Countering Ethnic profiling; does psychological safety influence training transfer?

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Abstract

Previous research has pointed out the importance of the role of psychological safety for employees and organizations on how to learn and perform, and for workplace effectiveness. The current study attempted to extend the body of research on psychological safety by exploring the relationship between psychological safety and training transfer. In order to investigate this proposed relationship, training was developed, called the VR training. The training is a new type of intervention which aims to counter ethnic profiling and was implemented within the Amsterdam police department. Data was collected by distributing a survey. The results show that there was no statistical significant relation between psychological safety and the training transfer of the VR training. However, this result is mostly attributed to the insufficient sample size of only 32 police officers. Therefore, the study was unable to find the proposed relationship between the two concepts. Future research with a sufficient sample size should clarify if these concepts are indeed related.

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1. Introduction

Ethnic profiling is a widely studied subject which poses a genuine societal problem. Ethnic profiling by the police force creates tension between the civilians and the police illustrated by the case of the apprehension of the musician Typhoon in 2016. (Bovenkerk, 2014). Research has been executed by the United States, Canada, and European countries and these studies found several definitions of ethnic profiling; the essence of it can be described as any action initiated by the police officers towards ethnic minorities which are believed to be disproportionally represented as part of the group responsible for committing crime, relying solely on race, ethnicity or national origin, rather than actual suspicious behaviour or indicators that would identify the targeted individual as being or has been engaged in criminal activity (Gross & Livingston, 2002; Higgins, Vito, & Walsh, 2008; Ramirez, Farrell, & McDevitt, 2000).

Ethnic profiling is closely linked to proactive policing which is a rather new type of policing that emphasizes deterrence of criminal behaviour by increasing police presence on the streets and by disturbing potential crime before happening (Das, Huberts, & van Steden, 2007). This approach led to an increase of the discretionary freedom of police officers whereby the risk of ethnic profiling increased as well. The police officers themselves will select the individuals who require police interference rather than arrest individuals after committing a criminal offence (Lipsky, 1980). In other words, police officers take a more proactive approach, search for aberrant behaviour of civilians, anticipate, and try to prevent criminal behaviour from occurring at all. Often in these situations, police officers will apply implicit and explicit stereotyping to aid in judging situations rather than look out for actual deviant or divergent behaviour, which is ineffective and ethically wrong (Hart, Larsen, Litton, & Sullivan, 2003; Mosher, 2011). This also occurs in the Netherlands; the study of Cankaya (2012) indicated that Dutch police officers do rely on visible racial characteristics during the selection and decision-making processes.

Furthermore, according to a report of Amnesty International ethnic profiling has negative consequences for the entire police force: It damages the legitimacy of the police force due to the lack of trust of the public. Secondly, a negative image is created which results in stereotypes and beliefs about connecting ethnicities to criminal behaviour. Thirdly, it hinders the actual effectiveness of police activities in stopping criminal acts and therefore does not contribute to opposing crime (International, 2013). Also, these negative consequences are strengthened by the perception of minorities regarding the police. In the Netherlands, minorities experience that they are more frequently stopped during proactive police stops in comparison to native Dutch individuals (Duijndam, Prins, & Kaulingfreks, 2017; Schuilenburg, Besseling, & Uitendaal, 2017). These feelings are in line with the results of Kleijer-Kool and Landman (2016) which indicate that civilians with a migration background are more frequently stopped during proactive police stops based on their visible racial background. In particular, younger individuals with a migration background believe that the police perform more proactive stops and experience feelings of injustice. For example, young individuals with a Muslim

background living in Schilderswijk, The Haque, perceive to be treated less friendly by Dutch police officers due to their religious Muslim background characteristics. They even consider this a "fact of life" that they have to cope with (Duijndam et al., 2017). These findings are supported by a report of the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights which showed that on average more Muslims in the Netherlands do experience to be more involved in proactive policing in comparison to other European countries (FRA, 2017). Hence, ethnic profiling and the perception to be ethnic profiled are responsible for causing negative consequences for the minorities and the entire police force.

1.2 Difficulty of countering ethnic profiling

Landman (2018) poses two reasons why ethnic profiling is such a hard concept to deal with. Countering ethnic profiling involves adjusting the opinions, drives, and feelings of the police officers towards ethnic profiling. However, this leads to police officers experiencing a diverse set of feelings such as anger, uncertainty, and fear. Police officers activate various defense mechanisms such as denial, projection, and pushing off to protect their professional identity and as a result, refute the problem. For instance, when police officers are subjected to training which aims to counter ethnic profiling they may experience this as being criticized on their job performance and as "an attack on the self" due to strong job identification (Shiner, 2010). This also influences the effect of such training. Therefore countering ethnic profiling is more of an emotional challenge than a practical challenge (Shiner, 2010). Hence, it seems that police officers are hindered on a psychological level by these experienced feelings which act as an obstacle for implementing efficient trainings to counter ethnic profiling. A second reason why ethnic profiling is hard to tackle is due to the fact that most of the interventions focus on a top-down approach rather than applying a bottom-up approach. Examples of a top-down approach are new types of policies, regulations, and trainings which are developed by the organization which tends to forget the perspective of the police officers (Foster, Newburn, & Souhami, 2005; Giacomantonio & Litmanovitz, 2017). These interventions are implemented by using top down communication, most of the time illustrated in documents with new rules or actions to be taken. However, the actual implementation is carried out by the operational entities, the police officers themselves. As a result, the intervention is seldom carried out as intended by the organization due to misinterpretation of the top-down communication by police officers (Giacomantonio & Litmanovitz, 2017; MacQueen & Bradford, 2017). So, because ethnic profiling is more an emotional challenge police officers should function in a psychological safe environment in where police officers are more motivated to undergo training. Also, interventions should focus on taking a bottom-up approach by starting at the level of the police officer by listening to their feelings and opinions regarding ethnic profiling.

1.3 Research context; link between psychological safety and VR training

This study developed a training (See Chapter 3 for description), called "VR training" for countering ethnic profiling. The training is based on the traffic light method which aims to help police

officers deal with ethnic profiling when performing proactive police stops (See chapter 3 for description). A bottom-up approach is taken by this program in where police officers were included in its development. The training operationalizes this bottom-up approach because it is a one-to-one conversation between police officers about ethnic profiling during which the police officers are free to share their opinions and emotions. This training was developed in cooperation with the Amsterdam police force and implemented in several police departments located in Amsterdam. The overall aim of the training is to accomplish training transfer. Training transfer is referred to as using trained knowledge and skills back on the job (Baldwin & Ford, 1988).

One concept that could hypothetically influence the training transfer of the VR training is psychological safety. Studies have shown that psychological safety positively influences workplace effectiveness and it enables team members and organizations to learn and to perform (A. C. Edmondson & Lei, 2014). This concept is defined as the shared belief of police officers, belonging to the same team, that their team is a secure environment to take interpersonal risks without facing negative consequences (A. Edmondson, 1999). Examples of interpersonal risk taking are providing feedback and sharing opinions without fear for ridicule or bullying. A police team that experiences high psychological safety should hypothetically be more motivated to be subjected to training. Moreover, these police officers should be able to tackle difficult topics such as ethnic profiling and in effect, be more willing to discuss this topic, share opinions, and be open for changes in their job performance. Also, police officers are better able to learn about ethnic profiling and adjust their behaviour to mitigate ethnic profiling behaviour. To illustrate, the VR training is an actual example of interpersonal risk taking because it creates a setting between two police officers in where a difficult topic, namely ethnic profiling, is directly addressed. Moreover, using VR is a more relax and amusing way to address this difficult topic and it should help alleviate the strain around ethnic profiling, experienced by police officers. Altogether, it would be interesting to investigate if psychological safety influences the ability of the police officers to transfer the trained knowledge to their job performance and counter ethnic profiling by means of the VR training.

This report aims to explore if psychological safety influences the transfer of knowledge and skills gained by the police teams due to the VR training. Hence, the research question is:
To what extent does psychological safety correlates to the training transfer of the VR training for countering ethnic profiling? The overall goal of the study is to better understand the role of psychological safety in training police officers and if the VR training helps countering ethnic profiling.

2. Theoretical framework

In this next section, the concepts of training transfer and psychological safety are described and linked to the VR training.

2.1 Training transfer

In an organizational setting, training is typically aimed at learning new skills and knowledge to staff members in order to improve their job activities. After receiving the training, its effect has to be determined by an evaluation. However, it is hard to measure the extent to which the trainee effectively applies the skills and knowledge, learned during the training, back on the job. According to Goldstein and Ford (2002), only performing the training is rarely enough to be effective. Research has shown that it is more effective to assess the extent to which the learning that resulted from the training is transferred to the job performance (Blume, Ford, Baldwin, & Huang, 2010). That is how the trainee is able to apply the lessons learned during the training in their job activities to establish the intended changes in work performance Moreover, training transfer is not only an essential part of the evaluation process according to Kirkpatrick (1970), but is also related to the problem that most training conducted within organizations fail to transfer to the work setting (Axtell, Maitlis, & Yearta, 1997). Therefore a more effective manner to determine training effectiveness is by assessing training transfer.

Training transfer is referred to as using trained knowledge and skills back on the job (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). The concept of training transfer is most frequently assessed by using the model of Axtell et al. (1997) which defined three types of influences on training transfer, namely trainee characteristics, course characteristics, and environmental factors. Trainee characteristics are described as the influence of the trainee on the training and are further specified into self-efficacy (Ford, 1992) and the motivation of the trainee to undergo the training (Mathieu & Martineau, 1997). Self-efficacy entails the perception of an individual about their ability to perform an intervention or an activity successfully (Bandura, 1993). Training characteristics are specified as the perceived relevance of the training for the job activities of the trainee (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). The environmental factors can be described as influences not of the trainee or training but of the organizational environment and is further specified to management support and the degree of autonomy of the trainee (Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992).

Related to the VR training, training transfer can be described as the extent to which the police officers apply the gained knowledge and skills back on their job performance. More specifically, the aim of the VR training is to accomplish a transfer of knowledge about the danger and consequences of ethnic profiling to the police officers. Consequently, police officers who undergo the training should have an increased awareness about the dangers of ethnic profiling during proactive policing and they should be more aware about how to avoid ethnic profiling. As a result, trained police officers should be less likely to conduct police stops that are only based on ethnicity and racial characteristics.

2.2 Assessing training transfer of the VR training

This study operationalizes training transfer of the VR training based on the model of Axtell et al. (1997). This model postulate that there are three types of influences on training transfer: The aspect of the course, characteristics of the trainee, and features of the environment. Several predictors are linked to these three types: Self-efficacy and motivations as trainee characteristics, training relevance as training characteristic, and management support as an environmental factor. The indicator autonomy is left out due to discretionary freedom of police officers when conducting proactive police stops (Lipsky, 1980) which means that the officers are already independent in their decision making regarding conducting proactive police stops

Furthermore, two extra characteristics of trainee are added which are specifically related to the training transfer of VR training which are more specific for the VR training. Firstly, response efficacy is added as an extra trainee characteristic. Response efficacy entails the perception of the trainee that an intervention or activity is effective (Maddux & Rogers, 1983). The main difference between self-efficacy and response efficacy is that response efficacy encompasses the belief of the trainee that he is able to take action required for achieving the desired behaviour. In the context of this research, response efficacy reflects the extent to which police officers believe that the training will be effective in countering ethnic profiling. It is possible that several police officers do not believe that this training will be effective which could negatively influence the training transfer process of these police officers. Therefore it is important to take response efficacy into account for assessing training transfer. Secondly, another characteristic of the trainee is added for assessing training transfer of the VR training, namely self-educating regarding ethnic profiling. The main objective of the VR training is to try to start a discussion between the police officers about ethnic profiling to increase their awareness about the danger ethnic profiling during proactive policing. It is assumed that the police officers who underwent the VR training are more aware of the danger of ethnic profiling and therefore are more willing to discuss this with their colleagues. It is also assumed that those police officers will be more willing to expand their knowledge about ethnic profiling by seeking information. This variable is based on the Framework for risk information seeking (FRIS) which postulates that people engage in more risk information seeking behaviour after perceiving a certain level of a risk. This perceived level of risk is influenced by fear appeal which motivated people for taking action to mitigate the perceived risk (Kievik & Gutteling, 2011). In the case of the VR training, it is assumed that police officers are becoming more aware about the risk of ethnic profiling during proactive policing due to the VR training which motivates them to take actions to mitigate the risk of displaying ethnic profiling. Examples of actions are discussing ethnic profiling with colleagues and seeking information about ethnic profiling to expand their level of knowledge about this topic.

So, based on the theoretical knowledge about training transfer, the following predictors are used to assess the training transfer of the VR training: Self-efficacy, response efficacy, the motivation,

self-educating of the trainee, the relevance of the training regarding job activities, and management support.

2.3 Psychological safety and predictors

Psychological safety depends on three different components, namely cohesion, team identification, and perceived organizational support (Elstgeest, 2016; Heirbaut, 2016). These findings are in line with study of Kivlighan, Miles, and Paquin (2010) which suggested that three of these components, namely support, identity, and cohesion determine to what extent a training could be effective within a team. Moreover, meta-analyses have shown that two components, namely, team identification, and organizational support positively influence training transfer (Burke & Hutchins, 2007; Colquitt, LePine, & Noe, 2000). Therefore it is assumed that psychological safety and these three components are positively related to the transferring the knowledge and skills of the VR training to the police officers.

2.4 Psychological safety

As is mentioned in the introduction, psychological safety is described as a shared belief that a team is safe for interpersonal risk taking (A. Edmondson, 1999). This belief serves as a group norm for intergroup relations and is further described as a sense of confidence that a group will not embarrass, reject, or punish someone for speaking up. This group norm tends to be implicit, is taken for granted, and stems on mutual respect and trust by all group members. High psychological safety facilitates the overall learning behaviour because it alleviates potential excessive reactions of other team members regarding actions of individuals that could be embarrassing or threating on an individual or team level. Therefore team members feel more respected and accepted. Moreover, team members feel free to share opinions, posing new ideas, improving work processes, and addressing any misconduct. Also, the entire team is more open to change in general. This again, is strengthened by a shared willingness of team members to contribute new actions or ideas for the group benefits (A. C. Edmondson & Lei, 2014). To illustrate, psychological safety helps explain why employees share information and knowledge (Collins & Smith, 2006). This is in line with the findings of Detert, Treviño, and Sweitzer (2008) who stated that a psychological safe team feels less inhibited to speak their minds and more motivated to help improving the organization. Therefore, a psychological safe team ensures that team members are more involved and members are able to better learn from mistakes (A. C. Edmondson, 2004). Taken together, psychological safety helps teams and organizations to learn and to perform (Bunderson & Boumgarden, 2010; Carmeli & Gittell, 2009; A. C. Edmondson & Lei, 2014).

In context of this study, a police team that experiences high psychological safety should be more able to address difficult topics such as ethnic profiling and create a work environment in which ethnic profiling is debatable instead of police officers shifting to their defense mechanisms (Shiner, 2010). In effect, the police teams take an actual interpersonal risk by undergoing the training.

Moreover, the ambassador who directly addresses ethnic profiling by implementing the training should be better able to do so because psychological safety alleviates the potential excessive reactions of the other team members. Therefore, police officers who experience psychological safety should be more eager to speak their minds about ethnic profiling and share their opinions with other police officers. So, the VR training should have potentially more success in transferring the trained knowledge to its team members when the police officers experience psychological safety.

H1: Psychological safety correlates to the training transfer of the VR training.

2.5 Team identification

When an individual identifies himself with a group this individual will switch from an individual identity to a social identity (McLeod, 2008). This identification process, according to Hogg (1992), results in the individual defining himself in terms of shared group values and beliefs that the group is related to the self-concept. In other words, team identification is the application of the Social identity theory to a team setting (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) and it entails how the team members consider the team goals as their own responsibility and feel psychologically involved with the team. Research has shown that team identification is positively related with team performance (Lembke & Wilson, 1998), job satisfaction, and feeling more belongingness to the entire organization (Van Dick & Wagner, 2002). In addition, members who identify with their team are more likely to be more motivated to exert effort towards ensuring the groups well-being, and team members will avoid conflict because the group interest mirrors their own (Han & Harms, 2010).

According to Han and Harms (2010) team identification is strongly related to trust among team members and is therefore related to psychological safety. Besides, the field experiment of Chattopadhyay (1999) showed that team members who identify with their group hold a more positive attitude and are more committed and involved in their team. Also, team identification is related to cohesion. Cohesion increases when team members identity with the team and shift from an individual identity to a social identity which result in adjusting their attitude and behaviour to the overall group norms (Hogg, 1992). Lastly, team members who identify with each other also think, behave and respond in the same manner (Chattopadhyay, 1999). Taken together, High group identification ensures social support, protection against bullying behaviour and burn-outs, and contributes to long-term group achievements and well-being (Haslam & Reicher, 2006).

In this context, police officers who identify strongly with their team should be better able to undergo the training and the gained knowledge should be better transferred to these police officers in comparison to police officers who do not strongly identify with their team. Police officers who identify strongly are able to achieve this due to the shared commitment, possibility of social support, involvement, and wanting to contribute to long-term group achievements and its well-being.

H2: Team identification correlates to the training transfer of the VR training.

2.6 Cohesion

Cohesion is a widely studied attraction force which occurs during intergroup relations. Over the years, a comprehensive body of research defined the following core concepts: Attraction among the members of a group (Lott & Lott, 1965), the attraction of the member to the group as a whole (Nixon, 1979), belonging and moral within the group (Bollen & Hoyle, 1990), strength of the social forces that keep an individual from leaving a group, the tendency to stick together (Chan, To, & Chan, 2006), and trust and teamwork (Siebold, 2007). Besides, there are different components such as social cohesion which is related to the attraction among members, task cohesion that can be described as task performance as a group, perceived cohesion which is the sense of belongingness to the group, and emotional cohesion which entails the emotional intensity of the group (Forsyth, 2018).

Studies have shown that cohesion within a group is beneficial towards preventing interpersonal problems and group members experience less tension and anxiety (Evans & Dion, 1991; Hoyle & Crawford, 1994). The reduced level of stress and tension due to cohesion creates a psychologically safer environment in which the group as a whole is better able to be open for change and therefore accepting feedback, forming of group norms (Cartwright, 1951). Taken together, cohesive groups should be better able to create psychological safety which is necessary for group members to engage in personal risk-taking, such as discussing problems with group members (Marmarosh & Van Horn, 2010). The study of Bradley, Postlethwaite, Klotz, Hamdani, and Brown (2012) even found that a psychologically safe environment helps mitigate task conflicts because the safe environment prevents members to take task conflicts personal which results in a more effective problem-solving process. Lastly, cohesion is positively related to enhancing group performance which indicates that high cohesive groups outperform low cohesive groups (Mullen & Copper, 1994).

Also, cohesion is able to negatively influence intergroup relations. High cohesive groups can be emotionally demanding which can lead to distress (Forsyth, Elliott, & Welsh, 1999). Additionally, highly cohesive groups hold more influence on their members in comparison to low cohesive groups. To illustrate, religious cults may purposefully alienate group members from other groups to seal them off from other interests and strengthen their group commitment (Yao, 1987). So, cohesion can be used to exert pressure on the group members to conform to the group norms due to intensifying group processes which in effect decrease psychological safety (Forsyth, 2018). Besides, the peer pressure to conform can also lead to groupthink in where the group as a whole is no longer fit to critically look at their own opinions and point of views which leads to a one-way direction of thinking and close-mindedness (Janis, 2008).

In the context of this research, the effects of cohesion on psychological safety and therefore on the training transfer seems to be twofold. On the one hand, a cohesive police team should be able to counter ethnic profiling by means of the training and transfer the gained knowledge to the police team because cohesive teams create a psychologically safe environment in where it is more likely that interpersonal risks are taken by a team (Cartwright, 1951; Marmarosh & Van Horn, 2010), such as

undergoing the training. On the other hand, highly cohesive police teams could be hindered in their ability to counter ethnic profiling because the negative consequences of cohesion, such as groupthink and the peer pressure to conform to the group norm. Yet, the study of Heirbaut (2016) found that highly cohesive police teams have a positive influence on psychological safety which indicates that difficult problems, such as ethnic profiling can be addressed within such a team.

H3: Cohesion correlates to the training transfer of the VR training.

2.7 Perceived Organizational support

In general, employees who are emotionally committed to their organization and identify strongly with their job have better performance results, reduced absenteeism, and are less likely to quit their job (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Allen, & Allen, 1997). As a result, employees are largely concerned if the organization is also committed to them because being valued can yield benefits such as mirrored respect and approval, pay and promotion possibilities which in effect will increase the job commitment. This dynamic interaction between the organization and the employees, most of the time between employers and employees, is mainly determined by the social exchange theory (SET) which postulates that when one of the party treats the other party well the reciprocity norm will ensure that the other party will return the favor and therefore foster the relationship (Emerson, 1976). One way for employees to determine the readiness of the organization to reward increased work effort according to the SET is by creating perceptions about this organizational support which is explained by the organizational support theory. This theory states that employees develop global beliefs about the extent the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being, known as perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). This perception depends on how the organization treats its employees. Employees who feel supported identify strongly with the organization which leads to an increased in commitment and helpfulness (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

A. C. Edmondson, Kramer, and Cook (2004) illustrated that perceived organizational support is an important factor that is of influence for creating a psychologically safe environment because the perceived organizational support by employees is positively related to trust in the organization (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Furthermore, perceived organizational support is also positively related to trust in supervisors and direct colleagues. This multi-level trust of employees is strengthened by organization, supervisors, and direct colleagues by rewarding the increased work effort and providing compliments to increases confidence and creates a positive social identity. These actions have to indicate care, interest and fairness of the organization to the employees (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). However, support from supervisors was proven to be more strongly related to perceived organizational support in comparison to support from direct colleagues supervisors are perceived as more representative to the organization (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Hence, perceived organizational support contributes to a psychologically safe environment in which employees are more

committed to the organization and take more effort to sustain an efficient working environment (A. Edmondson, 1999).

In the context of this research, police officers who experience high perceived organizational support are more likely to counter ethnic profiling by means of the VR training in comparison to police officers that experience less perceived organizational support due to a better perceived relation between the police team and the Police organization as a whole. This relation is based on trust and support shown by the police organization to counter ethnic profiling which, in effect, increases the commitment and helpfulness of the police officers to achieve this, in this case, by means of the VR training. Importantly to note is that this predictor is almost identical to management support which is also a predictor of training transfer (see paragraph 2.2). Therefore the variable perceived organizational support will serve as a predictor of both training transfer and psychological safety.

H4: Perceived organizational correlates to the training transfer of the VR training.

All the hypotheses are depicted in the proposed model:

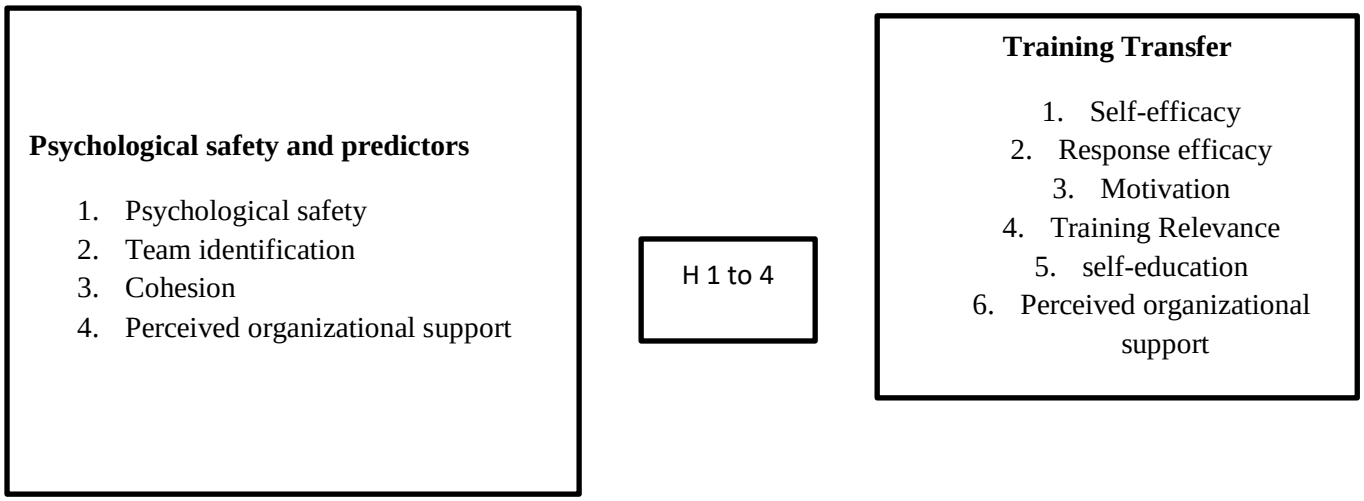

Figure 1. *Conceptual model*

3. VR training

This chapter provides a description of the developed VR training which is mentioned in the introduction and the underlying theory on which the training is based. The training was developed in cooperation with the Amsterdam police department. Firstly, the traffic light method is explained in depth, followed by a description and procedure of the training.

3. 1 Traffic light method

To counter ethnic profiling, the Dutch National police have developed a set of rules which helps agents to correctly perform a proactive police stop. These rules are based case laws and a code of practice and use the three colors of a traffic light, the so-called traffic light method. This method is developed as a response to the unrest between minorities and the Dutch National police due to ethnic profiling which occurs during proactive police stops. It describes guidelines for police officers to select the right individuals who require police interference and it provides the police officers with the necessary justification for conducting the police stop. The theory described a set of rules about three different types of selection criteria on which a proactive police stop can be based, respectively behaviour, information and appearances. In this context, behaviour can be described as any deviant behaviour by civilians according to article 160 WVW (Wegenverkeerswet) and behaviour fitting for a specific modus operandi used in criminal acts. Information can be described as the possession of actual information by the police officers about specifics, such as locations of criminal hotspots and information provided during the briefing. Selection criteria which are based on appearances can be described as using for example type of vehicle, clothing, ethnicity, and age as a justification. It should be noted that the latter approach is not a justification in itself and so for a justifiable police stop more signs are needed, such as additional information or aberrant behaviour. In effect, this type of selection criteria is highly susceptible to be influenced by ethnic profiling. On the other hand, conducting stops based on aberrant behaviour are almost always legitimate for conducting proactive police stops and information is most of the time legitimate. Combinations of different selection criteria render a more legitimate justification. Hence, these types of selection criteria are linked to the color of a traffic light based on their susceptibility for ethnic profiling. So, the behavioural justification is linked to green, the informational justification is linked to amber, and the appearances justification is linked to red. This method is distributed as a Card at the Amsterdam police department and this card is depicted in the Appendix (IA).

3.2 description and procedure of the developed training

The VR training consists of six videos about different scenarios of a proactive police stop executed by actual police officers and are based on the traffic light method. For each color, two videos are produced, respectively a video of a justified police stop and a video of an unjustified police stop.

So, in total six videos are developed. Each video has the same set up: All the videos start with a disclaimer which displays the following text: “the video the different roles are played by actors”, followed by a small introduction to clarify the video’s intent which is then followed by the actual police stop. A detailed description of the videos is depicted in the Appendix (IB). The introductions can be described as police officers deliberating their course of action deriving from what they come across which results eventually in the police stop. For example, the police officers may state that they possess information about a description of an individual who committed a crime or simply have a vague suspicion. In addition, during the introduction, the police officers state their reason for conducting the police stop. The introductions are filmed in the police vehicle just before the actual police stops. After the introduction, the police stop is conducted. All videos end with a text message that states: “How would you perform this police stop and discuss this with your ambassador for professional policing”, followed by a small video which depicts the traffic light approach card. The six videos are depicted in appendix IB.

4. Methodology

This chapter provides a description of the method that was used to investigate to what extent psychological safety influences the transfer of the VR training. Quantitative research was used to test the model, depicted in figure 1, and the four hypotheses which mainly focus on the relation between psychological safety and its predictors with the training transfer of the VR training.

4.1 Methodology current study

The main study is an explorative study about the implemented VR training and focuses on assessing the transfer of knowledge and skills, gained during the VR training, of the police officers to their job performance and it assesses the level psychological safety and its predictors. As mentioned before, training transfer is referred to as using trained knowledge and skills back on the job (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). Data is collected by using a questionnaire.

The questionnaire consists of four parts. The first part contains questions about demographics. The second part focuses on measuring psychological safety and its predictors, namely team identification, cohesion, and perceived organizational support. Also, this part contains questions about proactive policing and ethnic profiling which are meant to measure the effect of the training. The third part measures the training transfer of the VR training which is specified as: Self-efficacy, response efficacy, the motivation of the police officers to execute the training, the perceived relevance for their job activities, and self-education. The last part of the questionnaire is aimed at the ambassadors only to evaluate their part in performing the training. The ambassadors are police officers who took lead in executing the training with their colleagues and lead the discussion about the videos and ethnic profiling with these colleagues during the training. The first and second part of the questionnaire is filled out by all police officers. The third part can only be filled out by trained police officers, and the fourth part can only be filled out by trained ambassadors. The untrained police officers act as the

control group and the trained police officers act as the experimental group. Paragraph 4.4 describes the measurements in more detail.

4.2 Procedure

Two procedures are explained in this section. The first procedure is about the VR training and the second procedure is about the main study.

The procedure for the VR training can be described as follows: The training is executed by police officers who take lead in implementing the training in their police teams. These police officers are referred to as "Ambassadors" and are member of a police team. A convenience sampling method was applied by these ambassadors. They asked their team members to participate to the training on a voluntarily basis and selected team member close to hand. Also, the participants were assured that their information is treated confidentially and that they remain anonymous. After the participants provided their informed consent the training started. Most of the time, the training was performed during lunch breaks. At first, the participant views with the virtual reality headset one or two videos, chosen by the ambassadors themselves, of one of the three colors e.g. green, yellow or red. Afterwards, the participant is interviewed by the ambassador to arouse the intended discussion about ethnic profiling. After the conversation the participant fills out the questionnaire. Additionally, an option was provided at the end of the questionnaire to participate to a second study. The questionnaire is depicted in Appendix IIB.

The procedure of the main study can be described as follows: The experimental group consists of the participants that took part in the VR training and who agreed to participate to a second study on a voluntary basis. These police officers were contacted by the ambassadors or by the external supervisor and received a questionnaire which aims to assess psychological safety and its predictors, and the training transfer of the VR training. The participants who are part of the control group where selected by using the convenience sample method. Police officers were contacted by the external supervisor and also took part on a voluntary basis. The external supervisor made use of his own internal network within the Amsterdam police force for selecting police officers. These police officers did not take part to the VR training and received the same questionnaire. The only important feature during for selecting participants is that these participants are working police officers. No further distinctions were needed. Both groups were assured that their information is treated confidentially and that they remain anonymous. The questionnaire is digitally distributed by using the program Qualtrics which is a widely used program at the University of Twente to develop and digitally distribute questionnaires. The data was sent to an online platform in Qualtrics that only the investigator and supervisors can access. After the participants provided their informed consent they could fill out the questionnaire in their own time.

4.3 Participants

In total 37 police officers participated to the main study. Five police officers only filled out the questions regarding demographics and one police officer did not fill out the questionnaire completely. Therefore the first five police officers are excluded from this research. So, the revised total sample size consists of 32 police officers. The experimental group consists out of 19 police officers of which 14 acted as ambassadors. The control group consists out of 13 police officers who did not take part to VR training. Of the police officers 22 are male and 10 are female with a mean age between 23 and 35 years and with on average between 11 and 20 years on the job. It should be noted that a mere sample size of in total 32 usable participants is quite low and will probably render insufficient results.

4.4 Measurements

The questionnaire measures demographics, psychological safety, team identification, cohesion, perceived organizational support, self-efficacy, response efficacy motivation of the police officers, perceived relevance regarding job activities, and self-educating. All the responses were made on a 5-point Likert scales, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Scale scores are determined by computing the average of each construct.

Demographics. The participants provided information about their gender and age. In addition a question was posed about their years of service. These three types of demographical information are most common when questioning police officers. For the questions regarding age and years of service the number of years is assessed by using ratios. For age, the ratios are: < 22, 23 to 35, 36 to 50, 51 to 60, and > 60. For years of service, the ratios are: < 5, 5 to 10, 11 to 20, 21 to 30, and >31.

Psychological safety. Psychological safety was measured by using a 4-item scale, based on the work of A. Edmondson (1999). At first, a 5 item scale was used with a Cronbach's α of 0.62; however, the reliability of the scale deemed more sufficient without item five so this item was deleted. The revised scale has a Cronbach's α of 0.66. Importantly, this scale used indirect questions only due to the sensitivity of this construct. It was determined that some questions could be too personal or can be perceived as uncomfortable. Therefore all the questions of this construct are posed indirectly to alleviate potential pressure of the police officers during answering the questions. In addition according to Fisher (1993) indirect questions reduces the risk of acquiring social desirable answers. All other construct use direct questioning. Lastly, Items 1, 3, and 4 are negatively framed and are therefore recoded. Examples of questions used where "When my colleagues make a mistake then this will be blamed on them" and "I think that my colleagues think that some colleagues are excluded because they are different". The averages scores form the construct Psychological safety

Team identification. Team identification was measured by using a 5-item scale derived from Theodorakis, Dimmock, Wann, and Barlas (2010). The scale has a Cronbach's α of .85. Typical questions are: "I think that my team is a part of me" and "I am proud to be member of our team". The

averages scores form the construct Team identification

Cohesion. Cohesion was measured by using by using a 4-item scale adapted from the group environment questionnaire of Carless and De Paola (2000). At first, a 5-item scale was used with a Cronbach's α of 0.47; however, the reliability of the scale was substantially improved without item 2 so this item was deleted. The revised scale has a Cronbach's α of 0.61. In addition item 1 had to be recoded because this item was negatively framed. Examples of questions are: "Members of our team do not socialize with each other after work time" and "My team is mine most important social group". The averages scores form the construct Cohesion

Perceived organizational support. Perceived organizational support is measured by using a 5-item scale based on the work of Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch (1997). The scale has a Cronbach's α of 0.91 Example questions are: "My organization appreciates my contributions" and "The organization takes into account our personal goals and values". The averages scores form the construct Perceived organizational support.

Training effectiveness. A 5-item scale was used to measure the potential effect of the VR training. The questions are related to measuring difference between police officers who executed the VR training and police officers who did not execute the training. The questions are based on the practical experience of the external supervisor and focus on the selection processes of police officers for conducting proactive police stops. It is assumed that trained police officers fill out these questions with more caution compared to untrained police officers because trained police officers are more aware about the danger of ethnic profiling during proactive policing. The scale has a Cronbach's α of .69. Example questions are: "It is fine to use your intuition when deciding to stop an individual" and "There is nothing wrong when stopping an individual based on ethnicity when there is an objective reason for it". The average scores form the construct Training effectiveness.

Efficacy measures. Self-efficacy was measured by using a 4-item scale similar to the scale used by Guthrie and Schwoerer (1994). The scale has a Cronbach's α of .92. Typical questions are: "I am able to apply the lessons, learned during the VR training, into practice" and "I think that I have learned knowledge and skills during the VR training". The averages scores form the construct self-efficacy. The scale for response efficacy was also based on the scale of Guthrie and Schwoerer (1994) and is adapted from the self-efficacy scale. It concerns a 3-item scale. The scale has a Cronbach's α of .92. An example question is: "I am convinced that the VR training contributes to improving proactive policing "and "I think that the VR training contributes to counter ethnic profiling". The averages scores form the construct Response efficacy.

Motivation. Motivation was measured by using a 2-item scale based on the theoretical model of Axtell et al. (1997) and has a Cronbach's α of .89. The two questions are: "I was motivated to undergo the VR training" and "I am motivated to apply the knowledge and skills that I have learnt during the VR training". The averages scores form the construct Motivation.

Perceived relevance. The perceived relevance of the VR training to the job description of the police

officers was measured by 3- item which also is based on the theoretical model of Axtell et al. (1997). The scale has a Cronbach's α of .94. Examples of questions are: "I think that the VR training was relevant related to performing my job activities" and "I think that the VR training was relevant for executing proactive police stops". The averages scores form the construct Perceived relevance

Self-educating. Self-educating was measured using a 4-item scale. The questions are aimed at evaluating the training objectives which are increasing the awareness about the danger of ethnic profiling by motivating the police officers to take action such as discussing this topic with colleagues and seeking more information. The scale has a Cronbach's α of .84 Example questions: "I have discussed ethnic profiling more frequently with colleagues after the VR training" and "I further explored the topic of ethnic profiling after the VR training". The averages scores form the construct Self-education

Resistance participants. A 2-item scale was used to assess the resistance of the participants perceived by the ambassadors during the VR training. The ambassadors subjected their team members to the VR training and led the discussion part therefore the ambassadors require an extra measurement. The questions evaluate the discussion part of the training from the perspective of the ambassadors. At first, a 3-items scale was used with a Cronbach's α of .55; however, to improve the reliability of this scale item three had to be deleted. The revised scale has a Cronbach's α of .70. The two questions are "During the VR training I met a lot of resistance from my colleagues" and "I noticed that the VR training evoked a lot of emotions from my colleagues". The average scores form the construct Resistance participants.

5. Results

This section displays the outcomes of this research. Firstly, all variables are correlated among each other followed by regression analysis for testing the four hypotheses. Secondly, the effect of the VR training is tested. In addition, an overview is provided about the perspective of the ambassadors for performing the VR training.

Table 1.

Means (M), standard deviations (SD), and correlations among variables

Variables	Mean	SD	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Age	2.62	0.70	32	1.00													
2. Years of service	3.06	1.06	32	.80**	1.00												
3. Gender	--	--	32	-.45**	-.36*	1.00											
4. Psychological safety	2.89	0.77	32	.34	.32	-.64*	1.00										
5. Team Identification	3.37	0.64	32	.02	-.03	.10	.12	1.00									
6. Cohesion	3.06	0.53	31	-.03	-.06	-.04	.06	.41*	1.00								
7. Perceived Organizational support	2.97	0.83	31	.39*	.35	-.29	.36*	.56**	.14	1.00							
8. Training effect	2.88	0.77	31	.25	.23	.06	.13	.24	.22	.11	1.00						
9. Self-efficacy	3.71	0.88	19	-.22	-.15	.33	-.03	-.12	-.08	-.29	.29	1.00					
10. Response efficacy	3.93	0.84	19	.08	.18	.06	.14	-.23	-.26	-.21	.01	.82**	1.00				
11. Motivation	4.03	0.82	19	-.19	-.07	.05	.06	-.22	-.21	-.29	-.11	.76**	.83**	1.00			
12. Training relevance	4.05	0.84	19	-.06	.01	.10	.03	-.18	-.15	-.24	.07	.86**	.89**	.91**	1.00		
13. Self-education	3.31	0.92	19	-.16	-.12	.30	-.04	-.02	-.09	-.11	.22	.91**	.74**	.70**	.75**	1.00	
14. Resistance participants	3.21	0.93	14	-.09	.02	.40	-.47	.06	-.19	.21	-.31	.01	0.24	0.14	-.21	.18	1.00

Note $p < .01$**; $p < .05$*, Scale categories: (1-14) [a] N=32

5.2 Correlations between training transfer and psychological safety

Before testing the hypotheses, all variables were tested on bivariate correlations which are depicted in table 1. Table 1 shows that there are strong positive correlations among five of the six predictors for training transfer proposed by the current research, namely, between self-efficacy, response efficacy, motivation, training relevance, and self-education. All these correlations are statistically significant. These findings suggest that these five predictors are related to each other and therefore are related to training transfer. Notably, there was no significant relationship between perceived organizational support and all the other predictors of training transfer. This result indicates that perceived organizational support is not related to the other predictors and possibly is not related to training transfer.

By applying the same interpretation for psychological safety and the four proposed predictors, table 1 also shows the following results: Only perceived organizational support is positively correlated with psychological safety. Surprisingly, there was no significant relation between cohesion and team identification with psychological safety. However, moderate and strong correlations were found between certain predictors, respectively between team identification and cohesion and between team identification and perceived organizational support. Also, psychological safety is reversibly related to gender which indicates that age definitely is not an important factor for psychological safety.

In addition, the table shows the correlations between demographics. Subsequently, age and years of service strongly correlate among each other which logically indicate that older ager is related to more years of service with the police. The table also shows that gender negatively correlates with age and years of service of the police officers; this correlation is strong for age and moderately for years of service. This finding suggests that gender is reversibly related to both age and years of service which only indicates that gender is definitely not an important factor for both age and years of service.

Lastly, a moderate correlation was found between perceived organizational support and age which suggests that older age is related to experiencing more perceived organizational support.

5.3 Testing the model

Multiple linear regression analyses were conducted to determine to what extent psychological safety, and its predictors, namely, team identification, cohesion, and organizational support affect the training transfer of the VR training. Training transfer is operationalized into self-efficacy, response efficacy, motivation, training relevance, and self-education. Multiple regression analysis is conducted because the study investigates variables with multiple predictors. Psychological safety, team identification, cohesion, and perceived organizational support were used as the independent variables and were entered all together. The predictors of training transfer were used as dependent variables one by one which resulted in five regression analyses. Table 2 depicts the regression analyses between psychological safety and its predictors and the predictors of training transfer.

The first regression analysis is conducted for psychological safety and its predictors with self-efficacy. This analysis showed that psychological safety and its predictors did not significantly predict self-efficacy, F (4, 19) = 0.39, p = .81). Psychological safety and its predictors only explained 10 percent of the variability in self-efficacy.

The second regression analysis is conducted for psychological safety and its predictors with response efficacy. This analysis showed that psychological safety and its predictors did not significantly predict response efficacy, F (4, 19) = 0.58, p = .68). Psychological safety and its predictors only explained 14 percent of the variability in response efficacy.

The third regression analysis is conducted for psychological safety and its predictors with motivation. This analysis showed that psychological safety and its predictors did not significantly predict motivation, F (4, 19) = 0.60, p = .66). Overall, psychological safety and its predictors explained 15 percent of the variability in motivation.

The fourth regression analysis is conducted between psychological safety and its predictors with training relevance. This analysis, again, showed that psychological safety and its predictors did not significantly predict training relevance. Psychological safety and its predictors only explained 9 percent of the variability in training relevance.

The last regression analysis is conducted between psychological safety and its predictors with self-education. Also this analysis showed that psychological safety and its predictors did not significantly predict self-education. Psychological safety and its predictors only explained 3 percent of the variability in self-education.

Taken together, all four hypotheses are rejected as is shown by all the insignificant p values generated by the five regression analyses.

Table 2.

Results of the multiple linear regressions between psychological safety and training transfer.

Independent variables		Dependent variables			
	β	β	B	B	β
	Self-efficacy	Response efficacy	Motivation	Training relevance	Self-education
Psychological safety	.04	.13	.09	-.05	-.02
Team identification	.09	-.03	.02	-.01	.08
Cohesion	-.12	-.25	-.22	-.16	-.12
Perceived organizational support	-.36	-.25	-.34	-.26	-.16
Sample size (N)	19	19	19	19	19
R square (R^2)	0.10	0.14	0.15	0.09	0.03

Note $p < .01$**; $p < .05$*

Additionally, due to the fact that all the regression coefficients (β values) are statistically insignificant, shown by table 2, and the low sample size, 95 percent CI are depicted in table 3. These confidence intervals reflect that the actual regression coefficient is in between a certain interval with 95 percent statistical certainty. These 95 percent confidence intervals are depicted because according to Maas and Hox (2005) regression analysis with a small sample size at level two (meaning a sample size of 50 or less which holds for this research) leads to biased estimates. Therefore, the 95 % percent CI may show potential statistical relationship between psychological safety and its predictors and training transfer and its predictors. When zero is included in the confidence interval there is no statistical significant relation and when zero is excluded there is a statistical significant relation.

Table 3 supports the finding that all hypotheses are rejected because in all interval zero is included which indicates that there is no statistical significant relation between all the predictors.

Table 3.

95 percent Confidence intervals for the regression coefficients between psychological safety and its predictors and training transfer.

Independent variables	Dependent Variables				
	Self-efficacy	Response efficacy	Motivation	Training relevance	Self-education
Psychological safety	[-0.63, 0.72]	[-0.49, 0.78]	[-0.52, 0.72]	[-0.60, 0.71]	[-0.77, 0.72]
Team identification	[-0.79, 1,04]	[-0.90, 0.82]	[-0.82, 0.86]	[-0.89, 0.88]	[-0.89, 1.11]
Cohesion	[-1.27, 0.84]	[-1.44, 0.55]	[-1.36, 0.58]	[-1.31, 0.73]	[-1.40, 0.92]
Perceived organizational support	[-1.03, 0.36]	[-0.88, 0.40]	[-0.94, 0.31]	[-0.91, 0.40]	[-0.92, 0.58]

5.3 Effect of the VR training

To investigate if the VR training proved to be effective on the participants, a one-way Anova was conducted to compare the experimental group with the control group. The construct training effectiveness focuses on the selection processes of the police officers during executing proactive police stops and the potential danger of ethnic profiling during this selection procedure. It is assumed that the experimental group would score lower on these questions due to their increased awareness about the danger of ethnic profiling during the selection procedure due to the VR training. Unfortunately, there was no significant difference between the control group (M = 2.92, SD = 0.91) and the experimental group (M = 2.87, SD = 0.71) for the questions regarding the effect of the training; F (1, 31) = 0.029, p = .87. This result suggests that the VR training did not induce the intended effect among the experimental group.

5.4 Role of the ambassadors

The ambassadors fulfilled an additional role during this study, namely executing the training with their colleagues. Their tasks were choosing the videos to be shown and directing the discussion afterwards. Therefore the construct “resistance participants” containing two questions was added to the questionnaire as can be seen in section 4.4. These questions were posed to acquire information from the ambassadors about reactions and potential resistance from the police officers during the discussion phase. Figure 2 provides an overview. This figure shows that most ambassadors provided average scores between four or higher (in total 9 ambassadors). Only 5 ambassadors provided average scores

of 3 or lower. This indicates that most ambassadors did experience resistance from their colleagues during the training.

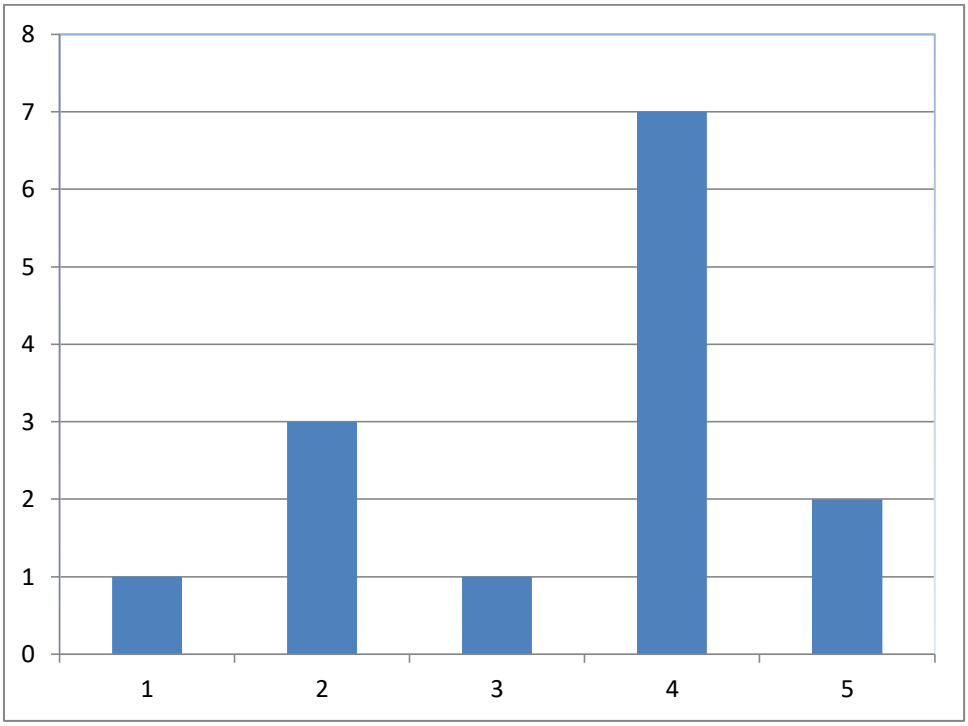

Figure 2. Overview of ratings for the perceived resistance of the participants (with a 5-point Likert scale). The Horizontal axis represents the ratings and the vertical axis represents the frequencies of the different ratings provided by the ambassadors (N=14).

6. Discussion

Psychological safety is a concept that enables organizations to learn and to perform, and it is related to workplace effectiveness. This study has extended the body of research on this topic by exploring the relationship between psychological safety and training transfer. This was tested by designing an actual training which focuses on increasing the awareness of police officers about the potential danger of ethnic profiling during the selection procedure for stopping civilians.

Unfortunately, the results imply that there was no statistical significant relation between psychological safety and its predictors and training transfer, indicated by the correlational analyses and the multiple linear regression analyses. Firstly, no hypothesized relation was found between psychological safety and training transfer. Secondly, no relation was found between team identification and training transfer. Also, no relation was found between cohesion and training transfer. Lastly, no relation was found between perceived organizational support and training transfer. Therefore all four hypotheses had to be rejected.

A possible explanation for these results is that the proposed relationship between cohesion and team identification and training transfer do not apply due to the difficult and threatening nature of ethnic profiling for police officers. In the case of team identification, when police officers feel

threatened by the topic of ethnic profiling within a team due to being criticized on his/her job performance and the perceived attack on the self (Shiner, 2010) identifying with the overall team may actually inhibit the training transfer of the VR training. The police officers simply do not agree that their job performance has to be adjusted and thus hold a negative attitude towards ethnic profiling. In the worst case, this feeling can become a group norm to which the police officers identify with. The same holds for cohesion; cohesion can lead to fraternizing of the group members which result in strengthening the same opinions and attitudes towards ethnic profiling. So, when most of the group does not accept that ethnic profiling is a serious problem in their team they do not feel obligated to help to counter ethnic profiling. They hold a negative attitude towards ethnic profiling and refute the problem as is indicated by Landman (2018). In effect, cohesion may actually inhibit the training transfer.

Still, a major critical remark is the insufficient sample size of only 32 police officers. Research has shown that countering ethnic profiling is such a hard task to accomplish because police officers are hindered on an emotional level due to the sensitivity of this topic and ineffective interventions that mostly take a top-down approach (Landman, 2018; Shiner, 2010). Therefore, most police officers are reluctant to participate in trainings which are related to ethnic profiling. The VR training was designed to mitigate the reluctant attitude of the police officers towards being subjected to such training because the VR training is performed by other police officers and a VR glasses was used that should trigger the curiosity of the police officers. Regrettably, these precautions were proven to be insufficient to persuade enough police officers to participate to the VR training which again firmly emphasizes the resistance experienced by police officers to this topic. Also, the results for the ambassador group regarding the perceived resistance of the participants during the VR training illustrated the resistance of the police officers; most of the ambassadors declared that they met resistance from their participants even during the training, indicated by figure 2.

A low sample size has considerable consequences for all types of research; especially exploratory research for investigating hypothetical relationships. Firstly, for assessing if the VR training had any effect on the experimental group. The experimental group was compared to the control group for the construct training effectiveness. A one-way Anova indicated that there was no significant difference between the two groups. However, due to the small sample size, it cannot be ruled out that there is indeed no significant effect, rather than that this study was unable to adequately show this difference. Secondly, when testing the model by conducting multiple regression analyses. According to Maas and Hox (2005), with a sample size of above 50, a regression analysis is accurate and unbiased for the variance components, regression coefficients, and standard errors. A sample size of 19 for the experimental group is therefore more susceptible to biased results. The regression analyses indicated that psychological safety and its predictors are not related to training transfer. However, due to the small sample size, this analysis lacks statistical power and therefore it cannot be ruled out that no relationship exists between the two concepts. Hence, this study was unable to find a

relationship between psychological safety, team identification, and cohesion and training transfer.

Considering the low sample size and the research design which poses four hypotheses, the risk of a type 1 error is eminent. A type 1 error refers to the incorrect rejection of a true null hypothesis which can lead to confirming a hypothesis when it is fact not confirmed (Hopkins, Marshall, Batterham, & Hanin, 2009). However, in the case of this study, all hypotheses are nullified and therefore rejected. Still, it should be noted that this research holds only enough power to explore the proposed hypotheses and is not able to confirm these.

Another critical remark is assessing the actual training transfer of the VR training. The only way to successfully determine if actual training transfer occurred for the police officers is by analyzing if these police officers do not use ethnic profiling during the selection procedure for stopping civilians after the VR training. This would imply that all the justifications for every police stop should be checked on signs of ethnic profiling for the entire experimental group which is not doable. Therefore the study is only able to provide an estimate for training transfer. So, police officers who score high on all the predictors of training transfer are less likely to show signs of ethnic profiling in comparison to police officers who score lower on these predictors. These Police officers better understand the danger of ethnic profiling during the selection procedure due to their increased awareness and they are more likely to apply this knowledge during their job activities, such as patrolling the streets.

Despite the limitations due to the low sample size, interesting correlational results were found. The correlational analyses indicated that only perceived organizational support is a significant predictor for psychological safety contrary to team identification and cohesion. This result confirms the findings of A. C. Edmondson et al. (2004) stating that perceived organizational support is an important factor that is of influence for creating a psychologically safe environment. Contrary, this finding is not in line with Elstgeest (2016) and Heirbaut (2016) that both suggested that psychological safety also depends on cohesion and team identification. At this point, it is not clear why the current study suggests otherwise, both studies also samples police officers and used the same scales for measuring psychological safety, team identification, cohesion, and perceived organizational support. Again, is could be due to the small sample size that no positive relation was found or possibly by applying the convenience sampling method.

Nevertheless, other positive associations were found between cohesion and team identification and between perceived organizational support and team identification partially supporting the work of both Elstgeest (2016) and Heirbaut (2016). The positive relationship between team identification and perceived organizational support is in line with the findings of Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) which states that high perceived organizational support leads to stronger team identification. The positive relationship between team identification and cohesion is in line with the findings of (Hogg, 1992). Altogether, these results show that psychological safety and the predictors are not all associated with each other, partially contradicting the literature.

Contrary, strong correlations were found between almost all predictors of training transfer,

namely, self-efficacy, response efficacy, motivation, training relevance, and self-education. The correlations between the first four predictors are supporting the transfer of training framework of Axtell et al. (1997) which implies that trainee characteristics (self-efficacy and motivation), course characteristics (training relevance), and environmental factors (management support and autonomy) are related to training effectiveness. Moreover, the study has extended this framework because a strong statistical relationship was found for both response efficacy and self-education between these concepts. Both concepts are examples of trainee characteristics and are extending this part of the framework.

An explanation for the reason that response efficacy is related to these concepts can be found in the protection motivation theory (PMT) (Rogers, 1975). PMT postulates that both self-efficacy and response efficacy affect the coping appraisal for taking action to mitigate a perceived threat. Also, that both efficacy beliefs are also related to the motivation to take these mitigating actions. Therefore the PMT provides a theoretical base for these statistical relationships between both efficacy beliefs and motivation. In other words, when police officers believe that they are able to perform the VR training and believe that the VR training will be effective their motivation to execute the training increases. As a result, the VR training becomes more effective.

The strong positive correlation of self-education among the other four predictors confirms that the FRIS framework can also be applied in this context. It shows that there is a positive relationship between police officers who take action on their own, such as seeking more information about ethnic profiling and discussion this topic with colleagues, and their efficacy beliefs regarding the VR training and their motivation beforehand. This suggests that police officers with high efficacy beliefs and motivation towards performing the training are more likely to self-educate themselves on the topic of ethnic profiling and, in effect, are better able to counter ethnic profiling after the VR training.

Surprisingly, perceived organizational support did not correlate to all the other predictors of training transfer contradicting the framework of Axtell et al. (1997) in which perceived organizational support, which is the same as management support, is an environmental factor that influences training transfer. A possible explanation for this finding is the on average low age of the sample size. Perceived organizational support is positively correlated to the age of the participants which indicates that older participant perceive more organizational support in comparison to younger participants. In this sample, most participants were between 23 and 35 years of age. Police officers who are younger also have fewer years on the job and less experience with policing. Thus, these police officers are less familiar with the police organization which is possibly the reason that younger police officers experience less perceived organization support.

6.1 Limitations

Apart from the low sample size, this research contains several additional limitations. Firstly, two scales are invented that are not based on literature, namely the scale for assessing the training

effectiveness and self-education. Therefore it is possible that both scales are insufficient because they are not properly tested before and therefore could lack in accuracy and reliability. This means that it is not clear what both scales actually measure. The scale for training effectiveness is based on the practical knowledge of the external supervisor. However, it is possible that the chosen questions are not sufficient enough to assess if the VR training had any effect. Therefore, the questions should be judged by several researchers and police officers familiar with this topic and adjusted accordingly. Additional factor analysis should be conducted to improve this scale. Yet, the scale for self-education showed more promising results because this scale showed strong correlations with the other predictors of training transfer and the scale was based on the FRIS framework.

A second limitation is the representativeness of the sample due to convenience sampling. Only a few ambassadors did implement the training and asked their colleagues to participate voluntarily to the VR training and these police officers are close to hand. In addition, not all ambassadors in the Amsterdam police department implemented the training which means that not all police officers could equally participate to this study. Consequently, the sample cannot be generalized to the entire Amsterdam police department. Also, the sample size could have been prone for selection bias. It is quite likely that due to this sampling method only certain police officers participated to the study because police officers differ in opinion about ethnic profiling which affects their attitude towards this topic. To illustrate, police officers who participated voluntarily could be police officers who are more agreeable that changes have to be made in how to select individuals and acknowledge the difficult nature of ethnic profiling. For this reason, these police officers are more likely to be motivated to help countering ethnic profiling. Contrary, the police officers that did not to participate to the study could be police officers that do not agree that changes have to be made to their job performance and maintain a reluctant attitude towards ethnic profiling. So, these police officers would be less likely to help countering ethnic profiling. Therefore, the selection bias could lead to skewed results for the experimental part of the questionnaire. Most likely this would imply skewed results to the right because a more generalized sample would provide lower scores.

A third limitation was the time frame for the study. This study is classified as a master's thesis which generally takes up to six months. This time frame appeared to be too short for collecting enough data. With more time this study could have implemented the VR training to more ambassadors that could reach out to more police officers. Also, the VR training could have been implemented in several more Dutch cities to reach out to even more police officers. Unfortunately, the process of implementing the VR training is time consuming. It takes a lot of time to inform the ambassadors about the VR training, provide an explanation on how to perform the training, and to execute the training. Especially implementing the VR training in another city provides difficulties; the concept of an ambassador is more typical for Amsterdam but unknown in other major cities in the Netherlands which leads to problems on how to implement the VR training. Also, the right contacts are needed to inform other police teams to participate to the VR training. Moreover, there were not enough VR

glasses available to execute the VR training at a pace. In addition, it seemed that the police officers also needed a long time to fill out the digitally sent questionnaires. This led to the decision to stop the data collection phase prematurely.

6.2 Recommendations

Based on this study, several recommendations are provided for future research on this topic. At first, a pretest could be implemented to achieve a stronger research design. A pretest can be implemented by using the first part of the questionnaire which measures psychological safety, team identification, cohesion and perceived organizational support, and the training effect questions. By assessing these concepts on police teams before introducing the VR training possible differences can be found between these teams. For example, police teams may differ in their perception about psychological safety. It would also be interesting to see if significant differences can be found regarding the effectiveness of the VR training between police teams who experience low psychological safety and teams that experience a high sense of psychological safety. Moreover, a pretest would enable researchers to assess the training effect questions before the VR training and after the VR training. By comparing the results prior to the training with the results after the training indications can be made about to what extent differences are actually attributed to the training. Besides, it is also interesting to investigate if the level of psychological safety changes after receiving the VR training by consequently comparing the results of the same groups for the pretest and the posttest. To illustrate, when police teams have an increased notion about ethnic profiling and are more able to discuss this topic among them, it is possible that the psychological safety of the police team increases.

Secondly, increase the sample size to a sufficient number of participants. Despite that no significant relationships have been found between psychological safety and its predictors and training transfer, it is still possible that there are positive connections between these two concepts. Performing the same analyses with more than 100 police officers could show otherwise. As is stated in the limitations, future research could aim on implementing the VR training to more police teams and in more major cities. This can be achieved by reaching out to more independent researcher working for the Dutch National Police in different cities and set up the same type of research as the current study. This will enable the research team to collect data from difference research sources so that it can be joined. Then, the results can be compared between different cities to investigate, for example, differences between attitudes towards ethnic profiling or for psychological safety. Moreover, this would increase the representativeness of the sample to all police officers. Of course these suggestions are hard to achieve due to the expenses, and it would be time consuming to manage such a project. On a smaller scale, more effort could be placed in the planning for implementing the VR training. For example the ambassadors could make a schedule for the participation of all colleagues. Plus, more

ambassadors could perform a test for executing the VR training to practice. Lastly, more time could be taken to try to convince police officers to take part to the VR training who do not want to participate. The suggestions would improve the implementation process.

Thirdly, perform additional improvements to the VR training. The evaluations forms showed that many participants who participated to the VR training and viewed the amber unjustified video connected this video with the color red. Thus, it is possible that the example used to clarify the amber unjustified condition of the traffic light method was not clear enough. The amber color renders its justification for the selection procedure on the possession of information beforehand. However, information may also be used to justify ethnic profiling. A clearer example for a situation in where information is used to justify ethnic profiling is by addressing the drinking behaviour of eastern Europeans. Eastern Europeans have been known for consuming more alcohol compared to western Europeans (Popova, Rehm, Patra, & Zatonski, 2007). The video should show eastern Europeans who are stopped by police officers for an alcohol check with the only reason that they are eastern Europeans. Although it is wise to implement the proposed change it is unlikely that this would have had profound influence on the training outcomes. The videos are designed to arouse a discussion about ethnic profiling. The video showed clear signs of ethnic profiling which induces the intended discussion.

The fourth and last recommendation is selecting the right individuals to act as ambassadors for implementing the VR training. This study has shown that ethnic profiling is a quite difficult and multi-level problem. Police officers differ of opinion and attitude towards ethnic profiling. On the one hand, there are police officers that are motivated to counter ethnic profiling, and on the other hand there are police officers that refute the problem. An ambassador should be able to reach out to both groups. This will require that the ambassadors best suited for this role should be highly motivated to counter ethnic profiling in the first place and acknowledge that countering this problem would be beneficial to the entire police force. Also, ambassadors should be able to convince colleagues that do not want to participate. Ambassador should be direct colleagues who are at the same level professionally, and therefore do not hold authoritarian power over their colleagues. Participants are more likely to be honest to a direct colleague compared to a supervisor. In addition, an ambassador should possess capable listening abilities for the discussion phase of the VR training. An open attitude is required during the discussion phase in where the participant can share their opinions and attitude towards ethnic profiling.

7.0 Conclusion

Psychological safety is an important concept to consider for implementing trainings for changing behaviour into the intended behaviour because it positively influences work place effectiveness and enables team members and organizations to learn. This study attempted to extend the theoretical knowledge by analyzing the role of psychological safety on training transfer. Training was developed, called the VR training, and implemented within the Amsterdam police department for countering ethnic profiling. No evidence was found that psychological safety and its predictors had a significant influence on training transfer. Future research with a sufficient sample size should clarify the exact relation between the two concepts. This would potentially provide a broader perspective for the role of psychological safety on the implementation of trainings and the effect of training.

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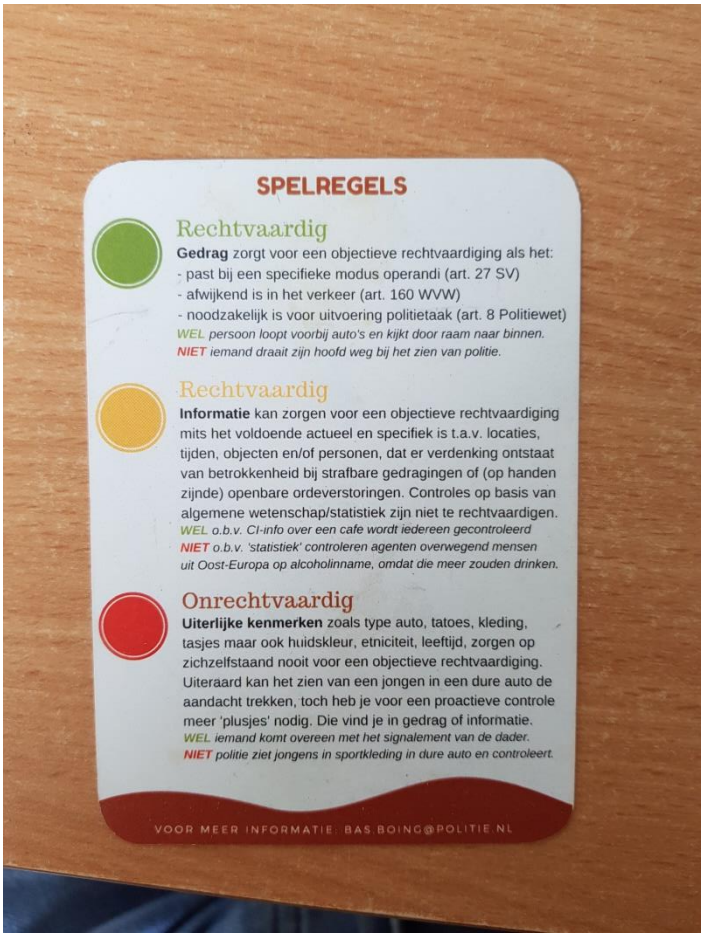
Appendices

Appendix I: Description of the developed training and Traffic light method

I A traffic light method Card



I B Description of the videos for the VR training

Green

The color green is based on behaviour and results in the two following video descriptions:

The first video displays the justified condition and can be described as follows: The police officers come across a vehicle which is slinging all over the road. For this reason, the vehicle occupant is stopped based on the Road Traffic law because of his driving behaviour. The video starts in the

police vehicle in where the police officers detect the incorrect driving behaviour upon which they decided to conduct the traffic stop. The video goes black for a few seconds and starts again filming from the perspective of the driver and the police officers are walking towards the car and starting a conversation. The officers state the reason for the traffic stop, namely his driving behaviour, and ask if the person in question has used any alcohol or drugs. Also, they claim his driving license and the video stops.

The second video displays the unjustified condition and is introduced by the police officers detecting a vehicle with two suspicious looking occupants. They suspect these occupants to be criminals based on their appearances and decide to conduct a traffic stop to clarify the situation. This section is filmed in the police vehicle and the video stops for a few seconds. Next, the video starts again, filming from the perspective of the occupants, in where the police officers are approaching the stopped vehicle. The police officers state the reason for the stop to be a routine check and claim the driver's license of the driver. The occupants react reluctantly and claim that they are not doing anything wrong upon which the video stops.

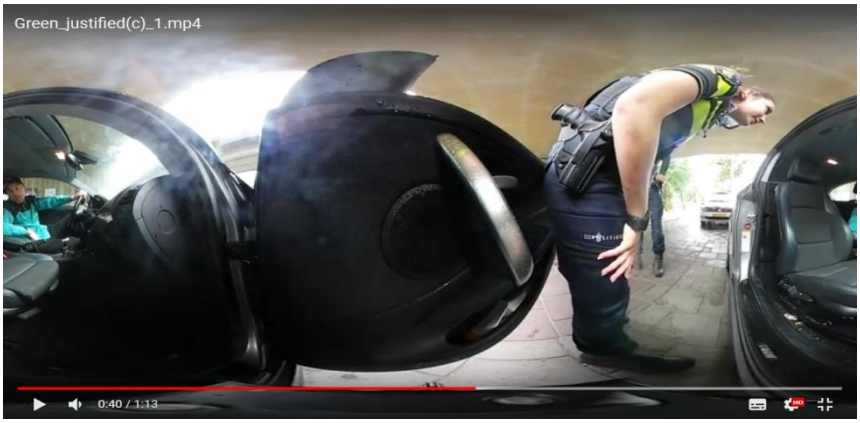


Figure 1. *Screenshot of the video Green_justified.*

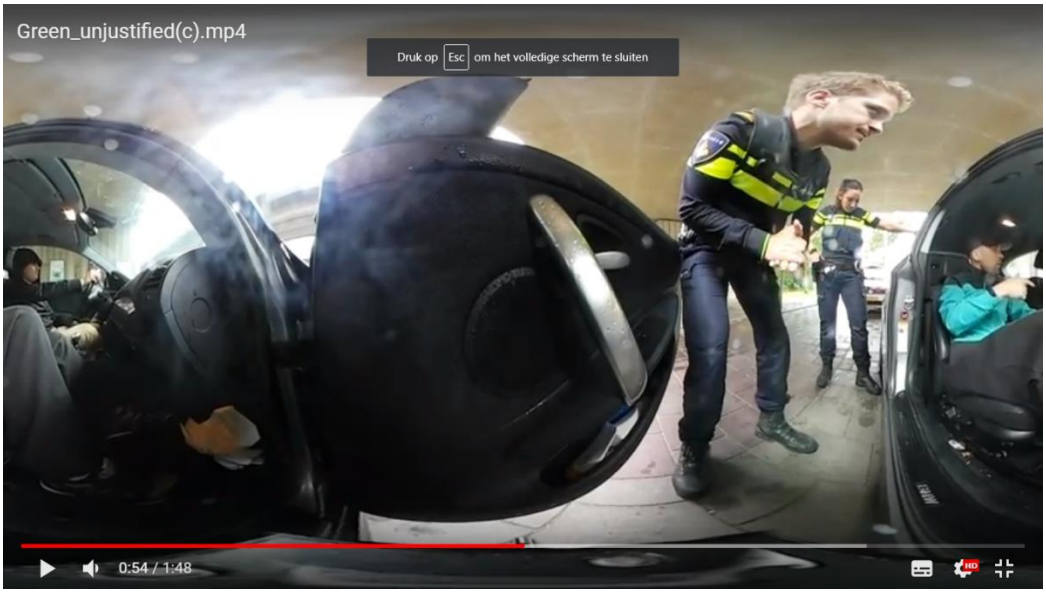


Figure 2. Screenshot of the video Green_unjustified

Amber

The color amber is based on possessing information and results in the following video descriptions:

The first video depicts the justified condition which is introduced by two police officers that detect a vehicle with suspicious occupants parked to the side of the road and the officers decide to conduct a traffic stop. The video begins in the police vehicle in where the police officers state that they detect the vehicle next to the road with suspicious looking occupants and they decide to investigate this situation. The video goes black for a few seconds and starts again filming from the perspective of occupants and the two officers are approaching the vehicle. The officers state the reason for the traffic stop, which is that they possess information about the possibility of football hooligan violence. Also, the officers state that the occupants look like football hooligans and they inquire about the reason for parking at this particular place upon which the officers claim the identity cards. The occupants react reluctantly in the beginning but are cooperating.

The second video displays the unjustified condition and can be described as follows: The video begins in the police vehicle that is parked at a filling station. The police officers detect a vehicle which they believe is occupied by gypsies. In addition, they state that filling stations are key meeting places for criminal behaviour and they decide to conduct a traffic stop. The video goes black for a few seconds and starts again filming from the perspective of the occupants and the officers are approaching the vehicle. The officers immediately claim the driver's license of the driver and the identity cards of the other occupants. During the conversation, the officers try to find out how these occupants can afford such an expensive car. The occupants inquire about the reason for the traffic stop and are reluctant to cooperate. The officers do not provide a clear reason and are threatening to arrest the occupants if they do not cooperate.

Figure 3. *Screenshot of video Amber_justified.*

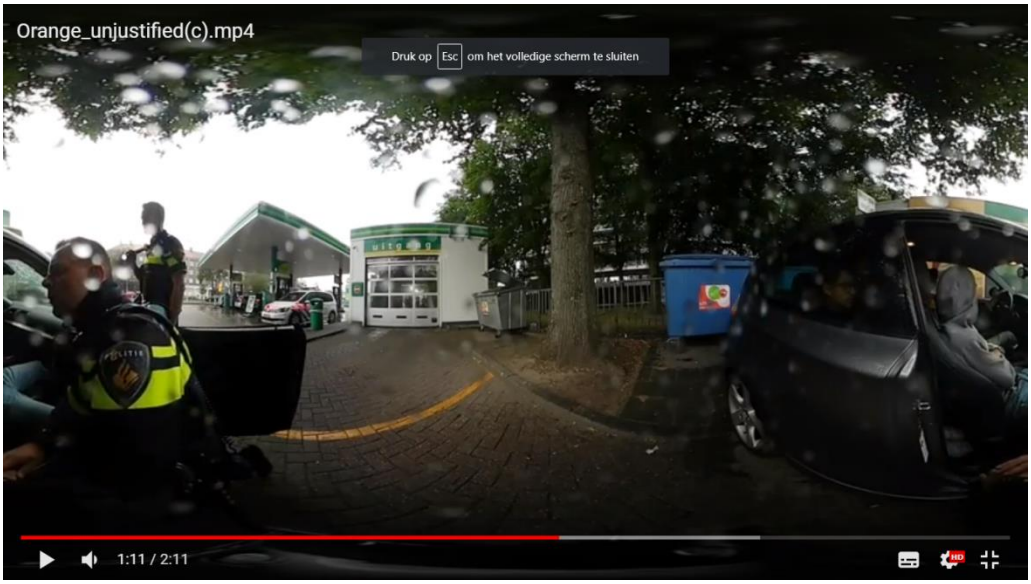


Figure 4. *Screenshot of video Amber_unjustified.*

Red

The color red is based on appearances and results in the two following video descriptions:

The first video displays the justified condition which is introduced by two police officers that detect four bicultural young individuals, originated from Syria, sitting on a bank next to a busy road. The video begins in the police vehicle in where the two police officers detect these four young individuals sitting on the bank. One officer states that one of the young individuals fits the description of a suspect which committed a street mugging. This information is provided to the officers during their morning briefing and based on this information they decide to conduct a police stop. The video goes black for a few seconds and starts again filming the four young individuals sitting on the bank with the police officers approaching the bank. The two officers inform the youngster about the

aforementioned reason for the police stop and claim the identity card of the suspect. In addition, the offices inform the youngster that they are in possession of camera footage of the street mugging. The suspect is reluctant to cooperate and wants to see some evidence before cooperating. Two extra officers arrive for providing back-up and a heated discussion between the youngsters and the police officers commences. At the end, the suspect is cooperating and hands over his identity card.

The second video depicts the unjustified condition. The video begins again in the police vehicle in where two officers detect four young bicultural individuals sitting on a bank next to a busy road. The officers perceive the individuals are looking suspicious and decide to conduct a routine police stop. The video goes black for a few seconds and starts again filming the four young individuals and the two police officers are approaching the bank. The officers immediately claim their identity cards and two other officers approach the bank for providing back up services. The four youngsters are not cooperating and one starts filming the officers. From this point, the officers and the youngsters are in a heated discussion and engaging each other verbally and physically that results in a chaotic scene. The video ends when some of the youngsters are arrested and handcuffed.

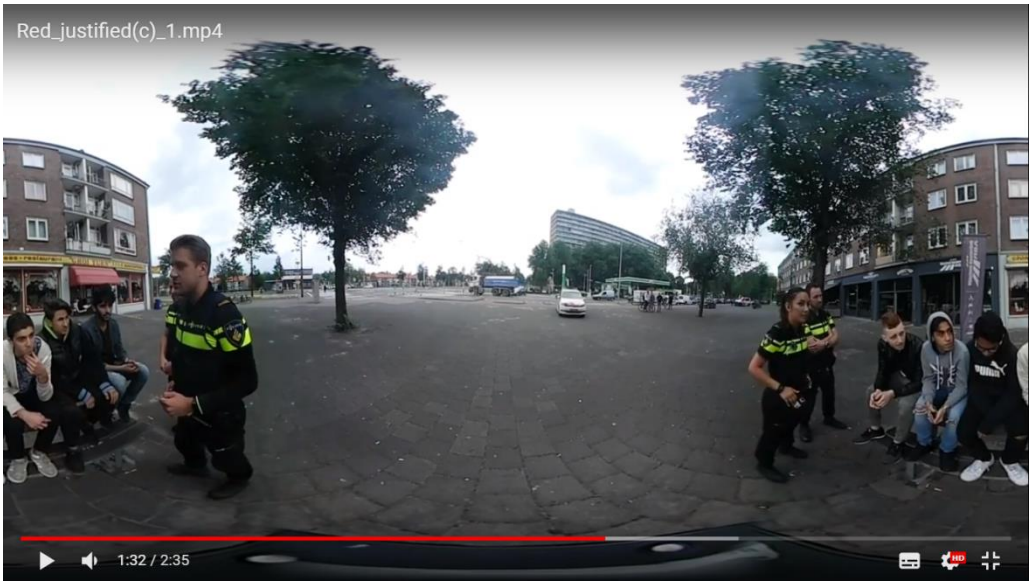


Figure 5. *Screenshot of video Red_justified.*

Figure 6. *Screenshot of the video Red_unjustified*. Procedure

The procedure can be described as follows: The participants were met at the location of the police department in Amsterdam. To start the training the participant will view one or two videos ad random with the virtual reality glasses belonging to one of the three colors e.g. green, yellow or red. Afterwards, the participant is interviewed by the ambassador to arouse the intended discussion about ethnic profiling and as a result creating more awareness of the participant. After the conversation the participant fills out the questionnaire by using a semi-structured interview schema.

Appendix II Questionnaires

II A Description VR training evaluation questionnaire

To evaluate the training a questionnaire is developed. The questionnaire consist of open questions and rating questions which are related to the recognition of the right manner of conducting a proactive police stop and the theory of the traffic light method. A 1 to 10 rating is applied as a scale. A typical question is for example: “To which color belongs the video according to the traffic light method?” Also, the participant fills out some additional questions about the realistic nature of the videos compared to actual police stops, the effectiveness of the training for counter ethnic profiling, and the reception of using VR as a method for conducting police training. After the questions the participant provides his informed consent and the participant may provide confirmation to be contacted for a follow-up study. The informed consent is kept brief because police officers often are known to become demotivated to participate to long questionnaires. The questionnaire ends by thanking the participant for his cooperation.

II B Evaluation questionnaire VR training

Evaluatie Virtual Reality training Proffesioneel Controleren

Beste deelnemer,

Tof dat je mee doet aan deze training. Vanuit het programmateam Politie van Iedereen zijn wij erg benieuwd hoe je deze training ervaart en hoe we dit kunnen verbeteren. Daarom willen wij jou vragen om deze korte vragenlijst in te vullen.

Zoals bij ieder spel horen ook bij deze VR-training spelregels. Voordat je deze vragenlijst invult na de training, wordt verondersteld dat je bekend bent met:
- het handelingskader (de posters in het bureau)
- het 'stoplicht spelkaartje' t.a.v. het selecteren

Alvast dank voor het invullen.

drs. B.S. Böing
programmaleider Politie van Iedereen

Vraag 1
De had een tijdsduur van ---------- (zodat we weten welke film je hebt gezien ☺)

Vraag 2
Welke kleur uit het "stoplichtspelkaartje" heeft dit filmpje volgens jou?

Vraag 3a
Geef een rapport cijfer voor de selectie

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Vraag 3b
Wat had je wellicht anders gedaan:

Vraag 4
Geef een rapportcijfer voor de uitleg

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Vraag 4
Wat had je wellicht anders gedaan:

Vraag 5a
Geef een rapportcijfer voor de bejegening

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Vraag 5b
Wat had je wellicht anders gedaan

Vraag 6
Geef een rapportcijfer voor de mate waarin je de filmpjes realistisch vindt i.r.t. een echte controle

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Vraag 7
Geef een rapportcijfer voor de mate waarin je de filmpjes vindt bijdragen aan:

a. Meer bewustwording over correcte en niet-correcte gronden voor SELECTIE?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

b. Meer bewustwording over noodzaak over een duidelijke en begrijpelijke UITLEG?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

c. Meer bewustwording over noodzaak van een kalme en proffesionele BEJEGENING?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

d. Proffesionele controles over het algemeen?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

e. Het tegengaan van etnisch profileren?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

f.

Vraag 8
Geef een rapportcijfer over in welke mate u VR als een methode als prettig heeft ervaren?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Vraag 9
Heeft u nog op of aanmerkingen?

Ten slotte wil ik je nog twee vragen stellen.

1. Omdat deze vragen tevens deel uitmaken van een wetenschappelijk onderzoek, wil ik graag jouw toestemming vragen om deze gegevens voor dit doel te mogen gebruiken. Jouw naam en handtekening zijn hierbij nodig om de integriteit van het onderzoek te kunnen garanderen. Deze informatie is alleen bij mij, de ambassadeur die de training afneemt en de onderzoeker van de Universiteit Twente bekend en zal alleen voor dat doel worden gebruikt. Wij gaan hier dus integer mee om. Ook zal jouw naam niet naar voren komen uit het uiteindelijke onderzoeksrapport. In die zin is jouw anonimiteit gewaarborgd.

Hierbij geef ik toestemming dat mijn antwoorden gebruikt mogen worden voor het onderzoek.

| --- | --- | --- |
Naam deelnemer	Handtekening	Datum
Jeroen Bakkeren	---	---
Naam Onderzoeker	Handtekening	Datum

2. Tevens wil ik je vragen of de onderzoekers jou na een aantal weken na de training telefonisch mogen benaderen voor enkele verdiepende vragen (kruis het juiste antwoord aan).
o Ja
o Nee

EINDE VRAGENLIJST

IIC Questionnaire psychological safety and training transfer

Start of Block: Default Question Block

Q1 Beste deelnemer, Bedankt dat u mee wilt doen aan het onderzoek. Het invullen van de vragenlijst duurt ongeveer 10 tot 15 minuten en u kunt de vragenlijst invullen via uw computer of uw smartphone. Voordat we kunnen beginnen verschaf ik u eerst met wat belangrijke informatie van de onderzoeker, leest u dit a.u.b. goed door. Het doel van dit onderzoek is om te onderzoeken in hoeverre de VR training effectief was en welke rol psychologische veiligheid hierin speelde. Deelname aan dit onderzoek is geheel vrijwillig. U kunt als deelnemer uw medewerking aan het onderzoek te allen tijde stoppen, of weigeren dat uw gegevens voor het onderzoek mogen worden gebruikt, zonder opgaaf van redenen. Uw privacy wordt gegarandeerd. Voordat de onderzoeksresultaten naar buiten worden gebracht, worden uw gegevens geanonimiseerd. Er wordt op geen enkele wijze vertrouwelijke informatie of persoonsgegevens van of over u naar buiten gebracht, waardoor iemand u zal kunnen herkennen. Bovendien worden uw geanonimiseerde antwoorden opgeslagen op een beveiligde UT server waar alleen de onderzoeker en begeleiders (interne begeleiders en externe begeleider) toegang toe hebben. Als u besluit om te stoppen met uw deelname aan het onderzoek, of als u vragen of klachten heeft, of uw bezorgdheid kenbaar wilt maken, of een vorm van schade of ongemak vanwege

het onderzoek, neemt u dan aub contact op met de onderzoeker: (jeroenbakkeren1@gmail.com, 0621829918), of met mij als opdrachtgever (bas.boing@politie.nl, 0615477722
Mocht u vragen hebben over uw rechten als participant of u wilt graag vragen stellen en/of uw bezorgdheid willen uiten aan iemand anders dan de onderzoeker en opdrachtgever, neemt u dan contact op met Secretariaat van de Ethische Commissie faculteit Gedrags, Management, en Sociale Wetenschappen, onderdeel van de Universiteit Twente. (ethicscommittee-bms@utwente.nl) Met het geven van uw "informed consent" geeft aan dat u goed bent geïnformeerd over het onderzoek, de manier waarop de onderzoeksgegevens worden verzameld, gebruikt en behandeld en welke eventuele risico's u zou kunnen lopen door te participeren in dit onderzoek.Alvast dank voor het invullen.

drs. B.S. Böingprogrammaleider Politie van Iedereen *In samenwerking met:*
Jeroen Bakkeren
Student Master Psychologie Universiteit Twente

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Q21 Gaat u akkoord met dit onderzoek en geef u uw informed consent?

- ○ Ja (1)
- ○ Nee (2)

End of Block: Default Question Block

Start of Block: Block 2

Q10 Demografische gegevens

Q14 Geslacht

- ○ Man (1)
- ○ Vrouw (2)

Q13 Leeftijd

- ○ <22 jaar (1)
- ○ 23 t/m 35 jaar (2)
- ○ 36 t/m 50 jaar (3)
- ○ 51 t/m 60 jaar (4)
- ○ >61 jaar (5)

Q11 Dienstjaren

- ○ <5 jaar (1)
- ○ 6 t/m 10 jaar (2)
- ○ 11 t/m 20 jaar (3)
- ○ 21 t/m 30 jaar (4)
- ○ >31 jaar (5)

End of Block: Block 2

Start of Block: Block 1

Q12 De volgende stellingen zullen zowel gaan over uw eigen ervaringen, als over die van uw collega's. Het is van belang dat u de stellingen beantwoord vanuit uw team in kleinere zin, met andere woorden, de collega's met wie u het meest samenwerkt. Het is misschien lastig om voor uw collega's te antwoorden, maar het gaat om uw inschatting daarvan. Probeert u daarom s.v.p. om een zo goed mogelijke inschatting te geven. Geef uw keuze telkens aan door het vakje te selecteren dat het beste

overeenkomt met uw mening.
Succes met invullen!

Q15 Psychologische veiligheid

	Zeer mee oneens (1)	Niet mee eens (2)	Niet mee eens, niet mee oneens (3)	Mee eens (4)	Zeer mee eens (5)
Als collega's een fout maken dan wordt dit hen meestal aangerekend (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Mijn collega's hebben geen moeite om moeilijke kwesties en problemen te bespreken (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Sommige collega's worden soms afgewezen omdat ze anders zijn (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Mijn collega's vinden het moeilijk om anderen om hulp te vragen (4)	○	○	○	○	○
De bijdragen van mijn collega's worden gerespecteerd en gewaardeerd (5)	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Block 1

Start of Block: Block 3

Q16 Team identificatie

	Zeer mee oneens (1)	Niet mee eens (2)	Niet mee eens, niet mee oneens (3)	Mee eens (4)	Zeer mee eens (5)
Ik vind dat mijn team een deel is van wie ik ben (1)	○	○	○	○	○
De successen van mijn team zijn mijn successen (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Eigenschappen die mijn team omschrijven zijn ook van toepassing op mij (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Mijn team heeft veel om trots op te zijn (4)	○	○	○	○	○
Ik ben trots om deelgenoot te zijn van mijn team (5)	○	○	○	○	○

Q17 Cohesie

	Zeer mee oneens (1)	Niet mee eens (2)	Niet mee eens, niet mee oneens (3)	Mee eens (4)	Zeer mee eens (5)
Leden van ons team gaan niet met elkaar om buiten werktijd (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Binnen ons team worden geen feestdagen gevierd (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Leden van ons team zouden liever op eigen gelegenheid iets leuks doen dan samen als een team (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Mijn team is voor mij een van de belangrijkste sociale groepen waar ik bij hoor (4)	○	○	○	○	○
Sommige leden van mijn team zijn goede vrienden van mij (5)	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Block 3

Start of Block: Block 4

Q18 De volgende stellingen hebben betrekking op de door uw ervaren steun vanuit de politie-organisatie

	Zeer mee oneens (1)	Niet mee eens (2)	Niet mee eens, niet mee oneens (3)	Mee eens (4)	Zeer mee eens (5)
De organisatie waardeert mijn bijdrage (1)	○	○	○	○	○
De organisatie houdt rekening met mijn persoonlijke doelen (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Als ik een probleem heb is er hulp beschikbaar vanuit de organisatie (3)	○	○	○	○	○
De organisatie is welwillend om mij te helpen als ik om een gunst vraag (4)	○	○	○	○	○
De organisatie bekommert zich om mijn tevredenheid op het werk (5)	○	○	○	○	○

Q32 De volgende stellingen hebben betrekking op professioneel controleren en etnisch profileren

	Zeer mee oneens (1)	Niet mee eens (2)	Niet mee eens, niet mee oneens (3)	Mee eens (4)	Zeer mee eens (5)
Er is niets mis mee om te controleren op etniciteit als daarvoor een objectieve rechtvaardiging is (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Als iemand zich in mijn ogen verdacht gedraagt, vind ik dat reden genoeg om te controleren (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Er is niets mis mee om groepen vaker te controleren die oververtegenwoordigd zijn in de misdaadstatistiek (4)	○	○	○	○	○
Het is prima om je intuïtie te volgen als je besluit iemand te controleren (6)	○	○	○	○	○
Iemand wel of niet controleren is vaak een kwestie van gevoel (7)	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Block 4

Start of Block: Block 5

Q20 Heeft u deelgenomen aan de Virtual Reality training "professioneel controleren"

○ Ja (1)

○ Nee (2)

Skip To: End of Survey If Heeft u deelgenomen aan de Virtual Reality training "professioneel controleren" = Nee

Q23 De volgende stellingen hebben betrekking op de trainingsoverdracht van de Virtual Reality training. Met ander woorden, de mate waarin de training effectief was en de rol die u hierbij speelt.

Q24 Deze stellingen hebben betrekking op in welke mate u de training effectief vond en welke rol u hierbij speelde

	Zeer mee oneens (1)	Niet mee eens (2)	Niet mee eens, niet mee oneens (3)	Mee eens (4)	Zeer mee eens (5)
Ik kan de lessen die ik tijdens de VR training heb opgedaan in de praktijk brengen (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Ik vind dat ik het uiterste uit de VR training heb gehaald (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Ik vind dat ik kennis en vaardigheden heb opgedaan tijdens het ondergaan van de VR training (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Ik vind dat ik een goede bijdrage heb geleverd tijdens de VR training (4)	○	○	○	○	○

Q25 Deze stellingen hebben betrekking op de doeltreffendheid van de training

	Zeer mee oneens (1)	Niet mee eens (2)	Niet mee eens, niet mee oneens (3)	Mee eens (4)	Zeer mee eens (5)
Ik vind dat de VR training bijdraagt aan het verbeteren van professioneel controleren (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Ik vind dat de VR training effect heeft gehad in het bespreekbaar maken van etnisch profileren binnen het team (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Ik vind dat de VR training helpt om etnisch profileren tegen te gaan (3)	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Block 5

Start of Block: Block 6

Q26 Motivatie

	Zeer mee oneens (1)	Niet mee eens (2)	Niet mee eens, niet mee oneens (3)	Mee eens (4)	Zeer mee eens (5)
Ik was gemotiveerd om de VR training te volgen (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Ik ben gemotiveerd om de lessen van de VR training toe te passen in de praktijk (2)	○	○	○	○	○

Q27 Deze stelling hebben betrekking op in hoeverre u de training relevant vond voor het uitvoeren van uw politietaken

	Zeer mee oneens (1)	Niet mee eens (2)	Niet mee eens, niet mee oneens (3)	Mee eens (4)	Zeer mee eens (5)
Ik vind de training relevant voor het uitvoeren van mijn politietaken (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Ik vind de training relevant voor het uitvoeren van professionele controles (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Ik vind de training relevant voor het bespreekbaar maken van etnisch profileren (3)	○	○	○	○	○

Q29 Deze stellingen hebben betrekking op de trainingsdoeleinden, namelijk etnisch profileren bespreekbaarder maken en informatie opzoeken

	Zeer mee oneens (1)	Niet mee eens (2)	Niet mee eens, Niet mee oneens (3)	Mee eens (4)	Zeer mee eens (5)
Ik heb vaker met collega's over etnisch profileren gesproken na de VR training in vergelijking met voor de training (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Ik voel me meer in staat om het onderwerp etnisch profileren ter sprake te brengen na de VR training (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Ik heb waargenomen dat mijn collega's onderling vaker over etnisch profileren gesproken hebben na de VR training (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Ik heb me na de training meer verdiept in het onderwerp etnisch profileren (4)	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Block 6

Start of Block: Block 7

Does psychological safety influence training transfer?

Q28 Bent u een ambassadeur binnen uw politieteam?

- ○ Ja (1)
- ○ Nee (2)

Skip To: End of Survey If Bent u een ambassadeur binnen uw politieteam? = Nee

End of Block: Block 7

Start of Block: Block 8

Q30 De volgende stellinge hebben betrekking op de rol van u als ambassadeur tijdens de VR training, met name tijdens het discussiegedeelte.

	Zeer mee oneens (1)	Niet mee eens (2)	Niet mee eens, niet mee oneens (3)	Mee eens (4)	Zeer mee eens (5)
Tijdens de training heb ik veel weerstand ervaren van mijn collega's (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Ik merkte dat de training veel emoties bij mijn collega's losmaakte (2)	○	○	○	○	○
De discussie n.a.v. de training is goed verlopen (3)	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Block 8