Residence * Station	86.132	1	86.132	.287	.593	.002
Error	36372.788	121	300.602			
Total	270530.000	125				
Corrected Total	38974.800	124				

a. R Squared = .067 (Adjusted R Squared = .044)

Table 151 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Influence of Residence and Station on PAP (Positive) Scale

### Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PAP\_POS\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	313.656 <sup>a</sup>	3	104.552	5.852	.001	.127
Intercept	4333.342	1	4333.342	242.560	.000	.667
Residence	33.741	1	33.741	1.889	.172	.015
Station	11.678	1	11.678	.654	.420	.005
Residence * Station	16.205	1	16.205	.907	.343	.007
Error	2161.672	121	17.865			
Total	22396.000	125				
Corrected Total	2475.328	124				

a. R Squared = .127 (Adjusted R Squared = .105)

Table 152 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Influence of Residence and Station on PAP (Negative) Scale

### Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PAP\_NEG\_TotalScore



Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	718.790 <sup>a</sup>	3	239.597	3.473	.018	.079
Intercept	11906.312	1	11906.312	172.560	.000	.588
Residence	91.281	1	91.281	1.323	.252	.011
Station	8.488	1	8.488	.123	.726	.001
Residence * Station	31.361	1	31.361	.455	.501	.004
Error	8348.778	121	68.998			
Total	62195.000	125				
Corrected Total	9067.568	124				

a. R Squared = .079 (Adjusted R Squared = .056)

Table 153 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Influence of Residence and Station on PAAS Scale

### Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

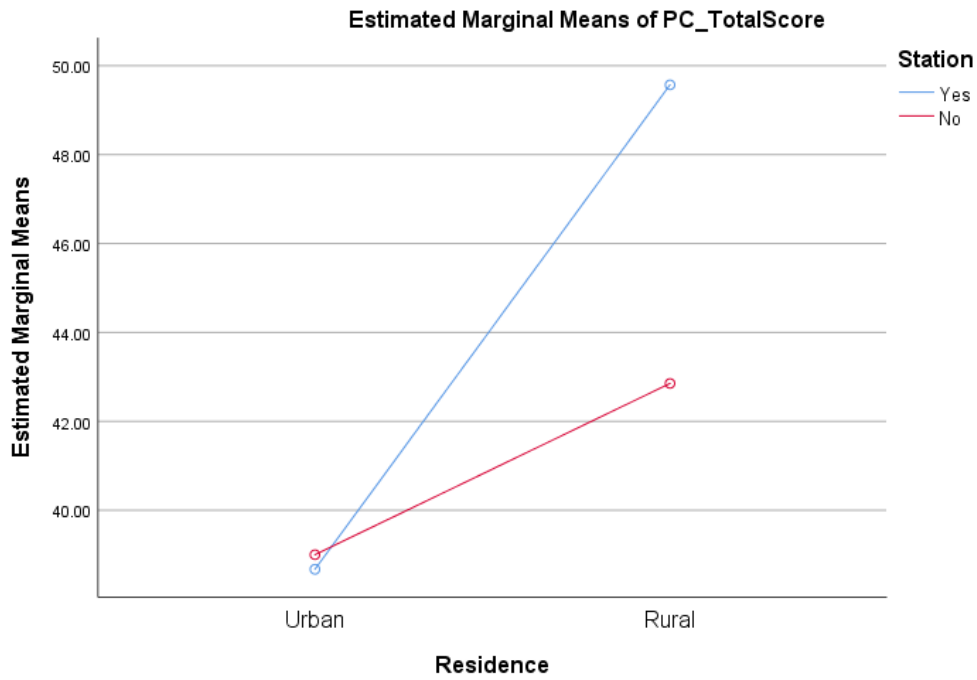
Dependent Variable: PAAS\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	508.737 <sup>a</sup>	3	169.579	1.455	.230	.035
Intercept	37943.316	1	37943.316	325.648	.000	.729
Residence	277.506	1	277.506	2.382	.125	.019
Station	134.312	1	134.312	1.153	.285	.009
Residence * Station	33.032	1	33.032	.284	.595	.002
Error	14098.463	121	116.516			
Total	202012.000	125				
Corrected Total	14607.200	124				

a. R Squared = .035 (Adjusted R Squared = .011)

**Appendix (xxix) Residence and Station Interaction Plots**

**Figure 76 Residence/Station PC Scale**



**Figure 77 Residence/Station PAP (Positive) Scale**

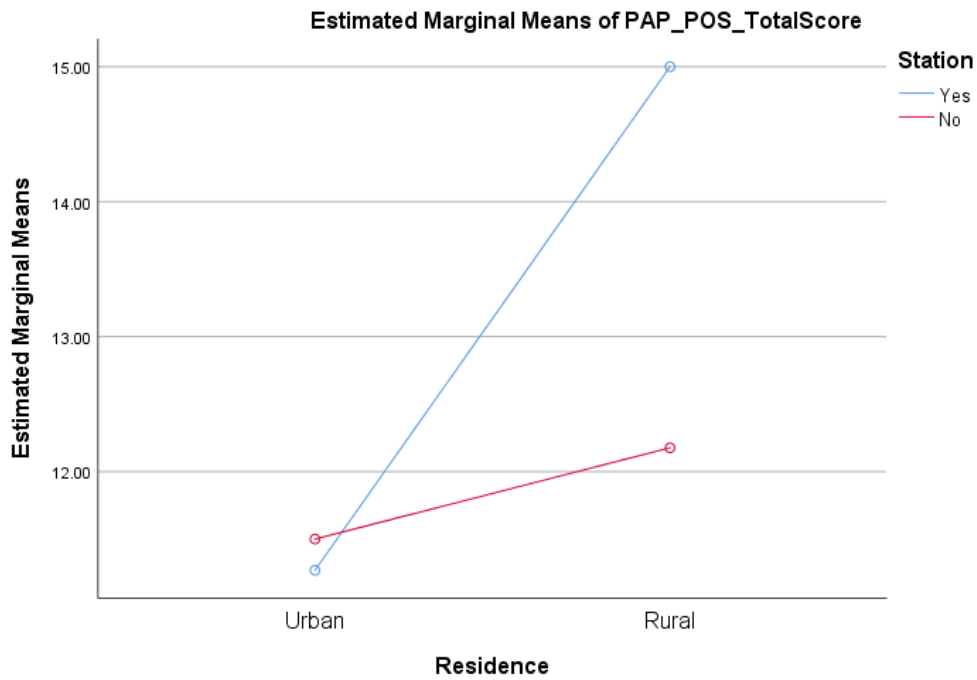


Figure 78 Residence/Station PAP (Negative) Scale

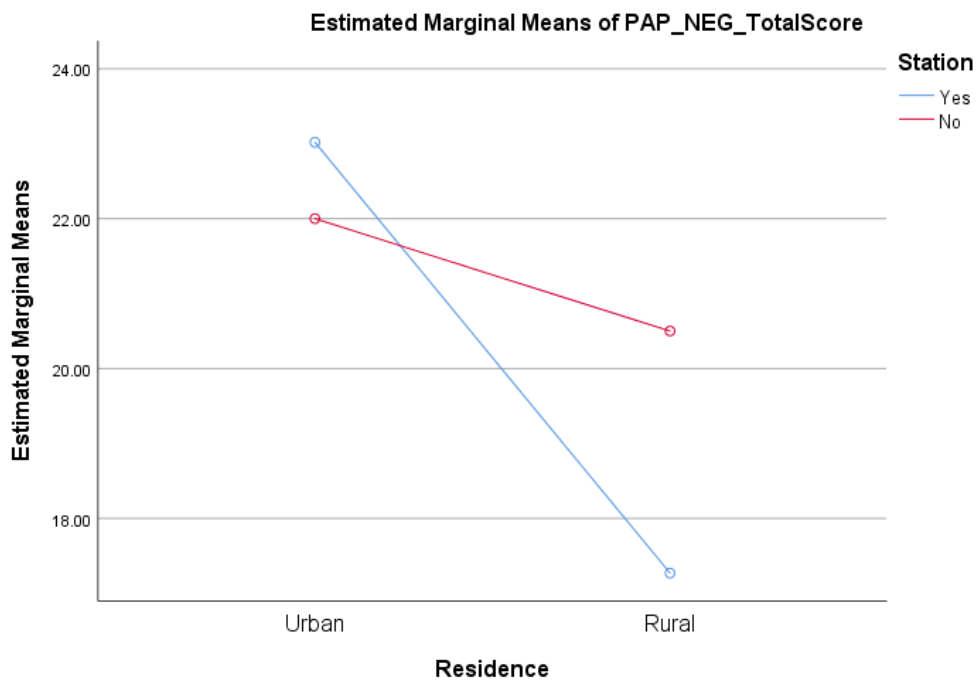
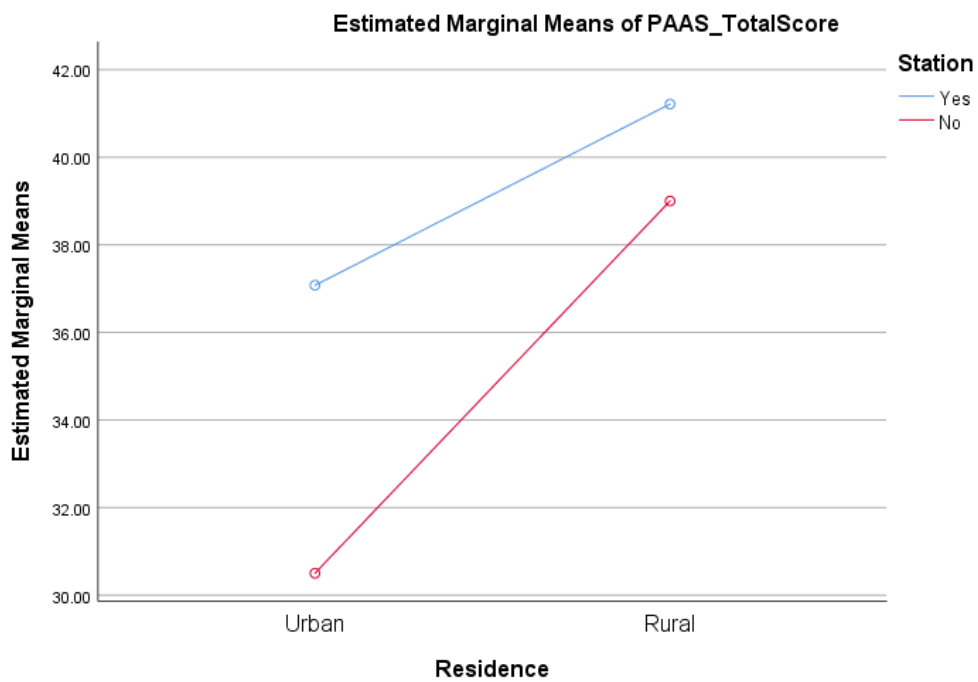


Figure 79 Residence/Station PAAS Scale



**Appendix (xxx) Encounter Type Pairwise Comparison Table**

Table 154 Encounter Type/PC Scale Pairwise Comparison Table

**Pairwise Comparisons of Previous\_Experience\_Rate**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test		Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
			Statistic	Sig.	
Negative-Neutral	25.245	10.068	2.507	.012	.036
Negative-Positive	67.920	7.915	8.581	.000	.000
Neutral-Positive	42.675	8.622	4.949	.000	.000

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

Table 155 Encounter Type/PAP (Positive) Scale Pairwise Comparison Table

**Pairwise Comparisons of Previous\_Experience\_Rate**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test		Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
			Statistic	Sig.	
Negative-Neutral	27.306	10.066	2.713	.007	.020
Negative-Positive	63.876	7.913	8.072	.000	.000
Neutral-Positive	36.570	8.620	4.242	.000	.000

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

Table 156 Encounter Type/PAP (Negative) Scale Pairwise Comparison Table

**Pairwise Comparisons of Previous\_Experience\_Rate**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test		Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
			Statistic	Sig.	
Positive-Neutral	-40.236	8.651	-4.651	.000	.000
Positive-Negative	-62.060	7.941	-7.815	.000	.000
Neutral-Negative	-21.824	10.101	-2.161	.031	.092

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

Table 157 Encounter Type/PAAS Scale Pairwise Comparison Table

**Pairwise Comparisons of Previous\_Experience\_Rate**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
Negative-Neutral	17.182	10.102	1.701	.089	.267
Negative-Positive	58.031	7.942	7.307	.000	.000
Neutral-Positive	40.849	8.652	4.722	.000	.000

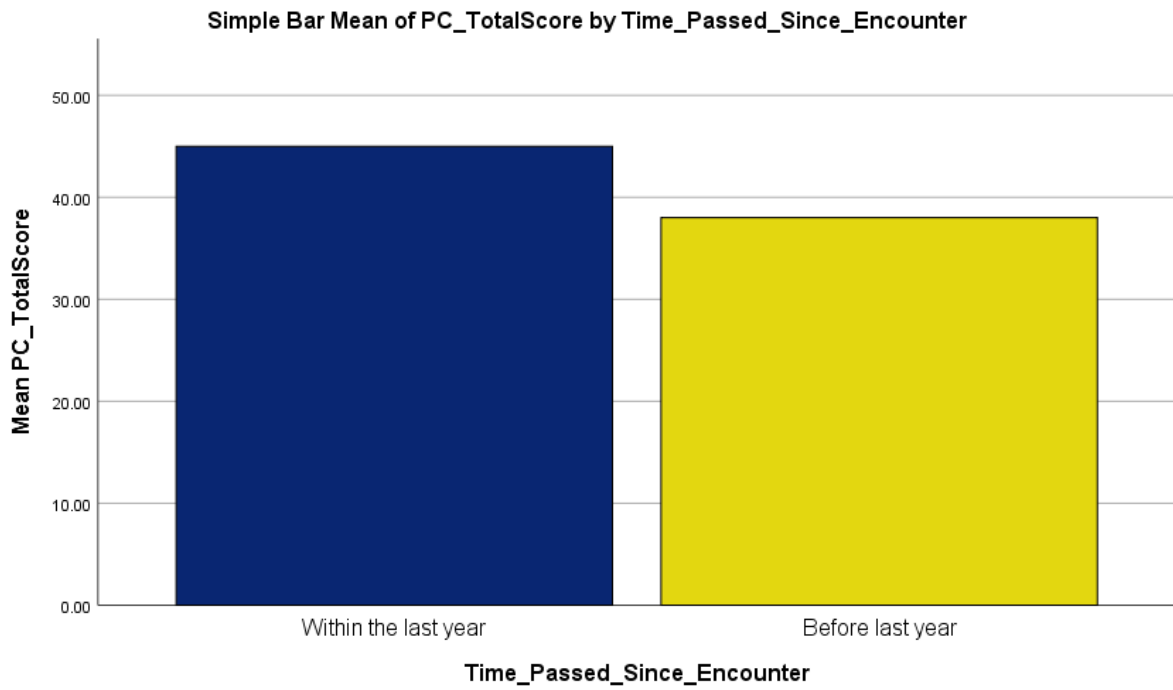
Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

**Appendix (xxxi) Time Passed Mean Scores (Bar Charts)**

**Figure 80 Time Passed/PC Mean Scores**



**Figure 81 Time Passed/PAP (Positive) Mean Scores**

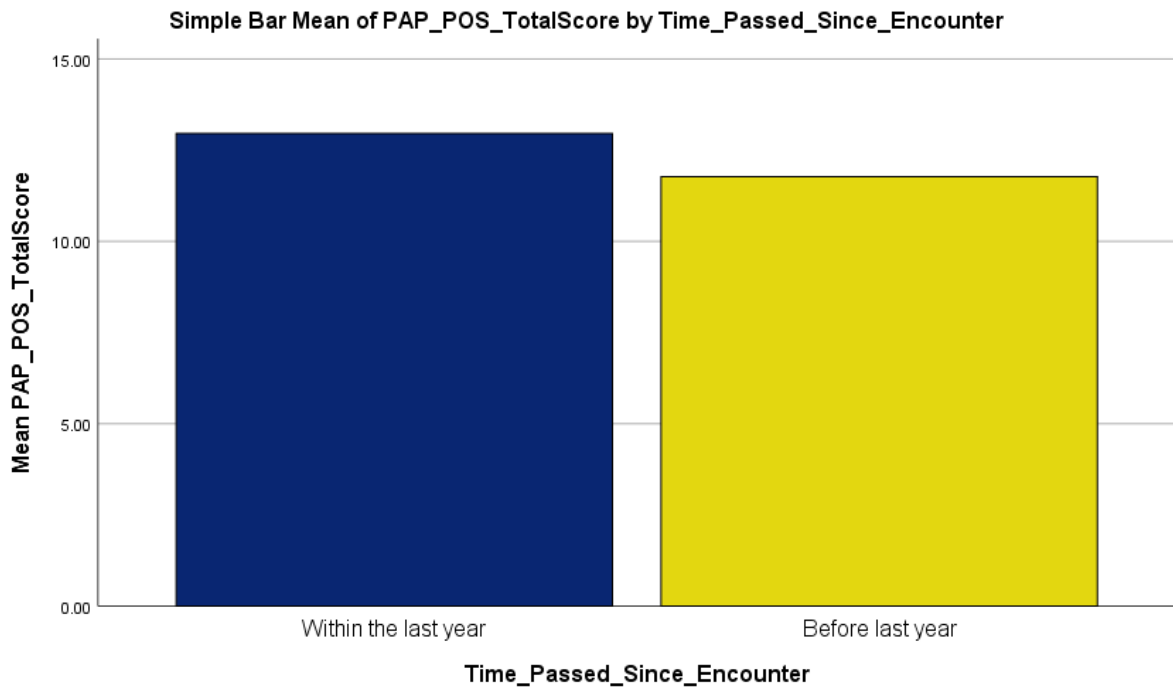


Figure 82 Time Passed/PAP (Negative) Mean Scores

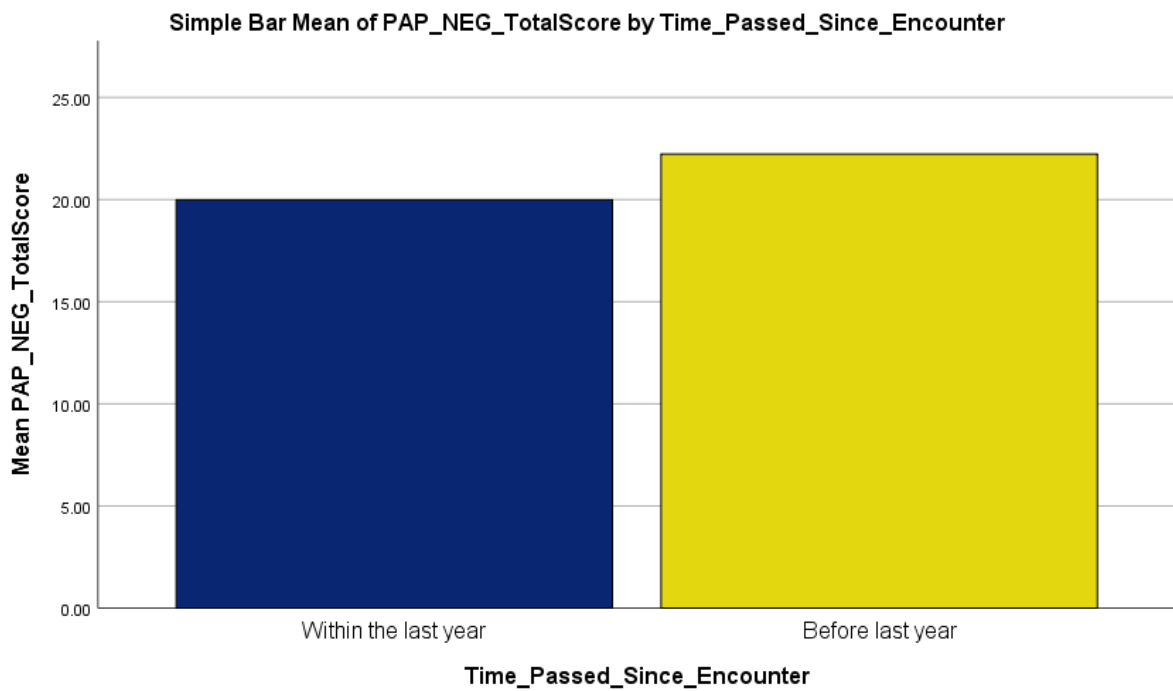
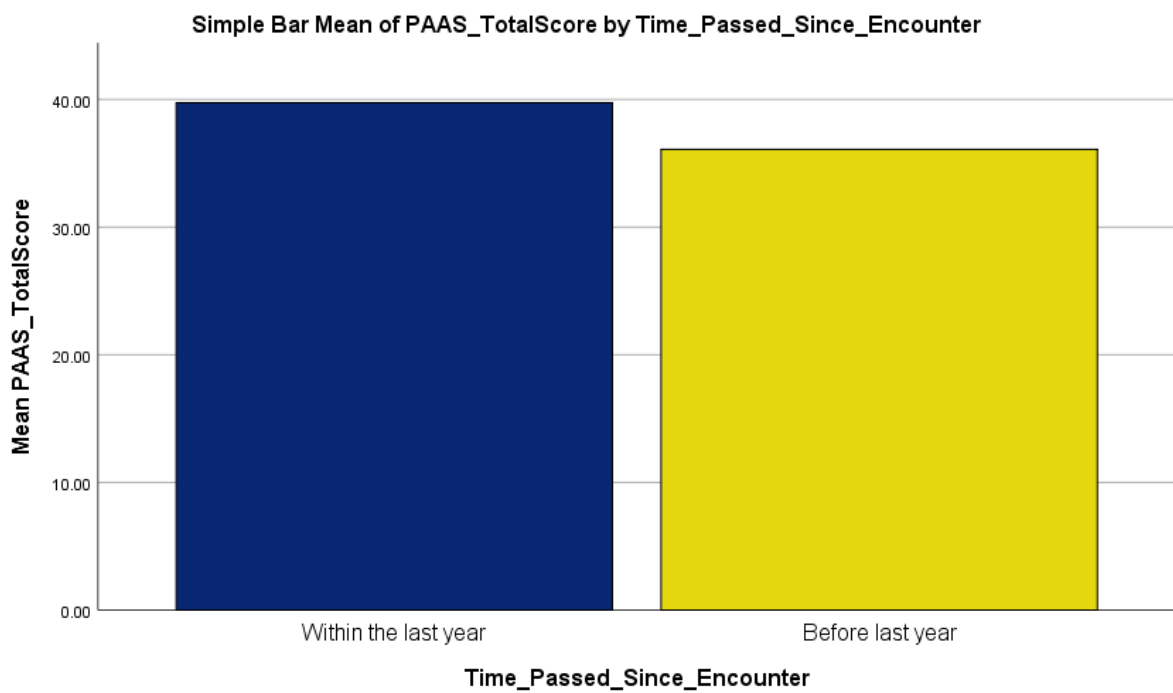


Figure 83 Time Passed/PAAS Mean Scores



**Appendix (xxxii) Encounter Identity Pairwise Comparison Tables**

**Table 158 Encounter Identity/PC Pairwise Comparison Table**

**Pairwise Comparisons of Encounter\_Identity**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test		Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
			Statistic	Sig.	
Charged with an offence-Victim	50.019	13.889	3.601	.000	.002
Charged with an offence-Witness	58.190	12.979	4.483	.000	.000
Charged with an offence-None of the above	-59.054	10.793	-5.472	.000	.000
Victim-Witness	-8.171	12.701	-.643	.520	1.000
Victim-None of the above	-9.035	10.456	-.864	.388	1.000
Witness-None of the above	-.864	9.214	-.094	.925	1.000

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

**Table 159 Encounter Identity/PAP (Positive) Pairwise Comparison Table**

**Pairwise Comparisons of Encounter\_Identity**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test		Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
			Statistic	Sig.	
Charged with an offence-Witness	56.447	12.976	4.350	.000	.000
Charged with an offence-None of the above	-57.361	10.790	-5.316	.000	.000
Charged with an offence-Victim	59.536	13.885	4.288	.000	.000
Witness-None of the above	-.913	9.211	-.099	.921	1.000
Witness-Victim	3.088	12.698	.243	.808	1.000
None of the above-Victim	2.175	10.454	.208	.835	1.000

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

**Table 160 Encounter Identity/PAP (Negative) Pairwise Comparison Table**

**Pairwise Comparisons of Encounter\_Identity**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test		Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
			Statistic	Sig.	



Witness-None of the above	-1.230	9.244	-.133	.894	1.000
Witness-Victim	6.961	12.742	.546	.585	1.000
Witness-Charged with an offence	-59.172	13.022	-4.544	.000	.000
None of the above-Victim	5.731	10.491	.546	.585	1.000
None of the above-Charged with an offence	57.943	10.828	5.351	.000	.000
Victim-Charged with an offence	-52.212	13.934	-3.747	.000	.001

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

Table 161 Encounter Identity/PAAS Pairwise Comparison Table

**Pairwise Comparisons of Encounter\_Identity**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
Charged with an offence-None of the above	-47.042	10.829	-4.344	.000	.000
Charged with an offence-Witness	50.860	13.023	3.905	.000	.001
Charged with an offence-Victim	56.665	13.936	4.066	.000	.000
None of the above-Witness	3.818	9.245	.413	.680	1.000
None of the above-Victim	9.623	10.492	.917	.359	1.000
Witness-Victim	5.805	12.744	.455	.649	1.000

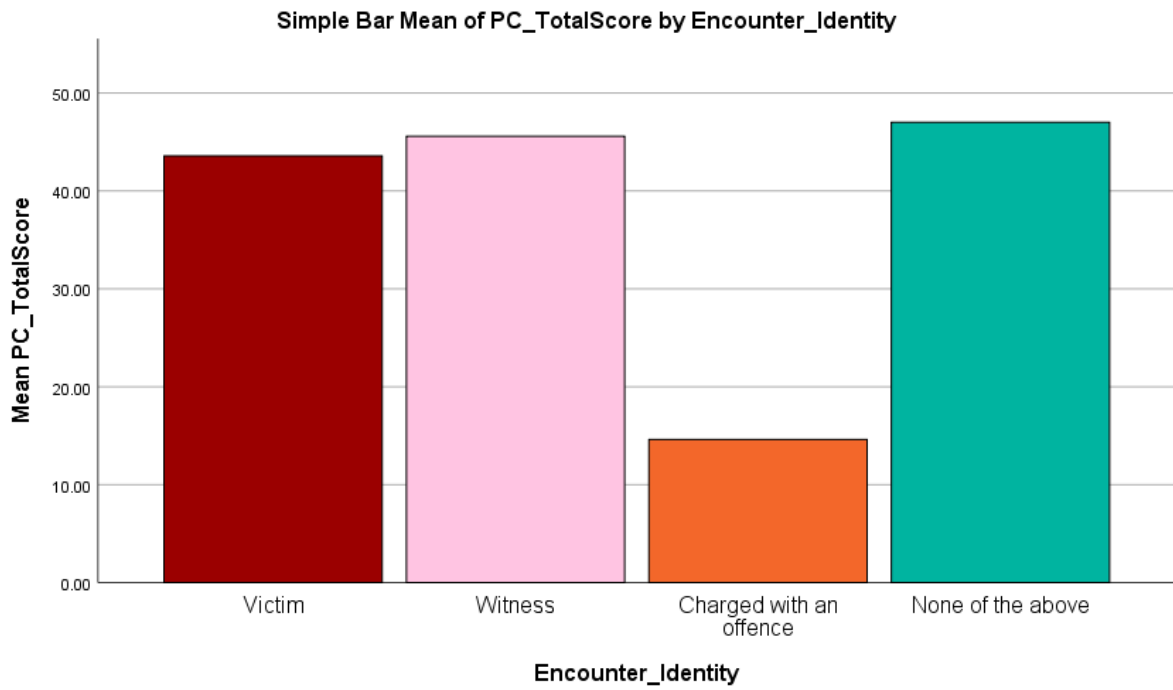
Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

**Appendix (xxxiii) Encounter Identity Mean Scores (Bar Charts)**

**Figure 84 Encounter Identity/PC Mean Scores**



**Figure 85 Encounter Identity/PAP (Positive) Mean Scores**

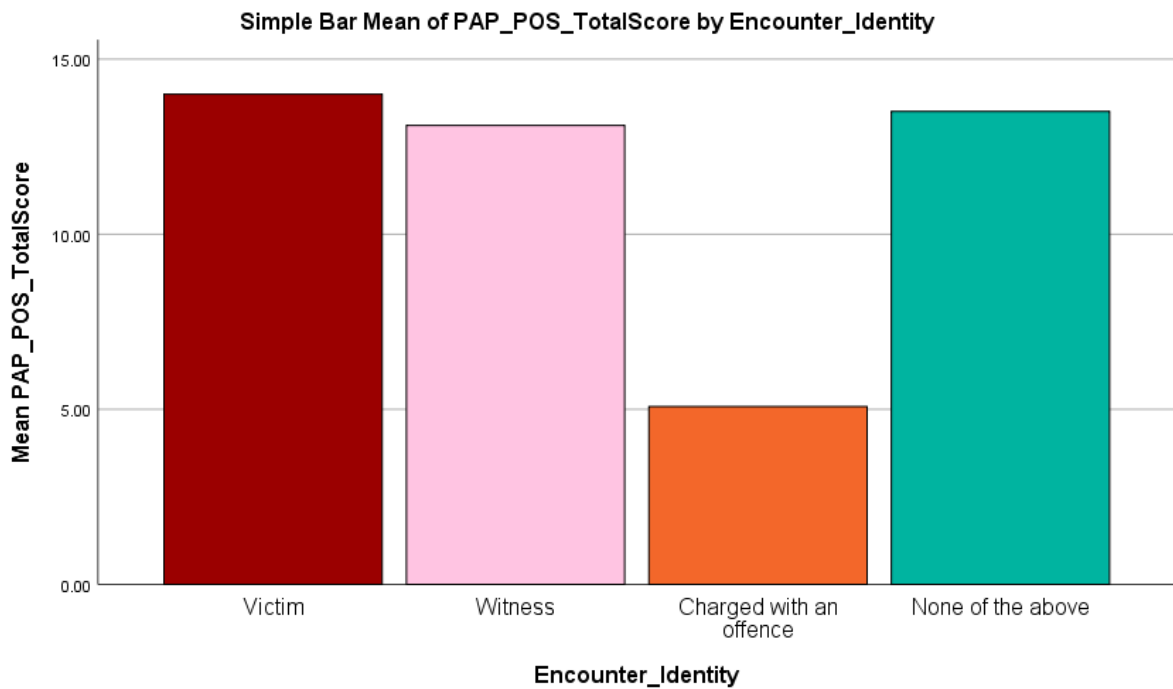


Figure 86 Encounter Identity/PAP (Negative) Mean Scores

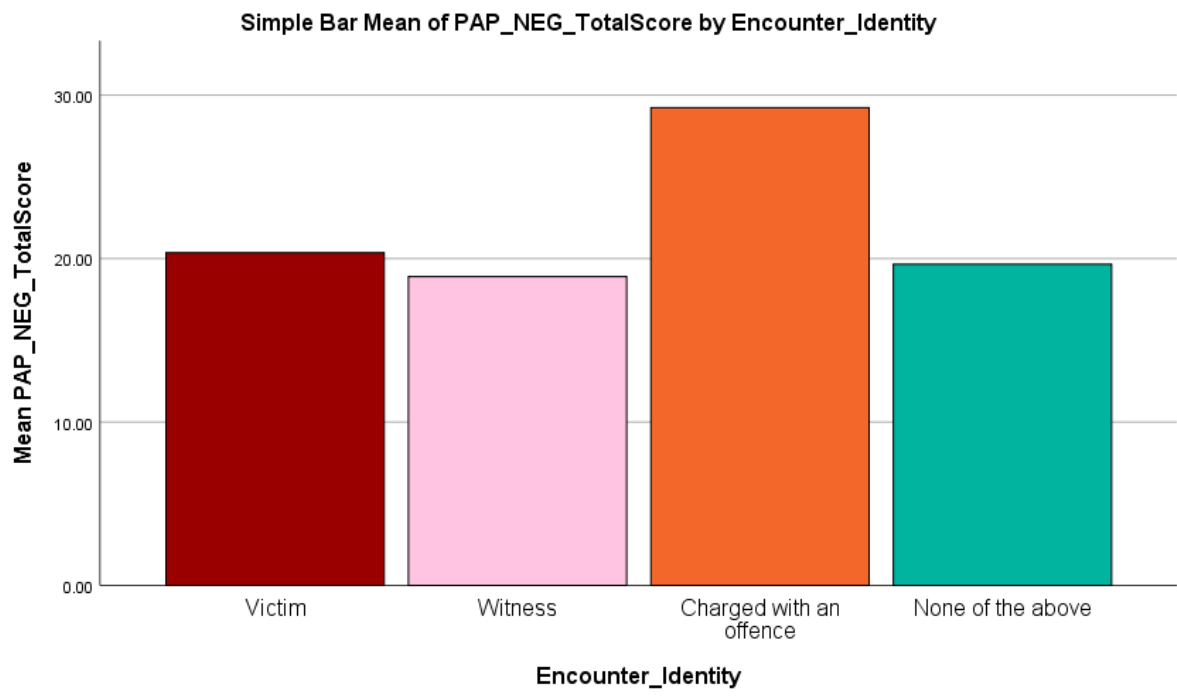
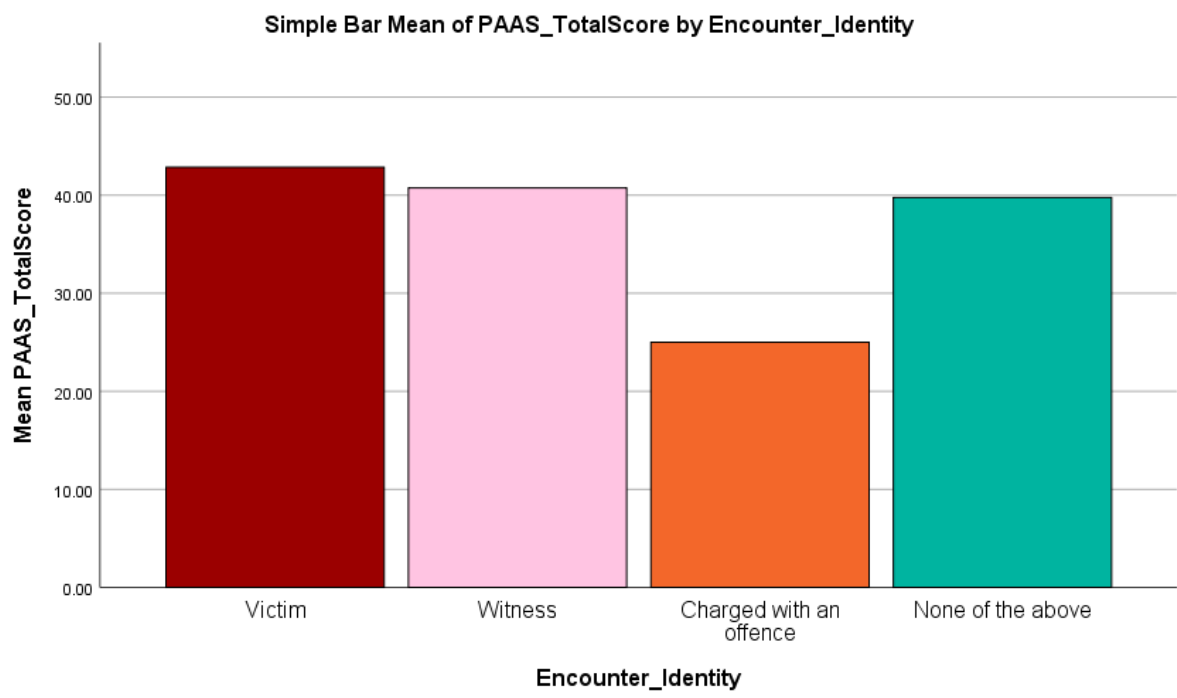


Figure 87 Encounter Identity/PAAS Mean Scores



**Appendix (xxxiv) Encounter Rate, Time Passed and Encounter Identity Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances**

**Table 162 Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances for Influence of Encounter Rate, Time Passed Since Encounter and Encounter Identity on PC Scale**

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances<sup>a,b</sup>**

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PC_TotalScore	Based on Mean	3.136	15	104	.000
	Based on Median	1.562	15	104	.097
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.562	15	52.748	.117
	Based on trimmed mean	2.929	15	104	.001

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: PC\_TotalScore

b. Design: Intercept + Previous\_Experience\_Rate + Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter + Encounter\_Identity + Previous\_Experience\_Rate \* Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter + Previous\_Experience\_Rate \* Encounter\_Identity + Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter \* Encounter\_Identity + Previous\_Experience\_Rate \* Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter \* Encounter\_Identity

**Table 163 Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances for Influence of Encounter Rate, Time Passed Since Encounter and Encounter Identity on PAAS Scale**

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances<sup>a,b</sup>**

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PAAS_TotalScore	Based on Mean	1.997	15	104	.022
	Based on Median	1.358	15	104	.182
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.358	15	81.574	.188
	Based on trimmed mean	1.927	15	104	.028

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: PAAS\_TotalScore

b. Design: Intercept + Previous\_Experience\_Rate + Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter + Encounter\_Identity + Previous\_Experience\_Rate \* Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter + Previous\_Experience\_Rate \* Encounter\_Identity + Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter \* Encounter\_Identity + Previous\_Experience\_Rate \* Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter \* Encounter\_Identity

**Appendix (xxxv) Combined Effect of Encounter Rate, Time Passed and Encounter**

**Identity ANOVA results**

**Table 164 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Influence of Encounter Rate, Time Passed Since Encounter and Encounter Identity on PC Scale**

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: PC\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	30639.472 <sup>a</sup>	20	1531.974	19.114	.000	.786
Intercept	53742.199	1	53742.199	670.542	.000	.866
Previous_Experience_Rate	8685.407	2	4342.703	54.184	.000	.510
Time_Passed_Since_Encounter	160.819	1	160.819	2.007	.160	.019
Encounter_Identity	647.074	3	215.691	2.691	.050	.072
Previous_Experience_Rate * Time_Passed_Since_Encounter	246.231	2	123.116	1.536	.220	.029
Previous_Experience_Rate * Encounter_Identity	902.015	5	180.403	2.251	.055	.098
Time_Passed_Since_Encounter * Encounter_Identity	266.372	3	88.791	1.108	.349	.031
Previous_Experience_Rate * Time_Passed_Since_Encounter * Encounter_Identity	286.235	4	71.559	.893	.471	.033
Error	8335.328	104	80.147			
Total	270530.000	125				
Corrected Total	38974.800	124				

a. R Squared = .786 (Adjusted R Squared = .745)

**Table 165 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Influence of Encounter Rate, Time Passed Since Encounter and Encounter Identity on PAP (Positive) Scale**

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: PAP\_POS\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	1934.298 <sup>a</sup>	20	96.715	18.591	.000	.781
Intercept	5190.914	1	5190.914	997.828	.000	.906
Previous_Experience_Rate	445.865	2	222.932	42.853	.000	.452

Time_Passed_Since_Encounter	2.991	1	2.991	.575	.450	.005
Encounter_Identity	145.048	3	48.349	9.294	.000	.211
Previous_Experience_Rate * Time_Passed_Since_Encounter	16.224	2	8.112	1.559	.215	.029
Previous_Experience_Rate * Encounter_Identity	102.342	5	20.468	3.935	.003	.159
Time_Passed_Since_Encounter * Encounter_Identity	51.174	3	17.058	3.279	.024	.086
Previous_Experience_Rate * Time_Passed_Since_Encounter * Encounter_Identity	39.754	4	9.939	1.910	.114	.068
Error	541.030	104	5.202			
Total	22396.000	125				
Corrected Total	2475.328	124				

a. R Squared = .781 (Adjusted R Squared = .739)

**Table 166 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Influence of Encounter Rate, Time Passed Since Encounter and Encounter Identity on PAP (Negative) Scale**

### Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PAP\_NEG\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	4244.196 <sup>a</sup>	20	212.210	4.576	.000	.468
Intercept	21460.434	1	21460.434	462.723	.000	.816
Previous_Experience_Rate	1043.192	2	521.596	11.246	.000	.178
Time_Passed_Since_Encounter	75.545	1	75.545	1.629	.205	.015
Encounter_Identity	97.647	3	32.549	.702	.553	.020
Previous_Experience_Rate * Time_Passed_Since_Encounter	91.617	2	45.809	.988	.376	.019
Previous_Experience_Rate * Encounter_Identity	128.489	5	25.698	.554	.735	.026
Time_Passed_Since_Encounter * Encounter_Identity	63.414	3	21.138	.456	.714	.013
Previous_Experience_Rate * Time_Passed_Since_Encounter * Encounter_Identity	222.240	4	55.560	1.198	.316	.044

Error	4823.372	104	46.379			
Total	62195.000	125				
Corrected Total	9067.568	124				

a. R Squared = .468 (Adjusted R Squared = .366)

**Table 167 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Influence of Encounter Rate, Time Passed Since Encounter and Encounter Identity on PAAS Scale**

### Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

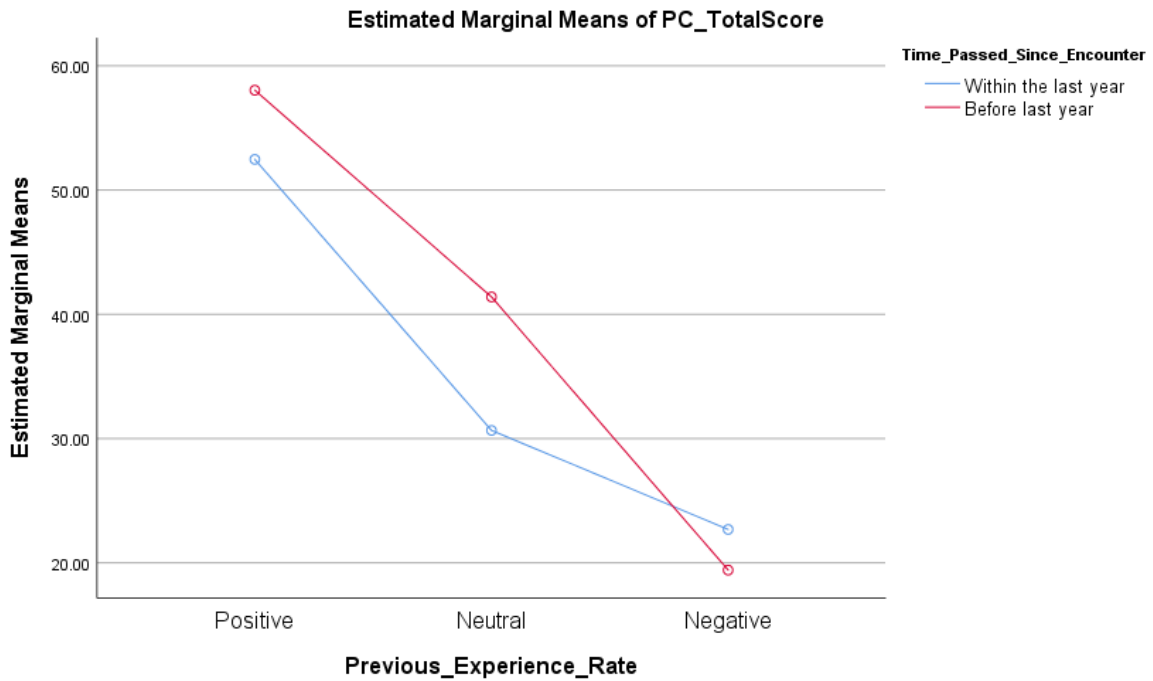
Dependent Variable: PAAS\_TotalScore

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	9127.576 <sup>a</sup>	20	456.379	8.662	.000	.625
Intercept	50419.235	1	50419.235	956.927	.000	.902
Previous_Experience_Rate	3062.173	2	1531.086	29.059	.000	.358
Time_Passed_Since_Encounter	43.146	1	43.146	.819	.368	.008
Encounter_Identity	632.150	3	210.717	3.999	.010	.103
Previous_Experience_Rate * Time_Passed_Since_Encounter	136.351	2	68.175	1.294	.279	.024
Previous_Experience_Rate * Encounter_Identity	394.607	5	78.921	1.498	.197	.067
Time_Passed_Since_Encounter * Encounter_Identity	136.500	3	45.500	.864	.463	.024
Previous_Experience_Rate * Time_Passed_Since_Encounter * Encounter_Identity	51.594	4	12.898	.245	.912	.009
Error	5479.624	104	52.689			
Total	202012.000	125				
Corrected Total	14607.200	124				

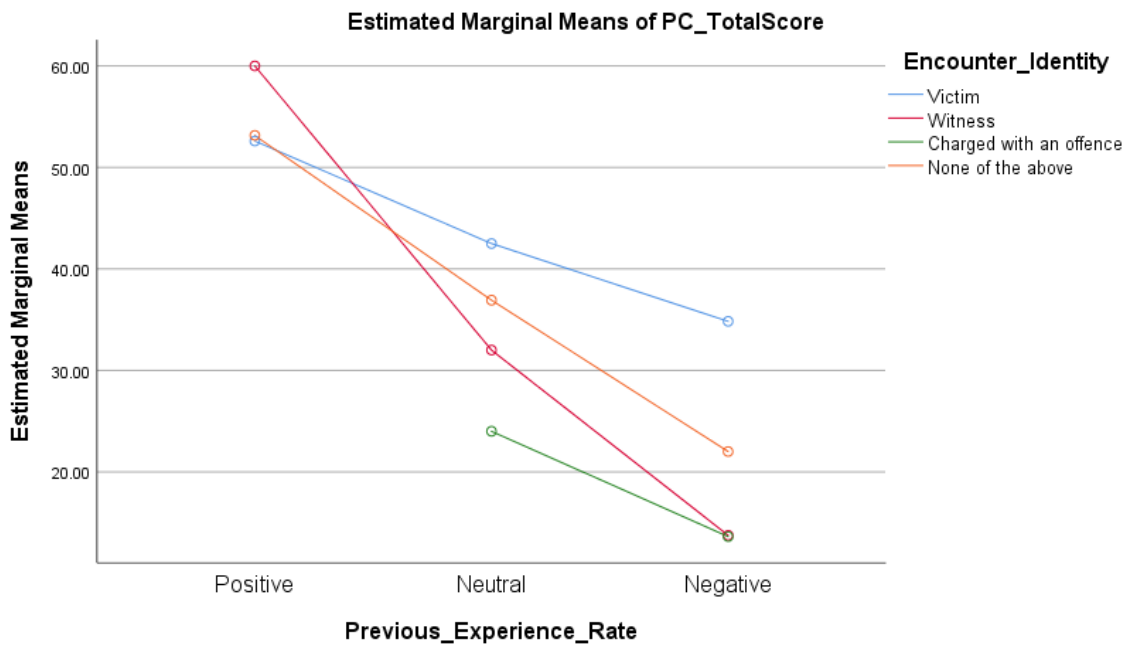
a. R Squared = .625 (Adjusted R Squared = .553)

**Appendix (xxxvi) Interaction Plots Encounter Rate, Time Passed Since Encounter and  
Encounter Identity**

**Figure 88 Encounter Type/ Time Passed PC Scale**



**Figure 89 Encounter Type/Encounter Identity PC Scale**



Non-estimable means are not plotted



Figure 90 Time Passed/ Encounter Identity PC Scale

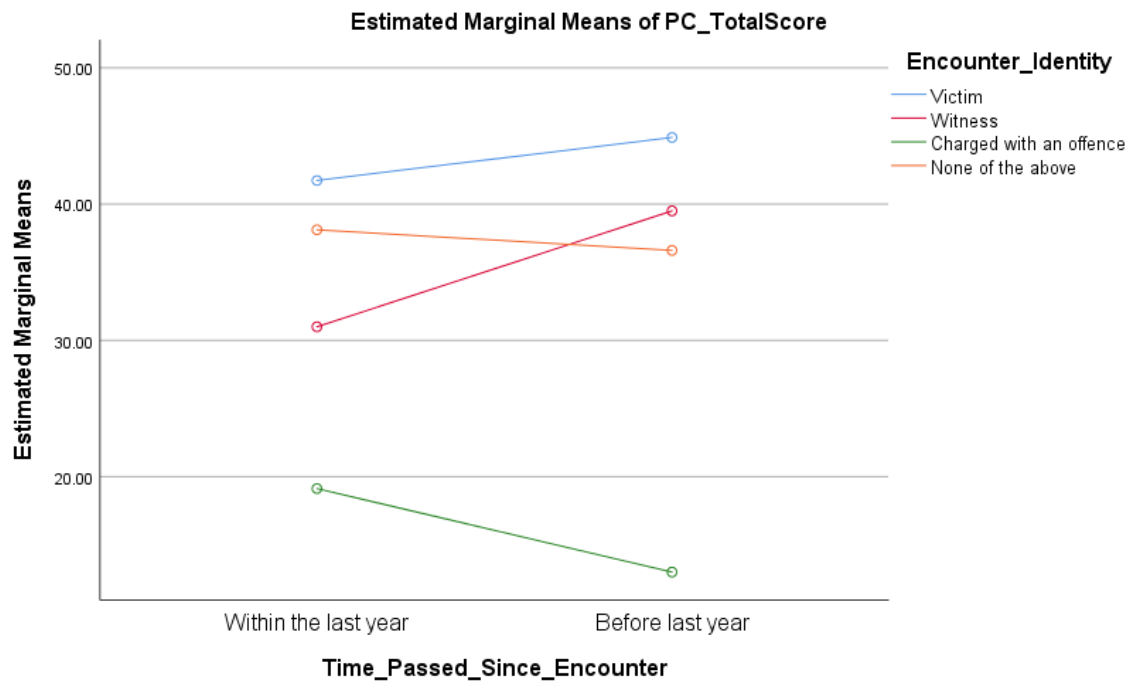


Figure 91 Encounter Type/Time Passed PAP (Positive) Scale

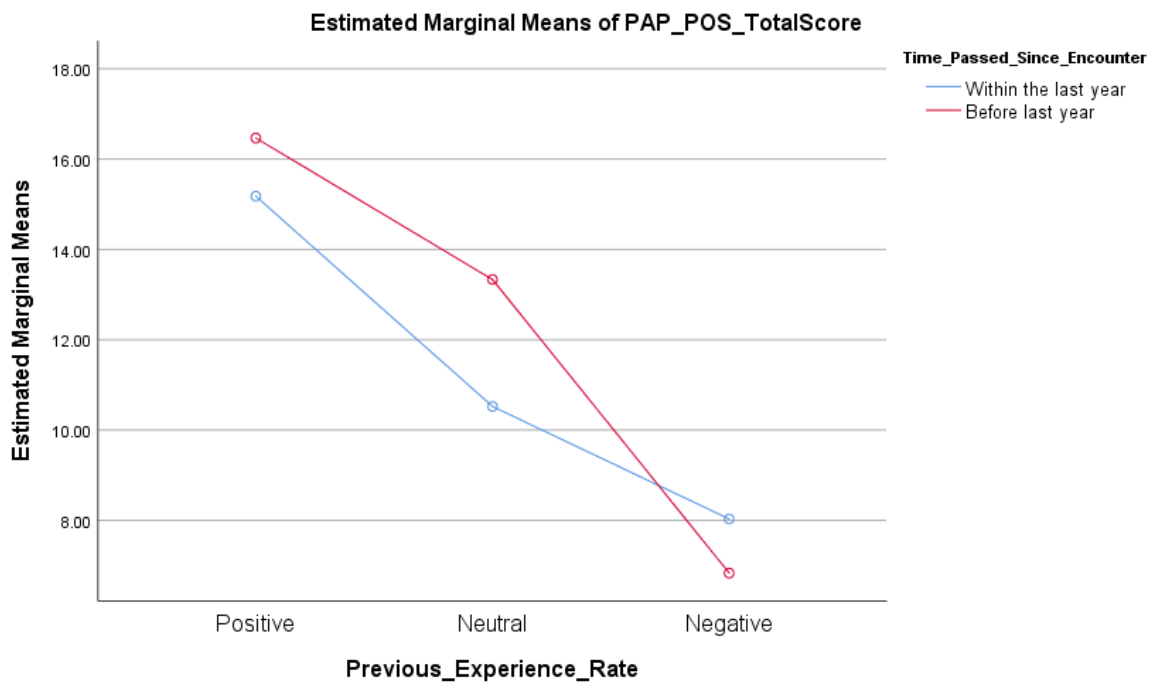


Figure 92 Encounter Type/Encounter Identity PAP (Positive) Scale

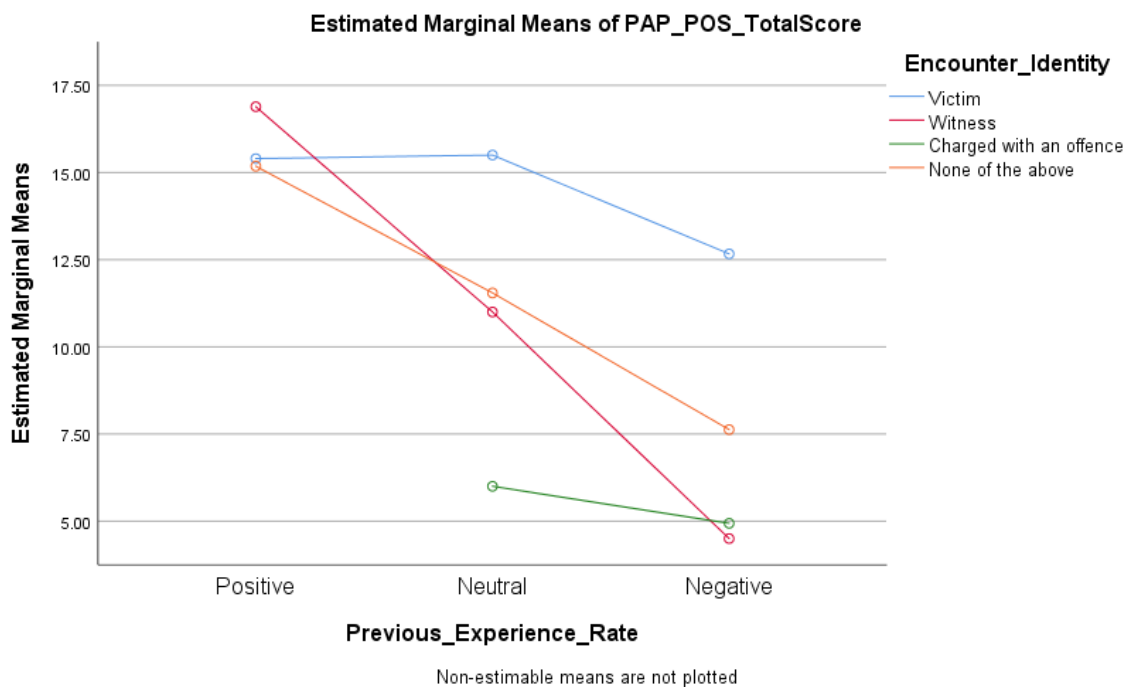


Figure 93 Time Passed/Encounter Identity PAP (Positive) Scale

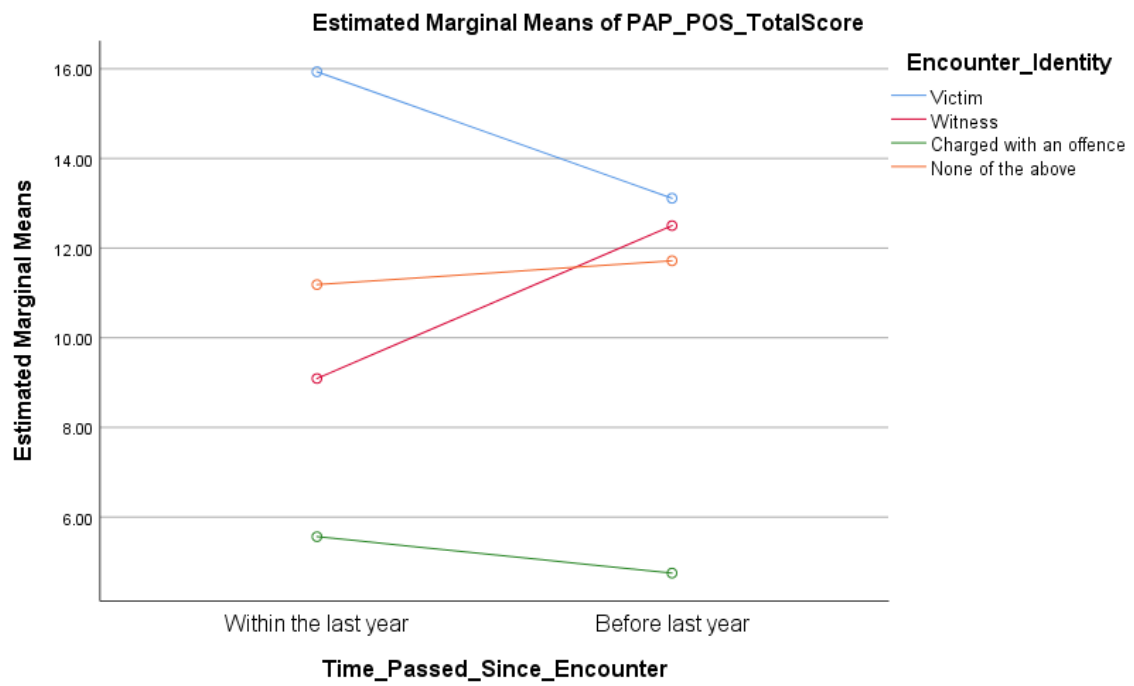


Figure 94 Encounter Type/Time Passed PAP (Negative) Scale

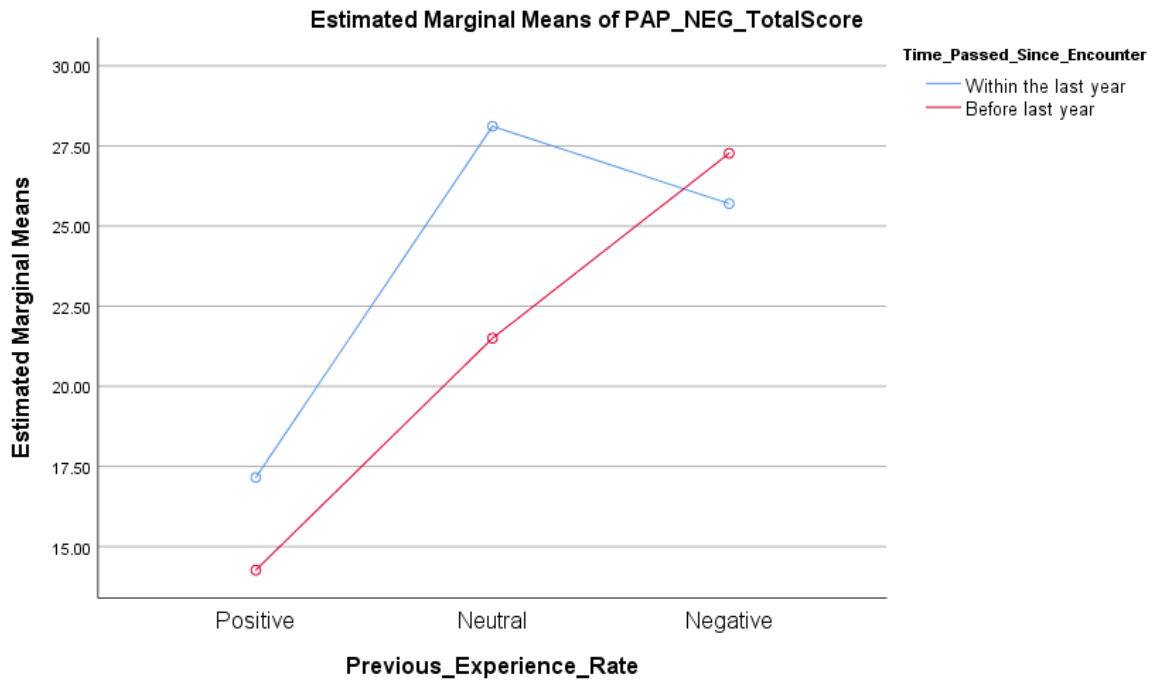


Figure 95 Encounter Type/Encounter Identity PAP (Negative) Scale

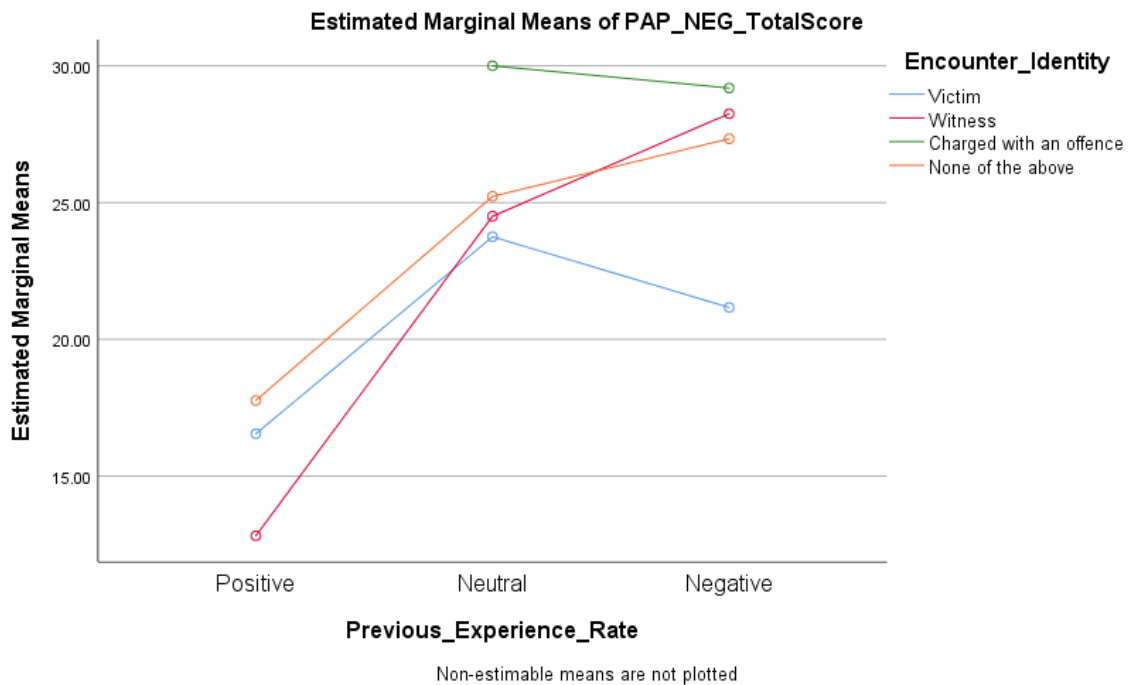


Figure 96 Time Passed/ Encounter Identity PAP (Negative) Scale

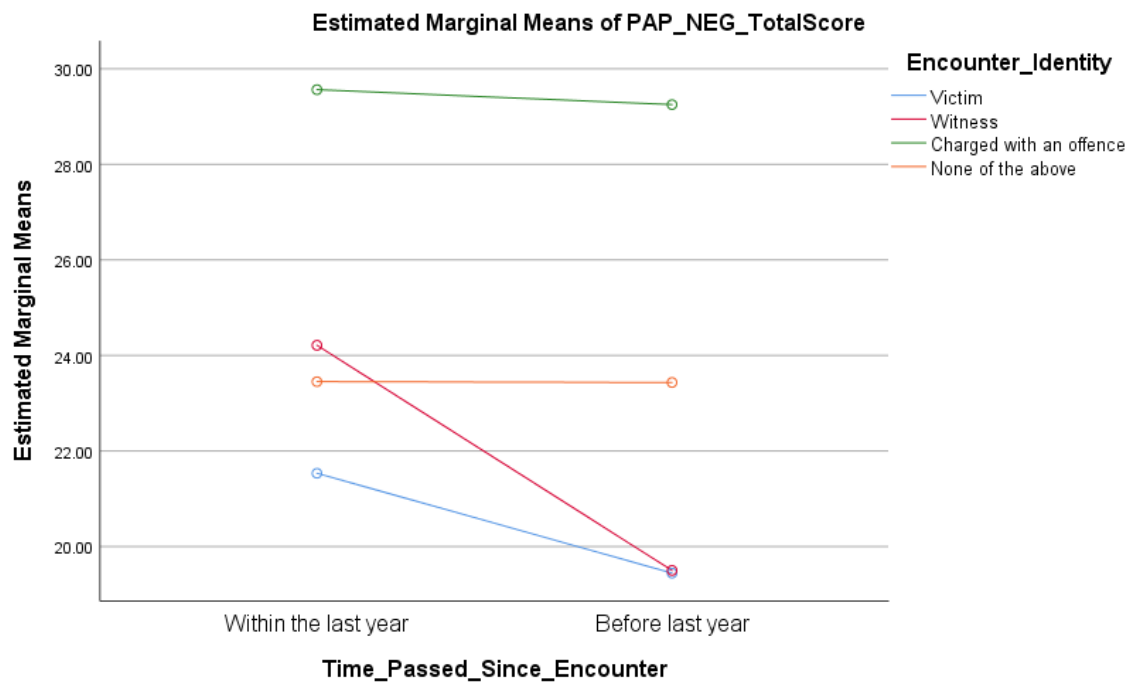


Figure 97 Encounter Type/Time Passed PAAS Scale

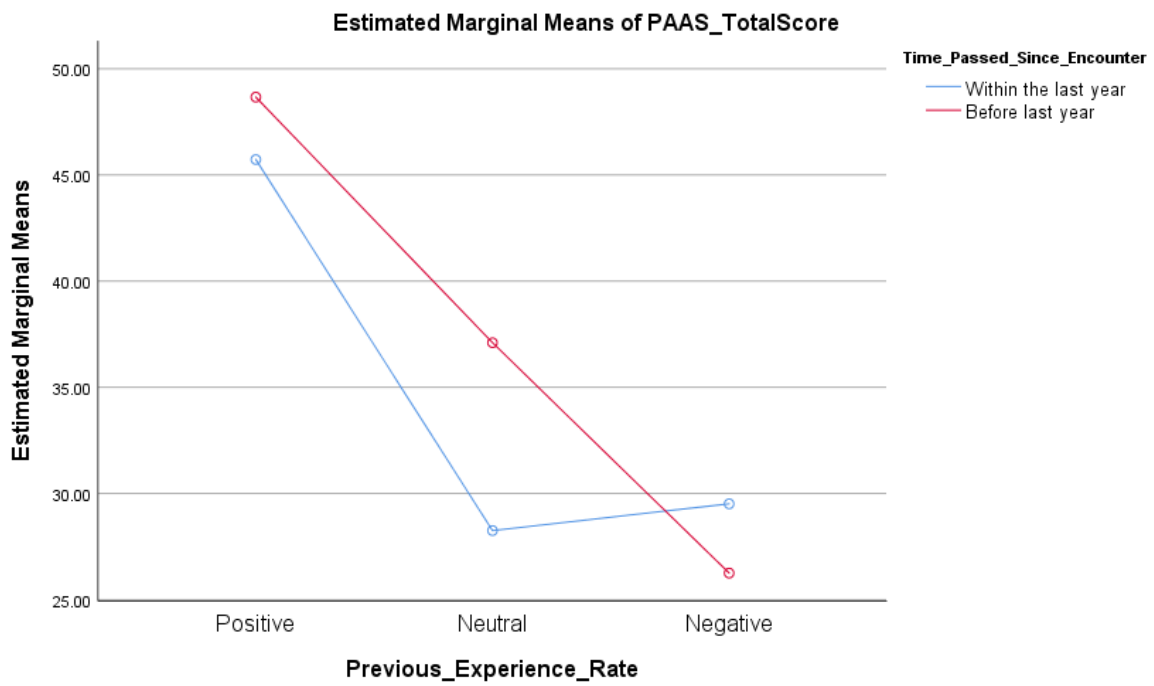


Figure 98 Encounter Type/Encounter Identity PAAS Scale

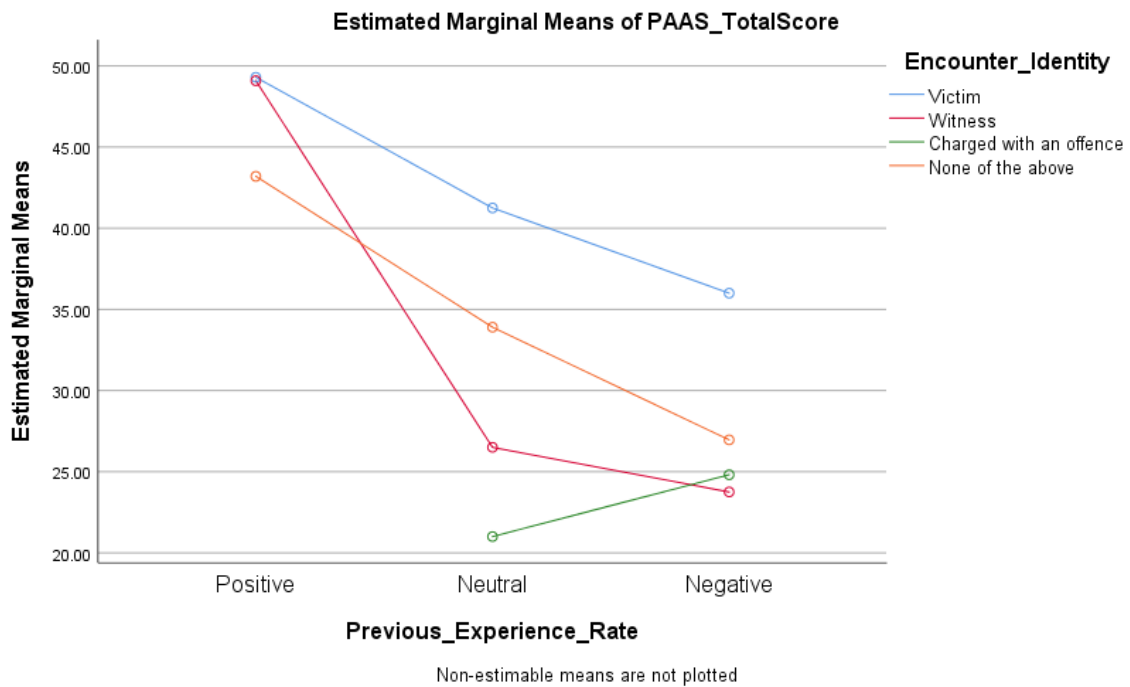
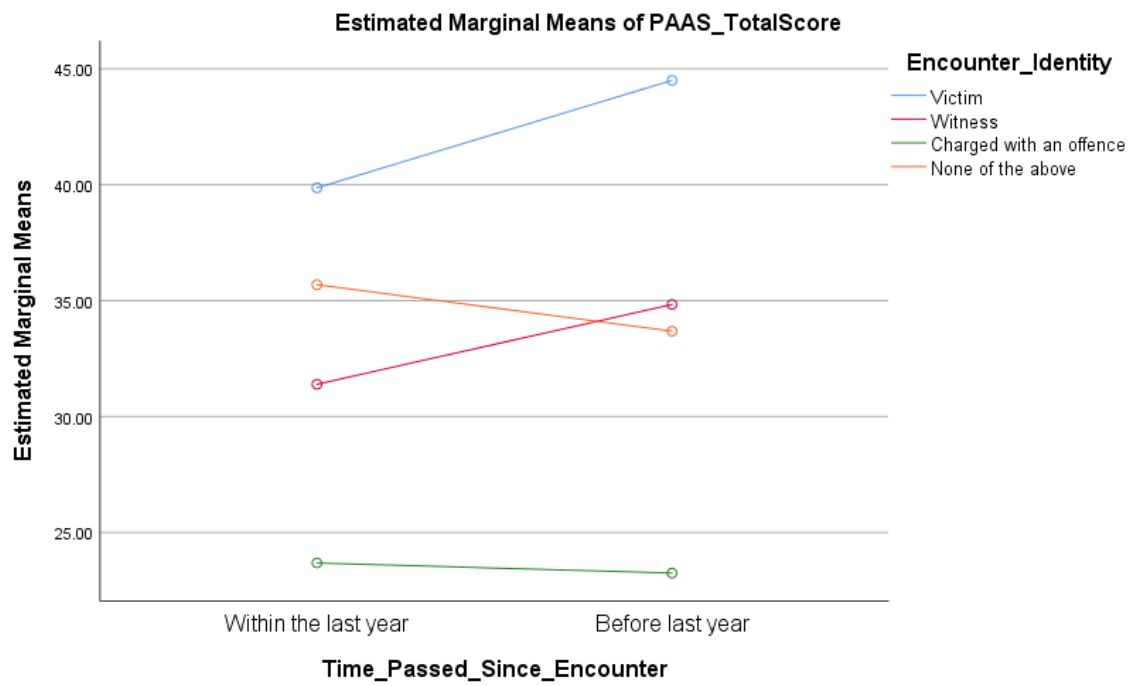


Figure 99 Time Passed/Encounter Identity PAAS Scale



**Appendix (xxxvii) Age/PJ1 and PJ2 Pairwise Comparison Tables**

Table 168 Age/PJ1 Pairwise Comparison Table

<b>Pairwise Comparisons of Age</b>					
Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
25-44-18-24	9.681	7.565	1.280	.201	1.000
25-44-45-54	-10.573	10.883	-.972	.331	1.000
25-44-55+	-51.073	10.197	-5.008	.000	.000
18-24-45-54	-.892	10.593	-.084	.933	1.000
18-24-55+	-41.392	9.888	-4.186	.000	.000
45-54-55+	-40.500	12.609	-3.212	.001	.008

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

Table 169 Age/PJ2 Pairwise Comparison Table

<b>Pairwise Comparisons of Age</b>					
Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
55+-45-54	31.794	12.468	2.550	.011	.065
55+-18-24	37.616	9.778	3.847	.000	.001
55+-25-44	49.386	10.084	4.897	.000	.000
45-54-18-24	5.822	10.475	.556	.578	1.000
45-54-25-44	17.591	10.762	1.635	.102	.613
18-24-25-44	-11.769	7.481	-1.573	.116	.694

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.



**Appendix (xxxviii) Social Class/PJ1 and PJ2 Pairwise Comparison Tables**

Table 170 Class/PJ1 Pairwise Comparison Table

<b>Pairwise Comparisons of Class</b>					
Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
Lower-Upper Middle	-33.917	20.822	-1.629	.103	.620
Lower-Working	-38.588	15.479	-2.493	.013	.076
Lower-Middle	-51.955	15.492	-3.354	.001	.005
Upper Middle-Working	4.671	15.479	.302	.763	1.000
Upper Middle-Middle	18.039	15.492	1.164	.244	1.000
Working-Middle	-13.368	6.786	-1.970	.049	.293

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

Table 171 Class/PJ2 Pairwise Comparison Table

<b>Pairwise Comparisons of Class</b>					
Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
Middle-Upper Middle	-13.455	15.320	-.878	.380	1.000
Middle-Working	16.951	6.710	2.526	.012	.069
Middle-Lower	48.539	15.320	3.168	.002	.009
Upper Middle-Working	3.496	15.307	.228	.819	1.000
Upper Middle-Lower	35.083	20.591	1.704	.088	.530
Working-Lower	31.588	15.307	2.064	.039	.234

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

**Appendix (xxxix) Employment/PJ1 and PJ2 Pairwise Comparison Tables**

Table 172 Employment/PJ1 Pairwise Comparison Table

**Pairwise Comparisons of Employment**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
Unemployed-Looking for first regular job	30.500	22.810	1.337	.181	1.000
Unemployed-Working for payment or profit	49.650	16.916	2.935	.003	.070
Unemployed-Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-50.500	30.174	-1.674	.094	1.000
Unemployed-Student	-60.014	17.184	-3.492	.000	.010
Unemployed-Looking after home/family	-68.250	19.197	-3.555	.000	.008
Unemployed-Retired from employment	-100.857	18.790	-5.368	.000	.000
Looking for first regular job-Working for payment or profit	19.150	16.916	1.132	.258	1.000
Looking for first regular job-Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-20.000	30.174	-.663	.507	1.000
Looking for first regular job-Student	-29.514	17.184	-1.717	.086	1.000
Looking for first regular job-Looking after home/family	-37.750	19.197	-1.966	.049	1.000
Looking for first regular job-Retired from employment	-70.357	18.790	-3.744	.000	.004
Working for payment or profit-Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-.850	26.007	-.033	.974	1.000
Working for payment or profit-Student	-10.364	7.821	-1.325	.185	1.000
Working for payment or profit-Looking after home/family	-18.600	11.593	-1.604	.109	1.000
Working for payment or profit-Retired from employment	-51.207	10.905	-4.696	.000	.000

Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Student	9.514	26.182	.363	.716	1.000
Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Looking after home/family	17.750	27.545	.644	.519	1.000
Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Retired from employment	50.357	27.263	1.847	.065	1.000
Student-Looking after home/family	-8.236	11.981	-.687	.492	1.000
Student-Retired from employment	-40.844	11.316	-3.609	.000	.006
Looking after home/family-Retired from employment	-32.607	14.188	-2.298	.022	.453

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

Table 173 Employment/PJ2 Pairwise Comparison Table

### Pairwise Comparisons of Employment

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
Retired from employment-Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability	-27.500	26.959	-1.020	.308	1.000
Retired from employment-Student	35.797	11.191	3.199	.001	.029
Retired from employment-Looking after home/family	40.250	14.030	2.869	.004	.087
Retired from employment-Working for payment or profit	49.790	10.784	4.617	.000	.000
Retired from employment-Looking for first regular job	69.600	18.581	3.746	.000	.004
Retired from employment-Unemployed	97.500	18.581	5.247	.000	.000

Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Student	8.297	25.891	.320	.749	1.000
Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Looking after home/family	12.750	27.239	.468	.640	1.000
Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Working for payment or profit	22.290	25.718	.867	.386	1.000
Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Looking for first regular job	42.100	29.839	1.411	.158	1.000
Unable to work due to permanent sickness or disability-Unemployed	70.000	29.839	2.346	.019	.399
Student-Looking after home/family	-4.453	11.848	-.376	.707	1.000
Student-Working for payment or profit	13.993	7.734	1.809	.070	1.000
Student-Looking for first regular job	33.803	16.993	1.989	.047	.980
Student-Unemployed	61.703	16.993	3.631	.000	.006
Looking after home/family-Working for payment or profit	9.540	11.464	.832	.405	1.000
Looking after home/family-Looking for first regular job	29.350	18.984	1.546	.122	1.000
Looking after home/family-Unemployed	57.250	18.984	3.016	.003	.054
Working for payment or profit-Looking for first regular job	-19.810	16.728	-1.184	.236	1.000
Working for payment or profit-Unemployed	-47.710	16.728	-2.852	.004	.091
Looking for first regular job-Unemployed	-27.900	22.556	-1.237	.216	1.000

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

**Appendix (xl) Encounter Rate/PJ1 and PJ2 Pairwise Comparison Tables**

Table 174 Encounter Rate/PJ1 Pairwise Comparison Table

**Pairwise Comparisons of Previous\_Experience\_Rate**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
Negative-Neutral	24.017	10.070	2.385	.017	.051
Negative-Positive	69.517	7.916	8.781	.000	.000
Neutral-Positive	45.500	8.624	5.276	.000	.000

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

Table 175 Encounter Rate/PJ2 Pairwise Comparison Table

**Pairwise Comparisons of Previous\_Experience\_Rate**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
Positive-Neutral	-40.521	8.528	-4.752	.000	.000
Positive-Negative	-70.839	7.828	-9.049	.000	.000
Neutral-Negative	-30.318	9.958	-3.045	.002	.007

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

**Appendix (xli) Encounter Identity/PJ1 and PJ2 Pairwise Comparison Tables**

Table 176 Encounter Result/PJ1 Pairwise Comparison Table

**Pairwise Comparisons of Encounter\_Identity**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
Charged with an offence-Victim	50.255	13.891	3.618	.000	.002
Charged with an offence-None of the above	-57.849	10.794	-5.359	.000	.000
Charged with an offence-Witness	58.472	12.981	4.504	.000	.000
Victim-None of the above	-7.594	10.458	-.726	.468	1.000
Victim-Witness	-8.216	12.703	-.647	.518	1.000
None of the above-Witness	.623	9.215	.068	.946	1.000

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

Table 177 Encounter Result/PJ2 Pairwise Comparison Table

**Pairwise Comparisons of Encounter\_Identity**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig. <sup>a</sup>
Witness-None of the above	-1.210	9.113	-.133	.894	1.000
Witness-Victim	15.133	12.562	1.205	.228	1.000
Witness-Charged with an offence	-58.334	12.837	-4.544	.000	.000
None of the above-Victim	13.924	10.342	1.346	.178	1.000
None of the above-Charged with an offence	57.124	10.674	5.352	.000	.000
Victim-Charged with an offence	-43.201	13.736	-3.145	.002	.010

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same.

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

a. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests.

**Appendix (xlii) Levene's Test of Equality for Error Variances**

**Table 178 Levene's Test of Equality for Error Variances for Influence of Gender, Age and Race on PJ1 Scale**

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances<sup>a,b</sup>**

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PJ1_TotalScore	Based on Mean	4.034	14	99	.000
	Based on Median	2.094	14	99	.018
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	2.094	14	66.378	.023
	Based on trimmed mean	3.866	14	99	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: PJ1\_TotalScore

b. Design: Intercept + Gender + Age + Race + Gender \* Age + Gender \* Race + Age \* Race + Gender \* Age \* Race

**Table 179 Levene's Test of Equality for Error Variances for Influence of Gender, Age and Race on PJ2 Scale**

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances<sup>a,b</sup>**

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PJ2_TotalScore	Based on Mean	4.780	14	99	.000
	Based on Median	2.358	14	99	.007
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	2.358	14	50.249	.013
	Based on trimmed mean	4.484	14	99	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: PJ2\_TotalScore

b. Design: Intercept + Gender + Age + Race + Gender \* Age + Gender \* Race + Age \* Race + Gender \* Age \* Race

**Table 180 Levene's Test of Equality for Error Variances for Influence of Class, Employment and Education on PJ1 Scale**

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances<sup>a,b</sup>**

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PJ1_TotalScore	Based on Mean	3.570	23	87	.000
	Based on Median	1.321	23	87	.179
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.321	23	39.920	.216
	Based on trimmed mean	3.311	23	87	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: PJ1\_TotalScore

b. Design: Intercept + Class + Employment + Education + Class \* Employment + Class \* Education + Employment \* Education + Class \* Employment \* Education

**Table 181 Levene's Test of Equality for Error Variances for Influence of Class, Employment and Education on PJ2 Scale**

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances<sup>a,b</sup>**

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PJ2_TotalScore	Based on Mean	4.631	23	87	.000
	Based on Median	1.467	23	87	.105
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.467	23	32.116	.156
	Based on trimmed mean	4.185	23	87	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: PJ2\_TotalScore

b. Design: Intercept + Class + Employment + Education + Class \* Employment + Class \* Education + Employment \* Education + Class \* Employment \* Education

**Table 182 Levene's Test of Equality for Error Variances for Influence of Residence and Station on PJ1 Scale**

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances<sup>a,b</sup>**

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PJ1_TotalScore	Based on Mean	4.345	3	121	.006
	Based on Median	3.548	3	121	.017
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	3.548	3	117.233	.017
	Based on trimmed mean	4.411	3	121	.006

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: PJ1\_TotalScore

b. Design: Intercept + Residence + Station + Residence \* Station

**Table 183 Levene's Test of Equality for Error Variances for Influence of Residence and Station on PJ2 Scale**

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances<sup>a,b</sup>**

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PJ2_TotalScore	Based on Mean	3.075	3	121	.030
	Based on Median	2.557	3	121	.058



Based on Median and with adjusted df	2.557	3	105.705	.059
Based on trimmed mean	3.139	3	121	.028

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: PJ2\_TotalScore

b. Design: Intercept + Residence + Station + Residence \* Station

**Table 184 Levene's Test of Equality for Error Variances for Influence of Encounter Rate, Time Passed and Encounter Identity on PJ1 Scale**

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances<sup>a,b</sup>**

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PJ1_TotalScore	Based on Mean	2.275	15	104	.008
	Based on Median	1.364	15	104	.179
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.364	15	52.156	.201
	Based on trimmed mean	2.072	15	104	.017

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: PJ1\_TotalScore

b. Design: Intercept + Previous\_Experience\_Rate + Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter + Encounter\_Identity + Previous\_Experience\_Rate \* Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter + Previous\_Experience\_Rate \* Encounter\_Identity + Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter \* Encounter\_Identity + Previous\_Experience\_Rate \* Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter \* Encounter\_Identity

**Table 185 Levene's Test of Equality for Error Variances for Influence of Encounter Rate, Time Passed and Encounter Identity on PJ2 Scale**

**Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances<sup>a,b</sup>**

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PJ2_TotalScore	Based on Mean	2.893	15	104	.001
	Based on Median	1.134	15	104	.336
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.134	15	79.444	.341
	Based on trimmed mean	2.492	15	104	.004

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Dependent variable: PJ2\_TotalScore

b. Design: Intercept + Previous\_Experience\_Rate + Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter + Encounter\_Identity + Previous\_Experience\_Rate \* Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter + Previous\_Experience\_Rate \* Encounter\_Identity + Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter \* Encounter\_Identity + Previous\_Experience\_Rate \* Time\_Passed\_Since\_Encounter \* Encounter\_Identity

**Appendix (xliii) PJ1 and PJ2 Gender, Age and Race Interaction Plots**

Figure 100 Gender/Age PJ1 Scale

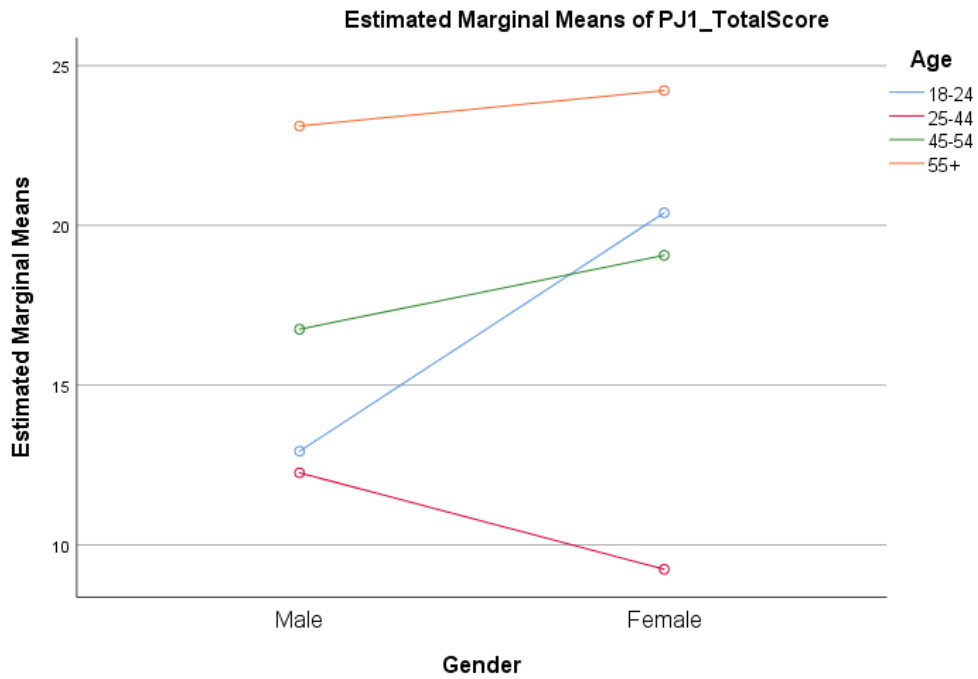


Figure 101 Gender/Race/PJ1 Scale

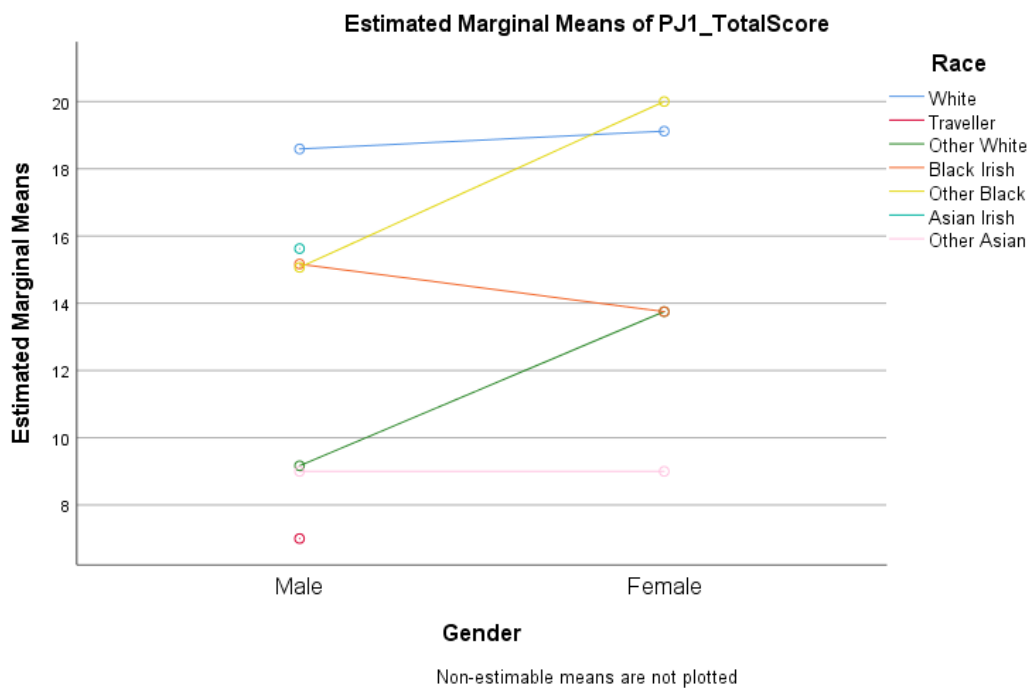


Figure 102 Age/Race PJ1 Scale

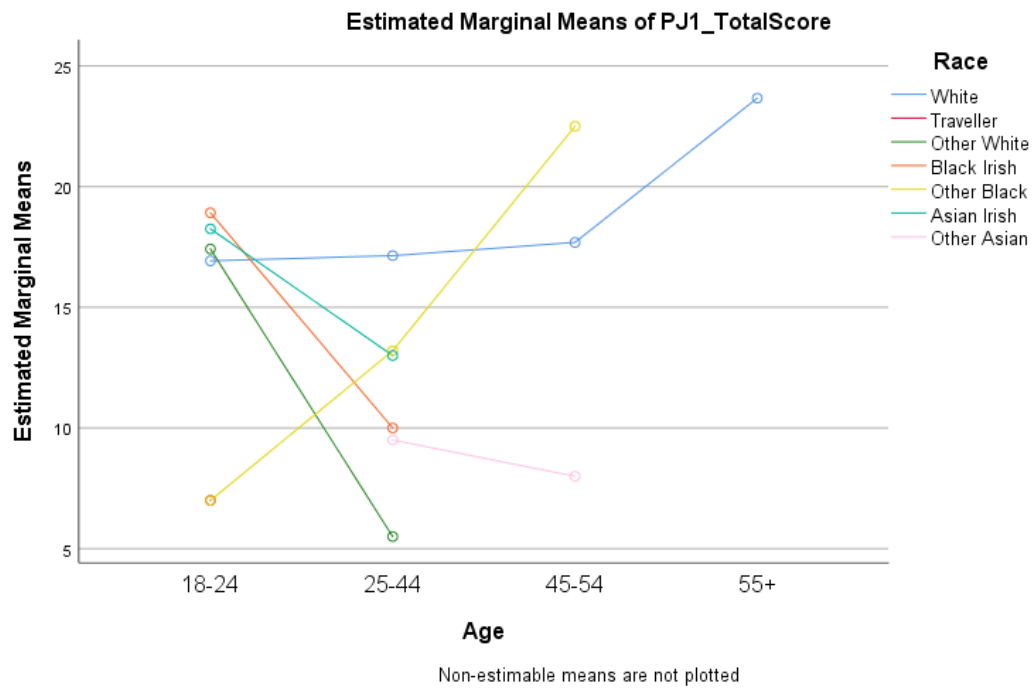


Figure 103 Gender/Age PJ2 Scale

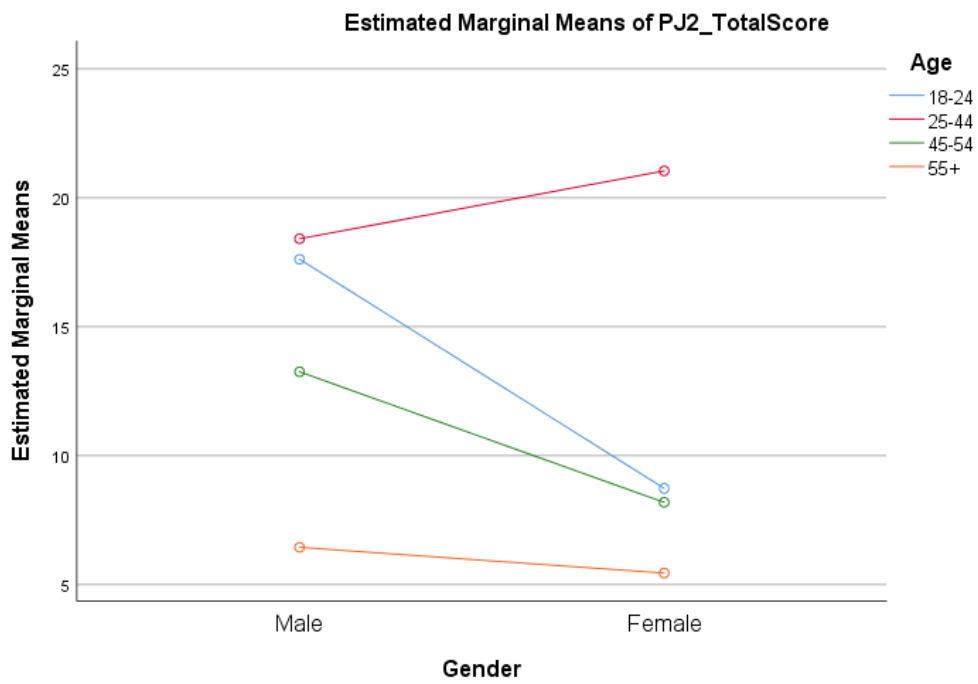


Figure 104 Gender/Race PJ2 Scale

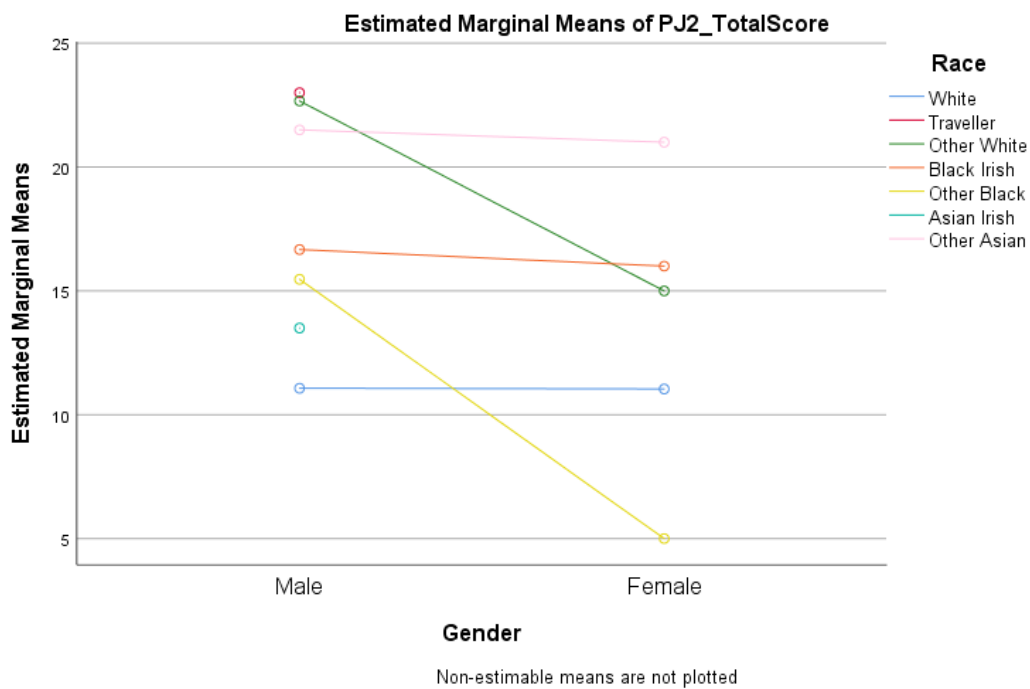
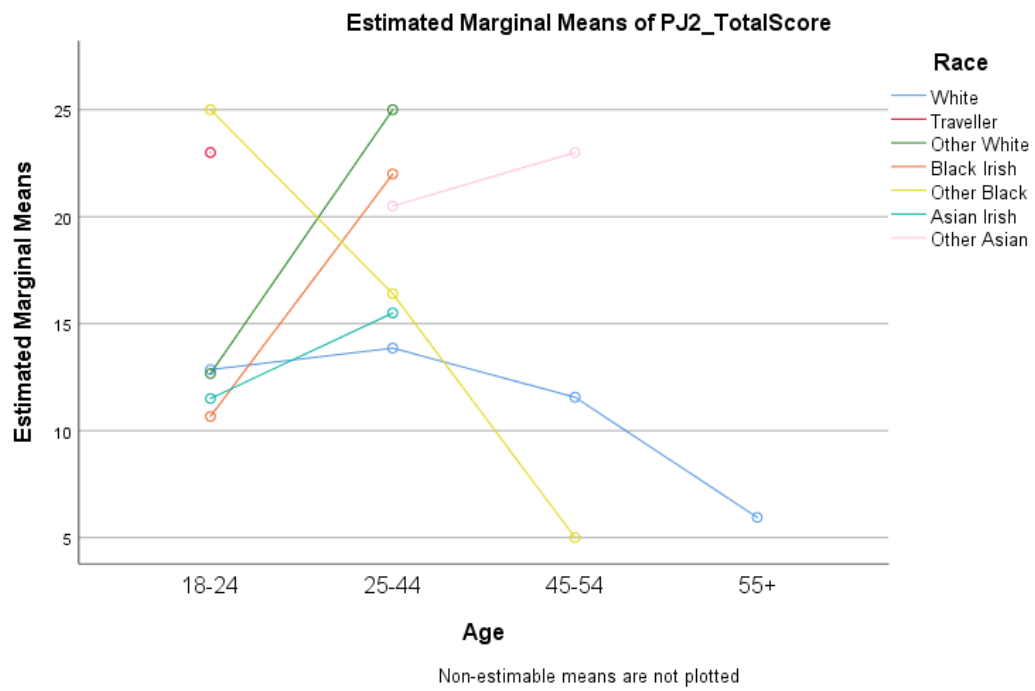
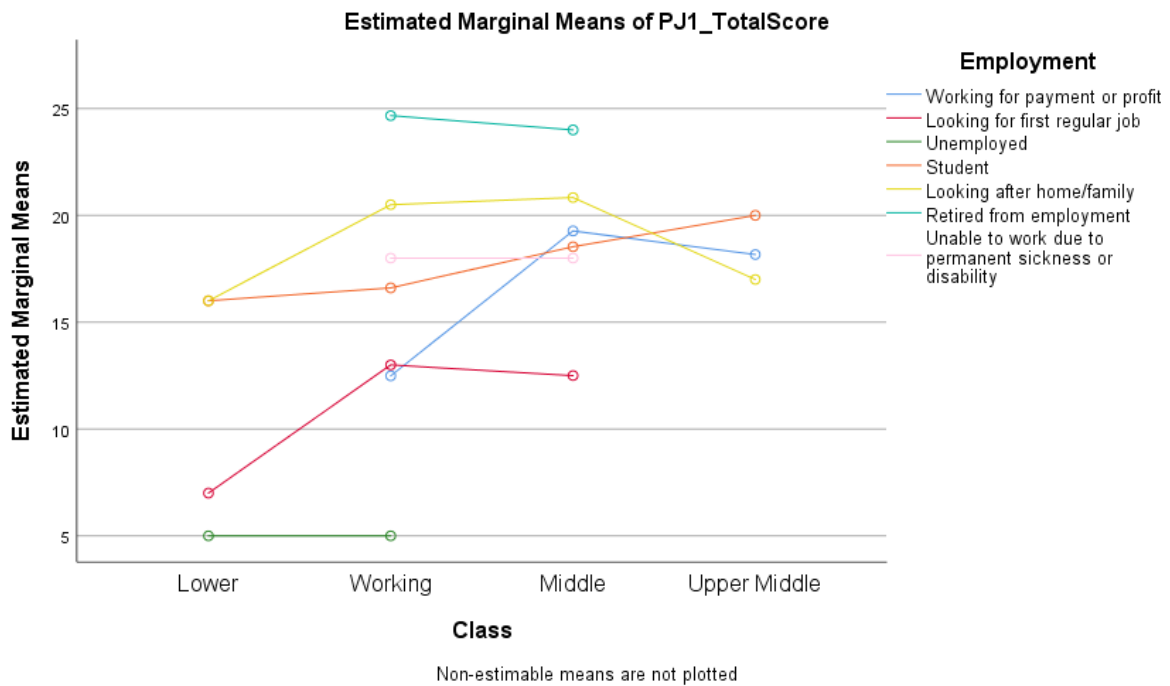


Figure 105 Age/Race PJ2 Scale



**Appendix (xliv) PJ1 and PJ2 Class, Employment and Education Interaction Plots**

**Figure 106 Class/Employment PJ1 Scale**



**Figure 107 Class/Education PJ1 Scale**

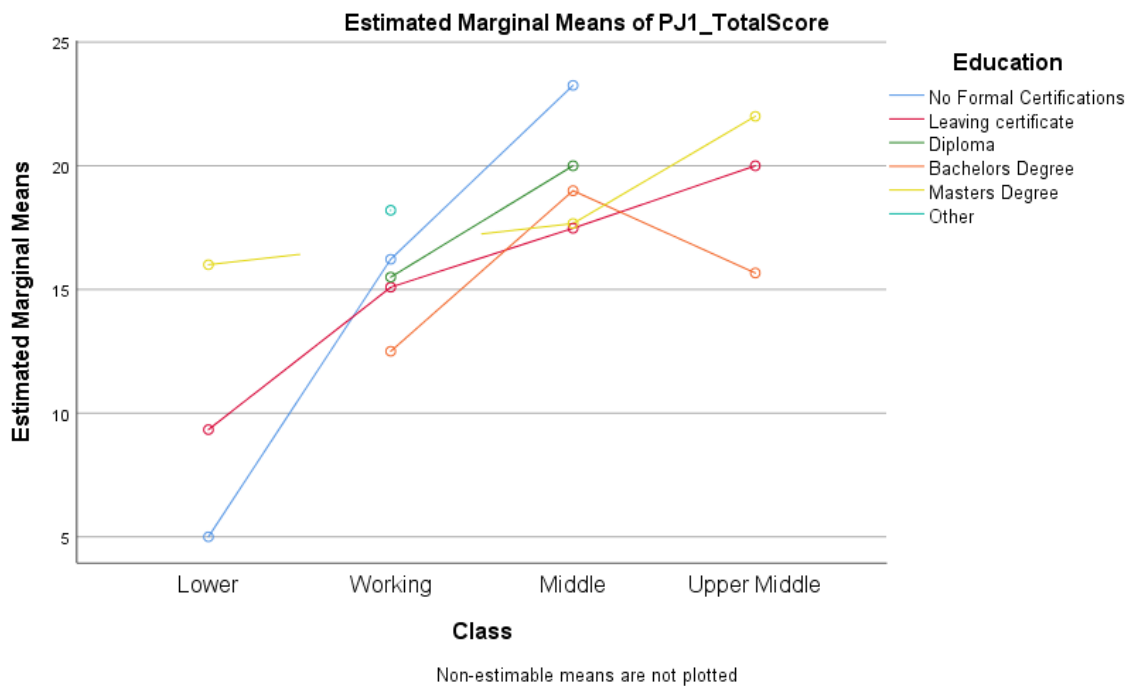


Figure 108 Employment/Education PJ1 Scale

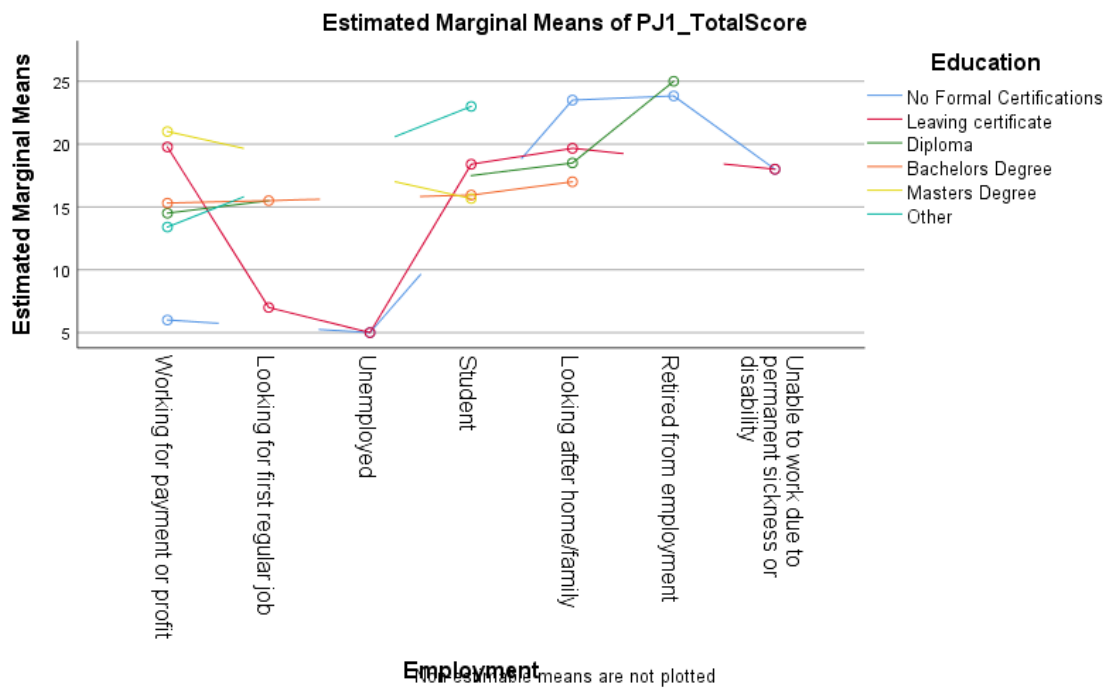


Figure 109 Class/Employment PJ2 Scale

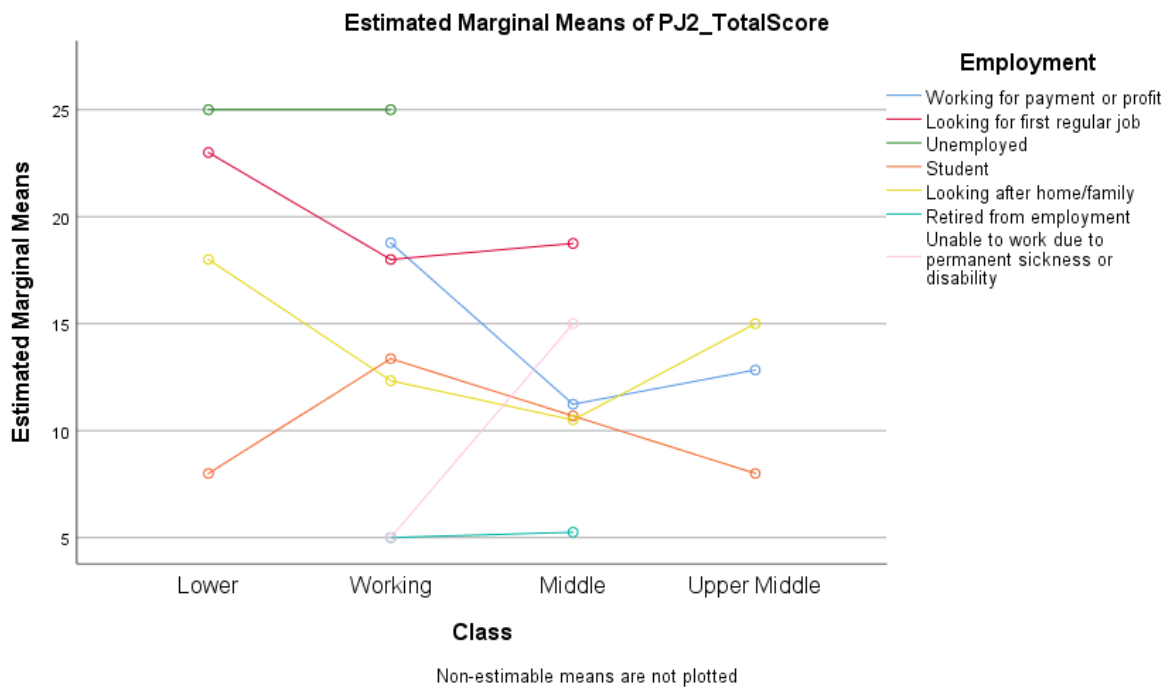


Figure 110 Class/Education PJ2 Scale

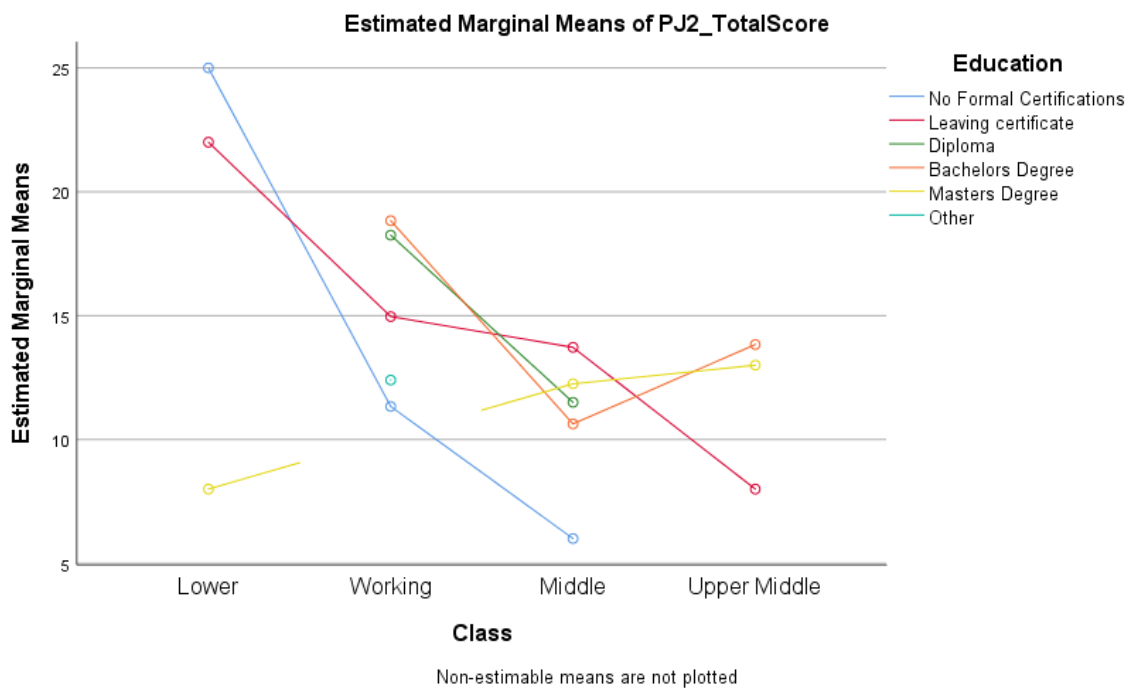
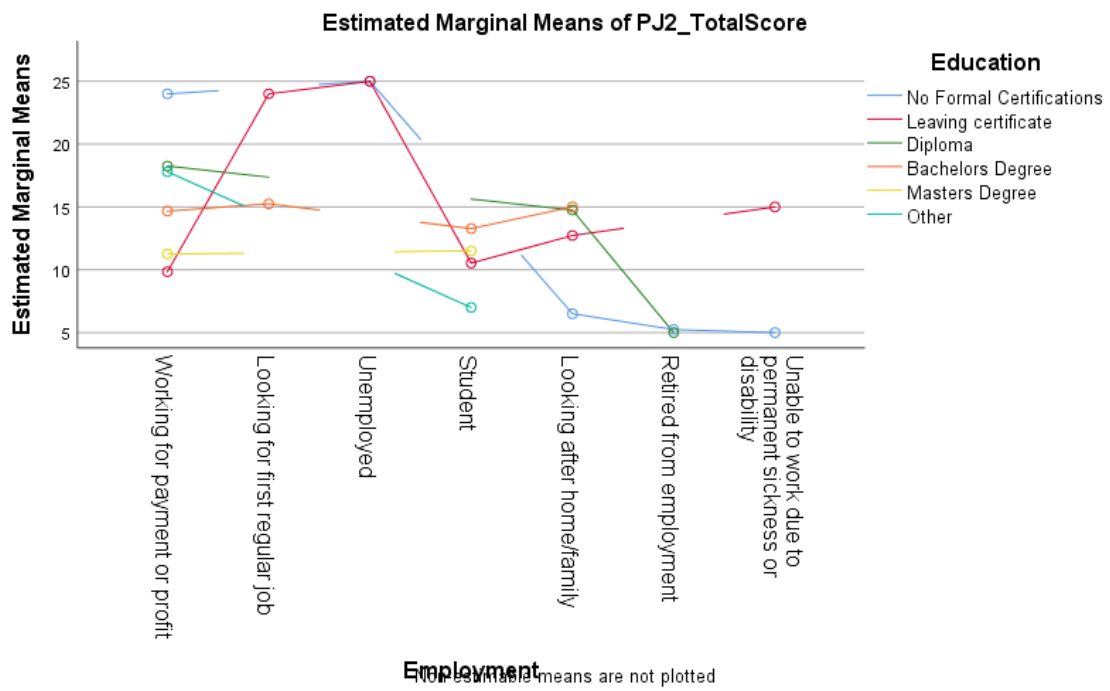


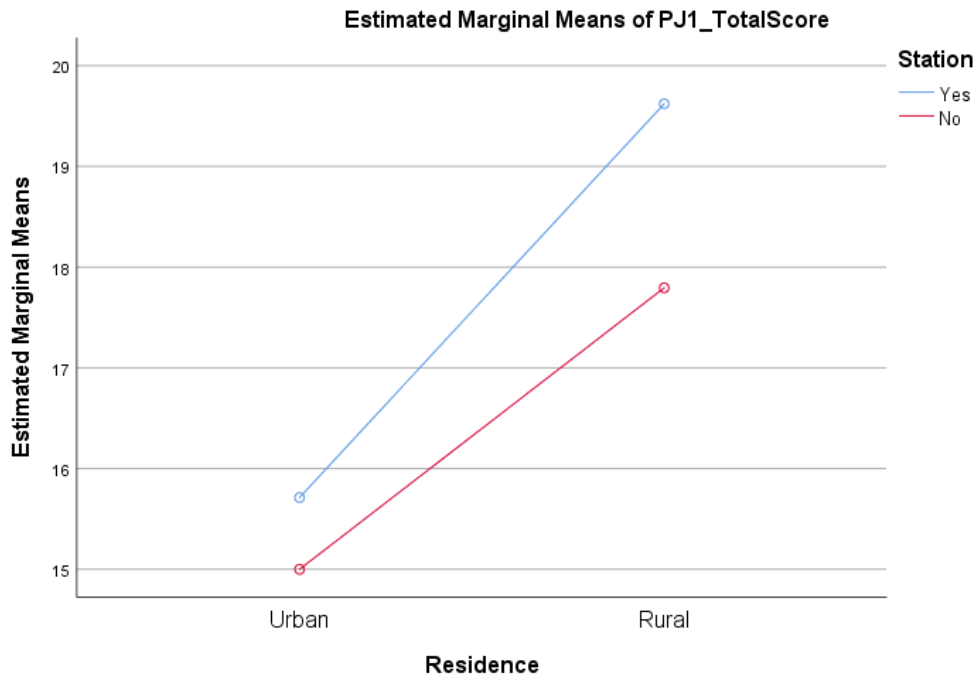


Figure 111 Employment/Education PJ2 Scale

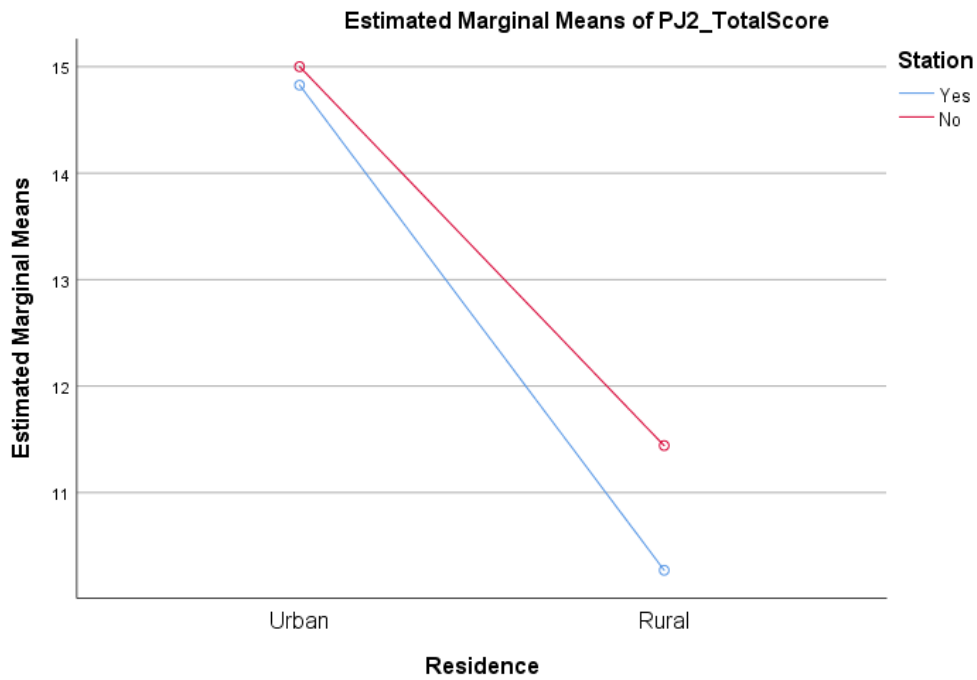


**Appendix (xlv) PJ1 and PJ2 Residence and Station Interaction Plots**

**Figure 112 Residence/Station PJ1 Scale**



**Figure 113 Residence/Station PJ2 Scale**



## Appendix (xlvi) PJ1 and PJ2 Encounter Rate, Time Passed and Encounter Identity

### Interaction Plots

Figure 114 Encounter Type/Time Passed PJ1 Scale

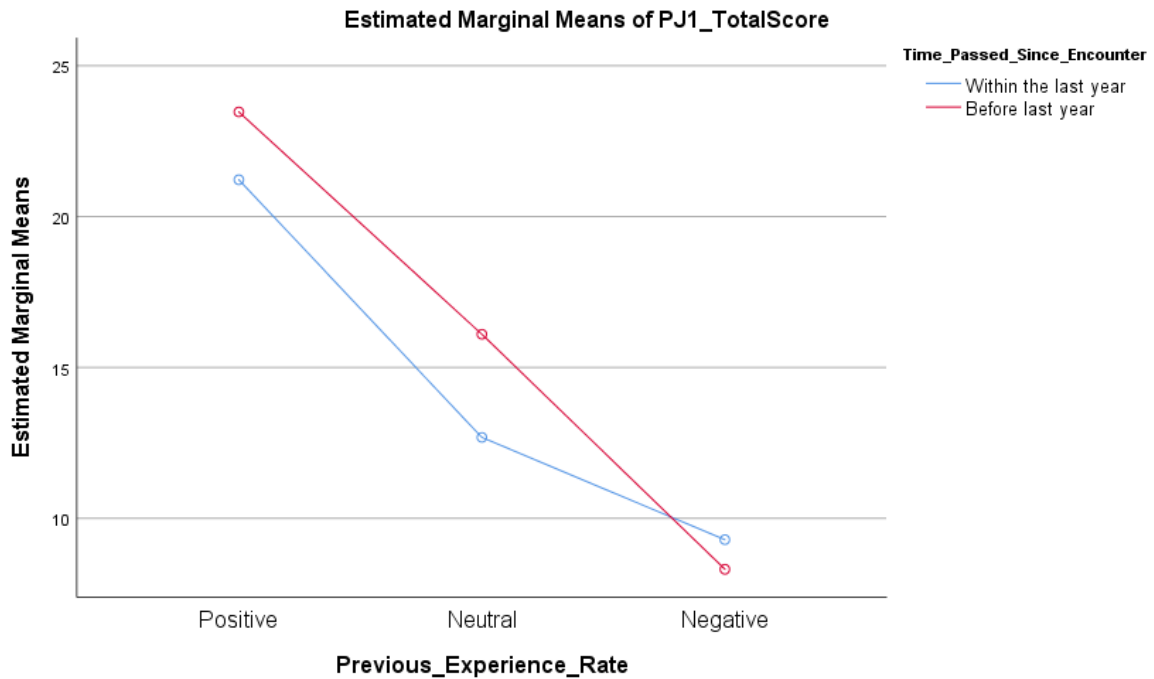


Figure 115 Encounter Type/Encounter Identity PJ1 Scale

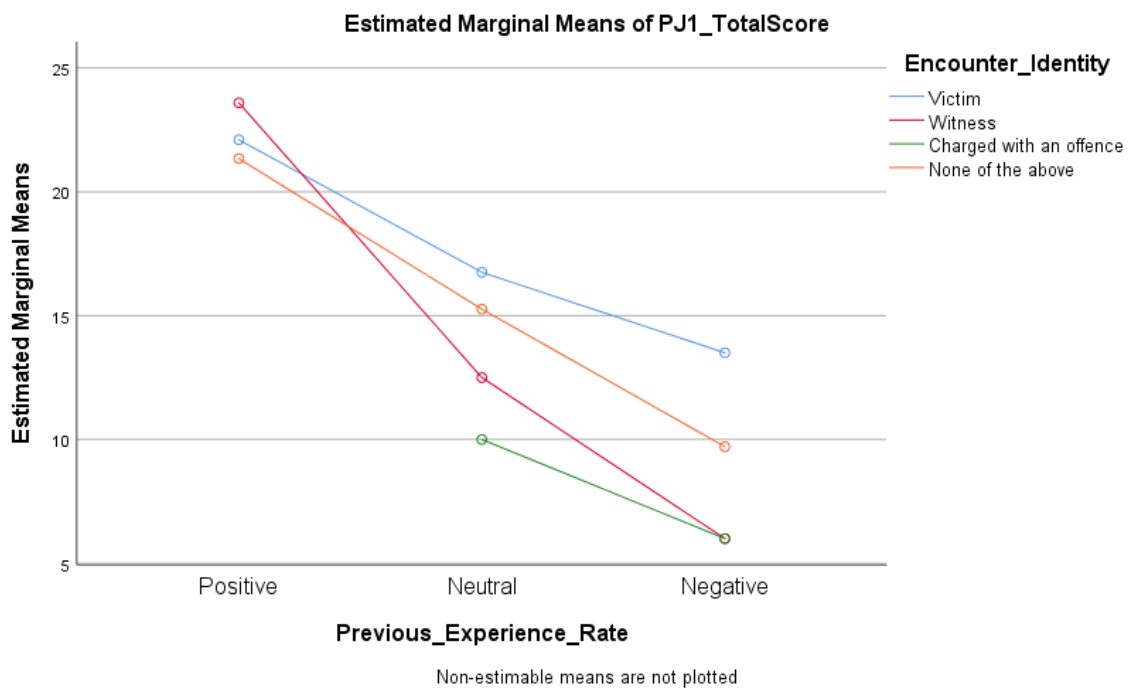


Figure 116 Time Passed/Encounter Identity PJ1 Scale

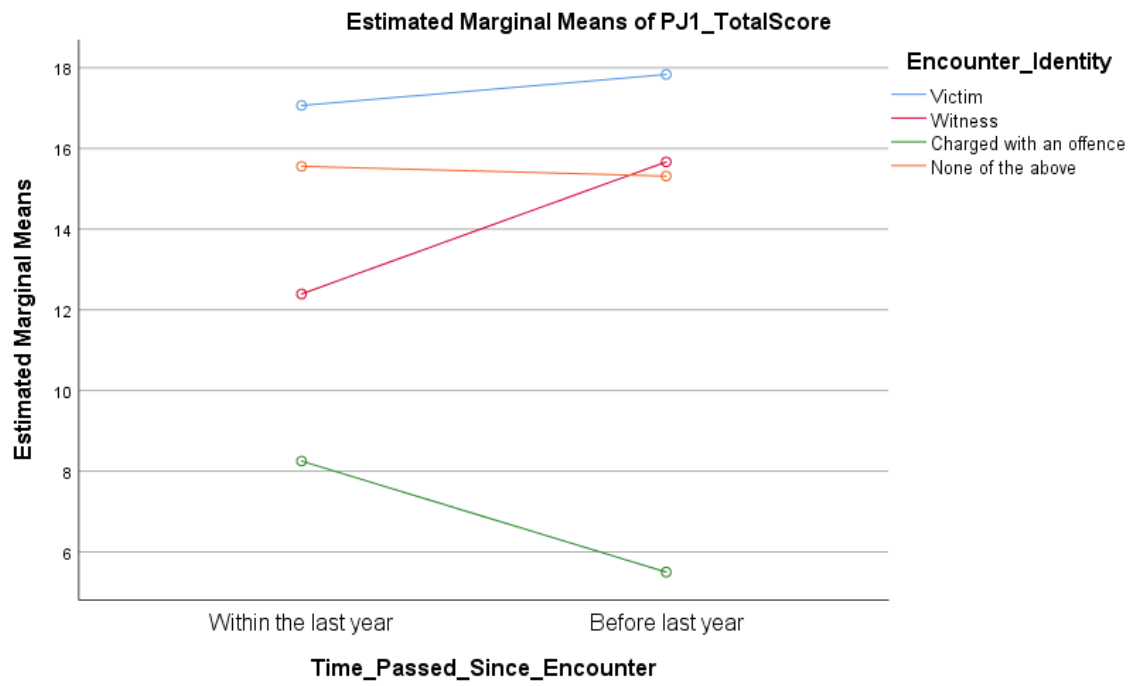


Figure 117 Encounter Type/Time Passed PJ2 Scale

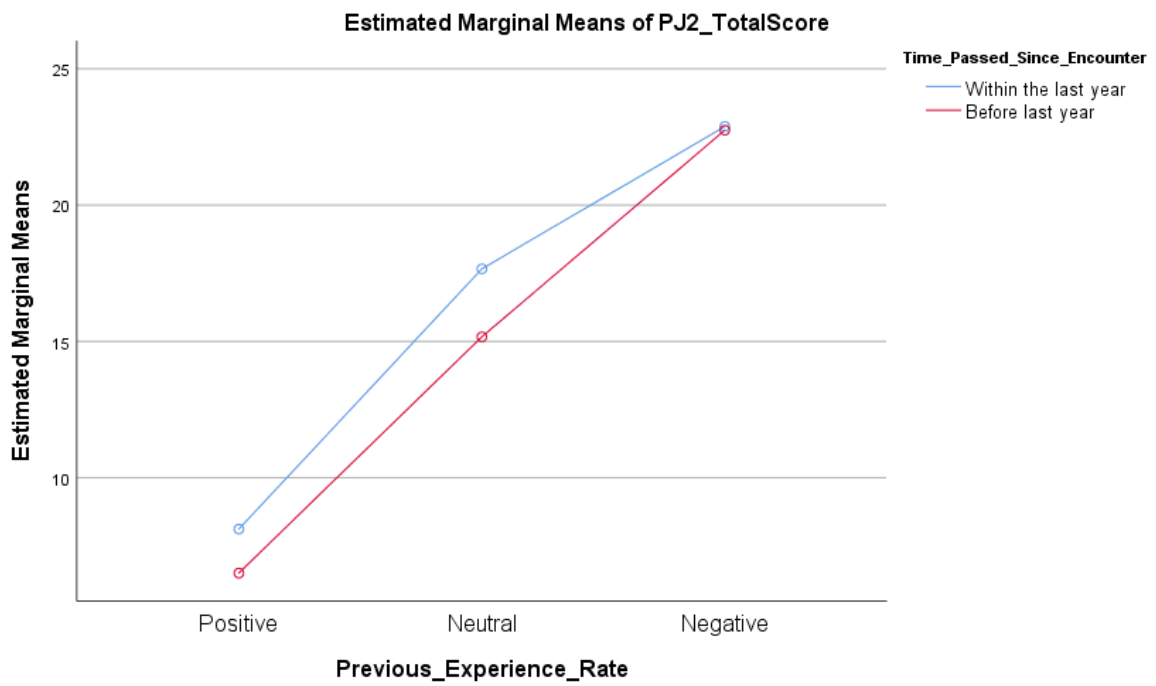


Figure 118 Encounter Type/Encounter Identity PJ2 Scale

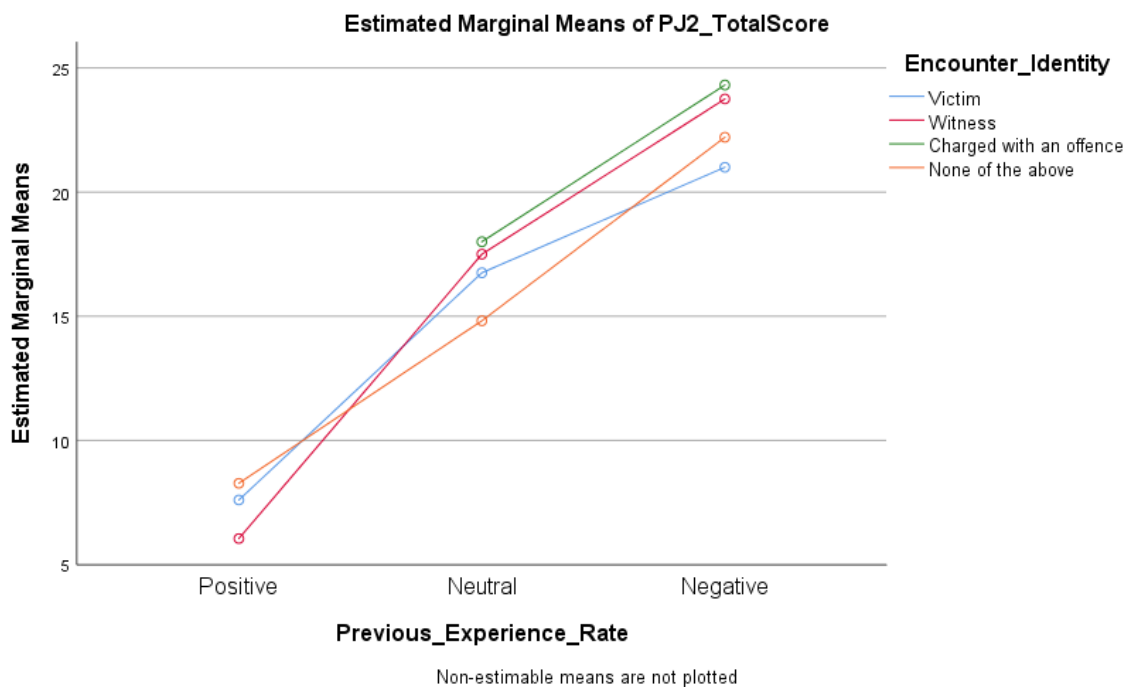


Figure 119 Time Passed/Encounter Identity PJ2 Scale

