Psychology Bachelor's Thesis

The effect of Stereotype Threat on the Willingness to Participate in Ethnic Profiling measures

- in collaboration with the Dutch police service-

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Abstract

Recently, the Dutch Police has been occupied with the discussion about ethnic profiling. By developing prevention programs, they aim to decrease this policing behaviour. This study aimed to investigate the interaction of stereotype threat, engagement in policing activities, and the typologies "guardian" and "warrior" on officer's willingness to participate in the programs. Participants were required to fill out an online questionnaire. During data analysis, it appeared that Dutch officers indeed experience stereotype threat. However, this did not significantly impact their willingness to participate in prevention programs. Still, there is an indirect-only effect detected between stereotype threat and willingness to participate. There was a negative relation found between stereotype threat and engagement in policing activities. In addition, a positive relation was detected between engagement in police work and willingness to participate in the program. Hence, the effect of stereotype threat on willingness to participate should not be neglected. There was no mediation of engagement in policing activities on the relation between stereotype threat and willingness to participate. Last, it was found that both "guardian" and "warrior" officers are less willing to participate and higher in stereotype threat. The majority of participants that was not categorized as one of the typologies was more willing to participate in ethnic profiling trainings. Data suggested that the dichotomy, proposed by McLean (2020) is not found in this research. Therefore, more research into the officer typologies should be done, with the notion that the existing items should be adjusted.

Keywords: Stereotype Threat, Ethnic Profiling, Dutch Police, Engagement, Guardians, Warriors

Introduction

Over the last few years, the topic of racial based policing has gained interest among members of society, including media and political representatives. Discussions rise about treating members of ethnic minorities differently with regard to the use of force (Chapman, 2012), or disproportionate stopping and searching of racial groups (Van der Leun et al., 2013). These incidences can also be referred to as ethnic profiling (Walker, 2001). Within ethnic profiling, a distinction can be made between cases that are truthly observed (Landman & Sollie, 2018) and police activities which are perceived as ethnic profiling (Kuppens & Ferwerda, 2019). Several studies indicate a disproportionality in stop and search practises. This is problematic not only for civilians who are stopped, but also for the police community itself. Individuals stopped multiple times can become frustrated, feeling isolated and treated poorly (Nationale ombudsman, 2021; van der Leun et al., 2013; Parmar, 2011). Further, it causes a decline in society's trust in law enforcers (Weitzer & Tuch, 2004). This poses a long-term threat to police legitimacy, and therefore to the existence of the police as a whole. More specifically, decline in trust can result in a decreased willingness to comply with the law and to aid the police with information (Van der Leun et al., 2014).

Police departments are increasingly challenged to deal with this. By developing prevention programs, they aim to decrease ethnic profiling. These programs focus on, among other things awareness of profiling behaviours, and training in officers (Kuppens & Ferwerda, 2019). However, a study on reform in Great Britain has shown difficulties in implementing and applying measures (Shiner, 2010). For instance, reform can evoke aggressive reactions in officers. The Amsterdam police set up a prevention program in like manner. Since 2012, the department started to investigate, develop, and implement a program targeting at ethnic profiling. It appeared that this program was not effective and failed to be adopted. Relatively few officers were familiar with the content. Moreover, 1 out of 3 officers reported to not even be aware of information concerning the trainings and courses (Kuppens & Ferwerda, 2019). Hence, from this can be concluded that the program is not well-known enough among Amsterdam police officers to be effective.

Landman and Sollie (2018) describe another undesired effect of ethnic profiling courses. In particular, reform programs might elicit diverse defence mechanisms in police officers. For instance, officers showed a decreased willingness to participate in programs. This decline influences the outcomes of the trainings, since the effectiveness of reform also depends on the acceptance by officers (Shiner, 2010). A decreased willingness to participate in the prevention

program might lead to police officers being less willing to attend to trainings in general. Further, during these trainings they can be less attentive and motivated.

It has remained unclear what factors influence police officer's willingness to participate in measures. A specific factor which is not investigated yet in Dutch context and might be influencing the willingness to participate in ethnic profiling trainings is stereotype threat. A stereotype threat which was previously found in the United States Police Services is "racist police officer" (Cochran & Warren, 2012). Fear of being called racist affected the police officer's self-legitimacy (Trinkner et al., 2019), working memory, and prefrontal functions (Schmader et al., 2008). Subsequently, this changed behaviour and attitudes by eliciting coercive policing behaviour (Trinkner et al., 2019), or less engagement in policing activities (Wolfe & Nix, 2016). When Dutch police officers suffer from this stereotype threat as well, this might influence their behaviour and attitudes towards reform. Likewise, this can also affect officer's willingness to participate in measures. As described in stereotype threat literature, individuals avoid the behaviour in which they fear to be negatively stereotyped (Steele et al., 2002). This applies for policing activities, like law enforcement (Wolfe & Nix, 2016). Hence, when officers avoid policing behaviours, or feel less motivated to engage, similar effects might be seen for the participation in ethnic programs.

To date, some research was done with regard to the compliance of police officers with reform (Shiner, 2010). Yet, little is known about the effect of stereotype threat on the compliance of officers with reform. Furthermore, it is still not investigated what the influence of "the racist officer" stereotype threat is on the participation in prevention programs targeting at ethnic profiling. To fill this gap, this study aims to examine the (indirect) effect of stereotype threat on the willingness to participate in ethnic profiling prevention programs.

Ethnic Profiling

The concept of ethnic profiling starts with social categorization. More specifically, social categorizing refers to identifying individuals into groups based on characteristics, traits, or other common attributes (Tajfel et al., 1971). Based on group membership, individuals make inferences and assumptions about others, which influences their behaviour. Two common consequences of this are: outgroup homogeneity effect and ingroup favouritism. The former refers to the tendency to perceive outgroup members as more similar to each other than one perceives their fellow ingroup members (Linville & Jones, 1980). The latter is defined as judging one's ingroup to be better than the outgroup. Both are explained by the social identity

theory, which is defined as the internal feeling to be a member of a specific social group (Tajfel, 1982).

In addition, both processes described above are important predictors for the development of stereotypes (Wilson et al., 2004). Stereotypes are defined as the beliefs or associations that link whole groups of people with certain traits or characteristics (Bordalo et al., 2016). One specific kind of stereotype with regard to ethnic background, is the ethnic stereotype. Moreover, these are generalizations about an ethnic group, concerning an aspect or trait attribution which is not proven by an observer (Brigham, 1971). For instance, Punch (1976) found that Amsterdam police officers hold negative stereotypes of Non-Western immigrants. Ethnic stereotypes influence the owner's behaviour.

One behaviour resulting from negatively stereotyping ethnic minorities is ethnic profiling. This behaviour is defined as the use of race, skin colour, nationality, language, religion, or descent as a decisional factor in stopping, searching, or law enforcement without the possibility to objectively justify this (Nationale ombudsman, 2021). Since the police is not able to search every area or person, it is self-evident that officers have to select (Kuppens & Ferwerda, 2019). Therefore, some forms of ethnic profiling can be justified. For instance, selecting suspects on the base of their ethnicity can be justified when there is a specific search warrant for an individual with a specific skin colour (Ramirez, McDevitt & Farrell, 2000).

Nevertheless, ethnic profiling becomes problematic when there is no clear justification of selecting individuals based on their skin colour. This is what happens in the Netherlands; according to Vromen (2015), ethnic minorities are disproportionately stopped by Dutch police officers. There is a body of findings in line with this. For instance, Bovenkerk (1991) showed that in contrast to ethnic Dutch, ethnic minorities were stopped and searched more often. Furthermore, in 2008, ten percent of all coloured individuals in the Netherlands were stopped by the police during the previous twelve months. It follows that they perceived the stop being due to their ethnicity (Vromen, 2015). Last, research conducted in Amsterdam by Böing (2016) indicated that young men with ethnic characteristics driving in a high-end car were more likely to be searched. Nevertheless, there are no concrete numbers of how much the Dutch police profiles based on ethnicity. This is due to the fact that not all policing activities are registered or documented. Still, it is evident that Dutch Police officers show ethnic profiling during their actions (Nationale ombudsman, 2021).

A possible explanation for profiling behaviours is the perception that ethnic minorities are higher represented in crimes. For instance, two out of five Dutch Police officers stop members of ethnic minorities based on the believe that they would commit relatively more

crimes (Kuppens & Ferwerda, 2019). However, Nationale ombudsman (2021) reports that these perceptions create a feedback loop, through which ethnic profiling creates relatively more crimes among ethnic minorities. Nevertheless, ethnic profiling does not always result from conscious impressions or believes. Since stereotypes can be held both consciously as unconsciously, some officers are not even aware of their behaviour. Hence, police officers can try to be as objective as possible, and still show signs of profiling based on ethnicity.

Within civilians, the first thought that arises when being stopped and/or searched by the police is: "Why me?". According to Nationale ombudsman (2021), some members of ethnic minorities, develop the perception that the stop is based on ethnicity immediately. This is occasionally due to a perceived history of being stopped and discriminated. The impact of this is that the individual starts to question their place within society. They feel to not belong, and like other rules apply to them. In addition, they are emotionally affected (Van der Leun et al., 2013). Sufferers feel ashamed, less worthy than others, hurt, helpless, frustrated, angry, and sad. Some civilians have great knowledge of their rights and are aware of their right to record and film the interaction with officers (Nationale ombudsman, 2021). Moreover, the flip side of the coin is that officers feel intimidated by being recorded (Wolfe & Nix, 2013). In addition, police members report that they are called racist frequently, when they believe that they are not. Officers state the feeling of being unheard. According to them, the way in which the media broadcasts incidents of ethnic profiling among police services is occasionally not similar to what actually happened. Furthermore, officers state that there is not enough attention paid to how it is for them to be falsely accused of ethnic profiling constantly (Nationale ombudsman, 2021).

Stereotype Threat

The concept of stereotype threat occurs out of the social identity and refers to the fear of being judged or treated negatively based on a social group stereotype (Steele, 1997). A common example is the phenomenon that woman perform worser in a math test when the negative stereotype about their math abilities is emphasized beforehand (Spencer et al., 1999). Stereotype threat is caused by the cognitive imbalance between domain and group identification within the individual (Schmader et al., 2008). This causes tension within the individual, associated with negative responses like anxiety and impairments within the working memory and prefrontal cortex. Correspondingly, this causes a lack in cognitive performance such as self-regulating behaviours (Picho & Brown, 2011). When experiencing stereotype threat, the individual might try to decrease the importance of this negative stereotype by disengaging from

one's social identity (Steele et al., 2002). More specifically, one will avoid the domain in which one fears to be negatively stereotyped. To illustrate, African Americans showed more avoidance of activities typically associated with their culture, such as jazz or basketball, during periods where they experienced higher levels of stereotype threat (Steele & Aronson, 1995).

Above literature is in line with findings on stereotype threat and its effect on the police community. These findings were based on "the racist officer" stereotype threat in the United States. In line with Steele et al. (2002), Wolfe and Nix (2016) found that officers who feared to be accused of racial profiling showed less willingness to engage in policing activities. For instance, officers were less likely to do their job in terms of law enforcement. In addition, Foster and Souhami (2005) showed that police officers suffering from stereotype threat were less motivated to do their job. Thus, officers showed a disengagement from their social identity, the police officer. In contrast, Steele and Anderson (1995) found that when one is trying to avoid a certain stereotype this only facilitates the behaviour one is trying to avoid. Within policing, Trinkner et al. (2019) have shown similar effects. High levels of racist officer stereotype threat within policeman were found to elicit more coercive policing during interactions with ethnic minorities. Last, two other studies showed that police officers who were concerned about being called racists exhibited behaviours that confirmed the stereotype (Goff & Martin, 2012; Goff et al., 2012).

Within the Dutch Police service, officers report some signs of the "racist officer" stereotype threat as well. According to Nationale ombudsman (2021), officers report that they are seen as racists solely because they are wearing a police uniform. This elicits a feeling of being perceived as an individual who profiles based on ethnicity, despite personality, norms, and values. Officers report that they feel powerless and already judged before even interacting with a civilian. In addition, officers feel attacked personally. According to some police members, this is a burden to doing their job. It elicits irritations, the feeling of not being heard, and judged without having an influence. Nevertheless, there are also officers who do not believe in the concept of ethnic profiling. They report that it is well-known that some ethnicities commit more crimes and are more disturbing. Hence, within the police services, different opinions can be detected as well.

Typologies of Police Officers

       Within police literature, a discrepancy can be found between different typologies of police officers. There are two distinct categories: the so called "peace-keepers" and "crime fighters" (Reiner, 2010). In addition, other researchers refer to these terminologies as "guardians" and "warriors" (McLean, 2020; Li et al., 2021). In this study, the typologies "guardian" and "warrior" will be used. All the same, the first typology refers to police officers who emphasise maintaining the social order by executing the service aspects of policing. They prefer discretion, communication, and less use of force (McLean, 2020). The latter refers to police officers who emphasise crime-fighting and catching criminals as being the real aim of policing. They are less focused on service aspects, in contrast to peace-keepers (Reiner, 2010). Warriors, or crime-fighters, are less occupied with communicating and more focused on controlling behaviours when interacting with civilians (McLean, 2020). Nevertheless, there are also police officers who conform to both types of policing. They show behavioural and attitudinal aspects of not only guardians, but also warriors.

       Considering the above, some recent research was carried out with regard to the typologies of police officers (Li et al., 2021; McLean, 2020; Reiner, 2010). However, it is still not known whether there is a difference in stereotype threat between officers similar to guardians or officers who are referred to as warriors. Likewise, it is not known if there is a difference among the typologies with regard to the willingness to participate in prevention programs targeting at ethnic profiling. Nevertheless, it appeared that the typologies influence the officer's attitudes and behaviours. Hence, this might also be true for levels of stereotype threat or the willingness to participate in trainings and courses about ethnic profiling. Insights into these effects can be very interesting for the development of the ethnic profiling prevention programs. They can be made more suitable to the typologies of the departments' police officers. Subsequently, ethnic profiling can be dealt with more adequately.

       Despite the literature described above, research outcomes regarding the effects of stereotype threat on policing behaviour is rather scarce (Trinker et al.,2019). However, in line with previous literature, one might consider a possible influence of stereotype threat on Dutch officer's willingness to participate in prevention programs. To illustrate, the fear, anxiety, and irritations of being called a racist police officer elicits an emotional reaction. Subsequently, this causes tension within the individual which causes cognitive impairments in the working memory and other prefrontal functions (Schmader et al., 2008; Picho & Brown, 2011). More specifically, the individual can experience anxiety, or difficulty to self-regulate their behaviour. This includes planning future actions, problem-solving, and attention (Dubois et al., 1995). It

follows that these functions are essential to the willingness to participate in trainings, for instance planning future actions. In addition, attention and problem-solving are needed to successfully attend the trainings. From previous literature can also be derived that police officers suffering from stereotype threat display less engagement in policing activities (Wolfe & Nix, 2016). Nevertheless, policing activities include trainings and programs which police officers have to follow. If due to the fear of being called racist, the police officer is already less motivated to participate in policing activities this can be similar for trainings and prevention programs.

As described in police literature, the officer typology of being a guardian or warrior influences the attitudes and behaviours of the officers. Therefore, it might be possible that this is also applicable to the willingness to participate in prevention programs targeting at ethic profiling. In addition, it might be possible that the typology influences the level of racist officer stereotype threat within the officer. To illustrate, previous findings show that guardians are occupied with maintaining the rules and social order (McLean, 2020). This might also be the case with rules within the department, like the expectation to not be discriminative against ethnic minorities. Likewise, there can be expected that these peace-keepers might be more worried about being called a racist. In line with this, they might be more willing to participate in the prevention program, to be better in communicating and reduce their ethnic profiling. Both effects are expected to be less within officers characterized as warriors.

The present study

In this paper, it will be investigated whether there is an (indirect) influence of stereotype threat on the willingness to participate in prevention programs that aim to decrease ethnic profiling. There is an expected effect of stereotype threat on the willingness to participate in the prevention program. In addition, it is expected that stereotype threat affects engagement in policing activities, which in turn affects the willingness to participate. Further, it is expected that the level of engagement in policing activities (partially) explains this relationship. Last, it is expected that the typology of the officer; either guardian or warrior has an influence on the level of stereotype threat in officers, as well as their engagement in policing activities, and their willingness to participate in trainings and courses targeting at ethnic profiling.

Research Questions

To achieve the aim to investigate an (indirect) effect of stereotype threat on the willingness to participate in prevention programs targeting at ethnic profiling, a few research questions were composed. First, what is the influence of the racist stereotype threat on the willingness to participate in prevention programs targeting at ethnic profiling? Second, it will be investigated whether the racist police officer stereotype threat has an effect on engagement in policing activities. Third, it will be examined if the engagement in policing activities has an influence on the willingness to participate in the prevention program aiming to decrease ethnic profiling. Fourth, it will be investigated if there is a mediating effect of engagement in policing activities on the relation between stereotype threat and the willingness to participate in prevention programs. Fifth, there will be tested if there is a difference for the racist stereotype threat between police officers that belong to guardians and officers that relate to warriors. Sixth, it will be investigated if there is a difference in willingness to participate in the prevention program between warriors and guardians. Last, it will be investigated if there is an influence of the typology warriors and guardians on the engagement in policing activities.

Figure 1

A Conceptual Framework with Independent variable Stereotype Threat, Dependent variable Willingness to Participate, Mediating variable Engagement in Policing Activities, and Officer Typology as a Predictor Variable.
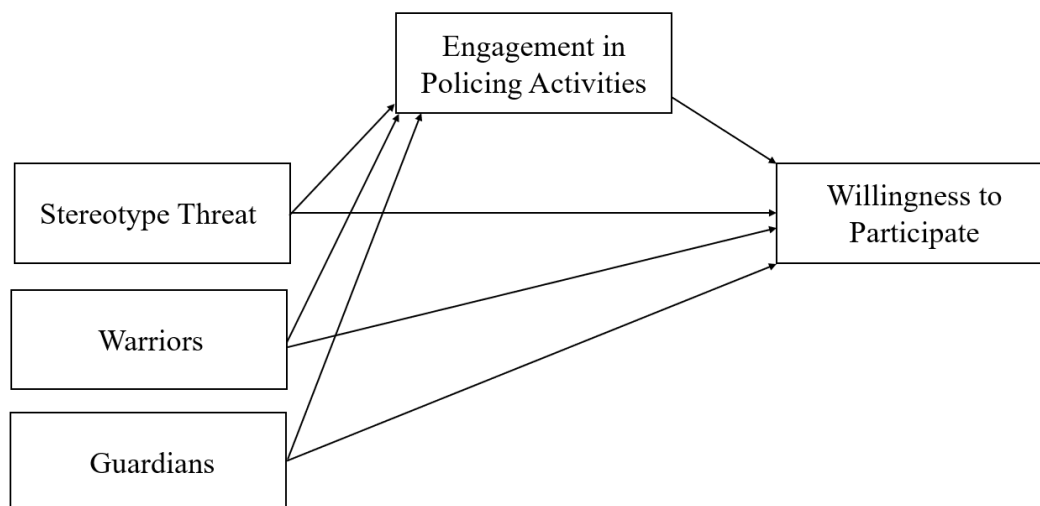
Methods

Design and participants

This study was of a quantitative nature. For the purpose of the study, police officers were asked to fill out a questionnaire. Hence, a survey design was employed. From this, several scores were derived. More specifically, scores on stereotype threat, engagement in policing activities, willingness to participate in the prevention program, the level of guardian, and the level of warrior. Stereotype threat was treated as the independent variable. The dependent variable was the willingness to participate in the ethnic profiling prevention program. The engagement in policing activities was used as an interaction variable to detect a possible mediation effect on the relation between the independent and the dependent variable. In addition, the officer typology (either guardian or warrior) was used as a predictor variable to detect a possible correlation between the two typologies and the variables stereotype threat, engagement in policing activities, and willingness to participate.

In the study 281 officers participated of whom 236 completed the questionnaire. Hence, it was not possible for the participate who did not complete the questionnaire to derive scores on every construct. Therefore, they were excluded from the data (n = 32), their statements that were made in the open questions were saved. In addition, participants who chose to withdraw their participation in the end of the questionnaire (DQ10) were excluded from the dataset as well (n=2). Some participants did not select an answer to item DQ10. To ensure full voluntary participation, these participants were excluded from the dataset as well (n=11).

Subsequently, 236 participants remained. The respondents had an age range from 20 to 60 years (M = 30-40, SD = 1.16). All the participants had a Dutch Nationality. However, 30.1% of the respondents viewed themselves as being ethnic non-Dutch (n = 71) whereas 69,1% viewed themselves as being ethnic Dutch. Furthermore, 24,2% (n = 57) of the respondents were woman, whereas 75,8% (n = 179) of the respondents were man. Before entering the study, respondents provided an informed consent, and the study was approved by the University of Twente Ethics Committee. Last, participation was voluntary.

Materials

Questionnaire. A list of items was created in Qualtrics to measure the concepts (Appendix I). Participants were required to fill out the questionnaire online. Before the first items were shown, an informed consent was presented which was to be provided first.

Stereotype threat. The first concept measured the level of stereotype threat with regard to the racist police officer (Table 1). The scale consisted of 11 statements, e.g. "I worry that

people I deal with on the job might misinterpret my words as racist" and "I worry that people think I am racist because I am an officer". The concept was measured by a Likert scale with five options rating from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree". Eventually, the mean of all the scores was calculated. A lower average score indicated a lower level of stereotype threat, a higher score meant a higher level of stereotype threat. Items ST2 to ST7 were based on the items measuring stereotype threat in Trinkner et al. (2019). Items ST1, ST8, ST9, ST10, and ST11 were created for this study. The reliability of the construct was calculated using Cronbach's alpha, the items demonstrated a very good internal consistency ($\alpha = .84$). Last, open questions ST2-O and ST12-O were added to the construct, in which participants could share, among other things, their opinions and experiences.

Table 1
Items measuring Stereotype Threat

Item number	Item statement
ST1	Have you, as an officer, ever encountered accusations of ethnic profiling?
ST2	During my work, I worry that people might interpret something I say as racist.
ST3	I find it harder to be friendly with people from a non-Dutch background.
ST4	I worry that, during interactions with non-Dutch citizens I come across as racist.
ST5	I worry that my job as a police officer influences what people from a ethnic minority think of me.
ST6	I worry that as an officer, I get negative reactions from people with a non-Dutch background.
ST7	I worry that people think I am racist because I am a police officer.
ST8	When the police are called racist by the media, this affects me emotionally.
ST9	I am less willing to do my job when the police are called racist by the media.
ST10	Because I am constantly called a racist officer, I am less willing to search people.
ST11	Being called racist by media or civilians makes me angry.

Willingness to participate in prevention program. The willingness to participate in the trainings was measured by six statements (Table 2). For example, "It is important to decrease ethnic profiling" and "If I had the opportunity, I would participate in trainings that decrease ethnic profiling". Item WTP1 was based on the model constructed by Wolfe and Nix (2016). Nevertheless, the items WTP2 to WTP6 were created for this specific study. Items WTP4, WTP5, and WTP6 measured the willingness to participate in the prevention program in a reversed way. The concept was derived by making use of a Likert scale with five options rating from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree". Eventually, all the scores were calculated into a mean score. A lower score indicated a lower level of willingness to participate in ethnic profiling programs, a higher score demonstrated a higher level of willingness to participate. The reliability was estimated by using Cronbach's alpha, which indicated that the items had a very good internal consistency ($\alpha = .87$). By adding the last open item WTP7-O, participants were able to fill in anything about trainings and courses with regard to ethnic profiling that they still wanted to share.

Table 2
Items measuring Willingness to Participate

Item number	Item statement
WTP1	It is important to deal with and decline ethnic profiling.
WTP2	When I am able to, I would participate in trainings and courses that treat ethnic profiling.
WTP3	I would recommend colleagues to participate in trainings and courses that deal with ethnic profiling.
WTP4	It is not necessary to develop programs for declining ethnic profiling among police officers.
WTP5	I would participate in such trainings and courses because this is expected of me, not because I want to myself.
WTP6	Trainings and courses dealing with ethnic profiling are a waste of time.

Note. Items WTP4, WTP5, and WTP6 measured the construct in a reversed way.

Engagement in policing activities. There are two approaches to the measurement of engagement in policing activities. First, the engagement in policing activities can be measured in a physical and practical way, as done by Trinkner et al. (2019). In this operationalization, there lies a focus on the practical engagement. For instance, the use of force when interacting with civilians. However, the second manner in which engagement in policing activities can be measured is by the feeling and connection to the job. Likewise, job engagement can be seen as an individual's enthusiasm in the profession (Roberts & Davenport, 2002). The latter is chosen as the operationalization of the construct "engagement in policing activities". Therefore, police officer's commitment to their job activities was measured by 5 statements, e.g. "I feel happy when I am working" and "When I wake up in the morning, I feel like going to work" (Table 3). These items were based on the UWES-9 (Schaufeli et al., 2006) which was used before in studies measuring the level of police engagement (Storm & Rothmann, 2003; Gillet et al., 2013). The Cronbach's alpha of the construct equalled $\alpha = .86$. The concept was derived by making use of a Likert scale with five options rating from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree". Eventually, the mean score of the answers was calculated. A lower score pointed out a lower engagement in police activities, a higher score indicated a higher engagement in police activities. To give participants the opportunity to share opinions, experiences, or other phenomena they stressed, an open question was added (EP6-O).

Table 3
Items measuring Engagement in Policing Activities

Item number	Item statement
EP1	I feel energized when I am working.
EP2	I feel strong when I am at work.
EP3	I am enthusiastic about my job as an officer.
EP4	When I wake up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
EP5	I feel happy when I am working hard.

Officer typology. Police officer's typology in policing activities was measured by 8 statements. To illustrate, "My most important duty as an officer is fighting criminals" and "Police officers and civilians have to work together in order to solve local problems". The items were derived from the study by McLean et al (2020), which developed a hypothesized model to make a distinction between warriors and guardians.

Guardians Items GW1, GW2, GW3, GW4, and GW5 measured the level of guardian in the participant (Table 4). The concept was derived by making use of a 5-point Likert scale with options classified from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree". The Cronbach's alpha was computed to indicate the reliability of the construct. The items measuring the officer typology guardian appeared to have a good internal consistency ($\alpha = .76$).

Warriors In contrast, the items GW6, GW7, and GW8 measured the level of warrior in the participant (Table 5). The concept was derived by making use of a Likert scale with five options rating from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree". To calculate the reliability of the construct, the Cronbach's alpha was computed. The construct appeared to have a sufficient internal consistency ($\alpha = .62$).

Table 4
Items measuring Officer Typology Guardian

Item number	Item statement
GW1	As a police officer, it is important that I have non-enforcement contacts with the public.
GW2	Law enforcement and community members must work together to solve local problems.
GW3	My primary responsibility as a police officer is to build trust between the department and the community.
GW4	As a police officer, I have a primary responsibility to protect the constitutional rights of residents.
GW5	As a police officer, I routinely collaborate with community members in my daily duties.

Table 5

Items measuring Officer Typology Warrior

Item number	Item statement
GW6	My primary responsibility as a police officer is to fight crime.
GW7	My primary responsibility as a police officer is to enforce the law.
GW8	My primary role as a police officer is to control predatory suspects that threaten members of the public.

Demographic questions. To detect possible trends within the data, a total of eight demographic questions were asked. These items contained questions with regard to age, gender, years of employment, political preference, ethnicity, and degree of urbanization in the working-region. Age (DQ1) was measured by providing the categories: "< 20", "20-30", "30-40", "40-50", "50-60", and "60 >". The options with regard to gender (DQ2) were "Men", "Women", and "Other". Categories regarding years of employment (DQ3) were: "<5 years", "5-15 years", "15-25 years", "25-35 years", "35-45 years", ">45 years". Item DQ4 measured ethnicity my giving the option to choose between "Ethnic Dutch" and "Not Ethnic Dutch". Item DQ5 measured political preference with the five options "Very Left-wing party" to "Very Right-wing party". Further, item DQ6 measured political preference with the five options: "Very Conservative" to "Very Liberal". Item DQ7 measured degree of urbanization with four options: "Very strongly urbanized", "Strongly urbanized", "Urbanized", "Rural" (CBS, 2019). Last, DQ8 indicated the police unit within which the participant was employed (Appendix II).

Procedure

The study took place inside the Dutch Police department. Participants were selected by the use of purposive sampling. The questionnaire was sent to various Dutch departments by email, with the request to attend the research. When participating, the respondents were made aware of the aim of the research. They were informed that the research attempted to identify a possible influence of stereotype threat within officers on their functioning and behaviours with regard to their job. Further, a referral was made to trainings and courses targeting at ethnic profiling. Subsequently, officers were asked to confirm the informed consent which was included in the beginning of the questionnaire. Then, respondents were told that they were to be given a questionnaire which would give insights into possible variables influencing the willingness to participate within trainings and courses targeting at ethnic profiling.

The survey flow started with stereotype threat, followed by engagement in policing activities, willingness to participate, officer typology, and demographic questions. All the constructs where shortly introduced in a textbox above the questions (Appendix I). Answering options were "Strongly disagree", "Disagree", "Do not disagree, not agree", "Agree", "Strongly agree". Participants were instructed to check the boxes that were most applicable to them. It was mandatory to fill out each item, and it was not possible to proceed to the next concept when leaving one item unanswered. In addition, there were some open questions with text boxes within which participants could share opinions or any other information they stressed. After finishing all the concepts, participants were able to fill in anything they still wanted to share about the subject of the research which was not stressed in the questionnaire items. It was not mandatory to answer any of the open questions. Before ending the questionnaire, the respondents were given the opportunity to cancel their participation. In addition, they were given the contact information of the researcher to ask questions or share any recommendations. When proceeding, they were thanked for their cooperation.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

On average, the police officers had a Stereotype Threat score of 2.53 (SD =.63), which indicated an average level. Second, Willingness to Participate had a mean of 3.32 (SD =.82), which indicates that police officers have an average willingness to participate in courses targeting at ethnic profiling. Third, the level of Engagement in Policing Activities had an average score of 4.04 (SD = .54). This demonstrates that, on average, police officers are very committed to their job activities. Likewise, officers report in the open questions that they are very committed to their job. For instance, some responses were "For 44 years already I am very happy to go to work" and "The most beautiful job…". Similar answers were given 19 times. Last, the mean of the guardian typology was 1.93 (SD = .55), which is slightly above average. The mean of the warrior typology was 3.67 (SD = .60), which is relatively high. Further calculations can be found in Appendix VI. Regarding all the subsequent analyses, a significance probability was established at $p <0.05$, marginally significance was set at $p < 0.10$.

Correlations

Following, the Pearson correlations between Stereotype Threat, Engagement in Policing Activities, Guardian, Warrior, and the Demographic variables were estimated. In Table 6, the calculated Pearson correlations can be found. There were some noticeable correlations detected in the outcomes. First, the variables Guardian and Warrior appeared to be correlated marginally significantly to each other [r = (234) = .12, p = <0.10]. This suggests that there is an association between being typified as Guardian and being typified as a Warrior.

Furthermore, some correlations can be detected between the demographic variables and the concepts. The most relevant ones are highlighted, others are not mentioned in this study specifically. First, it was found that age is correlated significantly with the officer typology warrior [r (234) = -.17, p = <0.05]. This indicates a negative association between police officers who are older, and the exhibition of the warrior typology. Similar, it was found that age is correlated significantly with the officer typology guardian [r (234) = -.19, p = <0.05]. This finding indicates that being older is associated with lower exhibition of the guardian typology. In addition, Years of service appeared to be negatively correlated with the Guardian typology [r (234) = -.26, p < 0.05] and marginally negatively correlated the Warrior typology [r (234) = -.12, p <.10]. This indicates that being an officer for a longer time is associated with a decline in the extent to which an officer confirms to both typologies.

It also appeared that gender is correlated significantly with Willingness to Participate [r (234) = -.20, p <0.05]. This indicates that being a male is associated with a lower willingness to participate in ethnic profiling programs. Women are thus associated with a higher willingness to participate. In addition, it was calculated that the political preference of the participants was correlated significant with the willingness to participate [r (234) = -.42 p < 0.05]. This argues a negative association between supporting a right-winged party and the willingness to participate in programs. Last, the level of engagement in police work is significantly associated with Police unit [r (234) = .18, p = <0.05]. This also applies to the correlation between Willingness to Participate and the Police unit [r (234) = .16 p <0.05]. Both findings indicate that there is a difference in commitment to job activities and the enthusiasm to participate in ethnic profiling programs between different police units. Further correlations can be found in Table 6.

Table 6

Pearson correlations between Stereotype Threat, Willingness to Participate, Engagement in Policing Activities, Guardian, Warrior, and the Demographic Variables.

		M	SD	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.
1.	Stereotype Threat	2.53	.63												
2.	Willingness to Participate	3.32	.82	-.08											
3.	Engagement	4.04	.54	**-.12***	**.23***										
4.	Guardian	1.93	.55	**.12***	**-.27***	**-.11***									
5.	Warrior	1.38	.22	**.13***	**-.21***	-.04	**.12***								
6.	Age			-.08	.06	**-.16***	**-.19***	**-.17***							
7.	Gender			-.01	**-.20***	-.06	0.5	.09	**.20***						
8.	Years of service	3.13	1.21	-.07	**.13***	**-.20***	**-.26***	**-.12***	**.81***	.10					
9.	Ethnic Dutch/ non-Dutch			.07	.05	-.02	-0.7	.05	**.21***	**-.13***	**.17***				
10.	Political preference	3.36	.65	.09	**-.42***	-.01	**.32***	.08	-.07	**.20***	**-.13***	-.08			
11.	Conservative/ Liberal	3.17	.72	**-.18***	**.15***	**.11***	**-.24***	.01	-.00	**-.12***	.10	.07	**-.20***		
12.	Degree of Urbanization			-.10	-.08	-.07	-.09	0.10	**.24***	.04	**.18***	.07	-.03	-.03	
13.	Police Unit			**.16***	-.00	**.18***	0.7	.06	-.07	-.01	-.02	.06	.04	.06	**-.34***

Note. Bold font indicates a significant correlation. * p <0.1 ** p<0.05

Mediation analyses

To calculate the relationship between Stereotype threat and Willingness to Participate, a mediation analysis was performed by the use of PROCESS Macro for SPSS (Hayes & Matthes, 2009). The predictor for the analysis was Stereotype Threat in participants. The outcome variable for the analysis was Willingness to Participate. The mediator evaluated was the Engagement in Policing activities. Last, Guardian and Warrior were added as covariates.

The model demonstrates that the relationship between Stereotype Threat and Willingness to Participate was not significant ($\beta = -.005$, $t = -.06$, $p > 0.05$, 95% CI [-.16; .15]). This indicates that the level of the level of stereotype threat in officers does not predict their willingness to participate in trainings and programs targeting at ethnic profiling. In addition, the effect of Stereotype Threat on Engagement in Policing activities was marginally significant

(β = .09, t = -1.63, p = 0.10, 95% CI [-.20; 0.2]. This suggests that there is a negative association between stereotype threat and officers' engagement in their police work. This finding can also be detected in the answers to the open questions. To illustrate, on the open question "How do you think that the stereotype 'racist police officer' influences your job" an officer answered, "Way too much, sometimes you just do not dare to do your job anymore…". In addition, another officer states that "…Instead of going into a conversation openly and neutrally I feel the judgements rising already. When these are expressed by the person involved, this makes me angry and feeling unjust. I do not want to judge the outside of the person, but their behaviour …" Similar answers were given several times (n = 30).

Further, Engagement in Policing activities was a significant predictor for the Willingness to Participate (β = .29, t = 3.15, p <0.05, 95% CI [0.11; 0.48]). This indicates that an increasing engagement in policing activities elicits a higher willingness to participate in programs targeting at ethnic profiling. This can also be detected in the open questions. For example, to the question "Is there anything you still want to share about your engagement in policing activities?", an officer answered, "I am very proud of my job". This specific officer had a relatively high mean score of 4.33 for the willingness to participate in prevention programs. Similar examples were found in other participants.

In addition, the officer typologies were significant predictors for Willingness to Participate. More specifically, Guardian was a negative predictor (β = -.34, t = -3.69, p <0.05, 95% CI [-.52; -.16]). Likewise, the officer typology Warrior was a significant negative predictor (β = -.24, t = 2.84, p <0.05 95% CI [-.41; -.07]). These findings indicate that officers who are more polarized in one of the typologies are less willing to participate in trainings and courses targeting at ethnic profiling. This can also be detected in the open question. An officer with the relatively high Guardian score 3.00 suggested that "I don't think that trainings and courses against ethnic profiling are necessary…". Furthermore, with regard to the typology Warrior, a participant with the relatively high Warrior score stated that "I think a discussion during coffee is enough…". Similarly, another 'Warrior' suggested that "For me personally, I don't see any urgency in trainings targeting at ethnic profiling".

The explained variance from the regression was significant, R^2 = .14, F (2, 234) = 9.66, p <0.05. Nevertheless, the bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect was of Engagement in Policing activities on the relationship between Stereotype Threat and Willingness to Participate was not significant (β = -.03, 95% CI [-.16, .15]. This demonstrates that the degree of engagement in police work does not mediate with the relation between stereotype threat and

the enthusiasm to participate in trainings and courses targeting at ethnic profiling. Further calculations can be found in Appendix II.

Multiple regression analyses

To detect different effects of the officer typologies Guardian and Warrior on Engagement in Policing Activities, a multiple regression analysis was run. Within the analysis, the dependent variable was Engagement in Policing activities, and the independent variables were Guardian and Warrior. Furthermore, Stereotype Threat was inserted as an additional independent variable. Utilizing the enter method, it was found that the independent variables do not explain a significant amount of the variance in Engagement in Policing Activities ($F_{(3, 232)} = 1.93$, $p > 0.05$, $R^2 = 0.2$, R^2-adjusted $= .01$). In addition, the analyses show that the officer typology Warrior was not a significant predictor for Engagement in Policing Activities ($\beta = .01$, $t_{(235)} = -.22$, $p > 0.05$). Similar, the typology Guardian was not a significant predictor for Engagement in Policing Activities ($\beta = -.10$, $t_{(235)} = -1.47$, $p > 0.05$). These outcomes illustrate that a high score on one of the officer typologies is not associated with the level of commitment in police work. Further calculations can be found in Appendix III.

Additional analyses

To calculate any differences in stereotype threat between the officer typology guardians and warriors, a multiple regression analysis was performed. Within this, the dependent variable was Stereotype Threat, and the independent variables were Guardian and Warrior. Using the enter method, it was calculated that the officer typology variables do explain a significant amount of the variance in Stereotype Threat ($F_{(2,233)} = 3.34$, $p < 0.05$, $R^2 = .03$, R^2-adjusted $= .02$). Further analyses show that being a Warrior is a marginally significant predictor for Stereotype Threat ($\beta = .12$, $t_{(235)} = 1.80$, $p < 0.10$). Similar, the variable Guardian is a marginally significant predictor in Stereotype Threat ($\beta = .11$, $t_{(235)} = 1.68$, $p < 0.10$). These findings indicate that higher scores on the typologies warrior and guardian are associated with increasing values for stereotype threat within officers. Calculations can be found in Appendix IV.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to gain a better understanding of the interaction of stereotype threat, engagement in policing activities, and the two officer typologies in officer's willingness to participate in ethnic profiling programs.

The current study found that the level of stereotype threat in Dutch police officers has no influence on the willingness to engage in trainings and courses targeting at ethnic profiling. In addition, from the results can be concluded that an increasing level of stereotype threat in officers has a possible negative effect on engagement in policing activities. Third, an increasing commitment to police work and corresponding activities is related to a higher willingness to participate in ethnic profiling programs. Hence, an indirect-only effect of stereotype threat on the enthusiasm to participate in ethnic profiling measures is detected, through the commitment in policing activities. Nevertheless, from the data resulted that the level of engagement in police work does not mediate the effect of stereotype threat on the enthusiasm to participate in programs targeting at ethnic profiling.

It appeared that the level of guardian and warrior was connected to a higher fear of being called a racist officer. This effect appeared to be stronger for officers confirming to the warrior typology. In addition, being a guardian or a warrior did not influence officer's commitment to police work activities. Last, both officer typologies were associated with a decline in enthusiasm to participate in ethnic profiling programs. This effect was stronger for the "guardian" officers.

Further analyses show that officers who are older, are less likely to exhibit behaviours that confirm to the typology's guardian or warrior. It appears that when an officer gets older, they become more modest. In addition, the analyses showed that women are more enthusiastic to participate in ethnic profiling programs than man. Further, officers who support a right-winged party in politics are less willing to attend ethnic profiling trainings. Last, the police unit where officers are working is associated with their level of engagement in police work.

From this quantitative research can be concluded that there is an indirect-only effect of the fear to be called a racist officer on the willingness to participate in trainings. There is a negative influence of stereotype threat on officer's engagement in police work. In addition, if a police officer demonstrates a high level of engagement in their work activities, one is more willing to participate in the courses and trainings targeting at ethnic profiling. However, a direct effect of stereotype threat on the willingness to participate did not appear. In addition, engagement in policing activities appeared to be no intervening variable in this relation. With regard to the distinction between guardians and warriors, it can be concluded that officers who

score high on guardian or warrior are probably higher in stereotype threat and lower in enthusiasm to participate in ethnic profiling courses.

Discussion

The aim of this paper was to broaden the knowledge of stereotype threat, and its effect on engagement in policing activities and willingness to participate in ethnic profiling programs. In addition, the role of the officer typologies guardian and warrior on all concepts was examined.

The study found some proof for stereotype threat within Dutch police officers. The score of stereotype threat was average. In addition, it was found that a considerably high number of participants are emotionally affected by being called a racist officer. However, the concept did not significantly impact the willingness to participate in ethnic profiling programs. Nevertheless, stereotype threat has an effect on willingness to participate via an indirect path. More specifically, stereotype threat has a negative influence on engagement in policing activities, which decline in turn elicits a lower willingness to participate in prevention programs. The finding of a non-significant relation between stereotype threat and the willingness to participate in ethnic profiling measures was not according to the expectations. However, the finding of an indirect path suggests that the effect of stereotype threat on the willingness to participate in prevention programs should not be neglected. More research should be done into this relation, with a possible change in the operationalization of the construct or a more select group of participants. For instance, a more subtle way of stating the items would decrease the effect of socially desired answers. Different findings could then possibly be done.

As described by previous literature, United States officers experiencing high levels of stereotype threat were less engaged in their job (Wolfe & Nix, 2016). These included among others law enforcement activities, like search behaviours. It was assumed that this relation would also be found within Dutch police officers. The operationalization of engagement in policing activities differed from the study by Wolfe and Nix (2016). The items in this study measure commitment and connection to police work, based on the UWES-9 by Schaufeli et al. (2016). Nevertheless, from the results was derived that there is a similar effect of stereotype threat on the engagement in police activities. More specifically, the fear to be called a racist officer elicits a lower commitment to police work within Dutch police officers. This finding can be supported by Steele (2002), which described the effect of avoiding the behaviour in which one fears to be negatively stereotyped. The outcome can be important for the Dutch Police service. It suggests that a way to enhance officer's engagement and commitment to their

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jobs is to target stereotype threat. Hence, this finding can be used to increase overall job satisfaction (Brunetto et al., 2012) since this is linked to the enthusiasm to work as an officer. In addition, with more debates and media attention about 'police racism', the Police service must guard officer's commitment to their jobs. Stereotype threat might increase in the future due to more focus on ethnicity-based policing, this can possibly affect employee engagement.

Commitment to police activities and the officer's willingness to participate in ethnic profiling trainings was assumed to be associated. It was expected that a higher engagement in police work elicits a higher willingness to participate in ethnic profiling programs. It was found that overall, police officers experience a relatively strong engagement to their jobs. In line with this, from the results was concluded that the expectations were sufficient, a higher engagement was associated with a high enthusiasm to participate in ethnic profiling measures. Since previous research on the willingness to participate in trainings and courses about ethnic profiling was not conducted before, there is no resemblance in literature. Nevertheless, the findings can be useful for the Police service when recruiting participants for their ethnic profiling programs. By increasing job satisfaction, one increases engagement in policing activities (Brunetto et al., 2012) Hence, when officers are more motivated and committed to their jobs in general, this can also raise their enthusiasm to participate in trainings about ethnic profiling. Even though the overall job satisfaction of participating officers was high, their willingness to take part in ethnic profiling courses was relatively low. This suggests the existence of another influencing factor, which is interesting to investigate more thoroughly in future studies.

No intervening effect of engagement in police work on the relation between stereotype threat in officers and their willingness to participate did occur. As described above, there was an effect of stereotype threat on engagement in job activities and of engagement on the willingness to participate. However, it might be possible that the non-significance of the mediating effect is due to the non-existing association between stereotype threat and willingness to participate in ethnic profiling courses. When there is no association between the fear to be called racist police officer and the readiness to take part in courses about ethnic profiling then the effect cannot be intervened by another variable. No earlier investigation was done into this effect, or the effects of stereotype threat on Dutch police officers. In future research, more investigation into this subject should be conducted.

Further, it was found that high scores on both officer typologies are associated with a lower enthusiasm to participate in ethnic profiling trainings and courses. It was expected that officers high in guardian typology would be more willing to participate since they are more

occupied with maintaining the rules (McLean, 2021). In contrast, it was assumed that warrior typified officers would be less willing to take part since they spend their time fighting crime, instead of attending to trainings about service aspects (Reiner, 2010). Hence, a low enthusiasm to participate in ethnic profiling programs for both typologies was not expected. The actual effect might be explained by Blake (2016), who argues that the most effective police officers are both guardian and warrior. This mixture of typologies stresses both social order maintenance and the crime-fighting behaviour. With regard to this research, it appeared that officers who score relatively low on both typologies are the most willing to participate in trainings targeting at ethnic profiling. Thus, these outcomes are in line with the study of Blake, stating that officers high in guardian or warrior are less effective. In addition, it might be possible that officers high in the guardian typology see themselves as already educated in the concept ethnic profiling. They might feel aware of the concept, and like they do not need another training with regard to the topic. Likewise, in the open questions an officer high in the guardian typology states that he feels like he "does not need the trainings". The finding can be useful for the Dutch police service. Decreasing polarization between the two officer typologies can elicit more willingness to participate in the programs.

Based on the literature available, there were no assumptions made on the effect of officer typologies on stereotype threat nor engagement in policing activities. More specifically, no research was done yet into the effects of guardians and warriors on stereotype threat and engagement in job activities. From the results was concluded that officers with a high score on either guardian or warrior experienced higher levels of stereotype threat. Hence, the higher an officer scores on one of the typologies, the more fear he experiences to be called a racist police officer. This effect was stronger for the guardian officers. The outcome could be in line with the statement of Blake (2016) about being a more effective police officer when possessing a little bit of both typologies. Likewise, participants who scored low on both typologies displayed a lower level of stereotype threat. The finding was only marginally significant. Hence, it would be very interesting to conduct further research into this effect.

There were no significant relations found between the officer typologies and engagement in job activities. In addition, no assumptions were set about this relation because no literature regarding this subject was available yet. A possible explanation for the lack of an effect of officer typologies on engagement in job activities could be that the typologies are occasionally used for behaviours and attitudes in the job itself, not the commitment to the job. In previous literature, nothing is mentioned about a difference in job engagement between the

two typologies. Research is more focused on the behaviour and approaches in the officer's way of working (McLean, 2021).

Another interesting finding was the influence of gender on the readiness to participate in ethnic profiling programs. It appeared that women are more willing than man to take part in trainings and courses targeting at ethnic profiling. Previous research findings indicate support for this outcome. More specifically, the effect can be explained by the study of Garcia (2003), which revealed that woman police officers are more humanistic in their way of working than man. If this is the case, female police officers can be more concerned with their ethnic profiling behaviours and the effects of these. Therefore, they might be more willing to change these behaviours, or be educated about it. There was no effect of age, or ethnicity found on the willingness to participate in ethnic profiling courses.

Even though findings demonstrate some new and interesting insights, there are some limitations to this study. The first limitation is the sensitive matter of the subject. More specifically, stereotype threat and ethnic profiling are concepts which are related to discrimination and racism. These issues are very much discussed in the media at the moment, and some police officers are blamed for being racist. Despite the fact that participation was anonymous, the developments around racism in media can make the participants more cautious in answering. Even though the formulation of the items was adjusted to make them less sensitive, there is a chance that the statements influenced the participating officers. It is possible that they have adjusted their answers according to what they see as socially desired. These socially desired answers can influence the eventual outcomes of the research, and thus the conclusions.

A second limitation of this research is the participation of police officers that did not work in the field (yet). During the data analyses, the comments to the open questions were analysed as well. Within some, participants mentioned to be still trained and educated for the job of police officer. In addition, there was one comment of a participant who stated to be an HR employee. It is unclear how many participants were really everyday police officers that encounter citizens and work with ethnic minorities. Therefore, the measurements of concepts can be influenced by participants who were not really police officers working in the field at the present time. These participants might be having different experiences with regard to conversations with ethnic minorities and being confronted with the word racist since they are still in school or working in the office. Findings and outcomes can be affected by this. Advise to future research would be to be more engaged in the process of finding participants and add

an item which asks for the exact job of the officer. By this, participants who are not actual police officers (yet) can be filtered from the dataset.

To measure the officer typologies guardian and warrior, the hypothesized model by McLean (2021) was used. During the data analysis, it came into sight that even though the Cronbach's alpha was sufficient, the alpha was low in comparison to the other constructs. In addition, there was no clear distinction between the typology's warrior and guardian, most participants appeared to be a mixture. This is in line with the study from McLean (2021), which states that most officers are likely to be both guardian and warrior, dependently from the situation. However, the research proposes that the items are accurate measurements for the two typologies and that the outcome of guardian and warrior would elicit deviant attitudes and behaviours. Nevertheless, in this study no deviant attitudes and behaviour were detected in terms of stereotype threat and willingness to participate. Both typologies had the same effect of increasing fear of confirming to racist police officer and decreasing the willingness to participate in ethnic profiling programs. In the open questions some officers even reported that they found the items measuring officer typology vague. Last, it was found that the typologies were marginally positively correlated, which is not in line with the deviancy expected form the items. Therefore, it is advised to be cautious with the outcomes regarding the officer typologies, and to re-evaluate the framework in future research.

The specific study into the effect of stereotype threat on the willingness to participate in ethnic profiling programs contains a strength. More specifically, this study is one of the few research studies into the effects of stereotype threat on police officers. In addition, it was the first research paper dedicated to stereotype threat in Dutch officers. There are some interesting findings that give new insights and can help the Dutch police service in enhancing the organization. Other findings indicate that more future research has to be conducted into the effect of stereotype on the Dutch police service. Since racism and discrimination are more highlighted in the media, and discussion rise on these topics it is very important to gain insights into the side of police officers as well, and to see what the effects are on law enforcement.

Another advice for future research is in line with the limitation above. More specifically, it appeared that in the Dutch context there is no sufficient model yet that is able to identify guardian and warrior officers. Therefore, there should be more investigation into the officer typologies in the Netherlands, and the separation between Dutch guardians and warriors. It would be interesting to develop a model which identifies the typology. To identify these, the statements should be formulated in the way that one of the typologies (either guardian or warrior) would agree, whereas the other typology would disagree. This would make a clear

distinction between the typologies. Therefore, the future studies investigating the effects of officer typologies would be more accurate.

This research gave some interesting insights into the effects of engagement in policing activities and the officer typologies on the willingness to participate in ethnic profiling prevention programs. Nevertheless, it is still unclear if there is an effect of stereotype threat and thus the fear to be called a racist officer on the enthusiasm to take part in the ethnic profiling programs. Therefore, future research might aim to fill this gap and investigate the effects of stereotype threat on Dutch police officers. By investigating in this topic, the long-term threat to the legitimacy of the Dutch police service and thereby the existence of the police as a whole can be limited.

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Appendix I

<u>Questions measuring the concept Stereotype threat:</u>
De laatste tijd is er veel media-aandacht voor de "racistische politieagent", een onderwerp dat veel agenten emotioneel raakt. Wat is het effect van telkens als racist of discriminerend te worden neergezet? In de volgende sectie wordt hierover een aantal vragen gesteld.

<u>Multiple choice questions:</u>
(ST1). Overkomt het u wel eens dat u als politieagent beschuldigd wordt van racisme? Answers for this item were: "Never", "Seldom", "Sometimes", "Occasionally", "Often".

The other items were answered by making use of a Likert scale with five options: "Strongly disagree", "Disagree", "Neither agree, nor disagree", "Agree", "Strongly agree".

(ST3). Tijdens mijn werk ben ik wel eens bezorgd dat burgers mijn woorden opvatten als racistisch.
(ST4). Ik ben wel eens bang dat het moeilijker is om vriendelijk te zijn tegen mensen met een niet-Nederlandse etnische achtergrond.
(ST5). Ik ben wel eens bang dat ik overkom als racist wanneer ik op straat interactie heb met burgers met een niet-Nederlandse etnische achtergrond.
(ST6). Ik ben wel eens bang dat mijn functie als politieagent invloed heeft op wat mensen met een niet-Nederlandse etnische achtergrond van mij denken.
(ST7). Ik ben wel eens bang dat ik als agent negatieve reacties krijg van mensen met niet-Nederlandse etnische achtergrond.
(ST8). Ik ben wel eens bang dat mensen denken dat ik racistisch ben omdat ik agent ben.
(ST9). Het feit dat de politie soms in de media wordt afgeschilderd als racistisch, raakt mij emotioneel.
(ST10). Het ontmoedigt mij om mijn dagelijks werk te doen wanneer de politie als racistisch wordt afgeschilderd in de media.
(ST11). Doordat ik als agent telkens als racistisch wordt afgeschilderd, ben ik minder geneigd controles uit te voeren.
(ST12). Door de media of burgers neergezet worden als racist maakt mij boos.

<u>Open questions:</u>
Open questions were not obligated to answer. Beneath the question, a text box was provided to give an answer.
(ST2-O). Hoe denkt u dat het stereotype "racistische politieagent" uw dagelijks werk beïnvloedt? (of uw collega's wanneer u hier zelf geen ervaring mee hebt)
(ST13-O). Wilt u nog iets kwijt over etnisch profileren en/of beschuldigd worden van etnisch profileren, wat nog niet in bovenstaande aan bod is gekomen? Dan kunt u dat hieronder invullen.

<u>Willingness to participate</u>
Om etnisch profileren onder agenten tegen te gaan, is er de laatste jaren geïnvesteerd in verschillende programma's en trainingen. In de volgende sectie willen we weten in hoeverre u geïnteresseerd bent deel te nemen aan deze programma's.

Multiple choice questions:
Items were answered by making use of a Likert scale with five options: "Strongly disagree", "Disagree", "Neither agree, nor disagree", "Agree", "Strongly agree".

(WTP1). Het is belangrijk om etnisch profileren tegen te gaan.

(WTP2). Als ik de mogelijkheid heb, neem ik deel aan trainingen of cursussen die etnisch profileren tegengaan.

(WTP3). Ik zou collega's aansporen om deel te nemen aan trainingen of cursussen die etnisch profileren tegengaan.

(WTP4). Het is onnodig dat er programma's worden ontwikkeld die etnisch profileren tegengaan.

(WTP5). Ik zou deelnemen aan zulke trainingen omdat dit van mij wordt verwacht, niet omdat ik het zelf graag wil.

(WTP6). Trainingen en cursussen tegen etnisch profileren zijn zonde van mijn tijd.

Open question:
Open questions were not obligated to answer. Beneath the question, a text box was provided to give an answer.
(WTP7-O) Wilt u nog iets kwijt over trainingen die etnisch profileren tegengaan, wat in bovenstaande nog niet aan bod is gekomen? Dan kunt u dat hieronder kwijt.

Engagement in policing activities
De volgende sectie gaat over uw betrokkenheid bij uw werk.
Items were answered by making use of a Likert scale with five options: "Strongly disagree", "Disagree", "Neither agree, nor disagree", "Agree", "Strongly agree".

(EP1). Ik krijg energie van mijn werk.

(EP2). Op mijn werk voel ik mij sterk.

(EP3). Ik ben enthousiast over mijn baan als agent.

(EP4). Als ik 's morgens wakker word, heb ik zin om naar mijn werk te gaan.

(EP5). Ik voel mij blij als ik hard aan het werk ben.

Open question:
Open questions were not obligated to answer. Beneath the question, a text box was provided to give an answer.
(EP6-O). Wilt u nog iets kwijt over uw betrokkenheid of motivatie binnen de politie, wat nog niet in bovenstaande aan bod is gekomen? Dan kunt u dat hieronder invullen.

Officer typology
Politieagenten kunnen verschillen qua karakter en daarom ook in de manier van werken. Waar sommigen vooral boeven willen vangen, zijn andere agenten meer gericht op de sociale aspecten van het werk. In de volgende sectie zijn we benieuwd naar uw voorkeuren.
Items were answered by making use of a Likert scale with five options: "Strongly disagree", "Disagree", "Neither agree, nor disagree", "Agree", "Strongly agree".

(WG1). Buiten de rechtshandhaving om is het ook belangrijk om tijdens het politiewerk praatjes te maken met burgers.

(WG2). Politieagenten en burgers moeten samenwerken om lokale problemen op te lossen.

(WG3). Mijn belangrijkste taak als politieagent is het bouwen aan vertrouwen tussen de politie en burgers.

(WG4). Mijn belangrijkste taak als politieagent is het beschermen van de grondrechten.

(WG5).   Als agent ben ik het gewend om burgers bij mijn dagelijkse werkactiviteiten te
         betrekken.
(WG6).   Mijn belangrijkste taak als politieagent is het bestrijden van criminaliteit.
(WG7).   Wetshandhaving is de belangrijkste taak van de politie.
(WG8).   Mijn belangrijkste taak als agent is voorkomen dat mensen anderen iets aandoen.

Psychological safety
Voor een goede sfeer op de werkvloer is het belangrijk dat agenten zich vrij voelen om hun
meningen en gedachtes te delen met anderen. Dit kan per team verschillen. De volgende
vragen hebben hierop betrekking.
Items were answered by making use of a Likert scale with five options: "Strongly disagree",
"Disagree", "Neither agree, nor disagree", "Agree", "Strongly agree".
(PS1). Wanneer je een fout maakt binnen mijn politieteam, wordt dit vaak tegen je gebruikt.
(PS2). Leden van mijn politieteam zijn in staat om problemen en moeilijke kwesties
         te bespreken.
(PS3). Het is veilig om risico's te nemen binnen mijn politieteam.
(PS4). Het is moeilijk om andere leden van mijn politieteam om hulp te vragen.
(PS5). Niemand in mijn politieteam zou bewust iets doen om mijn werk te ondermijnen.
(PS6). Als ik samenwerk met de leden van mijn politieteam, worden mijn unieke vaardigheden
         en talenten gewaardeerd en gebruikt.
(PS7). Binnen mijn team wordt het niet gewaardeerd als iemand een collega aanspreekt op
         zijn/haar functioneren.

Demographic Questions
Afsluitend volgt nog zeven vragen. Deze vragen zijn demografisch, en zijn niet bedoeld om u
te identificeren.
Multiple choice questions
(DQ1).   Wat is uw leeftijd?
         o < 20 jaar
         o 20 – 30 jaar
         o 30 – 40 jaar
         o 40 – 50 jaar
         o 50 – 60 jaar
         o 60 > jaar
(DQ2).   Wat is uw geslacht?
         o Vrouw
         o Man
         o Anders
(DQ3).   Hoelang bent u in dienst bij de politie?
         o < 5 jaar
         o 5 – 15 jaar
         o 15 – 25 jaar
         o 25 – 35 jaar
         o 35 – 45 jaar
         o 45 > jaar

(DQ4).   Ik beschouw mijzelf als een...
  - Etnische Nederlander
  - Niet-etnische Nederlander
  - Zeg ik liever niet

(DQ5).   Ik beschouw mijn politieke opvatting(en) als...
  - Zeer links
  - Links
  - Niet links, niet rechts
  - Rechts
  - Zeer rechts

(DQ6).   Ik beschouw mijzelf als...
  - Zeer conservatief
  - Conservatief
  - Niet conservatief, niet progressief
  - Progressief
  - Zeer progressief

(DQ7).   Het gebied waar ik werk zou ik omschrijven als...
  - Zeer sterk stedelijk
  - Sterk stedelijk
  - Matig stedelijk
  - Landelijk

(DQ8).   Bij welke eenheid werkt u momenteel?
  - Noord-Holland
  - Oost-Nederland
  - Midden-Nederland
  - Noord-Holland
  - Amsterdam
  - Den Haag
  - Rotterdam
  - Zeeland-West-Brabant
  - Oost-Brabant
  - Limburg
  - Landelijke Eenheid
  - Anders

Open questions:

(DQ9). Wilt u nog iets kwijt naar aanleiding van deze vragenlijst, of over de onderwerpen die aan bod kwamen? Zo niet, dan kunt u deze vraag overslaan.

(DQ10). Dit was het onderzoek, heel hartelijk bedankt voor uw deelname. Mocht u vragen of opmerkingen hebben dan kunt u deze naar mij sturen: m.vanderhouwen@student.utwente.nl Mocht u bij nader inzien niet akkoord gaan met gebruik van uw data voor dit onderzoek, dan kunt u dat hieronder aangeven.
  - Ja, ik ga akkoord met mijn deelname
  - Nee, ik wil mijn deelname intrekken

Appendix II

```
**************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5.3 ****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.        www.afhayes.com
     Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

*************************************************************************
Model  : 4
    Y  : WTP_Mean
    X  : ST_Mean
    M  : EP_Mean

Covariates:
 GUARDIAN WARRIOR

Sample
Size:  236

*************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 EP_Mean

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,1561      ,0244      ,2869     1,9311     3,0000   232,0000      ,1253

Model
              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     4,5022      ,2599    17,3258      ,0000     3,9902     5,0142
ST_Mean      -,0913      ,0559    -1,6325      ,1039     -,2014      ,0189
GUARDIAN     -,0947      ,0643    -1,4714      ,1425     -,2214      ,0321
WARRIOR      -,0342      ,1587     -,2156      ,8295     -,3468      ,2784

*************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 WTP_Mean

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,3785      ,1433      ,5831     9,6585     4,0000   231,0000      ,0000

Model
              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     3,6785      ,5611     6,5559      ,0000     2,5729     4,7840
ST_Mean      -,0047      ,0802     -,0584      ,9535     -,1626      ,1533
EP_Mean       ,2949      ,0936     3,1504      ,0018      ,1105      ,4793
GUARDIAN     -,3396      ,0921    -3,6855      ,0003     -,5211     -,1580
WARRIOR      -,6416      ,2262    -2,8357      ,0050    -1,0873     -,1958

***************** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y ****************

Direct effect of X on Y
     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
     -,0047      ,0802     -,0584      ,9535     -,1626      ,1533

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
           Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
EP_Mean    -,0269      ,0190     -,0720      ,0033

********************** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS **********************

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
  95,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
  5000
```

Appendix III

Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	4,502	,260		17,326	,000
StereotypeThreat	-,091	,056	-,107	-1,633	,104
Guardian	-,095	,064	-,097	-1,471	,143
Warrior	-,034	,159	-,014	-,216	,830

a. Dependent Variable: Engagement

Appendix IV

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1,826	,280		6,519	,000
	Guardian	,126	,075	,109	1,677	,095
	Warrior	,333	,185	,117	1,801	,073

a. Dependent Variable: StereotypeThreat