UNDERSTANDING AND PREVENTING POLICE USE OF EXCESSIVE FORCE:
AN ANALYSIS OF ATTITUDES TOWARD POLICE JOB SATISFACTION
AND HUMAN RIGHTS LAWS

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Although governments try to create strict policies and regulations to prevent abuses, use of excessive force is still a problem for almost every country including Turkey. This study is intended to help Turkish National Police administrators to understand and prevent police use of excessive force. Studies on police brutality categorize three factors that explain why police officers use excessive force; these are individual, situational and organizational.

In addition to brutality theories, job satisfaction literature is examined in this study to understand the use of excessive force. Job satisfaction is found to be related with burnout, turnover, stress, commitment, and performance. The impact of officers’ attitude toward the criminal justice system and/or laws has not been tested widely. Police officers attitudes toward human rights laws are examined in this study to measure its impact on attitude toward use of excessive force. A secondary data collected in Turkey are analyzed by structural equation modeling which provides confirmatory factor analysis, path analysis, and causal relationships between variables. It is found that police officers’ attitude toward human rights laws is a significant predictor of their attitudes toward use of excessive force. Job satisfaction and education level are the other significant variables affecting attitude toward use of excessive force. Based on the analyses of findings, educational and policy implications are posed for Turkish police administrators to better understand and prevent police use of excessive force.
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

In contemporary society, citizens expect law enforcement officers to perform their duties in a professional manner, and, as such, an essential function in serving and maintaining the peace is state’s authority to enforce the laws that it adopts. Accordingly, the state authorizes the police to carry out their daily responsibilities through laws and regulations that identify how police use of force is to be exercised as well as situations that encompass the necessary amount needed to enforce the laws. The use of police force is a legal duty and obligation, but, unfortunately, the practice may be misused or abused by law enforcement officers who do not distinguish between the thin line of legal or essential use and excessive use of force.

Researchers have classified use of police force in different ways that vary from reasonable to excessive force (Reiss, 1967). Examples include legal and normal or excessive and brutal force (Hunt, 1985); deadly/non-deadly, violent/non-violent, reasonable/excessive force (Pate & Fridell, 1993); proper-improper force, excessive and unnecessary force (Worden, 1996); and extralegal and unnecessary force (Fyfe, 1996). Legal use of force typically begins after verbal warnings have been ignored by the suspect. Legal options gradually grow from verbal threat to threats to use weapons or physical violence. These options may include the use of batons, gas sprays or guns as the situation requires for officers to uphold their duties or eliminate the threat. However, these gradual force tools must be reasonable, not excessive. Based on the logic that police officers may sometimes require the use of force to perform their assigned duties,
the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR) (2008) categorizes use of force into “absolutely necessary” and “more than absolutely necessary.” As a result, officers may use their gun if there is imminent threat to themselves or to protect the lives of citizens, a duty police are sworn to uphold. However, in non-life threatening situations, the police use of a firearm may not be legally allowed.

Although acting within the democratic boundaries of law is a primary objective of police organizations, excessive use of force is an unacceptable and irresponsible practice. Thus, this researcher will examine the possible causes, factors and attitudes that may contribute to a police officer’s decision in breaking the law by using excessive force. Setting aside the legal and non-violent use of force, only the illegal, deadly, violent, extralegal, and unlawful excessive use of police force will be analyzed. Specifically, a secondary data will be used to assist in answering the following research questions:

Research Questions

The major research question of this research is *How can police administrators better prevent police use of excessive force in Turkey?* Through a review of relevant literature conducted in the United States, scholars have identified situational, individual and organizational factors as reasons that may possibly influence police officers to unlawfully practice the excessive use of force. There are few researchers who have focused beyond United States (U.S.) borders to observe the cultural factors that may play a role in this illegal behavior. Thus, this study is designed to provide information that will answer the major research question through an examination of the following subsidiary questions:
1. To what extent does the existing literature identify factors known to be related to the reasons why police officers use excessive force, and does police use of excessive force present a problem in Turkey?

2. Are Turkish police officers satisfied with their jobs, and is there a relationship between the level of job satisfaction and attitudes toward halting¹ the use of excessive force?

3. What are the attitudes of Turkish police officers toward human rights (HR) laws, and is there a relationship between the level of job satisfaction and attitudes toward HR laws and attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force?

History of Use of Excessive Force and Human Right Violations in Turkey

Statistics contained in annual reports generated by the European Convention on Human Rights from 1999 to 2007 (Table 1) illustrate the state-by-state distribution of violation decisions reached by the European Court of Human Rights (ECHR) according to Article 2 (the right to life and use of excessive force) and Article 3 (prohibition of torture).

“The Convention is an international treaty under which the member States of the Council of Europe promise to secure fundamental civil and political rights” (ECHR, 2009, p. 1). The party states ensure these rights not only to their citizens but everyone in their jurisdictions.

¹ The word “halting” in this study is used to prevent a misunderstanding. The wording of the survey questions may result in an answer of “positive attitude toward use of excessive force” which without further explanation is misleading. Officers holding “positive attitudes toward use of excessive force” does not mean being in favor of using excessive force. A positive attitude toward use of excessive force means respecting human rights and disfavoring the use of excessive force. To overcome this possible misunderstanding, the word “halting” is used to show the readers that “positive attitude toward the use of excessive force” means respecting human rights and disfavoring use of excessive force.
Table 1

*Human Rights Violation Decisions by ECHR (1999-2007)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1999-2007 COUNTRY</th>
<th>Ratification year of the Convention</th>
<th>Right to life—deprivation of life (use of excessive force)</th>
<th>Lack of effective investigation</th>
<th>Prohibition of torture</th>
<th>Inhuman - degrading treatment or punishment</th>
<th>Lack of effective investigation</th>
<th>Art. 2-3 TOTAL</th>
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<td><strong>ARTICLE</strong></td>
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<tr>
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<td>1996</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>1958</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Azerbaijan</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>41</td>
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<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>1974</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>1999</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Greece</td>
<td>1974</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>16</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1955</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1997</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>1954</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>308</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>26</td>
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<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: The statistics are derived from the ECHR's website.
ECHR is an international court that rules the convention in the party states that signed the convention and accepted the authority of the court. Individuals or non-governmental organizations can apply to the court when they think one or more of their rights are violated by a state. A party state can also apply against another party state’s human rights violation (ECHR, 2009).

Table 2 breaks out Turkey’s violation records including articles 2 and 3 from 1999 to 2007. A year-by-year account illustrating ECHR’s decisions against Turkey is graphically displayed in figure 1. Because Turkey has dual law enforcement structure comprised of the Turkish National Police (TNP) (that is responsible for urban policing) and the Gendarmerie (that manages rural law enforcement), the numbers reflect violations committed by both organizations.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Article 2 Right to life/ use of force</th>
<th>Article 3 Prohibition of torture</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>1999-2002</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999-2007</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>308</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: The statistics are derived from the ECHR’s website.
As can readily be observed from the tables, Turkey has had a serious problem with human rights violations in terms of police brutality compared with other countries. Table 1 shows that with 308 violations, it is nearly three times more than the nearest country, the violations of Russia. Table 2 shows that the court handed down 308 violations of Articles 2 and 3 against both the TNP and Gendarmerie Turkish law enforcement agents. When making a decision, the ECHR has three options: inadmissibility, striking out or settling in a friendly manner, or a final determination of violation or non-violation (Golcuklu & Gozubuyuk, 2002). An inadmissibility decision is based on one of the Court’s preliminary commission investigations to dismiss an application.

Figure 1. Human rights violation decisions against Turkey (Articles 2 and 3).

Striking out or friendly settlement decisions occur when the Court attempts to solve the problem before judgment by urging the applicant and the State to negotiate
and reach an agreement. In the final decision, the court decides whether the violation or non-violation constitutes the convention’s articles. The tables and figure 1 show those decisions where the court ruled that a violation did occur. Taking into account that the court can make its decision in any of the ways mentioned, the numbers may not accurately portray the total number of incidents that occurred during 1999-2007.

Attitudes and Behaviors

Research has shown that although there is a common relationship between an individual’s attitudes and behaviors, there are various definitions of attitude. For example, Allport (1935), an early American psychologist who was influential in classifying personality behaviors, defined attitude as “a mental and neural state of readiness … exerting a directive and dynamic influence upon the individual’s response” (p. 257). Rokeach (1966) later characterized the term as “a relatively enduring organization of beliefs about an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner” (p. 530). Gross and Niman (1975) redefined attitude as “a learned predisposition to respond to an object or class of objects in a consistently favorable or unfavorable way” (p. 361). Regardless of the definition, however, these scholars reflect agreement that attitude is directly related to behavior (Allport, 1935; Gross & Niman, 1975; Rokeach, 1966). Not surprisingly, others have argued that a direct causal relationship between attitudes and behaviors is not always the case (Acock & Fuller, 1984; Raden, 1981; Smith & Swinyard, 1983). Despite the disagreement, there does exist compelling evidence to suggest that attitudes are relatively good predictors of behaviors.
For example, Sherrill, Salisbury, Horowitz, and Friedman (1971) examined the relationship between attitudes and classroom cheating, and they found that positive attitudes toward cheating resulted in a student’s dishonest behavior. Similarly, Sample and Warland (1973) concluded that attitude is the primary predictor of behavior when students are certain of their responses. Acock and Fuller (1984) and Taylor and Jones (1978) later supported these findings.

On the other hand, researchers have argued that other situational factors sometimes distort the link between attitudes and behavior. To illustrate, Andrews and Kandel (1979) tested the impact that pressure from peers and parents had on students’ attitudes toward marijuana use and found that peer pressure was more significant than attitudes in predicting behavior related to marijuana use. Other researchers (Fazio, 1986; Fazio, Powell & Williams, 1989; Roskos-Ewoldsen & Fazio, 1997) showed that attitudes will lead to particular behaviors only when they remain strong in one’s mind.

In the present study, I explore attitudes as one potential indicator of behavior among Turkish police officers toward the use of excessive force. Although an attempt will not be made to establish a causal relationship, I propose that given the relative agreement that attitudes do, in fact, at least some times influence behaviors, such an inquiry is important. By examining the extent to which members of the Turkish National Police (TNP) hold attitudes favorable to the use of excessive force it may serve to identify potential problems before they result in poor choices in the field. It also may lead to the development of policies that will reduce and ultimately prevent the use of excessive force and its damaging effects. Likewise, officers’ attitudes toward human rights laws deserve investigation to help prevent illegal and dishonorable practices from
taking place. To prevent incidents of police use of excessive force from occurring, the researcher will provide Turkish police administrators with information to help design and implement innovative policies and programs to help improve attitudes among both experienced officers and new recruits.

Because the field of law enforcement demands that police officers perform in a proper manner according to orders and the rule of law, the improper use of excessive force should neither be expected nor tolerated by police administrators. Police academies, vocational schools and in-service training tools must be designed to teach fundamental policing that can positively affect new recruits’ attitudes and behaviors as well as provide on-going training to veteran officers.

Terrorism and Human Rights in Turkey

There are conditions in Turkey that may affect how police officers have viewed human rights (HR) laws. For decades, the Turkish National Police and Turkish military forces have struggled with terrorism and have had to contend with terrorist groups classified under two parties: the leftist and the rightist. Generally, leftist groups are comprised of the Partiya Karkaren Kurdistan (PKK), People’s Liberation Party/Front (DHKP/C) and Revolutionary Left (DEVSO) who support Marxist-Leninist ideas, whereas the rightist groups typically operate under religious motivations, including Hezbollah and the Islamic Great Orient Raiders Front (IBDA/C).

Undeniably, terrorism causes violence and associated pressure in violent crime-prone neighborhoods may increase the likelihood of police adopting attitudes that condone excessive force against citizens. The pressure to stop terrorism is understandably intense. Policing is universally recognized as one of the most stressful
jobs, and researchers have concluded that overly stressed police officers are more prone to use excessive force after experiencing long working hours, irregular working shifts, insufficient salaries, and extra red tape (Zabun, 2000; Buker & Wiecko, 2007).

**Significance of the Study**

The primary focus of this research is to grasp a better understanding of TNP’s officers’ attitudes toward the use of excessive force and police brutality. Studies conducted in the United States as well as Norway and Switzerland have provided some insight as to why police resort to use of excessive force. However, to date, no research has been directed specifically toward the relationship of police use of excessive force and human rights violations in Turkey.

**Current Theories on Police Brutality**

Research on police brutality has focused on situational, organizational and individual factors. For example, Jacobs and O’Brien (1998) used situational factors to determine the seriousness of the offenses, Hodgson (2001) employed organizational factors, namely the quasi-military structure of police organizations, and Manzoni and Eisner (2006) utilized individual factors consisting of demographical characteristics.

Stress is one individual factor related to police use of force, turnover and absenteeism rates. Although no consensus exists among scholars on a precise definition of stress, there are commonalities. For example, some researchers use external stimuli, namely a shocking accident or death to describe stress, whereas others may use internal stimuli generally consisting of anger, sadness and anxiety. Ellison (2004) as well as Jaramillo, Nixon and Sams (2005) describe stress as a process in
which a stimulus or stressor triggers a response or behavioral reaction observed by
guiding physical changes in one’s body. Based on these definitions, stress differs from job
satisfaction or “the state of mind that results from an individual’s needs or values being
met by the job and its environment” (Hopkins 1983, p. 32). As will be discussed, only
Manzoni and Eisner (2006) have tested the effects of stress, burnout, and job
satisfaction or commitment on police brutality and the frequency of police use of force.
This study was conducted in Switzerland.

Job satisfaction has been studied extensively to better understand the stability of
an organization’s personnel relating to turnovers and absenteeism rates (Dantzker,
1992), organizational commitment (Brunetto & Wharton, 2003), stress (Jaramillo et al.,
2005), and suicide (Zabun, 2000), but the role that job satisfaction may play in the
excessive use of force by police has not been examined. This researcher will attempt to
determine if job satisfaction and attitudes toward HR laws are associated with attitudes
toward the excessive use of force by members of the Turkish National Police.

Conclusion of the Chapter

The records of ECHR presented in Table 1 show that police use of excessive
force is a problem in Turkey. This study seeks to understand this problem to better
prevent it. Police officers attitudes toward use of excessive force are examined and
serve as a proxy for behavior. There are two common paths established in attitude-
behavior theories and research. Scholars on the first path argue that there is a direct
causal relationship between attitude and behavior. Scholars on the second path argue
that the relationship between attitude and behavior is not always simple and direct.
Other variables may distort the relationship such as family pressure, peer pressure and
other external pressures. There are merits to each set of arguments. Important for this study is that there is a consensus that there is a relationship between attitude and behavior. Analyzing police officers attitudes toward use of excessive force may help Turkish National Police administrators better understand the problem of excessive use of force and help them to adopt suitable policies to prevent it.
CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter introduces the legal ramifications involving the excessive use of police force by the 4th and 14th Amendment to the United States (U.S.) Constitution and articles 2 and 3 of the European Convention on Human Rights. The reader will note that although the U.S. definition of reasonable versus excessive use of force is phrased differently, the similarities between the U.S. and the European Convention frameworks are evident.

Next, to explain the motives behind police brutality and the use of excessive police force, a synopsis of research conducted predominantly in the United States is presented. Police brutality theories that consist of individual, situational and organizational factors will be examined in the context of police use of excessive force.

Police Brutality and Excessive Use of Force: Legalities

Policing duties require specific types of restraints as exemplified by the routine use of handcuffs, batons, chemicals and gases, and police-issued guns to defend either the officer(s) or the general public. Under existing legal frameworks, officers’ use of these restraints should be proportional to the potential threat and then immediately cease upon termination of the incident.

Although the definitions of police use of force and excessive force vary, Alpert and Dunham (2004) reported a broad level of consensus for these terms. For example, when a suspect does not resist in responding to an officer’s orders, little force other than customary handcuffing or the use of firm grips may be necessary. On the other hand, if a suspect refuses to accept orders, an officer may be justified in using these items and
additional proportional force to safeguard him/herself and citizens from a probable threat or to apprehend the suspect. According to Adams (1999), “the amount of force used should be proportional to the threat and limited to the least amount required to accomplish legitimate police action” (p. 1). Any force exceeding these limits is excessive.

In *Graham v. Connor* (490 U. S. 396-397 [1989]), the U.S. Supreme Court ruled, “all claims that law enforcement officers have used excessive force (deadly or not) in the course of an arrest, investigatory stop, or other ‘seizure’ of a free citizen should be analyzed under the Fourth Amendment and its ‘reasonableness’ standard”:

The Fourth Amendment’s ‘reasonableness’ inquiry is whether the officers’ actions are ‘objectively reasonable’ in light of the facts and circumstances confronting them, without regard to their underlying intent or motivation. The ‘reasonableness’ of a particular use of force must be judged from the perspective of a reasonable officer on the scene, and its calculus must embody an allowance for the fact that police officers are often forced to make split-second decisions about the amount of force necessary in a particular situation.

Based on the facts and circumstances of each particular case, the reasonableness standard varies but includes the resistant suspect’s threat to either the police officer or other citizens. In *Johnson v. Glick* (481 F.2d 1028 [2d Cir. 1973]), the court employed section 1 of the Fourteenth Amendment and ruled:

... in determining whether the constitutional line has been crossed, a court must look to such factors as the need for the application of force, the relationship between the need and the amount of force that was used, the extent of injury

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2The Fourth Amendment of the United States: “The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.”

3Section 1 of the Fourteenth Amendment: “All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.”
inflicted, and whether force was applied in a good faith effort to maintain or restore discipline or maliciously and sadistically for the very purpose of causing harm.

In 1954, Turkey signed the European Convention on Human Rights and, in 1990, accepted the authority of the European Court of Human Rights. These international entities uphold human rights-related concerns as well as oversee and issue sanctions when violations occur, including excessive police use of force. In accordance with Turkey’s membership in these European Conventions and Courts, TNP has strived to ensure that human rights are upheld as formulated in Articles 2 and 3 of the Convention.

Article 2 – Right to life

1. Everyone’s right to life shall be protected by law. No one shall be deprived of his life intentionally save in the execution of a sentence of a court following his conviction of a crime for which this penalty is provided by law.

2. Deprivation of life shall not be regarded as inflicted in contravention of this article when it results from the use of force which is no more than absolutely necessary: (italics added)
   a. in defence of any person from unlawful violence;
   b. in order to effect a lawful arrest or to prevent the escape of a person lawfully detained;
   c. in action lawfully taken for the purpose of quelling a riot or insurrection.

Article 3 – Prohibition of torture

No one shall be subjected to torture or to inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

In European countries, Articles 2 and 3 of the Convention on Human Rights frame the use of reasonable versus excessive force. Initially, the second article upholds the right to life of humans and rules in favor of the death penalty when supported by a court
decision. However, the general rule of depriving one’s life by a court decision was abolished in 1983 by the 13th protocol to the Convention. Article 2 of the Convention systematically reduces situations in which deadly or excessive force can be used by authorities. In essence, the use of force should be “no more than absolutely necessary.” As stated, the third article prohibits the torture, inhuman and degrading treatment or punishment of anyone. The United States and Europe both regulate the use of force against a free person and a person under custody.

Theories of Police Brutality

Although unnecessary use of police force is strictly regulated and prohibited by policies, cases do occur when law enforcement officers go beyond their legal boundaries and exercise excessive force. Police brutality theories are categorized under three main headings: individual factors, situational factors and organizational factors. The following discussion includes a sampling of research gleaned from the literature related to the impact of these factors on excessive use of police force.

Individual Factors: Characteristics of Police Officers

Individual factors are comprised of specific characteristics and demographic features that typically include, among others, an officer’s race, gender, education, years of experience, and level of stress. The literature reveals for the most part that there are insignificant relationships between the race of the police officer and use of force. Specifically, Friedrich (1980) examined individual factors in Boston, Chicago and Washington D.C. and found a weak relationship between race characteristics and use

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4The 13th protocol states: “The death penalty shall be abolished. No-one shall be condemned to such penalty or executed.”
of force in cases where there were black suspects and white police officers. The analysis revealed that use of excessive force was extremely rare in police teams that included mixed races.

Similarly, Terril and Mastrofski (2002) measured the impact that gender, race, experience, training, and educational level had on the use of force by police. Although they found that gender, race, and training were insignificant, inexperienced and young officers were most likely to be involved in use of force encounters. More educated police officers were less likely to be involved in use of force encounters.

Finally, Smith (2004) noted the influence that in-service training (numbers of field training hours provided to new recruits (field training officer - FTO), and the number of hours of in-service training) played on homicides by police officers. Presumably, a negative relationship exists between these variables; however, the findings indicated a positive relationship for one of the in-service training measures, which was number of field training hours provided to new recruits. In effect, new recruits who received more hours of training by FTO were more involved in homicides. Smith (2004) clarified these findings by explaining that pairing new recruits that have only short-term formal police education in the academy with experienced senior officers may create a strong police subculture that prevents the positive impacts of formal trainings to emerge.

Manzoni and Eisner (2006) examined the psychological characteristics of police officers to determine if the level of job-related stress might affect their job satisfaction and the use of excessive force. They hypothesized that a high level of job-related and organizational stress would cause job dissatisfaction and eventually result in burnout. The more stress, dissatisfaction and burned-out feelings, the more frequently police officers...
would resort to the use of force. In a self-reported survey in Zurich, Switzerland, respondents were asked how often they had used force within the past twelve months. The researchers found a strong positive linear relationship between policing profiles associated with the use of force, but they did not find a relationship between job-related stress, job satisfaction and commitment on the use of force. In their study, routine daily activities (policing profiles) were grouped into in two categories: proactive police procedures (for example, traffic, identity checks, and arrests) and reactive activities (interventions in private and public conflicts). Manzoni and Eisner's (2006) study is revealing but it was limited and did not clarify if the type of police force used was illegal, reasonable or excessive. Rather, the use of police force was categorized as verbal threats, threat with a weapon, physical violence, using a baton or gas spray, and shooting at suspects.

Summary

The literature on individual factors of police brutality suggests that use of force is more likely to occur when officers have low levels of formal education and long in-service trainings with field training officers. Race, age, and gender of police officers are not found to be statistically significant in predicting the use of force by officers. In mixed teams (e.g., one officer is white and the other is African-American), the use of force is very rare. Years of experience and level of stress were found negatively related in some studies, but other studies found these two variables positively related.

In this study, education level, gender and years of experience in police service are used as independent variables. Race will not be included because Turkey is comprised of a homogeneous population unlike the United States. The level of stress experienced
by Turkish police officers is not measured directly through the survey data. The dummy coded individual factor scales will include stress relating to respondents' opinions on the root causes of TNP’s use of excessive force incidents. Police job satisfaction related to stress will be integrated as well.

Situational Factors: Characteristics of Suspect and the Environment

Threat is one of the most widely used conflict theories to explain situational factors linked to police brutality. This theory rests on the assumption of Blalock’s (1967) hypothesis that social discrimination results when a high percentage of non-whites are found in a population. In other words, whites (social elite) are presumed to hold more power in implementing laws and will seek to preserve the privileges of the social elite who, in turn, perceive nonwhites as being a possible threat to their rights. According to Blalock's (1967) threat theory, whites use racial discrimination as a tactic to control nonwhites. Liska (1992), argued that based on conflict theory, lawmaking is assumed to reflect the interests of the powerful; and those activities are criminalized that threaten their interests. “(T)he conflict perspective asserts that the greater the number of acts and people threatening to the interests of the powerful, the greater the level of deviance and crime control” (p. 18).

Jacobs and O’Brien (1998) employed threat theories as well as reactive theories to explain police use of deadly force. The authors found that urban conditions and population level affected police use of deadly force. In other words, police are more likely exercise deadly force in more populous and urban areas than rural and less populous areas. Furthermore, because blacks and whites were very different in terms of
economic status in the 1980s, they were also viewed as having a lack of political influence.

Comparable to Jacobs and O’Brien, Holmes (2000) used police brutality data obtained from census reports (1985-1990) and Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) uniform crime reports. The inequality of income rates between majorities and minorities was found to be positively related to the use of deadly force, especially among Hispanics. Civil rights complaints were consistent with the threat hypothesis. In cities with a population of 150,000 or more, civil rights complaints increased based on the population’s percentage of blacks and Hispanics, income inequality between majority and minorities and the overall city’s size.

White’s (2002) situational study collected police use of deadly force data in Philadelphia and found that the “man with a gun call” was the most significant predictor of police shootings, followed by robberies and disturbances. Additionally, White’s study revealed that most of the police shootings occurred during the first stages of the incidents while the officer(s) was/were approaching or searching the scene and confronting a suspect(s). The other significant predictor indicated that being a non-white suspect increased the likelihood of becoming involved in either a fatal or nonfatal police shooting.

According to Stark (1987), social disorganization theory explains crime in societies by focusing on geographic territories and their neighborhood structures to establish patterns of criminal activities and deviant behaviors. Kane (2002) asserted that the same assumptions and variables used in social disorganization theory to establish patterns of deviant behaviors can also be used to explain deviant behaviors among
police officers. Kane concluded in this particular study that police misconduct could be predictable by understanding a population’s mobility, structural disadvantage and increases in the Latino population. Interestingly, contrary to other findings, changes in the percentages of blacks in the population were not significantly related to police misconduct.

Terril and Mastrofski (2002) examined the reasons why police officers resorted to use of excessive force by analyzing the impact that the suspect’s gender, race, carrying a weapon, in possession of drugs or alcohol, resisting arrest, or showing disrespect through language or gestures had on police use of force. In the analyses, control variables included the environment in which the encounter took place or the number of officers and bystanders at the scene during police use of force. Findings revealed that citizen behavior was the most significant predictor of police use of force. In addition, “[o]fficers were significantly more likely to use increased levels of force on males, nonwhites, young suspects and poor suspects” (p. 236). The number of police officers at the scene also had an impact on the use of force. The more police officers at the scene, the more likely officers exercise force. The severity of the incident may become one of the reasons of calling more officers to the crime scene. Interestingly, the study revealed that a police officer’s likelihood of using force toward both disrespectful and respectful citizens remained unbiased.

Although Schuck (2004) examined racial and ethnic differences relating to police use of force in Phoenix, Arizona, the study did not clarify whether the force used was reasonable or excessive. Different from previous research, subjects were categorized according to their custody or non-custody status. While there was no statistically
significant relationship between police use of force and racial-ethnic groups for those in custody, racial and ethnic disparity was found to be significant among citizens who were not in custody. Basically, police officers were more likely to use force against minority non-custodial groups, although the level of force was no different for whites, blacks or Hispanics in custody.

Using the threat hypotheses, community violence, professionalism, and bureaucratic control, Smith (2004) attempted to determine the predictors of homicides committed by police officers in the United States. The community violence hypothesis assumed that police officers who work in a city in which the violence incidence is high are more prone to use excessive force to defend themselves or others. His findings indicated a positive relationship between racial threat and homicides by police officers, but an insignificant relationship between economic inequalities related to shootings by police officers. However, police citizen-homicides were found to be related to community violence, and homicide by police officers increased in cities with a high rate of violent crimes.

Summary

The review of situational factors suggests that police officers use force against suspects who are minority, male, young and poor. The use of force incidents more likely occur if the suspect has drugs or alcohol and resists arrest. Besides suspects’ characteristics, the population size of the city, poverty rates, number of officers on the scene, and the type of the incident or the seriousness of an offense have been shown to have a positive relationship.
In brief, situational factors have been initiated, developed and tested in the United States, which reflect, in some cases, the discrimination held against non-whites and the poverty-stricken. However, because Turkey is comprised of only the white race, heterogeneity is not an issue. Although there are ethnic differences represented by the Kurds, Arabs, Laz, and Circassians, these differences are not apparent upon initial contact. Therefore, the dummy coded situational factors scale variable will consist of an ethnic discrimination statement that will serve to answer the question regarding the root causes of excessive use of police force in Turkey. Besides the ethnic discrimination statement, seriousness of the offense variable will also be incorporated into this scale. However, other variables analyzed in the literature related to situational factors will not be directly added to the analysis. Conversely, situational factors including the distinctions of various crimes committed and the circumstances surrounding a particular incident will be considered. In addition, job satisfaction and police officers’ attitudes as they relate to human rights issues will be used to clarify police use of excessive force by members of the Turkish National Police

Organizational Factors: Characteristics of the Police Organization

The organizational structure of law enforcement agencies has also been theorized as having an impact on decisions using force. Hodgson (2001) suggested that departments that use a para-militaristic structure tolerate the use of force. Other structures are categorized as watchman, legalistic or service styles (Wilson, 1968). The watchman style refers to police departments whose principal function is to maintain order rather than law enforcement.
To the extent the administrator can influence the discretion of his men, he does so by allowing them to ignore many common minor violations, especially traffic and juvenile offenses, to tolerate, though gradually less so, a certain amount of vice and gambling, to use the law more as a means of maintaining order than of regulating conduct, and to judge the requirements of order differently depending on the character of the group in which the infraction occurs (Wilson, 1968, p. 140).

The legalistic style leans toward law enforcement rather than order maintenance; hence, misdemeanors are not ignored, and by the same token, infractions are not overlooked in strictly enforced laws. The service style is, to a certain extent, a mixture of the watchman and legalistic styles of policing. For example, “[t]he police take seriously all requests for either law enforcement or order maintenance but are less likely to respond by making an arrest or otherwise imposing formal sanctions. The police intervene frequently but not formally” (Wilson, 1968, p. 200). Wilson (1968) argued that police use of excessive force incidents can be witnessed more readily in traditional watchman style police departments than in legalistic style police departments.

To determine if structure affected the use of excessive police force, Friedrich (1980) studied policing in three cities; Boston, Chicago and Washington D.C. Boston’s police department represented the traditional style of policing (watchman style), Chicago had a professional (legalistic style) department, and Washington D.C. signified a transitional (service style) department. Parallel to Wilson’s classification, these departments symbolize the watchman, legalistic and service styles of law enforcement. Friedrich (1980) observed that excessive use of force was similar in both Boston and Chicago: However, Washington D.C. reportedly had fewer incidents. To justify this discrepancy, Friedrich noted that at the time of the study, Washington D.C.’s police
department was under scrutiny by community leaders, the media and administrators due to brutality allegations.

Westley (1953) analyzed the impact of police occupational culture on use of excessive force. By interviewing 92 police officers and through participant observations of a police department, officers were found to accept the use of excessive force and even justify its illegal behavior. According to Westley (1953), officers learned these justifications from both their colleagues and through professional experience. The use of accepting and justifying “is functionally related to the collective occupation as well as to the legal ends of the police” (p. 34).

Fifty-two years later, Cancino (2001) conducted a follow-up study of Westley’s (1953) research at a large southwest police department. His analysis of survey data indicated that although police officers learned the use of physical force from their colleagues, the police organizational subculture was the most significant predictor in use of excessive physical force.

By analyzing studies and reports conducted in Canada and the United States, Hodgson (2001) explored the organizational structures of police departments to demonstrate the use of police force. By doing so, the military structure common to police organizations was identified as the major indicator of police use of force as well as the largest barrier to change. Consequently, Hodgson (2001) argued that the quasi-military character of police departments promoted and legitimized violent behavior as a result of reliance on aggression to achieve goals, authoritarian structures and occupational subcultures.
In an effort to grasp a better understanding of police brutality, Smith and Holmes (2003) examined the effects of community accountability and minority threat variables relating to the use of excessive force. Community accountability was defined as a structural level theory that explains the behavior of street level police officers by examining the department’s organizational factors that include; accountability to the community, minority representation and maintaining close neighborhood ties by implementing community policing through innovative strategies. Based on the threat theory, Smith and Holmes (2003) proposed that departmental representative bureaucracy and proportional minority recruitment in relation to the community might possibly put an end to police brutality.

Summary

Organizational factors examined in the literature include the structure of a police department. Para-militaristic, watchman, legalistic, service style and citizen based policing structures were identified. Among them, para-militaristic and watchman style police organizations tolerate use of force. However, legalistic and service style police departments do not easily tolerate use of force. Citizen based policing such as community policing or other innovative policing styles is also negatively related with use of force. Community policing is defined as a philosophy, which requires interaction and working together with citizens to find solutions to problems of community (Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux, 1990).

The structural characteristic of the Turkish National Police organization is an organizational factor. Based on aforementioned categories, it is hard to put TNP in only one of the groups. The centralized structure of TNP (which is discussed in the
methodology section), looks like a para-militaristic organization. However, TNP also implements innovative citizen based policies like community policing and it maintains order as well as practices law enforcement. Based on these basic characteristics, one may infer that TNP is a service style police organization, although it has a centralized structure making it also look like a para-militaristic organization.

Individual, situational and organizational factors all contribute to police brutality theories and are used to illustrate the excessive use of police force in the United States. These factors and their relationship with use of force are shown in table 3. Police departments in the U.S. generally serve a heterogeneous population comprised of a broad variety of races and nationalities, including whites, African-Americans, Hispanics, Asians, and others. These factors appear to partially explain police use of excessive force in the United States, but other factors, namely job satisfaction, occupational stress and police officers’ attitudes toward enforcing the law might also be important factors to be considered to reduce the practice of exercising excessive use of force.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>STATISTICAL RELATIONSHIP WITH USE OF FORCE</th>
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</table>
Police Brutality Theories and Turkey

Not all theories of police brutality tested in the United States are applicable to Turkey due to its lack of diversity. Turkey's current population of 70 million consists of 86.21% of the Turkish white race with the Kurds, Laz, Circassians, Arabs, and Zaza representing 13.79% of “other” ethnic groups (Andrew, 2009). There is very little variation among racial features or other ascriptive characteristics. Thus, brutality or conflict theories that work well in the United States may not apply.

Organizational factors concerning police brutality theories generally examine characteristics unique to individual law enforcement agencies in the U.S. There are, however, a few structural differences between police departments in the United States and those of Turkey. Police organizations in the United States are typically composed of relatively small jurisdictions that serve comparatively small populations. Working conditions including salaries, shifts and so forth, are determined by local governments. These factors are related to job satisfaction and may possibly explain some of the organizational circumstances leading to police use of excessive force.

In contrast, Turkey has a national policing structure that uses a centralized form. There is only one police organization that serves all Turkish citizens with a jurisdiction that covers the entire homeland. One director general heads the Turkish National Police and the organization is a strict bureaucratic and quasi-military structure.

Local police organizations in the United States have relatively better working conditions and socio-economic standing when compared to the TNP. Turkey is a developing country and wages are relatively low compared to those earned by officers in the United States. These differences between policing features in the United States
and Turkey may help to explain some aspects of the problem of police use of excessive force in Turkey.

Police Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been shown to be related to productivity, employee retention, lower turnover rates, commitment to the organization, lower stress levels, and reward and sanctions systems. This researcher will strive to determine if job satisfaction is also connected to attitudes regarding excessive use of police force and human rights laws.

Job satisfaction is defined as “the state of mind that results from an individual’s needs or values being met by the job and its environment” (Hopkins 1983, p. 32). Its relationship to rates of absenteeism, turnover, organizational commitment, and productivity has been widely studied. Surprisingly, however, job satisfaction has not sparked the general interest of scholars and practitioners in the field of policing in relation to the use of excessive force. The components of job satisfaction can be categorized under individual and organizational factors previously discussed in the police brutality section.

Individual Factors Associated with Job Satisfaction

Individual factors that characterize police officers include race, gender, education, stress level, and experience (years of service in the organization) according to brutality theories. Individual factors associated with job satisfaction include education and uncertainty, rank and years of service, gender, and stress. A review of the literature on each of these factors will be discussed in this section.
Education, Uncertainty or Conflict and Job Satisfaction

Griffin, Dunbar and McGill (1978) examined education and uncertainty or conflict factors associated with job satisfaction by theorizing that if officers were in control over their internal and external environments higher levels of job satisfaction would result. Based on this view, they found that education significantly increased self-control and lead to higher job satisfaction among police officers. In a further analysis to determine if conflict and uncertainty affected job satisfaction, they hypothesized that by reducing these factors, job satisfaction would increase. Griffin and colleagues (1978) reported that officers exhibited a higher level of job satisfaction when they felt that they made valuable contributions to the community that reduced uncertainty or conflict in their environments and their superiors were doing a good job.

In Dantzker’s (1992) research, a survey was conducted in three states (Illinois, Texas, and California) to determine the effects that education and experience had on police job satisfaction. Officers were asked to identify their overall job satisfaction by answering two questions: (1) If I could change police departments without losing seniority, I would; and (2) If I received an offer for a better paying job outside of policing, I would immediately accept it. By comparing the officers’ educational levels ranging from a high school diploma to a college degree and their experience in policing, Dantzker (1992) confirmed that police officers who possessed a college degree as well as five years or more of policing experience were the most satisfied group.

Years of Service and Rank and Job Satisfaction

Sheley and Nock (1979) replicated Reiss’ (1967) study by adding years of service and years in current rank in an effort to establish whether years in current rank might
explain any negative relationship between rank and job satisfaction due to officer burnout or loss of motivation. Job satisfaction was measured by asking: (1) If your son, or someone close to you, displayed an interest in police work, would you discourage his interest?; and (2) Given the opportunity, would you work outside of law enforcement, assuming all work benefits to be equal? The study concluded that number of years in current rank, years of service and community confidence in the police were positively related to job satisfaction.

Bennett (1997) later investigated the determinants of police job satisfaction in three English-speaking Caribbean nations. Multivariate analysis revealed that years of service, gender, and rank were not significant predictors of job satisfaction. However, promotion, and discipline (in fact, fairness and respect in disciplinary processes such as the processes of sanctions and rewards) were statistically significant, leading Bennett (1977) to conclude that developed and developing countries have similar features in terms of police job satisfaction.

Gender and Job Satisfaction

Grant, Garrison and McCormick (1990) reasoned that the utilization of women in policing is positively correlated with job satisfaction by assuming that their roles are valued by their supervisors and their skills and abilities are recognized and used on the job. By administering a survey to the International Association of Women Police, job satisfaction was measured by asking: (1) Are you considering a career change?; and (2) Would you recommend police work as a career for other women? Responses indicated that a statistically high correlation existed between utilization of women and job satisfaction. Through further analysis, the women officers were asked if they felt
they were properly utilized and if they exercised their skills on the job. Grant et al. (1990) concluded that policewomen were found to be more content when their job skills and abilities were believed to be properly used.

Stress and Job Satisfaction

Davey, Obst and Sheehan (2001) examined the relationship between demographic and workplace characteristics related to stress and job satisfaction among Australian police officers by measuring overall job satisfaction with only one item based on a five-point Likert scale: “My job ranges from very dissatisfying to very satisfying”. Although long working hours were found to be a primary source of stress, this did not result in a lower level of job satisfaction. On the other hand, frequently changing work shifts were found to create low levels of job satisfaction, but were not considered to be a factor leading to job-related stress.

In a survey conducted in Turkey to assess stressors common to the Turkish National Police, Buker and Wiecko (2007) found that the most significant predictors of occupational stress included satisfaction with supervisor, with the job itself and with coworkers. Simply stated, the more satisfied police officers are with their supervisors, coworkers and the job itself, the less likely are they to experience occupational stress. To determine the second most significant stressor among Turkish police officers, Buker and Wiecko (2007) created a bureaucracy index to measure the effects of excessive workload, inadequate staff, inadequate procedures and policies, incompetent supervision and direction, and excessive red tape. Based on their findings, police officers who worked in a highly bureaucratic environment suffered more occupational stress.
Biggam, Power, Macdonald, Carcary, and Moodie (1997) proposed that stress and stress factors among Scottish police officers are not unique to policing but are rather the same as with other occupations based on workload, staff shortages, lack of supervisory support, and poor communication. Consistent with their hypotheses, these factors were indicative of producing the most salient stressors among Scottish police. They also observed that officers who exhibit high levels of stress may pose a serious threat to both themselves (including suicide, absenteeism and so on) and the general public (use of force, rude behaviors to citizens and so on). In addition, Biggam et al. (1997) found gender and rank to be statistically related to police stress with male officers reporting less stress than their female counterparts.

Job Satisfaction Related to Stress, Burnout, Commitment and Police Use of Force

Kop and Euwema (2001) studied the impact that occupational stress had on use of force by Dutch police officers. In relating stress to burnout, work stressors were classified by the nature, and organizational aspects of police work. Hypothesizing that work stress causes burnout, and burnout would lead to a loss of motivation, Kop and Euwema (2001) argued that police officers who exhibited burnout would display negative mood attitudes toward civilians, and positive attitudes regarding police use of force. Their analysis supported this argument. Burnout was found to lead to negative attitudes toward civilians and positive attitudes toward the use of force and actual use of force. However, Kop and Euwema did not differentiate between the legality of the force exercised but rather included behaviors related to pushing or gripping, hitting, kicking, and use of weapons. Essentially, the authors suggested that “[p]oor management,
reorganizations, bureaucratic interference, administration, shift work, bureaucracy, and unmotivated colleagues were frequently mentioned as stressors” (p. 646).

As a follow-up to Kop and Euwema’s (2001) study, Burke and Mikkelsen (2005) conducted a survey of Norwegian police officers by examining the effects of four predictor groups on both use of force and use of social skills: personal demographics, work situation characteristics, job demands, and burnout. However, neither Kop and Euwema (2001) nor Burke and Mikkelsen defined the legality of the force practiced by police officers thereby limiting their study in terms of reasonable or excessive force. Aside from these limitations, Kop and Euwema (2001) reported that single police officers as well as officers who work on shift base and display high levels of cynicism are more prone to the use of force.

Organizational Factors Associated with Job Satisfaction

Organizational factors that are related to police brutality theories consist of the department’s structure, police subculture and innovative policing techniques, namely community policing. Likewise, organizational factors associated with job satisfaction include work environment and community policing.

Work Environment and Job Satisfaction.

Reiss (1967) examined job satisfaction among police officers in Washington D.C., Boston and Chicago by measuring one’s willingness and encouragement to enter the police force, or selecting to leave the department in search of other job opportunities. Low salaries, over-extended working hours, a low chance of promotions, supervisory
problems, and lack of public respect were found to be major factors that influenced police job satisfaction.

Zhao, Thurman and He (1999) measured the job satisfaction of police officers serving the Spokane, Washington, area. In addition to ethnicity, gender, level of education, years of service and rank, work environment was also included as an explanatory variable. A Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) was then used to measure five dimensions of one’s work environment: skill variety, task identity or evident outcome of doing a task from beginning to end, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. Years of service and rank revealed an insignificant relationship to job satisfaction. The longer police officers served in the department and the more rank they had, the less they were satisfied with their jobs. On the other hand, autonomy, or the freedom to decide what to do in the line of duty, and feedback were found to be statistically significant.

Brunetto and Wharton (2002) used social identity theory to explain police job satisfaction in Australia by basing their research on one’s gender, socioeconomic status, interests, and occupation. They asserted that because individuals can identify themselves according to their workplace, three basic components of organizational identification, an employee’s internalization of beliefs, loyalty and commitment are assumed to be related to job satisfaction. Brunetto and Wharton’s (2002) study revealed a significant relationship between overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with fellow officers. Promotional policies and organizational management practices had a negative relationship with job satisfaction of Australian police officers. The researchers suggested that job satisfaction among police officers is linked to the fairness of
organizational management policies and practices that, in turn, produce mutual loyalty between the organization and employees.

Community Policing and Job Satisfaction

Beginning in the 1980s, the philosophy of community policing began to emerge based on the concept that positive interaction between police officers and citizens can work together in finding creative solutions related to fear of crime, crime, disorder, and neighborhood decay (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990). From this standpoint, Halsted, Bromley and Cochran (2000) investigated the effects of community policing on job satisfaction among sheriff’s deputies in Hillsborough County, Florida. Although their study revealed a moderately significant relationship between job satisfaction and service orientation, deputies who accepted their service to citizens as a primary responsibility rather than strict enforcement of the law were shown to have higher levels of job satisfaction.

Summary

The literature on police job satisfaction suggests that police officers who have higher levels of education, more opportunities for promotions and higher salaries are more satisfied. Uncertainty in the tasks, level of stress, extended working hours, supervisory problems, and lack of public respect have negative impacts on officers’ job satisfaction. Years of service, rank and gender were found negatively related with job satisfaction by some studies but positively related in others.

In terms of the effects that job satisfaction has on the use of force by police officers, a review of the literature revealed that Manzoni and Eisner (2006) were the only researchers to specifically address this issue using a sample from Zurich,
Switzerland. After testing the relationship between job-related stress, satisfaction, or commitment and use of force, they did not find any significant relationship but rather revealed that an officer’s stereotypical job profile, which refers to police officers’ routine professional activities on duty, was significantly associated with police use of force.

Other researchers tested stress variables relating to use of force (Biggam et al., 1997), occupational stress and burnout (Kop & Euwema, 2001) and work situation characteristics, job demands, and burnout components (Burke & Mikkelsen, 2005). Under the assumption that job satisfaction does have an impact on the use excessive force, this researcher will analyze data from the Turkish National Police to either confirm or refute these findings.

Police and Human Rights Laws

In democratic countries, the rule of law ensures that no one, including government officials, is above the law. Perhaps its most important application is the principle that governmental authority is legitimately exercised only in accordance with written, publicly disclosed laws adopted and enforced in accordance with established procedural steps. Thus, the rule of law is accepted as the guarantor of equality and human rights, and because police have the authority to use force, they are required to use this authority under legal guidelines (Baker, 2003).

Research has shown that police may feel restricted by the rule of law and human rights considerations that seemingly decrease their effectiveness in dealing with crime and criminals. Accordingly, criminal justice procedures may be perceived as uncertain, “slipshod prosecutions, inept and venal judges, unwilling witnesses, cumbersome procedures, and laws loaded in favor of [the] suspect” (Bayley, 2002, p. 133). In this
sense, police may consider that restrictive human rights laws interfere in their duties to prevent crimes and protect victims (Crawshaw, as cited in Bayley, 2002).

Burke and Mikkelsen’s (2005) research revealed that Norwegian police officers who display negative beliefs toward the justice system strongly endorse the use of force. Put another way, those who perceive the justice system as being “too soft” against criminals have positive attitudes toward the use of force. Similarly, Bayley (2002) claimed that positive attitudes toward use of police force are widespread among police organizations throughout the world. A survey conducted by the U.S. Department of Justice revealed that some American police officers believe that excessive force is useful to reduce and control crime. This was evidenced by the 57.2 percent of officers, who did not agree that “always following the rules is compatible with getting the job done,” and almost one-half (43 percent), who believed that using excessive force was necessary to get the job done (Weisburd, Greenspan, Hamilton, Williams, & Bryant, 2000).

More recently and specifically relevant to this study, Dogru (2006) conducted a survey in Ankara and Diyarbakir, Turkey, to measure the attitudes toward human rights issues by police officers employed in each city’s anti-terrorism department, public order department, riot police department and police stations. The purpose of Dogru’s (2006) study was to determine whether demographic variables (namely rank, gender, age, education, years of service, marital status, department, and city of employment) had any effect on attitudes toward human rights or job satisfaction. He found that officers working in both Ankara and Diyarbakir were satisfied at the same levels with their jobs. Although those stationed in anti-terrorism departments exhibited higher satisfaction,
police officers in Ankara displayed higher positive attitudes toward HR laws than their colleagues in Diyarbakir. However, attitudes toward brutality (comprising attitudes toward right to life and use of excessive force) were not different among officers in both cities. Officers working in anti-terrorism departments tended to have the highest positive attitudes toward right to life, use of force and brutality, whereas officers employed in the riot department were found to have the lowest positive attitudes regarding these issues.

Conclusion of the Chapter

Police brutality theories identify three factors to understand police use of excessive force; individual, situational and organizational factors. Individual factors include the characteristics of the police officer such as race, age, gender, education, experience and stress level of the police officers. Situational factors are derived from threat theory which assumes that elites have power and they secure this power through all possible means. Minorities are seen as threats to their power and they use their tools to eliminate these threats. Based on this theory, situational factors reflect the characteristics of the suspect such as race, gender, age, and wealth level. It also includes the features of the crime environment including the population of the city, poverty rates, type of the incidents, and number of officers at the scene. Organizational factors are about the characteristics of the police department and whether the department has a para-militaristic structure. Police brutality theories are developed and tested in the U.S. but may not be applicable to other countries that have different cultures and police structures like Turkey.

There is a strong literature on job satisfaction in public administration organizational studies. Job satisfaction has been shown to be related to burnout,
employee retention and turnover, commitment, stress, performance and suicide. This literature has not been aimed at understanding and reducing negative outcomes of policing such as use of excessive force. This study considers job satisfaction as one way to understand police officers attitudes toward use of excessive force.
CHAPTER 3
DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to present the methods to be used in this research including characteristics of the sample and data, definitions, and endogenous (dependent), exogenous (independent) and control variables as well as detailed information regarding the analytic strategies that the researcher will employ. This chapter begins with a discussion of the research background and some characteristics of Turkish National Police Organization up front in order to grasp the characteristics of the sample of this research. I, then, present proposed model and hypothesis. These will be followed by the discussion of the data and the collection method.

Research Background

For purposes of this study, the researcher will consider three main variables that may affect police officers’ attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force: job satisfaction, attitude on human rights laws and job profile. Job satisfaction and job profile have only been tested once in terms of their impact on use of excessive force (Manzoni & Eisner, 2006), and attitudes toward human rights laws on halting the use of excessive police force has rarely, if ever, been tested.

The researcher will refer to both domestic laws regulating human rights in Turkey and international human rights laws framed by the European Convention on Human Rights. In contrast to the United States, the European Union (EU) is a regional union type of confederation consisting of 25 countries on the continent of Europe. In 1999, at the Helsinki summit, the European Council confirmed that “Turkey is a candidate State
destined to join the Union on the basis of the same criteria as applied to the other
candidate States” (Helsinki European Council, para. 12). Upon becoming a candidate,
Turkey must fulfill three broad conditions as required by the Copenhagen criteria:

1. **political**: stability of institutions guaranteeing democracy, the rule of law, human rights, and respect for and protection of minorities;
2. **economic**: existence of a functioning market economy and the capacity to cope with competitive pressure and market forces within the Union; and
3. **acceptance**: of the Community acquisability to take on the obligations of membership, including adherence to the aims of political, economic and monetary union (Helsinki European Council, para. 12).

In response, Turkey has endeavored to undertake its obligation by working to adopt a series of new guidelines to meet the Copenhagen criteria of which human rights policies are one of the major segments to be addressed. Although sometimes accused of failing to develop its human rights levels, long before European Union candidacy, Turkey signed the European Convention on Human Rights in 1954, and has also recognized the authority of the European Court of Human Rights (ECHR), the only international Court that has penalization authority over party states (Golcuklu & Gozubuyuk, 1998). As well as the Copenhagen criteria, the convention and the court have pressed Turkey to develop its human rights. Thus, as the way of accession to the European Union, human rights policies are chief issues for both the EU and Turkey alike.

**Structure of the Turkish National Police (TNP)**

Located in Turkey’s capital city of Ankara, the Turkish National Police (TNP) employs a centralized structure of policing. Referred to as the General Directorate of Security, the TNP is led by the general director of security who is appointed by the prime minister upon the Ministry of Interior’s recommendation. The general director is
accountable to both the general directorate and the TNP (Ozcan & Gultekin, 2000). The directorate houses 29 divisions including personnel, terrorism and a foreign relations division, each of which is headed by individuals holding the title of first-degree chief of police. The corresponding duties of all city police departments are coordinated by each division’s leadership team (Cerrah, 2006).

Turkey is comprised of 81 provinces that have their own security directorate structurally divided into sub-districts and small towns and commanded by a first-degree chief of police. Although provincial security departments operate under the authority of a city governor official who is appointed by the prime minister, the centralized General Directorate of Security has direct control over the provincial security departments and appoints all personnel ranging from line officers to the chief of police (Cerrah, 2006; Ozcan & Gultekin, 2000). Policies and regulations are prepared in Ankara by the general directorate and implemented by center divisions and provincial security departments. TNP is responsible for maintaining order and law enforcement duties in urban areas. In recent years, the TNP has also implemented some community-based policies such as community policing.

Proposed Model

As illustrated in Figure 2, in an effort to determine the attitudes held by members of the Turkish National Police regarding halting the use of excessive police force, the researcher proposes to reexamine the secondary data collected by Dogru (2006) by utilizing the procedures outlined below.
Hypotheses

H1: Job satisfaction levels positively affect police officers’ attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force.

H2: Job profiles affect police officers’ attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. Those working in riot, public order, or terrorism departments will have lower attitudes than will those working in police stations.

H3: Positive attitudes regarding Human Rights (HR) laws positively affect police officers’ attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force.
Characteristics and Data

The researcher utilizes a secondary dataset collected by Dogru (2006) (see Appendix A) in an effort to explore primary factors toward human rights issues that affect the attitudes of police officers who serve as members of the Turkish National Police (TNP). Data were collected through a survey conducted in Ankara, Turkey’s capital city, and Diyarbakir, whose police stations and subdivisions consisting of riot, public order and terrorism departments. These stations and departments were deliberately chosen to be included because only the officers working in these departments interact daily with citizens on the street and are familiar with cases relating to police use of excessive force. Although there are other departments in the structure of a city police department such as personnel, traffic, and logistics departments, officers working in these departments do not interact with citizens on a daily basis.

Ankara and Diyarbakir were selected due to of their geographical locations and socioeconomic positions. For example, Ankara is the capital of the Turkish Republic and is situated in the center of Turkey, whereas Diyarbakir lies in the eastern part of the country. In addition, while Ankara is structured in an urban setting, Diyarbakir is typified by features common to rural areas. More importantly, because Ankara serves as the capital, the city is comprised of bureaucratic institutions that can be politically influential in putting pressure on police officers who are carrying out their duties. As such, Ankara may be considered atypical from other Turkish cities due to its high cost of urban living that may be a potential contributing factor to one’s level of job stress and dissatisfaction. On the other hand, Ankara provides a variety of opportunities for individuals to enjoy the benefits that improved health services, higher education and entertainment centers
In contrast to Ankara, Diyarbakir is one of the largest cities of the eastern part in Turkey that has been affected by terrorist attacks occurring over time. An overview is presented in Table 4 that compares these two cities in terms of their demographic and statistical characteristics.

Table 4

A Comparison of the Two Cities of Ankara and Diyarbakir, Turkey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>City</th>
<th>Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population (2005)</td>
<td>Ankara</td>
<td>4,007,860</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diyarbakir</td>
<td>1,362,708</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of College Students (2005)</td>
<td>Ankara</td>
<td>403,452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diyarbakir</td>
<td>30,313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPD_PERCAP ($) (2005)</td>
<td>Ankara</td>
<td>2,752</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diyarbakir</td>
<td>1,313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illiteracy Percentage (2005)</td>
<td>Ankara</td>
<td>0.6 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diyarbakir</td>
<td>25.0 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diyarbakir</td>
<td>45,930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terror-related Incidents between 2001-2006</td>
<td>Ankara</td>
<td>312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diyarbakir</td>
<td>274</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In Dogru’s (2006) research, a total of 1,200 survey questionnaires were distributed in 2004, of which 13 were not returned and 186 were incomplete or left blank and, therefore, unusable. There were 1,001 valid surveys with an acceptable response rate of 83 percent. Table 5 indicates the population that consisted of male and female members of the Turkish National Police as of the summer of 2004. As can be seen, the total number of sworn officers is disproportionately represented by males (96.5 percent)
when compared to females (3.5 percent), and there was little difference in the
distribution of gender between Ankara and Diyarbakir.

Table 5

A Profile by Gender of the Police Forces in the Two Cities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ankara</td>
<td>4,711</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>4,897</td>
<td>76.5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(96.2 %)</td>
<td>(3.8 %)</td>
<td>(100 %)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diyarbakir</td>
<td>1,464</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>23.5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(97.6 %)</td>
<td>(2.4 %)</td>
<td>(100 %)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6,175</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>6,397</td>
<td>100.0 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(96.5 %)</td>
<td>(3.5 %)</td>
<td>(100 %)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 indicates, by city, the number and percent of officers who completely filled
out the survey instrument. Due to the large population and widespread locality of the
departments, Dogru’s (2006) sample was selected by employing a purposive and
random sampling technique. The selected departments were purposive since their
officers interact daily with citizens on the streets. Due to the low representation of
female officers, they were included with the ranked police officers yielding a clustered
random sampling of 1,200 respondents.
Table 6

*Number and Percent of Respondents Based on Cities*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ankara</td>
<td>686</td>
<td>68.5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diyarbakir</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>31.5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>1,001</td>
<td>100.0 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During May and July of 2004, Dogru’s (2006) survey was administered in Diyarbakir and Ankara on a voluntarily basis without any direct contact between the researcher and subjects. Copies of the survey were delivered to the secretariats of the selected four departments in both cities who, in turn, either circulated the instruments to the officers’ mailboxes or delivered them personally. In the event that respondents needed clarification on any particular survey question relating to TNP and human rights attitudes, to eliminate these concerns, an institutional consent letter from TNP’s Academy granting permission to conduct the research was provided at the outset. As an employee of TNP, the researcher was required to comply with TNP’s regulations regarding confidentiality, and the secretariats and respondents were informed that neither any part of the records would be divulged nor would respondents be identified.

To insure complete anonymity, upon completion of the data gathering process, no personally identifiable information was collected or retained, thus assuring participants that there would be no risk of revealing their responses.

Because this researcher will utilize secondary data, all human subjects’ records were requested from Dogru who provided the “Institutional Consent Form of the
Presidency of Turkish National Police Academy” contained in Appendix B as well as permission to adopt data from the previous 2004 survey for further analysis. This researcher then translated Dogru’s (2006) data and survey instrument into English that was double-checked by translators who are proficient in both English and Turkish. As a final step, upon application to the University of North Texas (UNT) Institutional Review Board (IRB), all documents were submitted for approval of use of human subjects (see Appendix C). The Institutional Review Board of UNT approved the project under minimal review.

Despite the fact that Dogru (2006) developed and utilized strong tools to measure police attitudes toward the right to life, brutality and human relations and the acceptable sample size \((n=1,001)\) resulted in a high response rate of 83 percent, because data were analyzed on a univariate and bivariate level rather than more advanced statistical analyses, certain aspects may have been overlooked. In addition, although Dogru’s scales did allow for an examination of the impact that demographic variables yielded on officers’ attitudes, a comparison between groups employed ANOVA and \(t\)-test techniques, thus omitting a multivariate analysis to examine the relationship among variables.

In sum, this researcher proposes to expand on Dogru’s study by employing data in an effort to determine the multivariate relationship among all variables measured by analyzing Turkish police officers’ attitudes toward human rights laws and the use of excessive police force. As mentioned earlier, Turkey has accepted and signed the convention and is a candidate country for European Union (EU) membership; thus,
achieving a more acceptable human rights record is an important priority in Turkish National Police.

According to Lin (1976), a sample size of 964 with a 97 percent confidence level is considered sufficient when representing a 10,000 population. Further, based on Bartlett, Kortlik and Higgins’ (2001) “table for determining [a] minimum returned sample size for a given population size for continuous and categorical data” (p. 48), by employing Cochran’s formula, a 613 sample size is ample for use in a population size of 8,000 with a 0.05 margin of error, and a 598 sample size is adequate for a 6,000 population size with a 0.05 margin of error. Thus, the researcher can conclude that a sample size of 1,001 will sufficiently reflect a population of 6,397, which is the total police personnel population of both cities.

Definitions and Terms

For a clear understanding of the concepts adopted from Dogru’s (2006) original survey instrument, the researcher will use the following definitions:

**Ankara and Diyarbakir City police departments**: There are 81 cities in Turkey and each has its own city police department. However, these departments do not have a local structure but rather are directly linked to personnel, budget, accountability, and so forth. Ankara and Diyarbakir represent two of these departments.

**Attitude**: A learned predisposition to react positively or negatively against specific objects, situations, foundations, concepts, or other individuals (Tezbasaran, 1997).

**Police stations**: The basic units of city police departments that have their own jurisdictions including some city neighborhoods, and their officers are responsible for
being on duty 24 hours a day to insure the safety and security services of their own jurisdictions (Yasar, 1996).

*Public order departments*: Located in every city police department, the unit founded to prevent, as its first responsibility, and investigate all types of criminal activities, except politically-motivated crimes, namely terrorism, and apprehend suspects in an attempt to solve crimes and transfer all known suspects to court (Yasar, 1996).

*Riot police departments*: Established under city police departments in 1982, the unit designed to effectively control and manage legal and illegal demonstrations, riots, public meetings, and strikes and lockouts and to serve and secure citizens’ lives and assets during these events.

*Terrorism departments*: Units responsible for preventing and investigating terrorist activities, apprehending terrorists and transferring all known terrorists to court (Yasar, 1996).

**Measurement of the Concepts**

The researcher proposes to determine how law enforcement administrators may possibly prevent use of excessive police force in Turkey through a survey designed to examine the attitudes of police officers. Data consist of demographic variables and general and job satisfaction questions in addition to specific items related to law and order, right to life, use of excessive force, and brutal and inhumane treatment.

The reliability or consistency of each scale is analyzed through computing Cronbach’s alpha. Thus, to measure each set of questions in order to create a variable, the researcher employed Cronbach’s alpha defined by Santos (1999) as “an index of
reliability associated with the variation accounted for by the true score of the ‘underlying construct’ (Para. 7)”. An alpha value of 0.7+ has been accepted as a threshold value indicating acceptable reliability (Nunnally, 1978).

Endogenous (Dependent) Variable: Police Officers’ Attitudes toward Halting the Use of Excessive Force

Police officers’ attitude toward halting the use of excessive force is a latent variable. The endogenous variable will consist of two scales—attitudes toward use of force and attitude toward brutality scales—and will be measured in two parts as shown in Table 7 located at the end of this chapter.

The excessive use of police force scale consists of eleven questions. Cronbach’s alpha for the attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force scale, $\alpha=0.80$, will be accepted as reliable. Attitudes toward halting use of excessive force scale is measured by asking eleven questions and structuring the answers on a five-point Likert type scale where 1=totally disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, and 5=totally agree.

Attitudes toward brutality scale includes twelve questions. With a cronbach alpha level $\alpha=0.85$, the brutality scale will also be accepted as reliable. Attitudes toward brutality scale is also structured on a five-point Likert type scale where responses will consist of 1=totally disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, and 5=totally agree.

Exogenous (Independent and Control) Variables

Demographic Variables.

*Job profile.* As previously discussed, the survey was conducted in two areas of Turkey using four different active units of city police departments—police stations, riot,
public order and terrorism units—whereby officers directly interact with citizens and contend with suspects. Job profile is defined as the type of daily routine duties that police officers perform, for example, checking suspect(s) identity (ies), controlling traffic, and so forth (Manzoni & Eisner, 2006). Based on the responsibilities of Turkey’s terrorism and riot units, police officers assigned to these departments are expected to be more prone to use excessive force than other units. As a brief explanation, in terrorism departments, terrorist suspects are investigated and officers attempt to prevent their terrorist activities, whereas in riot departments, police are confronted with both legal and illegal meetings, demonstrations and riots. Job profile will be created as a dummy variable by using police stations as a reference group.

City where officers are employed. This research was conducted in two large cities of Turkey that are dissimilar in terms of GDP per capita, illiteracy rates, terrorist activities, population, and so forth. 0= Ankara, 1= Diyarbakir

Gender. The sample comprises of 96.5 percent male and 3.5 percent female sworn police officers who serve in the Turkish National Police. Gender is coded as 0= Male, 1= Female.

Age. Respondents are ranged in age from 20 to 54 years, and the variable is measured at the interval-ratio level.

Maritaldummy. The marital status of respondents is a dummy coded variable. It is coded as 0= married and 1= Others (single and separated).

Rank. The ranks in TNP will be listed under six categories: 1= constable, 2= deputy lieutenant, 3= lieutenant, 4= captain, 5= police superintendent and 6= chief of police. In addition, the chief of police rank will consist of four sub-ranks: 4th degree, 3rd
degree, 2nd degree, and 1st degree chief of police in which the 1st degree is the highest. However, all of these degree ranks are referred to as chief of police.

*Education.* The education levels will be coded based on the respondents’ last graduation from 1= junior high school, 2= high school, 3= a two year junior college, 4= police academy/college, 5= masters, or 6= PhD.

*Years of service.* Service years in the Turkish National Police organization will be numerically coded as at the interval-ratio level.

General and Job Satisfaction Questions

*General question.* The survey instrument includes one general question: “What do you consider to be the most important root cause of brutality and abuse in Turkey?” By posing this question, the researcher intends to capture the police officers’ beliefs concerning the root causes leading to use of excessive force and brutality. Referring to Table 7, twelve general reasons are listed, and upon close examination of these responses, they are expected to yield three categories compatible with police brutality theories. Therefore, the researcher will recode the responses that, in turn, will produce three new variables that will be used in the analysis: *organizational factors, situational factors and individual factors* (Table 7).

Individual factors will be comprised of four statements, situational factors will consist of five statements and organizational factors will include three statements. Thus, the researcher will create two dummy variables— situational factors and individual factors –to compare the effects of these variables on police use of excessive force, and organizational factors will be selected as the comparison group.
Police job satisfaction. Police job satisfaction will be measured by five questions derived from the literature and structured on a five-point Likert type scale: 1=totally disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, and 5=totally agree. The cronbach’s alpha for this latent variable indicates α=0.77 reliability. Although a review of the literature revealed that job satisfaction was measured through posing only one or two questions, this researcher prefers to use more than two questions.

Attitudes toward Human Rights (HR) Laws. Attitudes toward human rights (HR) laws is a latent variable that constitutes fourteen items. The reliability or consistency analysis yields a Cronbach alpha of α=0.76 accepted as reliable based on Nunnally’s (1978) 0.7+ threshold and structured according to Likert’s five-point scale: 1=totally disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, and 5=totally agree.

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

The main purpose of this research is to investigate the underlying causes of police use of excessive force in Turkey. To analyze the data, this researcher will utilize structural equation modeling (SEM) defined as a comprehensive statistical method to test hypotheses among latent and observed variables (Hoyle, 1995). Structural equation modeling “has become a widely used method for specifying, estimating and testing hypothesized interrelationships among substantively meaningful variables in the behavioral and social sciences” (Raykov, Tomer & Nesselroade, 1991, p. 499). Structural equation modeling has two important components that consist of structural equations and measurement models. The hypothesized causal structure among latent, or unobserved variables, are specified in the structural model, whereas the relationship between observed variables and the unobserved, or latent variables, are determined in
the pictorially enabled models or measurement models (Fassinger, 1987). In other
words, “the casual processes under study are represented by a series of structural
equations, and these structural relations can be modeled pictorially to enable a clearer
conceptualization of the theory under study” (Byrne, 2001, p. 3).

Ullman (2001) described SEM as a combination of factor analysis, path analysis
and multiple regressions but is, however, different from multiple regression analysis in
some ways. Byrne (2001) pointed out the differences between SEM and other
multivariate procedures as follows. The first difference is that SEM is a confirmatory
approach to the data analysis that gives researchers the patterns of intervariable
relations. Assessing and correcting for measurement error is the second difference that
traditional multivariate procedures are incapable of performing, but SEM is capable of
doing this. Unlike traditional multivariate methods that analyze observed measurements,
SEM analyzes both observed and unobserved (latent) variables and is capable of
estimating indirect effects.

Kline and Klammer (2001) compared path models analyzed with OLS regression
and SEM. Assessing the whole system of variables simultaneously was the most basic
advantage of SEM for these researchers. They clarified this fundamental advantage of
SEM over regression by a comparison between bivariate and multivariate correlations.
Bivariate correlations show the relationship between two variables, whereas more than
two independent variables are correlated with a dependent variable in multivariate
correlations. The relationship between the two variables may exist in bivariate
correlations; however, this correlation may increase in multivariate correlations since
other variables join in the analysis. Kline and Klammer pointed out that the same
concept is valid for the differences between SEM and OLS regression. In other words, SEM analyzes all the variables in one model. Finally, Kline and Klammer indicated that SEM’s modification index is another important difference. A modification index provides guidelines to assess suitable paths for the best fitting model by allowing modifications of the model by correcting paths that allow the researcher to find the best fitting model.

According to Farrell (1994), testing models regarding latent variables is the main advantages of SEM. Latent variables are theoretical constructs that cannot be observed directly, for example, job satisfaction, motivation and stress. Farrell further pointed out other SEM features that include analyzing all the variables simultaneously and testing the overall model’s fit to the data.

Although SEM has two components—the measurement model and the structural model—the measurement model presents the relations between the latent variable and its indicators, which are manifest (measured) variables.

The second component of SEM is the structural model that defines the possible causal relationships among latent exogenous and endogenous variables. Exogenous variables cause variations in the values of endogenous variables. Further, in SEM, exogenous variables are independent variables whereas endogenous variables are dependent variables (Byrne, 2001). “When the measurement and structural components are combined, the result is a comprehensive statistical model that can be used to evaluate relations among variables that are free of measurement error” (Hoyle, 1995, p. 3).
Analytic Strategy

AMOS 16.0 and SPSS-15 software will be used to perform the analysis. A correlation matrix is first be estimated to explore the relationship between variables used in the study that helps to examine any bivariate relationships among variables. Descriptive statistics including means, standard deviations, frequencies, and percentages relating to the variables are then be investigated to better grasp the sample’s characteristics.

This study includes three latent variables: the endogenous variable of attitudes toward halting the police use of excessive force, the exogenous variables of police job satisfaction and attitudes toward human rights (HR) laws. A measurement model for each latent variable is developed and validated by confirmatory factor analysis.

Finally, in analyzing the measurement model, a structural equation model is examined by employing a two-step approach that initially requires the researcher to test the measurement portion of the model. When the model fits based on goodness-of-fit statistics, then the theorized SEM is tested.

Conclusion of the Chapter

This study employs a secondary data collected in Turkey. The data includes attitudes of Turkish police officers toward use of excessive force which is the endogenous (dependent) variable, attitudes toward HR laws, their job satisfaction levels, and also demographic characteristics which are exogenous (independent) variables. The model examines the affect of police officers job satisfaction level and their attitudes toward HR laws as well as the demographic variables on the attitudes of
police officers toward use of excessive force. Structural equation analysis is used to analyze the data and the proposed model.
### Table 7

**Dependent and Independent Variables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Operationalization Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Police officers’ attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force</td>
<td>Dependent Variable (Scale) • Attitudes toward use of excessive force</td>
<td>1) In certain circumstances in which using a gun might be appropriate, police should first warn the suspect(s) and fire a signal shot.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11 questions</td>
<td>2) The aim of the police should not be fatally injuring the suspects while using force.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3) Police should use minimum force that can prevent the current danger and threat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4) Police use of force should not result in more severe danger and harm than the illegal threat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5) I believe that police should not use force as a tool to intimidate potential suspects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6) The basic principle of police use of force should be &quot;avoiding the use of force that is no more than absolutely necessary.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7) I believe that the use of force should cease as soon as the suspect has been neutralized.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8) If someone is shot due to police use of force, an investigation should reveal if its use was legal and proportional or arbitrary fair.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9) Increasing the authority of police use of force makes it more difficult to determine if the police use the authority arbitrarily and unlawfully or lawfully.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10) I believe that assassinating people who are either known terrorists or support terrorism as an appropriate tool for a state to struggle with terrorism is wrong.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11) I agree with the notion that police should conduct an effective investigation after a suspicious death event even if the person whose right to life had been violated and killed is a member of a terrorist organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measurement</td>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>Operationalization Questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Police officers’ attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force</td>
<td>Dependent Variable (Scale)</td>
<td>1) It is not proof of committing a crime if the suspect uses the right to remain silent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2) For me, any kind of intervention to a suspect’s free-will that may prevent free expression is wrong.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3) Respecting the rights of suspects is more important than solving the crime.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4) The fact that improperly obtained evidence is not valid in the judicial process helps to prevent brutality and misconduct.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5) Although it could help to solve crime mysteries, I am opposed to disregarding the law to obtain information from suspects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6) I believe that unlawful methods to solve a crime mystery cause more harm than benefits.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7) I am opposed to the use of brutality as a means to reduce or solve crime.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8) Even if police have strong evidence that the suspect committed a crime, they should not act with a tendency to punish the suspect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9) A suspect who is brutalized may confess to a crime even if he/she is innocent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10) I believe that both management and judicial institutions should not protect public employees who brutalize.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11) In my opinion, the brutal and misconduct cases occurring in Turkey are not the result of a lack of policies and regulations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12) In my opinion, the root causes of brutality and misconduct cases in Turkey are solely the result of wrong or arbitrary actions of some public employees.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table continues)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Operationalization Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Job Satisfaction  | Independent Variable: (Scale) | 1) Given the opportunity, I would like to work in the same department again.  
2) Given the opportunity, I would like to be a police officer again.  
3) I like my job.  
4) I want my child to become a police officer.  
5) I have good relations with my colleagues. |
| Attitudes toward HR laws | Independent Variable: (Scale) | 1) I think that the European Court of Human Rights (ECHR) is a neutral court and decides objectively.  
2) The law of Human Rights protects criminals to a greater extent rather than victims.  
3) NGOs such as the Human Rights Association of Turkey, Victims Association of Turkey and Amnesty Turkey are useful in helping citizens to do proper work in protecting individual rights.  
4) I do not believe the claim that the law is protecting the suspects and defendants more than enough.  
5) Human rights law should protect the rights of suspects and defendants even if it steps on the rights of law enforcement agents.  
6) It is never appropriate for a democratic country to limit and intervene in an individual's rights for the sake of security.  
7) Police have all the tools they need to solve crimes without violating human rights.  
8) I believe that police should not use the methods of terrorist and organized crime organizations while fighting with criminals.  
9) I do not think that citizens would want to cooperate with police when they act arbitrarily and unlawfully. |
Table 7 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Operationalization Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>Independent Variable: (Scale)</td>
<td>10) States should take concrete precautions to protect the right to life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toward HR laws</td>
<td></td>
<td>11) In terms of right to life, the decisions of the European Courts of Human Rights against Turkey are generally fair.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12) European Courts of Human Rights was important for preventing torture to exist in Turkey by its decisions against Turkey.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13) European Committee for the Prevention of Torture was important for preventing torture to exist in Turkey by its reports and recommendations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>14) By allowing the State to receive reimbursement from public employees for unnecessary lawsuits, torture by public employees will be reduced.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QUESTION:</td>
<td>What do you consider to be the most important root cause of brutality and abuse?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual factors</td>
<td>Independent Variable: (dummy)</td>
<td>* immediate execution due to the belief that the judicial system will not decide a fair punishment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>* because of stress due to financial problems and overload</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>* because of inadequate education of police officers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>* because of individual and family-based problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational factors</td>
<td>Independent Variable: (dummy)</td>
<td>* pressure from public and police chiefs dictating “solve the crime as soon as possible”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>* because of the desire not to be embarrassing to superiors and benefit ultimately from promotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>* because of employees’ lack of control by their managers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Table 7 (Continued)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Operationalization Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Situational factors** | **Independent Variable: (dummy)** | *to derive confession from a suspect due to lack of evidence*  
* because of reactions against the crimes which are against the State and its unity (seriousness of the offence)  
* to prevent any information that the plaintiff, a person who attends to the lawsuit, or a witness may reveal  
* to ensure someone to be a witness regarding a committed crime  
* because of ethnic discrimination |
| **Job profile (department)** | **Independent Variable** | *police stations*  
*riot police department  
*public order department  
*terrorism department |
| **City that officers work** | **Independent Variable** | *Ankara*  
*Diyarbakir* |
| **Gender**        | **Independent Variable** |                                                                                                                                   |
| **Age**           | **Independent Variable** |                                                                                                                                   |
| **Marital dummy** | **Independent Variable** | *married*  
*others (single and separated)* |
| **Service year**  | **Independent Variable** |                                                                                                                                   |

(Table continues)
Table 7 (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Operationalization Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rank</strong></td>
<td><strong>Independent Variable</strong></td>
<td>constable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>deputy lieutenant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>lieutenant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>captain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>police superintendent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>chief of police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td><strong>Independent Variable</strong></td>
<td>junior high school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>high school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>two year's junior college</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>police academy/college</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>masters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PhD</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

This study presents results that test the effects of control and exogenous variables on the endogenous variable. The endogenous variable, attitude toward halting the use of excessive force, and exogenous variables, job satisfaction, and attitudes toward human rights (HR) laws, are latent variables. This chapter presents the findings of structural equation model (SEM) regarding testing these hypotheses. After introducing the descriptive analysis of all of the variables in the research, a correlation matrix showing the bivariate correlations of all variables is presented. A two-step approach is employed in this study to run the SEM. In other words, in the first step the hybrid model is estimated as a confirmatory factor analysis model with correlations among all the factors. This helps to detect the problems with the measurement model. The second step helps to examine the problems with the structural portion of the model. The second step estimates the best fitting measurement model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Yoder, 2009).

Threshold Values for Statistical Analysis

*Significance Level:* The customary significance level of $P < 0.05$ was chosen for this study. The chance of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true is set as 0.05 in this study, which means the findings and decisions are at the 95 percent confident level (Spiegel & Stephens, 1999).

*Factor Loadings:* Regression coefficients indicating the correlation between latent factors and measured variables are factor loadings. “These coefficients are important...
because they signify the nature of the variables that most strongly relate to a factor; the nature of the variables helps to capture the nature and the meaning of a factor” (Cappelleri & Gerber, 2003, p.344). According to the parsimony principle, which indicates that the best answer is the simplest answer to a question, an essential part of hypothesis testing is the process of model simplification; including as few parameters as possible in the model is a way of model simplification process (Crawley, 2005). Therefore, the indicators that best measure the construct should be kept. Although there is no precise cut-off rule to eliminate low loading factors, Malthouse (2001) suggested “the magnitude of the factor loading must be at least 0.30” (p. 81). However he stressed that it is a subjective standard and depends on some issues such as the sample size, the feature of the study like if it is an exploratory study or not. For example, in some cases where the factor loadings are below the 0.30, the researcher should carefully evaluate the indicators based on the theory used in the research. Based on these explanations and the characteristics of this study, Malthouse’s threshold is employed, but in some cases low values are accepted based on the theories in the literature review.

Descriptive Analysis

SEM analysis requires handling missing values in the data for the probability density since “SEM models are based on the premise that the covariance matrix follows a Wishart distribution” (Byrne, 2001, p.289). The secondary data employed in this study had some missing values. Two methods were used to handle the missing data: listwise deletion and imputation. Listwise deletion excludes any cases in the dataset that has a missing value in one or more variables. After computing the listwise deletion, the
sample size, with no missing values, reduced from 1001 to 914. SEM analyses were computed by using this sample of 914 with no missing values.

Then, the imputation method was then employed to handle the missing values. Imputation simply means replacing the missing values with the series mean or with some estimated values like the mode. Imputation handles the missing values without losing any cases; therefore, the sample size was 1001 after imputation. The SEM analyses were also computed after replacing the missing values with the mean of the series. Since there were no significant differences between the results of both analyses, I decided to use replacing the missing values with the mean of the series method to handle the missing data in order to keep the sample size at 1001.

Descriptive Statistics for Control Variables

Descriptive statistics for this study are presented in three different tables for control variables, exogenous and endogenous variables. Table 8 shows the descriptive statistics for control variables. Control variables are basically demographic characteristics of the sample. Therefore, it is rational to introduce these characteristics initially. The survey conducted in two large cities of Turkey, Ankara and Diyarbakir. Some information on these both cities is presented in the methodology section. Of the respondents, 68.5 percent were police officers working in the city of Ankara, the capital of Turkey. The number of respondents working in the city of Diyarbakir was 315, a percentage of 31.5. The youngest respondent is 20 years old while the oldest is 54 years old; the sample average is 32 years (SD=6.3). Service year shows the experience of the police officers. With a 9.7 years average service (SD=6.3) in TNP, the
most experienced respondent worked 31 years while the least experienced one worked only one year.

Table 8

*Descriptive Statistics for Control Variables*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1- Age</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- Service Year</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Male</td>
<td>895</td>
<td>89.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Female</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- Marital Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Married</td>
<td>818</td>
<td>81.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Single</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Separated</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Widow</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Married but living Separate</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- City</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>-Junior High S.</td>
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<td>-Riot PD</td>
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<tr>
<td>-Terrorism PD</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>-Police stations</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td></td>
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</table>
The sample is predominantly male with 89.4 percent male and 10.6 percent female population. However, this ratio also reflects the ratio of the population of police officers working in both cities (as mentioned in the sampling issue above in the methodology chapter).

Married respondents comprise 81.7 percent of the sample, while the single are 16.9 percent. Since TNP has almost 90 percent officers with no rank and only 10 percent police managers, ranked between deputy lieutenants through chief of police, the sample also reflects this distribution. The officer percentage of the sample is 83.8, and the police manager percentage is 16.2.

The education level of the sample mainly clusters around the high school and 2-year junior college level (54.4 and 24.8 percent respectively). Almost 20 percent of the respondents graduated from either the Turkish National Police Academy, which is a 4-year faculty that offers a bachelor degree in criminal justice, or other freestanding colleges.

Job profiles of the respondents reflect their daily routine tasks. Since department names in TNP are given based on their routine tasks, the names of the departments also reflect respondents' job profiles. Accordingly, almost 40 percent of the respondents are working in police stations. Riot police departments comprise 27.4 percents of the respondents. Public order and terrorism police departments are almost same in terms of percentages of the respondents (16.7 percent and 16.6 percent respectively).
Descriptive Statistics for Exogenous Variables

Exogenous variables are the independent variables; job satisfaction, attitude toward HR laws. Individual, situational and organizational factors are dummy coded exogenous variables in which organizational factors are the reference group. Table 9 shows the descriptive statistics for these exogenous variables.

Table 9

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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<td>3.1</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Law13</td>
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<td>3- Individual factors (Dummy)</td>
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<td>5- Organizational factors</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Dummy)</td>
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</table>
Job satisfaction is a latent variable, and it comprises five questions. Based on the averages of the means of these five questions, Turkish police officers are, on average, somewhat satisfied with their jobs (means on individual items range from 2.5 to 4.4; overall average on the 5 questions is 3.4 on a 5-point Likert scale). Likewise, attitude toward HR laws is also a latent variable including fourteen questions. Overall, Turkish police officers, on average, have somewhat positive attitudes toward HR laws (means on individual items range from 2.3 to 4.2; overall average on the 14 questions is 3.1 on a 5-point Likert scale). Both latent variables are structured with a five point likert scale ranging from 1= totally disagree to 5= totally agree.

Individual, situational and organizational variables are coded as dummies from the answers to the general question “What do you consider to be the most important root cause of brutality and abuse in Turkey?” The answers for this question are categorized in three groups, and the three dummy coded variables are created. The majority of respondents (32.7 percent) consider individual factors as the most important root cause of brutality and abuse in Turkey, while 23.9 percent of them consider it as the situational factors.

The reference group, organizational factors, comprises only 11 percent of the considerations of the respondents. The initial descriptive statistics for this question resulted in 676 answers and 325 missing. Therefore, only the valid answers are used to classify these three dummy coded variables5. Consequently, the total percentage of these three variables is 67.6.

---

5 The analyses are computed by using these three dummy coded variables. However, there were 325 missing values in the original question in which these dummy variables created. These missing values are also checked if they cause any bias for the further analysis; another missing dummy variable was created for the missing cases and this dummy coded variable were also included in the analysis. The
Descriptive Statistics for the Endogenous Variable

The endogenous (dependent) variable in this study is police officers’ attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. The endogenous variable is a latent variable constructed with 23 questions. All these questions can be classified under two headings: attitudes toward use of force, and attitudes toward brutality. All of these questions are constructed with a five point likert scale ranging from 1= totally disagree to 5= totally agree. Positive attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force simply means that respondents are respectful to human rights, and they are not in favor of using excessive force in any case. On the other side, negative attitudes toward use of excessive force simply means that respondents are not respectful to human rights, and they are more likely to be in favor of using excessive force in policing.

Table 10 shows the descriptive statistics for the endogenous variables. The mean value of most construct questions clusters around 3.5 and 4. It reflects that most of the respondents are respectful to human rights and most of them are not in favor of using excessive force.

---

results of the SEM analysis did not change with and without this missing dummy variable. The only change occurred in the p-value of situational dummy variable. The p-value for this variable before adding the missing dummy variable was .047. After adding the missing dummy variable in the analysis the p-value of the situational dummy variable became .389. Since adding or excluding the missing dummy variable did not dramatically change the results, this missing dummy variable is excluded in the further analysis. Thus, missing values included in the reference category of organizational factors.
Table 10

Descriptive Statistics for the Endogenous Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<td>1-Attitude toward Halting</td>
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<td>0.9</td>
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<td>the Use of Excessive</td>
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<td>4.6</td>
<td>5.0</td>
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<td>5.0</td>
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<td>2.0</td>
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</table>

(refer to Table 7 for the explanations of the indicators of Attitude toward Halting the Use of Excessive Force)
Bivariate Correlations

A correlation matrix table for all of the manifest variables (excluding those that are part of the latent variables that have already been described) is presented in table 11. The matrix shows the Pearson correlation and 2-tailed significance values, and they represent the relationships between only two variables at a time. The matrix also provides an initial check for possible multicollinearity problems. According to the results, the only multicollinearity problem looks like between the variables service year and age \( r=0.880, p= 0.01 \). Both variables are continuous variables and appear to be related with each other. However, as each measure a different concept, both variables will be kept as is in the analysis.

Significant correlations between age and terrorism and riot police departments shows one of the general policies of TNP. Negative and significant correlation between age and riot police department reflects that police officers working in the riot department are newly graduated and naïve police officers \( r= -0.497, p= 0.01 \). As a general policy, newly graduated police officers are assigned to work in the riot departments since this department deals with demonstrations and public activities like concerts, soccer games, etc. Officers are generally assigned to terrorism departments only after they have achieved some experience in TNP. A positive significant correlation reflects that officers working in the terrorism departments are older \( r= 0.178, p= 0.01 \). The correlations between these departments and service year also reflects and support these explanations \( r= -0.570, p= 0.01 \) for riot department, and \( r= 0.189, p= 0.01 \) for terrorism department).
Another significant correlation is between graduate (education level) and terrorism department \((r= 0.123, p= 0.01)\). The more educated officers are working in terrorism department. It is interesting that there is a negative significant relationship between graduate and service year \((r= -0.155, p=0.01)\). Senior police officers are expected to have higher levels of education; however, this negative relationship points to the educational reform in TNP. Initially the basic education for constables was six months. Over time, it was increased to 9 months. Finally, in 2001, police schools are restructured as 2-year vocational schools under the Turkish National Police Academy, which is a 4-year faculty providing criminal justice bachelors’ degree to ranked police administrators. Therefore, younger constables after 2001 graduated from 2-years police vocational higher schools instead of six or nine-month education.

Individual and situational factors are dummy variables, which reflect the opinions of respondents about the main root cause of police use of excessive force in Turkey. Noteworthy findings about these variables are their relationships between police officers’ job profiles. While respondents from riot department tend to think that the root cause of police use of excessive force in Turkey is the individual factors \((r= 0.107, p= 0.01)\), respondents from both public order and terrorism department tend to think that it is the situational factors \((r= 0.089, p= 0.01 \text{ and } r= 0.172, p= 0.01 \text{ respectively})\).
### Table 11

**Correlation Matrix for Manifest Variables**

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</tr>
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<td>.120(**)</td>
<td>.074(*)</td>
<td>.123(**)</td>
<td>-.122(**)</td>
<td>-.089(**)</td>
<td>-.200(**)</td>
<td>.181(**)</td>
<td>-.274(**)</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Latent variables, attitudes toward halting the police use of excessive force, job satisfaction, and attitudes toward HR laws will be subjected to confirmatory factor analysis one by one and then all of them together will be subjected to a confirmatory factor analysis.

CFA for Attitude toward Halting the Use of Excessive Force

The latent construct of attitude toward halting the use of excessive force is an endogenous variable in this study. Twenty-three indicators were developed to measure the attitudes of police officers toward use of excessive force. These indicators are classified under two headings; attitude toward use of force and attitude toward brutality (refer to table 7). Attitude toward use of force indicators are shown as F1 to F11 and attitudes toward brutality indicators are shown as T1 to T12 in the analysis. Using a five-point Likert scale ranging from “totally disagree” to “totally agree” respondents were asked to indicate their attitudes.

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to validate the measurement model of this latent construct using AMOS 7.0 statistical software. Figure 1 shows the revised measurement model for the attitude toward halting the use of excessive force.

In the first step of confirmatory factor analysis, critical ratios were examined to identify statistically significant and insignificant items in the model. Critical ratio is “the statistic formed by dividing an estimate by its standard error” (Hox & Bechger, 1998, p. 4). For a value to be significant at the customary 0.05 level, the critical ratio must be 1.96 or higher or -1.96 or lower.
Figure 3. CFA for attitude toward halting the use of excessive force
For my model, examination of the regression weights showed that all the critical ratios were higher than 1.96, which indicated statistically significant relationships at the 5 percent level (\( \text{CR} \geq \pm 1.96, p \leq 0.05 \)). Factor loadings were examined to determine the strong and weak correlations between the latent constructs and its indicators. Factor loadings are linear regression coefficients represented by the arrows from the latent construct to the indicators.

Only one indicator, F9, had low standardized factor loading which is under the 0.3 cutoff value. Hence, it was excluded from further analysis. As seen in Figure 3, all other items had positive loadings. The proposed model, which proposes no relation between error terms, did not fit well. Therefore, the modification indices were used to identify paths to improve model fit. “The value of a given modification index is the minimum amount that the chi-square statistic is expected to decrease if the corresponding parameter is freed” (Hox & Bechger, 1998, p. 9). Guided by theoretical considerations, measurement error terms were allowed to be correlated. At each step, one pair of error terms that indicated the largest improvement in model fit was allowed to covary. The same process was repeated until achieving a reasonably good model fit.

All regression coefficients were statistically significant at \( p \leq 0.001 \) level, both in the generic and in the final models. Parameter estimates for both generic and revised models are provided in Table 12.
### Table 12

**Parameter Estimates for Generic and Revised Models of Attitude toward Halting the Use of Excessive Force**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>GENERIC MODEL</th>
<th></th>
<th>REVISED MODEL</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UFL</td>
<td>SFL</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>CR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.387</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2</td>
<td>1.078</td>
<td>0.544</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>10.569</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3</td>
<td>1.205</td>
<td>0.570</td>
<td>0.134</td>
<td>10.770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4</td>
<td>1.632</td>
<td>0.438</td>
<td>0.171</td>
<td>9.538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F5</td>
<td>1.507</td>
<td>0.585</td>
<td>0.138</td>
<td>10.881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F6</td>
<td>1.560</td>
<td>0.575</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>10.807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F7</td>
<td>0.811</td>
<td>0.232</td>
<td>0.130</td>
<td>6.224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F10</td>
<td>1.704</td>
<td>0.518</td>
<td>0.165</td>
<td>10.350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F11</td>
<td>1.675</td>
<td>0.506</td>
<td>0.164</td>
<td>10.235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>1.333</td>
<td>0.452</td>
<td>0.137</td>
<td>9.694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>1.641</td>
<td>0.661</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>11.359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T3</td>
<td>1.577</td>
<td>0.469</td>
<td>0.160</td>
<td>9.876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T4</td>
<td>1.613</td>
<td>0.502</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td>10.205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5</td>
<td>1.768</td>
<td>0.550</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>10.613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T6</td>
<td>1.760</td>
<td>0.598</td>
<td>0.160</td>
<td>10.968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T7</td>
<td>1.963</td>
<td>0.688</td>
<td>0.171</td>
<td>11.501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T8</td>
<td>1.622</td>
<td>0.641</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>11.244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T9</td>
<td>1.528</td>
<td>0.490</td>
<td>0.151</td>
<td>10.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T10</td>
<td>1.569</td>
<td>0.483</td>
<td>0.157</td>
<td>10.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T11</td>
<td>1.410</td>
<td>0.462</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>9.806</td>
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<tr>
<td>T12</td>
<td>1.567</td>
<td>0.461</td>
<td>0.160</td>
<td>9.797</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ***Correlation significant @ p ≤ .001

U.F.L.          Unstandardized Factor Loading
S.F.L.          Standardized Factor Loading
S.E.            Standard Error
C.R.            Critical Ratio

Goodness-of-fit statistics for both generic and final measurement models are documented in Table 13. Although it is influenced by sample size, the overall chi-square statistic is very popular in terms of goodness of fit. Its ratio to degrees of freedom ($x^2$/df) should be 3, or less for a good fit. Normed fit index (NFI) and comparative fit index (CFI)
evaluate the improvement in fit between the null model of independence and the proposed model. The threshold value for NFI and CFI should be 0.90 or greater for a better fit. The value of 0.90 or greater is also necessary for a good fit in terms of the goodness of fit index (GFI), which indicates the proportion of variability in the covariance matrix explained by the model. The root-mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) should be 0.05 or smaller. Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) should be 0.90 or greater for a good fit. Hoelter 0.01 index or Hoelter’s critical N should be greater than 200 (Byrne, 2001; Dunn, Whalton and Sharpe, 2006; Schreiber et all, 2006). As seen in the table, fit statistics substantially improved in the final model after the modifications.

Table 13

*Goodness of Fit Statistics for Generic and Revised Models of Attitudes toward Halting the Use of Excessive Force*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index</th>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>Generic Model</th>
<th>Revised Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square (x²)</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>2142.861</td>
<td>644.936</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees Of Freedom (df)</td>
<td>≥.0</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>187</td>
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<tr>
<td>Probability</td>
<td>≥.05</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio (x² /df)</td>
<td>&lt;3</td>
<td>9.317</td>
<td>3.449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)</td>
<td>&gt;.90</td>
<td>.800</td>
<td>.941</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adjusted GFI (AGFI)</td>
<td>&gt;.90</td>
<td>.760</td>
<td>.921</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)</td>
<td>&gt;.90</td>
<td>.710</td>
<td>.920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normed Fit Index (NFI)</td>
<td>&gt;.90</td>
<td>.715</td>
<td>.912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Root Mean Square Error Of Approximation (RMSEA)</td>
<td>≤.05</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probability (p or p-close)</td>
<td>≥ .05</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.572</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hoelter’s Critical N (CN)</td>
<td>&gt; 200</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>365</td>
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</table>
CFA for Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction construct was conceptualized to measure the level of satisfaction of police officers. Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert-like scale. The model represented in Figure 4 was subjected to confirmatory factor analysis by using AMOS version 7.

The job satisfaction construct has only five indicators, and the model has 5 degrees of freedom. There was no need for improvement because goodness of fit statistics shows an excellent fit of the data to the model.
Parameter estimates for the model shown in Table 14. Goodness of fit statistics is shown in Table 15.

Table 14

Parameter Estimates for Job Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Job Satisfaction</th>
<th>U.F.L</th>
<th>S.F.L</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>P</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JS1</td>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>3.388</td>
<td>0.514</td>
<td>7.805</td>
<td>7.806</td>
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<tr>
<td>JS2</td>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>5.505</td>
<td>0.890</td>
<td>0.646</td>
<td>8.519</td>
<td>***</td>
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<tr>
<td>JS3</td>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>4.129</td>
<td>0.767</td>
<td>0.489</td>
<td>8.438</td>
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<tr>
<td>JS4</td>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>4.178</td>
<td>0.688</td>
<td>0.503</td>
<td>8.305</td>
<td>***</td>
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<tr>
<td>JS5</td>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.284</td>
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<td></td>
<td>***</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Note: ***Correlation significant @ p ≤ 0.001

U.F.L. Unstandardized Factor Loading
S.F.L. Standardized Factor Loading
S.E. Standard Error
C.R. Critical Ratio

Table 14 shows that the standardized factor loading for the JS5 indicator is below the 0.3 threshold (0.284). This indicator measures the satisfaction with colleagues in the same job. It was asked “I have good relations with my colleagues”. This measure has been used in the job satisfaction literature like this or in similar formats as designed in JDI as satisfaction with work environment (Reiss, 1967; Zhao, Thurman and He, 1999).
Since the factor loading of this indicator is very close to 0.3 threshold, and it had been used in the literature, it was decided to keep this indicator in the analysis.

Table 15

*Goodness of Fit Estimates for Job Satisfaction*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index</th>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>Generic Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square ((x^2))</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>15.938</td>
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<tr>
<td>Degrees Of Freedom (df)</td>
<td>(\geq 0)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probability</td>
<td>(\geq 0.05)</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio ((x^2/df))</td>
<td>&lt;3</td>
<td>3.188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)</td>
<td>&gt;.90</td>
<td>.993</td>
</tr>
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<td>Adjusted GFI (AGFI)</td>
<td>&gt;.90</td>
<td>.980</td>
</tr>
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<td>&gt;.90</td>
<td>.985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normed Fit Index (NFI)</td>
<td>&gt;.90</td>
<td>.989</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Root Mean Square Error Of Approximation (RMSEA)</td>
<td>(\leq 0.05)</td>
<td>.047</td>
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<tr>
<td>Probability(p or p-close)</td>
<td>(\geq 0.05)</td>
<td>.532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hoelter's Critical N (CN)</td>
<td>&gt; 200</td>
<td>947</td>
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</table>
CFA for Attitude toward HR Laws

Attitude toward HR law was conceptualized as a latent construct measuring the attitudes of police officers toward human rights laws by fourteen indicators. Law1 through law14 were indicators of the attitudes toward HR laws latent construct. Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale. Higher levels of indicators were associated with higher levels of respect to or positive attitudes toward HR laws. The model was subjected to confirmatory factor analysis by using AMOS version 7.

The critical ratios (CR) for all of the observed variables in the regression showed significant relationships at \( p \leq 0.001 \) (CR \( \geq 1.96 \)). Factor loadings from each indicator to attitude toward HR law construct was higher than the 0.3 threshold except the indicators 4, 9 and 10. These indicators were then checked. Since there is not enough literature about attitudes of police officers toward HR laws, these indicators could not be backed up and decided to be excluded from the analysis because of having low factor loadings (SFL<0.3).
Table 16

Parameter Estimates for Generic and Revised Models of Attitude toward HR Laws

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>GENERIC MODEL</th>
<th></th>
<th>MEASURED MODEL</th>
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<td></td>
<td>UFL</td>
<td>SFL</td>
<td>S.E.</td>
<td>C.R.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.393</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>.987</td>
<td>.357</td>
<td>.120</td>
<td>8.206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L3</td>
<td>1.027</td>
<td>.396</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>8.735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L4</td>
<td>.396</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>3.772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L5</td>
<td>.846</td>
<td>.339</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>7.936</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L6</td>
<td>.911</td>
<td>.320</td>
<td>.119</td>
<td>7.644</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L7</td>
<td>.842</td>
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</tr>
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<td>L9</td>
<td>.555</td>
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<tr>
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<td>11.494</td>
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<td>11.508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L14</td>
<td>1.650</td>
<td>.670</td>
<td>.149</td>
<td>11.060</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ***Correlation significant @ p ≤ .001
U.F.L.      Unstandardized Factor Loading
S.F.L.      Standardized Factor Loading
S.E.        Standard Error
C.R.        Critical Ratio

Measurement errors were allowed to be correlated by using modification index

where goodness of fit statistics was promoted to make the better fit of model. The modified model is demonstrated in Figure 5. All critical ratios were statistically significant at p ≤ .001 in the revised model like the generic model. Table 16 demonstrates the reported results.
Figure 5. CFA for attitude toward HR laws
Goodness of fit statistics for both models is provided in Table 17. Fit statistics improved in the modified model. Goodness of fit statistics for the modified model indicates excellent fit of the measurement model to the data.

Table 17

**Goodness of Fit Statistics for Generic and Revised Models of Attitudes toward HR Laws**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index</th>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>Generic Model</th>
<th>Revised Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square (χ²)</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>848.872</td>
<td>144.151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees Of Freedom (df)</td>
<td>≥.0</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probability</td>
<td>≥.05</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio (χ² /df)</td>
<td>&lt;4</td>
<td>11.024</td>
<td>3.604</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)</td>
<td>&gt;.90</td>
<td>.856</td>
<td>.974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted GFI (AGFI)</td>
<td>&gt;.90</td>
<td>.803</td>
<td>.957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)</td>
<td>&gt;.90</td>
<td>.651</td>
<td>.941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normed Fit Index (NFI)</td>
<td>&gt;.90</td>
<td>.686</td>
<td>.942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Root Mean Square Error Of Approximation (RMSEA)</td>
<td>≤.05</td>
<td>.100</td>
<td>.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probability (p or p-close)</td>
<td>≥ .05</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.409</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hoelter’s Critical N (CN)</td>
<td>&gt; 200</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>442</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CFA for All Latent Variables

The results of individually computed CFA’s for latent variables were given above. Since this study employs the two-step model, it is required to compute the CFA’s first, and then the SEM model. After CFA’s for latent variables one by one, a combined CFA for all latent variables together are computed. The combined CFA model also includes the paths (correlations) between latent variables. The aforementioned three latent variables with their covariances in the revised model are put together in one model, and arrows were added between the latent variables in order to run the analysis. Figure 6 shows the CFAs for all latent variables.
Figure 6. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)
The proposed model fit quite well for this analysis and no modification is needed to be done. Table 18 shows the goodness of fit estimates for all latent variables.

Table 18

**Goodness of Fit Estimates for all Latent Variables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index</th>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>Generic Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square ($x^2$)</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>1875.634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees Of Freedom (df)</td>
<td>$\geq 0$</td>
<td>636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probability</td>
<td>$\geq .05$</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio ($x^2$/df)</td>
<td>$&lt; 3$</td>
<td>2.949</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)</td>
<td>$&gt;.90$</td>
<td>.904</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted GFI (AGFI)</td>
<td>$&gt;.90$</td>
<td>.888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)</td>
<td>$&gt;.90$</td>
<td>.886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normed Fit Index (NFI)</td>
<td>$&gt;.90$</td>
<td>.853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Root Mean Square Error Of Approximation (RMSEA)</td>
<td>$\leq .05$</td>
<td>.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probability(p or p-close)</td>
<td>$\geq .05$</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hoelter’s Critical N (CN)</td>
<td>$&gt; 200$</td>
<td>385</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since this analysis is based on the CFAs computed one by one above, the estimates are almost the same reported above one by one. Because of this reason, table 19 shows only the result of parameter estimates among latent variables.
### Table 19

*Parameter Estimates for CFA*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Generic Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R.W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward UEF</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ***Correlation significant @ p ≤ .001***

- R.W: Regression weights
- S.R.W: Standardized regression weights
- S.E: Standard Error
- C.R: Critical Ratio

As seen in the table all the latent variables have positive significant effects among themselves. Exogenous latent variables, job satisfaction and attitude toward HR laws, have positive and significant relationships with the endogenous variable, attitude toward halting the use of excessive force. Moreover, attitude toward HR laws has positive significant relationship with job satisfaction, too.
As the two-step approach requires, the measurement model of the three latent variables are confirmed and based on the results of these confirmations, the hypothesized structural equation model is revised. Two exogenous variables, attitudes toward HR law, job satisfaction and an endogenous variable, attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force are used to develop a generic structural equation model. This generic model also includes twelve control variables; riot police department, public order department, terrorism department, city, gender, age, marital dummy, rank, service year, graduate, individual dummy, and situational dummy.

SEM analysis for generic model yielded five out of twelve of the control variables were insignificant. The relationship between the latent endogenous variable, attitude toward halting the use of excessive force, and the control variables, city, age, gender, marital dummy, rank and service year were found statistically insignificant at $p \leq 0.05$ level. Therefore, these insignificant control variables were excluded from the model one at a time until all variables had $p$-values below 0.05. Consequently, city, graduate, riot, public order and terrorism department variables were retained in the revised model, as well as the two dummy coded situational and individual variables. SEM analysis was computed again after excluding the insignificant control variables from the model. All critical ratios were significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level for the remaining items in the revised analysis. Table 20 provides the parameter estimates for the generic and revised model.
Table 20

**Parameter Estimates for Structural Equation Model**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>GENERIC MODEL</th>
<th>REVISED MODEL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JS ← City</td>
<td>.203</td>
<td>.425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS ← graduate</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>.266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS ← Public order dept</td>
<td>-.454</td>
<td>-.760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS ← riotdept</td>
<td>-.535</td>
<td>-1.072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS ← Terrorism dept</td>
<td>-1.574</td>
<td>-2.632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS ← Attitude HR Laws</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>.287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude UEF ← Public order dept</td>
<td>-.007</td>
<td>-.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude UEF ← Individual dummy</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude UEF ← JS</td>
<td>.167</td>
<td>.124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude UEF ← Attitude HR Laws</td>
<td>.443</td>
<td>.641</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude UEF ← city</td>
<td>.079</td>
<td>.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude UEF ← graduate</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude UEF ← riotdept</td>
<td>-.024</td>
<td>-.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude UEF ← Situational dummy</td>
<td>-.044</td>
<td>-.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude UEF ← Terrorism dept</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>.044</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ***Correlation significant @ p ≤ .001
R.W. Regression weights
S.R.W. Standardized regression weights
S.E. Standard Error
C.R. Critical Ratio

Excluding the insignificant control variables from the second analysis improved the model fit. Following this step, modification indices were examined to improve the model fit. Modification indices required to correlate error terms to further improve the
model fit. Based on logical and theoretical considerations, one path at a time between error terms was added to model and the modification indices reexamined again until reaching the best fitting model. In the revised model, the goodness of fit statistics showed considerable improvement. This considerable improvement can be observed in table 21. This table shows the goodness of fit statistics for generic and revised SEM models.

Table 21

*Goodness of Fit Statistics for Generic and Revised SEM Models*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index</th>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>Generic Model</th>
<th>Revised Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square (x²)</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>2241.458</td>
<td>2220.481</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees Of Freedom (df)</td>
<td>≥.0</td>
<td>881</td>
<td>870</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probability</td>
<td>≥.05</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio (x²/df)</td>
<td>&lt;3</td>
<td>2.544</td>
<td>2.552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)</td>
<td>&gt;.90</td>
<td>.905</td>
<td>.908</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted GFI (AGFI)</td>
<td>&gt;.90</td>
<td>.889</td>
<td>.890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)</td>
<td>&gt;.90</td>
<td>.884</td>
<td>.883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normed Fit Index (NFI)</td>
<td>&gt;.90</td>
<td>.842</td>
<td>.843</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Root Mean Square Error Of Approximation (RMSEA)</td>
<td>≤.05</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probability (p or p-close)</td>
<td>≥.05</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hoelter’s Critical N (CN)</td>
<td>&gt; 200</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>437</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 7 shows the revised structural equation model. However, paths among error terms were made invisible to make the figure simpler and easier to read. As stated above, only the significant control variables were included in the revised model. The numbers over the paths reflects the standardized regression weights.
Figure 7. Revised structural equation model
Table 22 provides the direct, indirect and total effects of each variable in the model on the endogenous variable. If a variable has significant direct and indirect effects on the endogenous variable, it is concluded that the effect of this variable on the endogenous variable is partially mediated through the mediator variable. If the variable has no direct effect, but significant indirect and total effects on the endogenous variable, then the effect of this variable is fully mediated through the mediator variable (Lackwood & Mckinnon, 1998; Mackinnon, Krull & Lockwood, 2000). The effects of attitude toward HR laws on the endogenous variable; attitude toward halting the use of excessive force is partially mediated through job satisfaction while job satisfaction has only significant direct effect on the endogenous variable.

Table 22

*Direct, Indirect and Total effects of all variables over the Endogenous Variable (Attitude toward Halting the Use of Excessive Force)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>DIRECT β</th>
<th>INDIRECT β</th>
<th>TOTAL β</th>
<th>TYPE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>0.121**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.121**</td>
<td>Direct effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward HR Laws</td>
<td>0.639**</td>
<td>0.032**</td>
<td>0.671**</td>
<td>Direct and indirect effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>0.094**</td>
<td>-0.007</td>
<td>0.087**</td>
<td>Direct effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>0.083**</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.086**</td>
<td>Direct effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Order Dept.</td>
<td>-0.008</td>
<td>0.017**</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>Indirect effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorism Dept.</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.027**</td>
<td>0.071**</td>
<td>Mediated effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riot Dept.</td>
<td>-0.042</td>
<td>-0.012**</td>
<td>-0.054</td>
<td>Indirect effect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **Correlation significant @ p ≤ 0.05
Control variables, city and graduate, have significant direct effects on the endogenous variable. On the other hand, job profile variables, public order department, terrorism department and riot department, have no significant direct effect on the endogenous variable. However, these job profile variables have statistically significant indirect effects on the endogenous variable through job satisfaction. These indirect effects are positive for public order and terrorism departments and negative for riot department. The effect of one of the job profile variables, terrorism departments, on the endogenous variable is fully mediated through job satisfaction. The riot and public order departments have significant indirect effects on the endogenous variable.

Conclusion of the Chapter

This chapter presented the findings of the statistical analysis of the data. The confirmatory factor analyses are run first to measure the factor loadings of the latent variables. After running the CFAs, the structural equation analysis was run. Some modifications are done to find out the best and robust model. These steps helped to find the best fitting model. The results revealed that police officers’ attitudes toward HR laws, their job satisfaction level, their education level and the city they work in are significant predictors of their attitudes toward use of excessive force.
CHAPTER 5
ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

The primary focus of this research is to grasp a better understanding of Turkish National Police (TNP) officers’ attitudes toward use of excessive force. The statistical findings of the secondary data by using AMOS 16.0 have been presented in the previous chapter. This chapter analyzes the findings presented in chapter four. To present the meanings of those numbers in the findings chapter, the same flow will be followed as in chapter four. Since the analysis of descriptive statistics had been presented at the beginning of the previous chapter, they will not be mentioned here to avoid excessive repetition.

Based on the two-step model, the analysis of the confirmatory factor analysis will be presented, and then the results of the latent variable path analysis (SEM) are discussed. Finally the results of the structural equation model are analyzed in this chapter. Moreover, the hypothesis will be revisited at the end of this chapter.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Confirmatory factor analysis shows how the observed variables are related with their latent variable (factor). “The oldest and best known statistical procedure for investigating relation between sets of observed and latent variables is that of factor analysis. In using this approach to data analyses, the researcher examines the covariation among a set of observed variables in order to gather information on their latent constructs (i.e., factors)” (Byrne, 2001, p. 5).

Latent variables, attitudes toward halting the police use of excessive force, job satisfaction, and attitudes toward human rights (HR) laws were subjected to
confirmatory factor analysis one by one and then subjected to a confirmatory factor analysis. These findings will be analyzed in the next paragraphs.

The Analysis of CFA for Attitude toward Halting the Use of Excessive Force

Attitude toward halting the use of excessive force is the endogenous variable which means the dependent variable in this study. Twenty three indicators were developed to measure the attitudes of Turkish police officers toward halting the use of excessive force. These questions are derived from the articles 2 and 3 of the European Convention on Human Rights. Five-point likert scale ranging from 1=totally disagree to 5=totally agree is used in these questions.

CFA results showed that only one out of twenty three indicators had low factor loadings (i.e., was a poor measure of attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force). The minimum accepted factor loading for this study is 0.3 (Malthouse, 2001). Indicator F9 had a factor loading below this threshold (F9= 0.232). It was decided that this indicator should be excluded from further analysis. Twenty two indicators had high factor loadings and these twenty two indicators (i.e., questions) are statistically significant to measure the latent endogenous variable.

The Analysis of CFA for Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction of police officers, the first latent exogenous (independent) variable, is measured with five questions derived from the literature. These indicators were also constructed with five a point likert scale ranging from 1=totally disagree to 5=totally agree. All of the indicators have high and statistically significant factor loadings except the JS5 indicator. The JS5 indicator had lower factor loading than the threshold
0.3 (JS5 = 0.284). This indicator, however, has been used in the literature, and in the job satisfaction survey tools to measure the satisfaction with colleagues. Due to the theoretical background of this question, and its factor loading being very close to threshold, this indicator has been kept. The findings of the confirmatory factor analysis for the latent variable job satisfaction show that these five indicators are good measures of the latent exogenous variable, job satisfaction.

The Analysis of CFA for Attitude toward Human Rights (HR) Laws

Attitude toward HR laws is the second exogenous latent variable in this study. This variable is constructed to measure the attitudes of police officers toward human rights laws in Turkey and in the European context by fourteen questions. Like the other latent variables, a five-point likert scale ranging from 1=totally disagree to 5=totally agree is used in these questions.

CFA results showed that three out of fourteen indicators had low factor loadings (i.e., were poor measures of attitudes toward HR laws). Indicators L4, L9, and L10 had factor loadings below the threshold (0.136, 0.232 and 0.219 respectively). Because of this reason it was decided that these indicators should be excluded from further analysis. The other eleven indicators had high and statistically significant factor loadings. It shows that those eleven indicators are good measures of the latent exogenous variable, attitude toward HR laws.

The Analysis of CFA for All Latent Variables

In this step of the statistical analysis, all three latent variables were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis. Since the CFAs for latent variables computed one by one,
the same individual CFA models were put in this model all together and the latent variables were allowed to be related to each other.

Since CFAs for latent variables had been computed individually before, and these were included in this CFA with their covariances defined, the model with all three fit quite well. The factor loadings for each latent variable did not change significantly. The CFA revealed significant relations among the latent variables.

The exogenous variables, job satisfaction and attitude toward HR laws, have statistically significant positive relationships with the endogenous variable, attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force ($r=0.299$ and $r=0.641$, $p<0.001$ respectively). The attitudes of police officers toward halting the use of excessive force increase 0.299 standard deviation when their job satisfaction level increases one standard deviation. Since the original data were constructed to measure the respect of officer’s toward human rights, positive attitude reflects the respectful attitude toward those items. Due to this construct, positive attitude of police officers toward halting the use of excessive force reflects the officer’s respect to human rights and simply indicates that the officer is not in favor of using excessive force. In reverse, negative attitude toward halting the use of excessive force indicates that the officer is more likely to favor using excessive force. Based on this explanation, it can be derived from the statistical analysis that the more police officers are satisfied with their job, the more they respect to human rights, and in turn they are not in favor of using excessive force.

The other exogenous variable, attitude toward HR laws has also positive and statistically significant relationship with the endogenous variable. Positive attitude toward HR laws indicates high respect, and negative attitude toward HR laws indicates
disrespect to human rights laws in Turkey and in the European context. The numbers show that every one standard deviation increase in the attitude toward HR laws variable increases 0.641 standard deviations in the endogenous variable, attitude toward halting the use of excessive force. Police officers who are respectful to HR laws also have positive attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force and they are not in favor of using excessive force.

The Analysis of Structural Equation Model

Having computed the confirmatory factor analysis in step 1 of the two-step approach, the generic or proposed structural equation modeling is created. In this structural equation model, the latent endogenous (dependent) variable, attitude toward halting the use of excessive force, and two exogenous (independent) latent variables, job satisfaction and attitude toward HR laws were analyzed. In addition, twelve control variables, riot police department, public order department, terrorism department, city, gender, age, marital dummy, rank, service year, graduation, individual dummy, and situational dummy were also included in this structural equation analysis.

SEM can be thought of as a path analysis involving latent variables. “Path analysis is an extension of the regression model, used to test the fit of the correlation matrix against two or more causal models which are being compared by the researcher. The model is usually depicted in a circle-and-arrow figure in which single-headed arrows indicate causation” (Garson, 2008, para. 1).

Five out of twelve of the control variables were found to be statistically non-significant initially in the SEM analysis for the generic model. These control variables were city, age, gender, marital dummy, rank and service year. These non-significant
variables were excluded from further analysis one at a time until all variables were statistically significant (i.e., had p-values below 0.05). As a result of these exclusions one at a time, city, graduation, riot, public order, and terrorism department variables were retained and the other control variables were excluded from further analysis.

After excluding the non-significant variables, the SEM analysis was computed again. These exclusions improved the model fit; however, there were more steps to be taken to find the best fitting model by analyzing the modification indices. Taking care of the modification index helped to find the best fitting model (presented in chapter four as the revised model). The goodness of fit statistics for the revised model indicated a good fitting final structural equation model.

**Job Satisfaction**

The statistical analysis revealed that the exogenous latent variable job satisfaction is significantly positively related to the latent endogenous variable, attitude toward halting the use of excessive force ($\beta=0.121$, $p \leq 0.05$). Every standard deviation increase in police officers' job satisfaction level also increases their attitude toward halting the use of excessive force 0.121 standard deviations. The more satisfied police officers, the more they have positive attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force, meaning the more they respect to human rights and the less they are in favor of using excessive force.

**Attitude toward HR Laws**

The other latent exogenous variable, attitude toward HR laws, is also positively and significantly related to the latent endogenous variable ($\beta =0.639$, $p \leq 0.001$). The relationship of this variable with the latent endogenous variable is stronger than that for
job satisfaction. Police officers’ attitude toward halting the use of excessive force increases 0.639 standard deviation when their attitude toward HR laws increases only one standard deviation.

City

This study was conducted in two cities, Ankara, the capital of Turkey and Diyarbakir. The city variable is a dichotomous variable 0= Ankara, and 1= Diyarbakir, with Ankara as the reference group. Police officers attitude toward halting the use of excessive force in Diyarbakir is 0.83 standard deviations higher than it is for police officers working in Ankara. In other words police officers working in the city of Diyarbakir have higher respect to human rights and they are less in favor of using excessive force when compared to police officers working in Ankara.

Graduate

The educational level of police officers were constructed as 1=junior high school, 2=high school, 3=two years junior college, 4=police academy college, 5=masters, and 6=PhD. The statistical analysis revealed that the graduate variable is statistically significantly related with the attitude toward halting the use of excessive force and this relationship is positive ($\beta = 0.094$, $p \leq 0.001$). When the education level of police officers increases one standard deviation, their attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force increases by 0.094 standard deviations. In other words the more educated police officers, the more they will have positive attitude toward halting the use of excessive force.

Other variables used in this study, public order department, terrorism department, riot department, situational dummy and the individual dummy, are not
found to be statistically significant with attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force.

**Job Satisfaction and Job Profile (Public Order Department, Riot Department, Terrorism Department and Police Stations)**

The job profile of police officers is statistically significant in predicting their job satisfaction level. There were four departments chosen to conduct the survey; public order, riot, terrorism departments and police stations. These four departments were constructed as dummy variables in this study; police stations were the reference group. Officers working in terrorism and public order departments are more satisfied with their jobs than their counterparts working in the police stations ($\beta = 0.224$, $p \leq 0.001$ and $\beta = 0.143$, $p \leq 0.001$ respectively). On the other hand, officers working in the riot departments are less satisfied than their counterparts working in the police stations ($\beta = -0.097$, $p \leq 0.05$).

**Job Satisfaction and Attitude toward HR Laws**

Police officers attitude toward HR laws is one of the contributions of this study to the job satisfaction literature. It has been found statistically significant in terms of police officers job satisfaction level ($\beta = 0.267$, $p \leq 0.001$). Police officers who have positive attitudes toward HR laws also have high level of job satisfaction.

**Direct, Indirect and Total effects of all variables over the Endogenous Variable**

One of the major advantages of SEM is the computation of direct, indirect and total effects of variables over the endogenous variable. This study also benefited from this advantage and the results of the statistical findings (Table 22) are detailed in here. The exogenous variable, job satisfaction, is designed as a mediator variable since some
of the control variables (city, graduate, and job profile) are used and tested in the job satisfaction literature to measure job satisfaction level. “Mediation analysis seeks to go beyond the question of whether an independent variable causes a change in a dependent variable. Mediation addresses the question of how that change occurs. When a third variable is thought to be intermediate in the relationship between two variables, it is called a mediator.” (Lockwood and MacKinnon, 1998, p.1).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction only has a significant direct effect on the endogenous variable (β = 0.121, p ≤ 0.05), which was already discussed above.

Attitude toward HR Laws

Attitude toward HR laws has both statistically significant direct and indirect effects on attitude toward halting the use of excessive force (direct β = 0.639, Indirect β = 0.032, total β = 0.671, p ≤ 0.05). The effect of attitude toward HR laws on attitude toward halting the use of excessive force is partially mediated through job satisfaction. It basically means that, attitude toward HR laws has direct effect on attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. However, it also has an effect on police officers job satisfaction levels, which, in turn, has a direct effect on attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. Evidence for mediation occurs in this case since the relationship between attitudes toward HR laws and attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force is partially accounted for by an intervening variable, job satisfaction. The impact of police officers’ attitude toward HR laws on job satisfaction has not been tested, although expressed. This finding can be one of the significant contributions to the job satisfaction literature, in fact, police job satisfaction literature.
Graduate

Graduate variable has statistically significant direct effects on attitude toward halting the use of excessive force ($\beta = 0.094$, $p \leq 0.05$).

City

Another variable which has statistically significant direct effects on attitude toward halting the use of excessive force is the city variable ($\beta = 0.123$, $p \leq 0.05$). The city variable is statistically significant in predicting police officers attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force.

Job Profile Variables (Public Order, Riot and Terrorism Departments)

Job profile variables, namely public order, riot and terrorism departments (versus police stations) have no statistically significant direct effects on the endogenous variable. However, they have positively statistically significant indirect effects on job satisfaction, but they don’t have significant total effect on the attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. On the other hand, terrorism department has both statistically significant, positive indirect and total effects on attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force (versus police stations). This finding shows that the effect of terrorism department variable on attitude toward halting the use of excessive force is fully mediated through job satisfaction. It basically means that, terrorism department variable do not have direct effect on the endogenous variable. However, it has statistically significant effect on the mediator variable, job satisfaction, which means that job satisfaction is higher in terrorism departments (versus police stations). Since job satisfaction also has significant effect on the endogenous variable, terrorism department variable has indirect or mediated effect on the endogenous variable through the
mediator, job satisfaction. Terrorism department variable, in this case, has all their effects on the endogenous variable through the mediator. Therefore, it is concluded that, terrorism department variable on attitude toward halting the use of excessive force is fully mediated through job satisfaction.

Hypothesis Testing

Three research hypotheses were proposed for the generic model:

H₁: Job satisfaction levels positively affect police officers’ attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force.

H₂: Job profiles affect police officers’ attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. Those working in riot, public order, or terrorism departments will have lower attitudes than will those working in police stations.

H₃: Positive attitudes regarding human rights (HR) laws positively affect police officers’ attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force.

Based on the results of the statistical analysis, the first hypothesis is supported. The findings ($\beta = 0.121, p \leq 0.05$) revealed that there is a positive statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction level of police officers and their attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. This positive standardized coefficient means that the more satisfied police officers the more they respect human rights and the more positive attitudes they have toward halting the use of excessive force, meaning that they will not be in favor of using excessive force. Therefore, it is concluded that job satisfaction level
of police officers positively affect their attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force.

The second hypothesis is not supported according to the findings. None of the job profile variables, public order, terrorism, and riot departments (versus police stations), has significant relationship with attitude toward halting the use of excessive force. Therefore it is concluded that job profiles do not affect police officers’ attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force.

The third hypothesis is supported based on the results of the statistical analysis. With a 0.639 standardized regression weight significant at $p \leq 0.001$ level, there is a positive, significant relationship between police officers attitude toward HR laws, and attitude toward halting the use of excessive force. The more respectful police officers to HR laws, the more they are also respectful to human rights and they are not in favor of using excessive force. Therefore, it is concluded that positive attitudes regarding Human Rights (HR) laws positively affect police officers’ attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force.

Conclusion of the Chapter

The results of the statistical findings are analyzed in this chapter. Attitude toward HR laws is statistically the strongest predictor of officers’ attitudes toward use of excessive force. The relationship between these variables is positive meaning that police officers who have positive attitude toward HR laws also have positive attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. The more respect officers have for HR laws, the more respect they have toward the rights of suspects. They are not in favor of using excessive force.
Job satisfaction and education levels of officers are also significantly and positively related with their attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. Officers who are highly satisfied with their jobs and have attained higher educational accomplishments also have positive attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force.

The results of the mediation analysis used in the study show that attitude toward HR laws is also significantly related with officers’ job satisfaction levels. Police officers holding positive attitudes toward HR laws also have a high level of job satisfaction. The other predictor of job satisfaction is the job profile variables which reflect the departments of the officers. Officers working in public order and terrorism departments are more satisfied with their jobs than their colleagues working in police stations. However, officers working in riot departments are less satisfied with their jobs than officers working in police stations or other departments.
CHAPTER 6
DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

How can police administrators better prevent police use of excessive force in Turkey? This study has been designed to find answers to this major question. Answers to the subsidiary questions, “To what extent does the existing literature identify factors known to be related to the reasons why police officers use excessive force, and does police use of excessive force present a problem in Turkey?” show that police use of excessive force is related to individual, situational, and organizational factors including police officers’ race, age, education; suspects’ race, gender, wealth level; and structure of the police department (Table 3). Police brutality in Turkey does exist and the annual statistical figures in Tables 1 and 2 show that between 1999 and 2007 the European Court of Human Rights decided 308 human rights violation decisions against Turkey. These were violations of Articles 2 and 3 of the convention, which frame police use of excessive force and inhuman treatment.

A second set of subsidiary questions included “Are Turkish police officers satisfied with their jobs, and is there a relationship between the level of job satisfaction and attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force?” The findings show that Turkish police officers are, on average, somewhat satisfied with their jobs with job satisfaction affected by job profiles and officers’ attitudes toward HR laws. The results of the study also significantly show that the higher the job satisfaction level of a police officer, the more positively related is his or her attitude toward halting the use of excessive force.

The last set of subsidiary questions answered included “What are the attitudes of Turkish police officers toward human rights (HR) laws, and is there a relationship
between the level of job satisfaction and attitudes toward HR laws and attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force?” Overall, Turkish police officers’ attitudes toward HR laws, on average, are somewhat positive. Police officers attitudes toward HR laws are significantly and positively correlated with their attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. Police officers whose attitudes toward HR laws are positive have more positive attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. In other words, the more respectful officers toward HR laws, the more they respect the suspects’ rights and they do not favor of using excessive force. Moreover, police officers attitude toward HR laws is one of the strongest predictors of their job satisfaction level.

Job satisfaction and attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force

The findings show that job satisfaction is statistically significant in predicting the attitudes of police officers toward halting the use of excessive force. Thus police officers, who are satisfied with their jobs, have more positive attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. In Manzoni and Eisner’s (2006) study, job satisfaction level was not related with the frequency of resorting to use of force by police officers in Switzerland. The contradiction in their study and this study’s findings may be the result of differences in the study designs, the culture of the country, or the structure of the police organizations.

Differences in design may explain some of the differences in findings. For example, Manzoni and Eisner tried to capture information about actual use of force incidents by asking police officers about their use of force cases, but they did not ask about excessive use of force. Thus, it is not possible to know how job satisfaction may be linked to it. This study, on the other hand, did not ask police officers about their
actual use of excessive force, but instead asked their attitudes about use of excessive force. While it would be ideal to have been able to obtain information from the Turkish officers about their actual use of excessive force, the ability to get honest answers would have been very difficult. No police officers, Turkish or otherwise, are likely to discuss activities that are illegal or unseemly. Nonetheless, there is evidence that suggests that attitudes and behaviors do often affect the other. Thus, my findings on attitudes are important indicators of potential behaviors and therefore should be interpreted with concern.

Manzoni and Eisner’s research in Switzerland also may have affected the findings due to cultural difference between Switzerland and Turkey. Switzerland is one of the richest countries in the world in terms of comparing gross domestic product (GDP) per capita (Statistical Yearbook, 2007). Turkey’s GDP in 2008 is lower than Switzerland; $12,000 for Turkey and $40,900 for Switzerland, the ratio is almost 1/4 (CIA World Factbook, 2009). The inflation rates (consumer prices, annual percent change) also reflect the differences between two countries; while the rates is 0.8 in 2004, 1.2 in 2005, 0.9 in 2006 and 1.2 in 2007 in Switzerland, they are 8.6 in 2004, 8.2 in 2005, 10.2 in 2006 and 7.2 in 2007 in Turkey (IMF, 2009). The “comparative price level indices” (PLI) which tells us how expensive one country is compared to a base country or countries shows that a country that has a PLI over 100 is considered as an “expensive” country. The comparative PLI for consumption expenditure of private households (base 25 EU Countries) in 2006 is 131.8 for Switzerland, and 67.3 for Turkey (Federal Statistical Office, 2009). Between wage differentials and inflation, officers in Turkey are still comparatively ill compensated. Although Switzerland is an expensive country compared
to Turkey based on these comparisons, the salaries of the police officers in Switzerland are not likely to be comparable which could translate into satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

The structure of policing in Switzerland also may shape satisfaction levels. The Swiss police use decentralized structure but their counterparts in Turkey use centralized and para-militaristic structure. Although Turkish National Police (TNP) has been trying to adopt and implement innovative and service based policies like community policing which are decentralized, these adoptions have been very slow to be implemented. Research suggests that departments that use a para-militaristic structure are more likely to tolerate the use of force (Friedrich, 1980; Hodgson, 2001). Also Turkey’s and Switzerland’s crime rates vary. The crime rates in Turkey are higher than the Switzerland which gives credence to the community violence hypothesis. This hypothesis assumes that police officers who work in a city in which the violence incidence is high are more prone to use excessive force. Research on the community violence hypothesis found that police citizen-homicides are related to community violence, and homicide by police officers increases in cities with a high rate of violent crimes (Smith, 2004).

Job satisfaction on police officers’ attitudes toward use of excessive force is useful information for Turkey’s policy makers and the TNP. Turkey has been working very hard to become a member of the European Union and it must fulfill three broad conditions as required by the Copenhagen criteria; political, economic, and acceptance. The political condition is the most relevant to this study. Political criteria include the stability of institutions guaranteeing democracy, the rule of law, human rights, and respect for and protection of minorities. Although Turkey has been trying to ensure the
rule of law and human rights in Turkey, the candidacy to the EU has accelerated these efforts. The TNP have also been trying to ensure the human rights of the citizens. These efforts by TNP and the governments have been mostly focused on legal aspects of ensuring human rights such as zero tolerance to torture policy, rewording or adding new articles to Turkish penal act, or procedural acts of Turkish penal code. The human factor of the problem have always been overlooked and neglected, however.

Police officers are the individuals who interact with citizens as the face of the state along with the Gendarmerie in the rural regions of Turkey. The statistical finding of this research about job satisfaction and police officers attitudes toward use of excessive force upraises the importance of tending to the human factors that can lead to human rights violation problems in Turkey. Table 3 showed the violation decisions of the European Court of Human Rights in terms of articles 2 and 3 of the convention by law enforcement agents; police and gendarmerie. My findings about job satisfaction and attitudes toward use of excessive force reveal that the TNP should act to increase police officers' job satisfaction levels in order to help ensure that use of excessive force is curtailed.

Attitude toward HR Laws and Attitudes toward Halting the Use of Excessive Force

One of the noteworthy findings of this research is the significant effect of police officers’ attitudes toward HR laws on their attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. The statistical analysis revealed that the more police officers have positive attitudes toward HR laws, the more they have positive attitudes toward halting use of excessive force. This finding was anticipated since when police feel restricted by the rule of law and human rights considerations, they may think that the law and criminal
justice procedures are “cumbersome procedures and laws loaded in favor of [the] suspect” (Bayley, 2002, p. 133). In addition, police officers with negative attitudes toward the justice system and its rules, also may endorse the use of force in order to get the job done (Burke and Mikkelsen, 2005; Weisburd, Greenspan, Hamilton, Williams, & Bryant, 2000).

A cliché among police officers that has been heard a lot by the writer of this study (who has been working in TNP for over ten years) is “We will catch the suspects, but the court will release them and they will get out of the courtroom before we do”. The lack of trust in the criminal justice system cannot be allowed to continue without intervention since it will likely result in negative attitudes toward HR laws, and consequently affect job satisfaction and attitudes toward use of excessive force.

The attitudes of police officers toward HR laws are clearly very important. The HR laws acquisition of the EU must not only be adopted as written acts, but also be internalized by the police officers. This internalization process begins with education that should be carefully considered and implemented. HR laws acquisitions should be taught to police officers early in their career and reinforced and sustained throughout their time in service. Currently the TNP has two different kinds of education programs; prior to service education which includes (police vocational high schools (PVHS) and faculty of security sciences (FSS); and in service education (temporary courses or seminars targeting a specific subject such as human rights, shooting, leadership, etc.). Human rights courses are mandatory for new recruits in both PVHS’s and in FSS and are widely taught in in-service courses. The quantity and the quality of these courses should be examined carefully in order to help police officers internalize the HR laws. A
pre- and post-test of the human rights attitudes of the new recruits can be designed to examine the outcomes of educational process and curricula used in the TNP educational institutions.

City and Attitudes toward Halting the Use of Excessive Force

The findings show that the city where one is policing has a positive and statistically significant effect on attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. Police officers working in the city of Diyarbakir had more positive attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force than those working in the city of Ankara. One of the possible reasons for this differentiation is the higher number of violent crimes in Ankara (see Table 4). While there were 227,138 violent crimes reported in Ankara in 2006, only 46,000 violent crimes were reported in Diyarbakir in the same year. Smith’s (2004) study on homicides by police officers showed increases in cities with a higher rate of violent crimes and when the violence incidence is high, officers are more prone to use excessive force.

Another explanation for this may be the urban and rural features of these two cities and their population differences (four million in Ankara compared to almost one and a half million in Diyarbakir). As Jacobs and O’Brien (1998) found, police are more likely exercise deadly force in more populous and urban areas than rural and less populous areas.

Education of Police Officers and Attitudes toward Halting the Use of Excessive Force

The education level of police officers is related to their attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. The more educated the police officer, the more he respects human rights and is not in favor of using excessive force. This finding on education was
anticipated. Other studies have shown that more educated police officers are less likely to be involved in use of force encounters (Terril and Mastrofski, 2002). Langworthy and Travis (1994), likewise concluded that “education is correlated with differing levels of citizen complaints, use of force, and officer injury…better educated officers are less likely to be involved in violent encounters” (p. 223). Education helps to equip officers with better understanding and negotiation skills to overcome difficult situations without using excessive force. The TNP has been making important strides in increasing the educational levels of its officers which will be discussed shortly.

**Individual Dummy, Situational Dummy and Attitudes toward Halting the Use of Excessive Force**

Organizational, individual and situational factors were created as dummy variables for purposes of capturing their relative impacts on attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force with organizational factors serving as the reference group in this study. None of these variables were found to be statistically significant. These three dummy variables were created by categorizing the responses of an open ended question asking “What do you consider to be the most important root cause of brutality and abuse? There were only twelve different responses to this question which could be used to reflect organizational, individual and situational factors. There were no other variables in the data set to use in order to measure individual, situational and organizational factors thus the results about the factors should be read cautiously.
Discussion of the Results of Mediating Analysis: The effects of the variables on the use of excessive force through job satisfaction

This study employed job satisfaction as an exogenous (independent) variable and also as a mediating variable. This means first, that variables, including job satisfaction, are examined to find out their effects on attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. The effects of other variables on job satisfaction are also examined by mediating analysis. Since job satisfaction has also effects on the attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force, the direct, indirect and total effects of all variables are examined in this study. The direct effects of the exogenous variables (job satisfaction, attitudes toward HR laws, city, education, job profile variables) on attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force are discussed above. The indirect or mediating effects of the exogenous variables (job profile variables, and attitudes toward HR law) on attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force through job satisfaction will be discussed in depth in the following paragraphs.

One of the significant predictors of job satisfaction includes job profile variables including whether one is working in a police stations, public order departments, riot departments, or terrorism departments. Police officers working in public order and terrorism departments are more satisfied with their job than their counterparts working in the police stations. On the other hand officers working in the riot department are less satisfied with their jobs than their counterparts working in the police stations. The titles of the stations or departments reflect the daily routines of police officers. Terrorism departments in Turkey, for instance, deal with terrorism related incidents only. Riot police departments deal with any legal or illegal demonstrations. Police officers working
in the riot departments have overloaded and irregular working hours. Their working hours are determined by the features of the duty. For example, officers in the riot unit work in demonstrations, riots and at public events like soccer games. The shifts begin hours prior to the start of these events, and end hours after the events end. This is hours longer than their counterparts working in the police stations. These overloaded working shifts may partially explain the satisfaction differences between officers in riot departments and those in police stations. However, this result should be interpreted cautiously as police in stations may also occasionally experience long shifts. Officers in terrorism and public order departments have also overloaded working hours, but they also have some other incentives to overlook this overloaded working hours such as working undercover and extra payment for working undercover and working in terror departments.

The most surprising finding of this research was the impact of police officers attitude toward HR laws on their job satisfaction level. Police officers’ attitude toward HR laws has positive significant effect on both job satisfaction and attitude toward halting the use of excessive force. Earlier studies have tested and found similar impacts stating that negative attitudes toward the criminal justice system, or the laws, increases police officers tendency to endorse the use of force (Burke and Mikkelsen, 2005; Bayley, 2002; Weisburd, Greenspan, Hamilton, Williams, and Bryant, 2000). The findings of these researchers support my findings. The impact on police officers job satisfaction level is not examined in these studies, however. This finding is one of the noteworthy contributions of this study to the job satisfaction literature. It has profound implications
for potentially curbing the use of excessive force since job satisfaction is statistically significant and related to one’s attitude toward use of excessive force.

Implications

One purpose of this study is to make suggestions regarding the implications for understanding and preventing police use of excessive force. In order to prevent police use of excessive force effectively, this study suggests both educational and policy implications.

Educational Implications

The education level of police officers is a significant indicator of attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. The analysis of the findings revealed that police officers holding higher levels of educational attainment have more positive attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force than the officers holding basic levels. The higher education institute of the TNP, the Turkish National Police Academy was founded in 1937 as a one-year vocational higher school. In 1984, the police academy was restructured as a police higher education institution offering a 4-year education with a bachelor’s degree in criminal justice. In 2001, Turkish National Police Academy was redesigned as a university system that includes the Faculty of Security Sciences (FSS), a 4-year college offering bachelor’s degree in criminal justice; the Institute of Security Sciences (ISS), an institute offering master’s and doctoral programs; and Police Vocational High Schools (PVHS), which offer a 2-year associates degree (Police Academy, 2009).
TNP has two classes of sworn personnel; the first one is the officer class and the second one is the managerial class. The officer class comprises 91 percent of the all sworn personnel which number about 180,000 as of 2007. The managerial class comprises 9 percent of the all sworn personnel or approximately 18,000 managerial positions (Baycan, 2005; Demir, 2008). The graduates of FSS are assigned to TNP’s managerial positions and begin their job as a deputy lieutenant. On the other hand the graduates of PVHS are assigned to TNP’s officer positions without rank and they have limited opportunities to advance to managerial positions. Typically, they serve as police officers in TNP until their retirement. These numbers indicates the importance of PVHS’s education in upholding the personnel quality of TNP.

TNP has put huge efforts and investments to increase the educational level of police officers, especially over the last decade. The most considerable effort in this process was increasing the duration of mandatory education of PVHSs from nine months to two years in 2003. These efforts to boost the education level of TNP are producing obvious benefits. For example, Kapti’s (2009) study on TNP’s education reforms revealed that police officers who were educated according to the new system are showing better performance than the officers who were educated under the old system. Kapti also found that officers educated in the new system have received more rewards and fewer sanctions than other officers. Kapti’s analysis also revealed public appreciation for police being more professional, and increased positive attitudes by police officers toward citizens after these reforms.

The quality as well as the duration of PVHS education should continually examined to ensure that positive outcomes continue. This study’s findings suggest that
police officers education level should be elevated because of the link between education level and attitudes toward HR law and use of excessive force. The quality of education includes scrutiny to ensure that it helps to shape the attitudes of the officers toward human rights.

Education and training for line police officers also should not end when they graduate from the PVHSs. During their long professional life in the job, police officers need opportunities to be updated about the new and existing policies affecting the Country and the policies of the TNP. Since Turkey has been seeking to gain entry into the EU, policies on criminal justice and human rights have been changing frequently to meet the Copenhagen Criteria. These new adopted policies should be taught to line officers by frequent and inclusive in-service trainings. For example, Turkey changed some articles of its Constitution and laws such as Civil Law, and Penal Code in 2001 and 2004 to adopt EU acquisition. These new adoptions changed the responsibilities and duties of Turkish Police and, in turn, some of the codes of Turkish National Police were changed including the “Code of Capture and Arrest” and the “Law on Police Duty and Authority.” Informing police officers working in all 81 cities of Turkey about these changes is vital to make them aware of these changes. Helping them internalize these new changes and understand how it affects them in their day to day job responsibilities will take more than just familiarity with the laws and codes however. Thus, in-service trainings should be designed to not only teach but also keep them up to date on these issues and learn how to act in accordance with the changing policies.

Currently, TNP has designed and implemented some in-service educations regarding human rights. In 2007, 8,996 personnel attended in-service human rights
education. This number increased to 24,272 in 2008 (TNP, 2009). Although this increase is laudable, it is obvious that these numbers are not enough in an organization which has almost 200,000 personnel. In order to reach and educate more personnel technology could be used. Currently the technological structure of the TNP which is called POLNET could be used to provide online courses or in-service trainings about these changes in the policies. POLNET is a secured intranet system used by TNP in all its 81 city police departments and in most of the sub-divisions of these departments. Police officers can access pre-uploaded database such as criminal records, vehicle database and information about criminal organizations (Yalcinkaya, 2007). Online courses about laws and codes of the police procedures, HR laws, etc. could also be designed with TNP members accessing these courses via the POLNET structure.

Another important development in TNP education reforms has been offering a full scholarship for any TNP members holding a bachelors degree to pursue their master’s and doctoral degrees abroad. This project started in 1999 and TNP members holding a bachelors degree were selected and granted scholarships to pursue graduate degrees in the universities in European Union countries and the United States. In addition to grants for graduate studies, grants for short term (6 months) in-service trainings on policing and human rights in both the European Union countries and the United States exist. These short term in-service trainings are an important part of what should continue to be an emphasis on on-going police education in TNP. Through the study abroad programs, members have been building friendship and connections abroad. These connections will help increase levels of cooperation and coordination among
police organizations. These connections are useful to combat international crimes such as terrorism, organized crimes, drug related crimes and the like (Gultekin, 2005).

Policy Implications

The policy implications of my findings are relevant to help increase police officers job satisfaction levels, and to internalize HR Laws. Both job satisfaction level of police officers and their attitudes toward HR Law are significant predictors of attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. Therefore, efforts should focus on these to eliminate the human rights violations by police in Turkey.

Efforts to assure human rights through the adoption of EU acquisition occurred very quickly for the institutions in Turkey. Some articles of the Turkish Constitution were changed in 2001 and 2004 and the Civil Law and the Penal Code were also changed in 2002 and 2004 respectively (Bulbul, 2006; Karakas, 2006). Each law and the spirit of the laws need to be internalized by implementers such as police officers. The results of this study show the importance of police officers attitudes toward HR laws and the impact of these on the use of excessive force and also their job satisfaction levels. Thus, the internalization of HR laws must be facilitated. One way is through education and efforts such as in-service trainings and increasing graduate education has already been discussed. Another point of concern needs to be discussed, however. To date, the Turkish Government has given its attention to legalities, but has perhaps overlooked the importance of the police officers as implementers of these laws. The two are related and should not be pursued separately.

Job satisfaction has been found to be significantly related with productivity, employee retention, turnover rates, commitment, and stress (Biggam, Power,
MacDonals, Carcary, and Moodie, 1997; Davey, Obst, and Sheehan, 2001; Kop and Euwema, 2001; Burke and Mikkelsen 2005; Buker and Wiecko, 2007). This study also found that job satisfaction is a significant predictor of police officers’ attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. Due to this fact, the Governments and the TNP administration must focus on policies to increase police officers job satisfaction level if they are to better prevent police use of excessive force and inflict human rights violations. The literature on job satisfaction shows that higher education level, fair promotion policies, and higher salaries yield more satisfaction. On the other hand stress, extended working hours, supervisory problems, lack of public respect and uncertainty in the tasks yield dissatisfaction (Reiss, 1967; Griffin et al., 1978; Sheley and Nock, 1979; Dantzker, 1992; Bennett, 1997; Biggam et al., 1997; Zhao et al., 1999; Davey et al., 2001; Brunetto and Wharton, 2002; Buker and Wiecko, 2007;). In addition to these predictors, this study has found that officers’ attitudes toward HR Laws and job profiles are also significant predictors of job satisfaction.

Promotion has been one of the constant variables in job satisfaction studies found to be positively related to job satisfaction (Brunetto and Wharton, 2002; Friday and Friday, 2003; Jaramillo and Sams, 2005). Unfair promotion policies in TNP are one of the components of job dissatisfaction among police officers (Baycan, 2004; Deniz, 2006). Although officers comprise 91 percent of the TNP organization, there is no promotion policy for these officers. Police officers graduate from PVHSs as an officer with no rank and no promotion opportunity and keep this position until retirement. Although an examination for officers to advance the managerial positions and ranks has been created in recent years, these promotion examinations are not regularly scheduled
as promotion policies for officers. These examinations are exceptions and depend on the decisions and policies of the current government. A fair promotion policy for police officers should be designed to boost their motivation, and also their job satisfaction level.

One option for the promotion policy is that police officers at any given rank should have promotion opportunities. Every level of rank should have associated rewards such as more salary, more authority, and more participation in decision making processes since these are significant parts of a promotion (Scarborough et al., 1999; More et al., 2006). These associated rewards make promotion a valued reward. Rank mobility should be possible to attain by police officers based on criteria such as performance, and/or service years in the organization to motivate them. When police officers making efforts to perform outstandingly acquire the desired rank, these facts will increase the belief of others that there is a relationship between outstanding performance and a higher rank. Thus, others will also strive to reach these rewards. Achieving rewards helps police officers to become more satisfied with their jobs.

A second option for a promotion system among police officers is that there may be a chance for police officers to be promoted to managerial positions. The promotion to a managerial rank should be based on performance, years of service in the organization, and an examination that measures knowledge and administrative capabilities. The key point in here is ensuring effort-reward probability equal to all police officers. Valence theories support the idea that one will make great efforts to achieve and give outstanding performances if they believe that they can acquire wanted rewards such as promotion and its associated benefits (Vroom, 1964; Porter and Lawler, 1968).
Another predictor of job satisfaction is salary. Monetary problems have always plagued TNP members and police in Turkey have always faced low salaries. Studies show that fiscal complaints are the number one stress and dissatisfaction factors among police officers (Zabun, 2000; Gokus, 2002). Although government policy makers have always defended low salaries by showing the general economic conditions of the country, the longer term economic consequences or failing to address the low pay relative to job risks is substantial. Turkey’s bid to the EU rests in part on its ability to ensure that use of excessive force is not tolerated. Reviewing and implementing more realistic salary structure is one step. The governments should take a hard look at compensation levels and determine a satisfactory salary for police officers based on recognition of extended working hours, stress levels in the jobs and the importance of law enforcement to realizing larger political, social and humanitarian.

Extended working hours and irregular shifts are the most claimed predictors of job dissatisfaction for TNP members (Zabun, 2000), and are stress factors for police officers (Davey, Obst and Sheehan, 2001). TNP offers several different types of shifts but the police officer is always on duty for 24 hours. Although the actual shifts are 12/24, which means 12 hours working and 24 hours off, the city police chief can easily change this shift to become 12/12, which means 12 hours working and 12 hours off. These grueling shift hours can seem arbitrary and it leaves police officers with little to no time to engage in social activities that can relieve stress and allow officers to rejuvenate. In the 12/12 shift, a police officer cannot realistically see his or her family and children. After 12 hours hard working, the other 12 hours is only enough to allow for some rest and recharging for the upcoming 12 hours. According the Zabun’s (2000) study on
police and suicide, long working hours and shift changes are the second most claimed factors about stress and dissatisfaction. More recent research (Demir, 2008), on police working shifts in Turkey has examined the effects of shifts, and specifically a country wide 12/24 working shift. The findings showed that working shifts have harmful impacts on quality of family life, burnout, and job satisfaction. Demir (2008) recommended shortening the working hours of duty. Simply put, 12 hours working is too much for police officers to perform at their best. A second suggestion was to lessen the frequency of day and night rotation. Medical research shows that there are harmful impacts of frequently changing shifts on the body and mind. Since, the night shift rotates every 1.5 days, the human body cannot easily adapt to frequent shifts and it causes health problems.

Working shifts in European countries and the U.S. vary from the Turkish model. A common shift in the US is “days for one month, afternoons for the next, nights in the third, and then days again” (Langworthy and Travis, 1994, p. 212). The working hours and shifts in TNP should be examined and redesigned to increase police officers job satisfaction level. To eliminate negative outcomes of dissatisfaction and stress, and to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of the officers, working hours and shifts should be tested in Turkey based on the European and the U.S. standards which are based on eight hour shifts. In addition, these working hours and shift policies should not be changeable arbitrarily by the chiefs of police in the cities unless absolutely necessary to help ensure optimal performances and the health of officers and their families.
Limitations

This study has some limitations. The use of secondary data always presents problems including the fact that there are questions that I would have included had I created and distributed the questionnaire. Some of these might have included direct questions about whether a subject had actually found himself engaging in excessive use of force or whether he had seen others in such a situation. To the extent that truthful answers could have been had and then direct linkages made to attitudes toward HR laws, this would have provided more convincing evidence useful for answering my research questions. Nonetheless, the questions in the data set did include questions that are useful for gauging one’s attitudes regarding HR laws. Because of the connection between attitudes and behaviors, it is helpful to have these questions answered even though there are still some gray areas of doubt that might remain.

Another limitation is that the data did not include questions that fully explore the institutional, situational, or organizational factors identified by Jacobs and O’Brien (1998), Holmes (2000), Hodgson (2001), Cancino (2001), White (2002), Terril and Mastrofski (2002), Smith (2004). These factors have been tested in the United States but were not tested in this study due to a lack of questions in the data set used. Nonetheless, the data used in this study did include questions that related to some of these factors. Although there are limitations, my analysis of the data set yielded important factors that are directly linked to the TNP which is the organization at the focus of this study.

A final limitation is with the implementation of this survey research. The survey was conducted in two large cities of Turkey, the city of Ankara and Diyarbakir. Ankara is
located in the center of the Country and the city of Diyarbakir is located in the eastern part of the Country. These two cities reflect the general characteristics of the Country in terms of policing. However, there are 81 cities in Turkey, thus much could be learned from more inclusive study. Social disorganization theory focuses on geographic territories and neighborhood structures to explain crime in societies (Stark, 1987). Using this theory, Kane (2002) conducted a research and concluded that police misconduct could be predictable by understanding the geographic territories and neighborhood structures assumed by this theory. Since some of the characteristics of 81 cities of Turkey may be different, conducting the research in more cities could have been beneficial to see the variation among different geographic territories and neighborhood structures.

Conclusion of the Chapter

This study has been designed to find answers to a major question. How can police administrators better prevent police use of excessive force in Turkey? The analysis of the data shows that TNP can better prevent the use of excessive force by addressing job satisfaction and education levels of police officers. In addition to these two factors, officers’ attitude toward HR laws should also be considered to accomplish preventing negative outcome of policing. Answers to the first set of subsidiary questions show that police use of excessive force is related to individual, situational, and organizational factors according to police brutality theories. Police brutality in Turkey does exist based on the decisions of the European Court of Human Rights. The findings about the second set of subsidiary questions show that Turkish police officers are, on average, somewhat satisfied with their jobs with job satisfaction affected by job profiles.
and officers’ attitudes toward HR laws. The results of the study also significantly show that the higher the job satisfaction level of a police officer, the more positively related is his or her attitude toward halting the use of excessive force.

The findings about the last set of subsidiary questions reveal that, Turkish police officers’ attitudes toward HR laws, on average, are somewhat positive. Police officers attitudes toward HR laws are significantly and positively correlated with their attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force. Police officers whose attitudes toward HR laws are positive have more positive attitudes toward halting the use of excessive force.
CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

The main research question asked in this study was “How can police administrators better prevent police use of excessive force in Turkey? It has been shown that the Turkish National Police (TNP) can better prevent the use of excessive force by addressing job satisfaction levels of police officers. This should be approached by establishing an accessible promotion system among police officers, increasing their stipends, and reorganizing working shifts. In addition, education on human rights (HR) laws and increasing police education levels are suggested. The statistical analyses showed that job satisfaction levels of police officers and their attitudes toward HR laws were statistically significant in predicting police officers’ attitudes toward use of excessive force. Some of the variables are affecting job satisfaction including attitudes toward HR laws and job profile. Highly satisfied police officers holding higher educational attainment and positive attitudes toward HR laws are found to express high respect for human rights and disfavor using excessive force. Since attitudes are closely related with behavior investments in job satisfaction levels should be instituted to help ensure that brutal behaviors are stopped before they are started.

Educational and policy implications have been presented and discussed as a remedy for the problems associated with job satisfaction level of police officers. The TNP should also focus closely on measuring and improving its personnel policies. The new research centers established under the Turkish National Police Academy are one tool that can be used help to conduct research on TNP personnel and help to develop
policies that will achieve higher satisfaction levels. Establishing fair promotion policies among police officers, managing the monthly salaries, adjusting the hard and long working hours, and designing more tolerable work shifts are early remedies suggested to help increase police officers job satisfaction levels. Research devoted to identifying optimal policies, pay, and education is urged.

Recommendations for future research also include seeking to learn firsthand from police officers who have been involved in excessive use of force. Discussions with officers who have been convicted of using excessive force or who have observed it could yield useful information about why such behavior occurred. Opinions about HR laws would also be useful. Another follow-up to this research would be to collect actual formal use of force cases from the TNP, including the demographic characteristics of the officers who had been found guilty for committing use of excessive force by the courts. Analyzing such a dataset could be used to help construct a police brutality profile for TNP, and it would allow researchers to compare this profile with the others in the world.

The data in this study did not include questions that fully explored the institutional, situational, or organizational factors that may affect the attitudes of use of excessive force of the officers in the TNP. One of these factors is race. Although this is not perceived to be a factor that would affect the attitudes or behaviors of police in Turkey since there is no racial diversity, it may be that race or other ascriptive factors such as sex or personal appearance caused by dress (such as whether a suspect is thought to be a businessman or hoodlum), makes a difference. Factors such as these
should be explored in future studies to learn more about the attitudes of TNP and how they might be linked to excessive use of force.

This research was conducted in two large cities, Ankara and Diyarbakir. However, there are 81 cities in Turkey and their geographic characteristics, and neighborhood structures may be different. Future research in Turkey should choose different type of cities in different regions of the Country to capture the impacts of geographic territories and neighborhood structures on police misconduct. A study examining the impacts of macro level variables which can measure the assumptions of social disorganization theory such as population mobility, poverty rate and crime rates of the cities on police use of excessive force should be conducted. Such a macro level analysis may help us understand the impacts of geographic territories and neighborhood structures on police misconduct.
APPENDIX A

DOGÜ’S (2006) RESEARCH STRATEGY
Dogru’s (2004) survey questionnaire was developed based on a review of the literature and the 2nd and 3rd articles of the European Convention on Human Rights. The survey consisted of five parts and 56 questions (see Attachment 4).

Part 1: Demographic variables (9 questions)

Part 2:  a. General questions (3 questions)
          b. Police job satisfaction (5 questions)

Part 3: Law order, freedoms and police (9 questions)

Part 4: Right to life and use of force (15 questions)

Part 5: Torture and inhuman treatment (15 questions)

After developing the survey, Professors Ali Safak, Zuhtu Arslan, M. Bedri Eryilmaz, Fatih Karaosmanoglu, and Ertan Bese of the Turkish National Police Academy evaluated the face validity of the questions. Upon completion of this step, a pilot study was administered to 48 police officers. Based on their assistance, any changes that required revision were made, and the finalized survey was then conducted in Ankara and Diyarbakir, Turkey, in the summer of 2004.

In addition to the expert evaluation of the questions and professional advice from the professors, Dogru computed cronbach’s alpha for each scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dogru’s Created Scales</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha (α)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Police job satisfaction</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.7732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law order, freedoms and police</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.6605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right to life and use of force</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.8246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Torture and inhuman treatment</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.8686</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Chapters 2 and 3 of Dogru’s (2004) thesis, after the 2\textsuperscript{nd} (right to life) and 3\textsuperscript{rd} (prohibition of torture & inhuman treatment) articles of convention were detailed in-depth, four scales were then developed to determine police officers’ attitudes toward job satisfaction, law order and freedom, right to life and police use of force, and torture and inhuman treatment.

The job satisfaction scale derived from a thorough literature review consisted of five questions located under section B—general questions and job satisfaction—followed by the law order and freedom scale that included nine questions located in section C of the survey instrument (see Appendix D). Because Dogru’s purpose was to measure police officers’ attitudes relating to laws and freedoms in Turkey, these questions were generally associated with Turkey’s human rights laws as well as European laws concerning human rights.

The third scale, right to life and police use of force, was comprised of fifteen questions located in section D of the survey derived from the 2\textsuperscript{nd} article of the convention. Because Article 2 frames the use of force and the death penalty, these questions were appropriately related to these issues. Torture and inhuman treatment, the final scale, was made up of fifteen questions located in section E (refer to Appendix D) that were taken from article 3 of the convention that bans the use of torture, degrading and inhuman treatment against people who are in custody. Thus, this scale was comprised of questions related to these issues.

As such, the dataset used by this researcher will employ two latent variables as tools adopted from Dogru’s (2006) original survey that parallel the 2\textsuperscript{nd} and 3\textsuperscript{rd} articles of
the convention: attitudes toward use of excessive force and attitudes toward torture. By inspecting the face validity of the survey instrument’s questions consistent with human rights scholars in Turkey, Dogru (2006) used a five-point Likert scale to combine these two construct scales from which the dependent variable was formulated: police officers’ attitudes toward use of excessive force. Positive attitudes toward use of excessive force indicated that the police officer was not in favor of unnecessary force. Put another way, police officers did not support the use of excessive force and brutality by police. On the other hand, negative attitudes toward use of excessive force indicated that police officers were in favor of unnecessary use of force.

Each of these scales was created by Fatih Dogru while working toward a master’s thesis from the Institute of Security Sciences in Turkey. Univariate and bivariate methods were employed in Dogru’s analyses by using these scales as different dependent variables, and then analyzing the differences on attitudes between groups according to rank, gender, education, and department categories. Because Dogru did not utilize multivariate analysis, interactions between measured variables could not be observed.
APPENDIX B

INSTITUTIONAL CONSENT FORM OF THE PRESIDENCY

OF TURKISH NATIONAL POLICE ACADEMY
Captain Fatih Dogru who has been working under the Presidency of the TNP Academy and a masters student at the Institute of Security Sciences has started his thesis study titled “The Attitudes of police toward human rights regarding the right to life and prohibition of torture: The case of Ankara and Diyarbakir”.

The Presidency of TNP Academy has been informed that the research consents of students studying at the Institute of Security Sciences and Police Vocational High Schools will be filed by the TNP Academy since the Police Higher Education Act numbered 4562 had restructured the TNP Academy.
Therefore, the survey form, which had been approved with the consent of the Presidency, mentioned in the Reference-b, and the plan of its conducting issues such as how many personnel will be included in Ankara and Diyarbakir City Police Departments are attached.

Please ensure all kinds of assistance about this survey research, which will be conducted in Ankara and Diyarbakir City Police Departments’ public, order departments, police stations, riot police departments and anti-terrorism departments.

I request you to do the requirements.

SIGNATURE
Tuncay YILMAZ
1st Degree police Chief
The President of Turkish National Police Academy

ATTACHMENTS:
Att-1: Consent form
Att-2: Survey Form

DELIVERY TO:
Ankara City Police Department
Diyarbakir City Police Department
APPENDIX C

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH TEXAS IRB LETTER
November 5, 2008

Huseyin Akdogan  
Department of Public Administration  
University of North Texas  

RE: Human Subjects Application No. 08369

Dear Mr. Akdogan:

In accordance with 45 CFR Part 46 Section 46.101, your study titled "Understanding and Preventing Police Use of Excessive Force: An Analysis of Police Job Satisfaction Attitudes and Human Rights Laws Attitudes" has been determined to qualify for an exemption from further review by the UNT Institutional Review Board (IRB).

No changes may be made to your study’s procedures or forms without prior written approval from the UNT IRB. Please contact Sheila Bourns, Research Compliance Administrator, ext. 3940, if you wish to make any such changes.

Sincerely,

Patricia L. Kaminski, Ph.D.  
Chair  
Institutional Review Board

PK: sb

CC: Dr. Lisa Dicke
APPENDIX D

SURVEY INSTRUMENT FOR TURKISH NATIONAL POLICE OFFICERS’
JOB SATISFACTION AND HUMAN RIGHTS ATTITUDES
IN TERMS OF ARTICLES 2 AND 3 OF ECHR
A. DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

1) City where the survey was conducted
   1.(.....) Ankara
   2.(....) Diyarbakir

2) Gender
   1.(....) Male  2.(....) Female

3) Age
   ..................

4) Marital Status
   1.(....) Married  2.(....) Single  3.(....) Separated
   4.(....) Widow  5.(....) Married but Living Separate

5) Rank
   1.(....) Constable  2.(....) Deputy Lieutenant  3.(....) Lieutenant
   4.(....) Captain  5.(....) Police Superintendent  6.(....) Chief of Police

6) Department
   1.(....) Police stations  2.(....) Riot police department
   3.(....) Public order department  4.(....) Terrorism department

7) Service Years in TNP
   .................. Years

8) Education
   1.(....) Junior High School  2.(....) High School  3.(....) Two Year Junior College
   4.(....) Police academy/College  5.(....) Master’s  6.(....) PhD
9) Where were you born?

..........................................................

B. GENERAL QUESTIONS AND JOB SATISFACTION

1) Which institution do you think violates human rights in Turkey the most?

(To be omitted from the present research analysis)

1.(....) Judicial branches  2.(....) Gendarmerie  3.(....) Rangers
4.(....) Police  5.(....) Correction officers  6.(....) Intelligence agents
7.(....) Others (please identify) .................................................................

2) What do you consider to be the most important root cause of brutality and abuse?

1.(....) pressure from public and police chiefs dictating to “solve the crime as soon
as possible”
2.(....) in order to derive confession from the suspect due to lack of evidence
3.(....) because of ethnic discrimination
4.(....) because of reaction against crimes which are against the State and its unity
5.(....) immediate execution due to the belief that the judicial system won’t decide
fair punishment
6.(....) in order to prevent information that the plaintiff, a person who attends the
lawsuit, or a witness may reveal
7.(....) because of stress due to the financial problems and overload
8.(....) because of inadequate education of police officers
9.(....) in order to ensure someone to be a witness about a committed crime
10.(....) because of the desire not to be embarrassed to their superiors and benefit
ultimately from promotions
11. (....) because of lack of control of employees by their managers

12. (....) because of individual and family based problems.

3) Why did you choose to become a police officer?

1. (....) Since I like this job,

2. (....) Since I like uniforms and guns,

3. (....) Since its payment is satisfactory,

4. (....) Since I could not further my education

5. (....) Since I could not find any other job,

6. (....) I did not choose this job; it was a coincidence to become a police officer.

7. (....) Other (Please identify) .................................................................

C. JOB SATISFACTION

4) Given the opportunity, I would like to work in the same department again.

(....) Totally agree

(....) Agree

(....) Neutral

(....) Disagree

(....) Totally disagree

5) Given the opportunity, I would like to be a police officer again.

(....) Totally agree

(....) Agree

(....) Neutral

(....) Disagree

(....) Totally disagree
6) I like my job.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

7) I want my child to become a police officer.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

8) I have good relations with my colleagues.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

D. LAW ORDER, FREEDOMS AND POLICE

1) I think that European Court of Human Rights (ECHR) is a neutral court that decides objectively.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
2) The law of Human Rights protects criminals to a greater extent than victims.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

3) NGOs such as Turkey’s Human Rights Association, Victims Association and Amnesty Turkey are useful in helping citizens properly work to protect individual rights.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

4) I don’t believe the claim that the law is protecting the suspects and defendants more than enough.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree
5) Human rights laws should protect the rights of suspects and defendants even if it steps on the rights of law enforcement agents.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

6) It is never appropriate for a democratic country to limit and intervene in an individual’s rights for the sake of security.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

7) Police have all the tools they need to solve crimes without violating human rights.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

8) I believe that police should not use the methods of terrorist and organized crime organizations methods while fighting with criminals.

(....) Totally agree
9) I don't think that citizens would want to cooperate with police when police act arbitrarily and unlawfully.

E. RIGHT TO LIFE AND USE OF FORCE

1) In certain circumstances, which using gun might be appropriate, police should first warn the criminals and fire a signal shooting.

2) The aim of the police should not be killing the suspects while using force.
3) Police should use the minimum force which can prevent the current danger and threat.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

4) Police use of force should not cause more severe danger or harm than illegal threats.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

5) I believe that police should not use force as a tool to intimidate potential suspects.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

6) The basic principle of police use of force should be “avoiding the use of force which is no more than absolutely necessary.”
7) I believe that the use of force should be stopped as soon as the suspect has been neutralized.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

8) If someone is shot because of police use of force, the investigations to reveal if the use of force was legal and proportional or arbitrary are generally fair.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

9) Increasing the authority of police use of force makes it harder to determine if the police use the authority arbitrarily and unlawfully or lawfully.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
10) I believe that assassinations of some people who are either known terrorists or those who support terrorism is an appropriate tool for a state to struggle with terrorism is wrong.

11) I agree with the notion that police should conduct an effective investigation after a suspicious death event even though the person whose right to life has been violated and killed is a member of a terrorist organization.

12) States should take concrete precautions to protect the right to life.
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

13) In terms of right to life, the decisions of the European Courts of Human Rights against Turkey are generally fair.
(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

14) The “death penalty” violates the right to life.
(To be omitted from the present research analysis)
(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

15) For me, a death penalty should never be implemented.
(To be omitted from the present research analysis)
(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree
F. TORTURE AND INHUMAN TREATMENT

1) It is not a proof of committing the crime if the suspect use the right to remain silent.
   (....) Totally agree
   (....) Agree
   (....) Neutral
   (....) Disagree
   (....) Totally disagree

2) For me, any kind of intervention to the freewill of a suspect that may prevent free expression is wrong.
   (....) Totally agree
   (....) Agree
   (....) Neutral
   (....) Disagree
   (....) Totally disagree

3) Respecting the rights of suspects is more important than solving the crime.
   (....) Totally agree
   (....) Agree
   (....) Neutral
   (....) Disagree
   (....) Totally disagree

4) The fact that improperly obtained evidences are not valid in the judicial process helps to prevent torture and misconduct.
   (....) Totally agree
5) Although it could help to solve the mystery of crime, I am opposed to disregarding the law to get information from suspects.

6) I believe that unlawful methods to solve crime mysteries cause more harm than benefits.

7) I am opposed to the use of torture as a means to reduce or solve crime.
8) Even though police has strong evidence that the suspect conducted the crime, police should not act with a tendency to punish the suspect.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

9) A suspect who is tortured may confess to a crime even though he/she is innocent.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

10) I believe that both management and judicial institutions should not protect public employees who are torturing.

(....) Totally agree
(....) Agree
(....) Neutral
(....) Disagree
(....) Totally disagree

11) European Courts of Human Rights was important for preventing torture to exist in Turkey by its decisions against Turkey.
12) European Committee for the Prevention of Torture was important for preventing torture to exist in Turkey by its reports and recommendations.

13) By allowing the State to receive reimbursement from public employees for unnecessary lawsuits, torture by public employees will be reduced.

14) In my opinion, the torture and misconduct cases happening in Turkey are not the result of a lack of policies and regulations.
15) In my opinion, the root causes of torture and misconduct cases in Turkey are solely the results of wrong or arbitrary actions of some public employees.


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