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A randomised control trial comparing the effects of procedural justice to experienced utility theories in airport security stops

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Abstract

Schedule 7 of the Terrorism Act 2000 is a controversial border security power. During a recent national consultation it was perceived amongst several public rights organisations to be one of the most important factors eroding the legitimacy of the police amongst the public. But there was little scientific evidence. This study is the first ever randomised field trial within the real life setting of an international airport that compared the effects of procedural justice and experienced utility theories on levels of police legitimacy. Over 24 weeks, 781 passengers were randomly assigned to bespoke procedural justice checklist or newly invented experienced utility interventions. Research data was obtained through a validated telephone survey with a 52% response rate. The research findings confirmed that the difference between the procedural justice checklist and experienced utility interventions on the police legitimacy dependent variable was statistically significant ($p < 0.1$) with an overall average effect size in favour of the procedural justice checklist. The findings also confirmed a direct causal relationship between the procedural justice checklist and higher levels of public willingness to co-operate with the police in countering terrorism than experienced utility. These findings reaffirm, although at a much higher level of methodological rigour, previous findings within general operational policing. The results substantiate that passenger assessments of legitimate policing will be enhanced by policing strategies that embed the routine application of procedural justice approaches during public encounters. This research argues for the routine adoption of a procedural justice checklist within an airport security stops setting.

Key words: Procedural Justice, Legitimacy, Schedule 7, Experienced Utility.

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CHAPTER ONE:

INTRODUCTION

Counter Terrorism and Schedule 7 Terrorism Act 2000

The terrorist threats facing the United Kingdom (UK) are omnipotent necessitating constant vigilance by law enforcement agencies (Anderson 2011; 2012; 2013). To counter these threats a range of legislative tools have been developed. One such tool is Schedule 7 of the Terrorism Act (TA) 2000. This port and border security power is regarded as the “principal legal power” (NPIA 2009:7), examining officers (including police, immigration or designated customs officers) working at port and borders across the UK use to protect the country from terrorism. It enables an examining officer to stop, question, detain and search persons at ports, hover ports, airports and international rail ports to determine: “whether a person appears to be someone who is or has been concerned in the commission, preparation or instigation of acts of terrorism” (Home Office 2009:7). No prior authority or suspicion is necessary.

Whilst formidable, these powers also perpetuate a range of recognised utilities which include; identifying terrorists, providing visible deterrence, capturing intelligence and securing evidence necessary to convict people of terrorism offences (Anderson 2012). Despite this, the practical application of the powers are viewed as controversial and responsible for a perceived corrosive effect on levels of police legitimacy (Choudhury and Fenwick 2011; House of Lords 2013). A chain of recent events has accentuated this shift in public interest and perception.

Counter Terrorism and Police Legitimacy

Historically, Schedule 7 TA 2000 has not provoked much public or media comment. It now has that attention. The recent revocation of other 'no suspicion' stop and search counter terrorism powers, the current government emphasis on recalibrating terrorism legislation "in favour of liberty" (Anderson 2012:4) and the international furore associated with the Schedule 7 TA 2000 examination of the journalist David Miranda (Mason 2013), has seemingly fractured the previous sense of public contentment associated with the powers.

This wave of disapproval resulted in a national public consultation being commissioned to assess whether: "port and border controls are necessary, sufficient to meet the threat, attended by adequate safeguards and proportionately exercised" (Anderson 2011:7). The consultation has now concluded (Home Office 2012). Many of the written submissions (Cageprisoners 2012; Derfoufi 2012; Robinson 2012; StopWatch 2012) confirmed that Schedule 7 TA 2000 was having 'negative impacts' on some sections of communities, and was a significant issue eroding the legitimacy of the police amongst communities (Home Office 2013). A critical issue appeared to be the, "demeaning and humiliating way in which stops are conducted" (Cageprisoners 2012:1). Against this backdrop, the powers appear to suffer from a "legitimacy deficit or weakness" (Beetham 1991:18).

The argument in favour of amendment of the powers appears compelling. Currently, this is the pressing reality facing the British government. But examination of some of the consultation responses revealed an absence of scientific evidence supporting criticisms regarding the purported detrimental impact on police legitimacy. This has not gone unnoticed. The Independent Reviewer of Terrorism Legislation

(Anderson 2012:108), argued: “the anecdotal evidence that has been presented to me by a variety of groups and individuals is useful for identifying areas of concern, but it is neither quantifiable nor verifiable.” This signifies a research gap which serves as an important stimulus for this thesis.

Counter Terrorism, Legitimacy and Evidence Based Policing

The absence of scientific evidence is the backdrop against which the research focus for this thesis is framed. It is surprising how little rigorous academic research exists in respect of Schedule 7 TA 2000 (Lyttle 2011) and airport security stops (Lum and Kennedy 2012). There is also a paucity of experimental studies that have sought to establish what different approaches can be taken to improve levels of police legitimacy associated with counter terrorism powers applied within an airport security setting. Scientific evidence achieved through rigorous testing is necessary to establish what different interventions improve perceptions of police legitimacy and thereby provide quantifiable evidence in respect of Schedule 7 TA 2000. This is the underpinning rationale for this thesis.

Assuming then that there is evidence substantiating the claims that Schedule 7 TA 2000 is poorly applied and is responsible for tarnishing the relationship between the police and the public what can be done to rectify that? One possible influential approach that was found in other arenas but less so in the theatre of counter terrorism is procedural justice theory (Tyler 1987; Tyler and Huo 2002; Tyler 2003; Tyler and Wakslak 2004). In addition, Kahneman (2011) in his work on experienced utility illustrated the significant psychological benefits accrued through adoption of the ‘peak and end’ rule. Kahneman (Kahneman 2011) illustrated through creation of

'happy endings' the positive influence that this can have on memories of experiences, or 'remembered utility' and future decision making.

The principal aim of this research was to conduct for the first time, within a real life setting of an international airport, a randomised control trial (RCT) which compared a procedural justice approach with experienced utility theory and then measured the relative effect of each on levels of police legitimacy associated with Schedule 7 TA 2000 stops. Implementing and managing this experiment has been a massive personal, organisational and partnership journey, in which not only were these theories tested for the first time within a unique field setting, but in fact new treatment conditions were invented that were never applied before. This thesis tells the story of this journey.

What did this experiment entail? In accordance with the research design all passengers who experienced Schedule 7 TA 2000 procedures were subject of random assignment within the embarkation and disembarkation areas of the airport. This makes this experiment a multi-site RCT. Within each of the areas, all participants were randomly assigned to receive either a procedural justice checklist intervention or an experienced utility intervention. A validated survey was used which captured the influences of either experienced utility or procedural justice on the legitimacy dependent variable. The precise details are outlined within Chapter 4 covering research methods.

Why Is This Study Important?

Currently, Schedule 7 TA 2000 area has attracted significant national and international interest following the examination of David Miranda (Doward 2013). The almost forensic level of public scrutiny that accompanied this incident again presented a very critical portrayal of the powers being responsible for the erosion of police legitimacy. Whilst highly topical, there are also literature and empirical reasons that contribute to the importance of the study.

The completion of a comprehensive literature review provided a more coherent understanding of existing studies that have explored procedural justice and legitimacy relationships within the domain of airport security stops and terrorism more broadly. This has previously received scant attention. It also served to reaffirm the lack of causal research associated with procedural justice and legitimacy and the lack of academic emphasis previously given to Schedule 7 TA 2000. This thesis therefore contributes to enhancing the academic research associated with Schedule 7 TA 2000 and also the rigour of research associated with procedural justice theory, previously recognised as an antecedent of legitimacy (Tyler 2006). This thesis also builds on previous scholarly work (O'Bryan 2009; Huq et al 2011) that extended the generalizability of the study of procedural justice from predominantly the United States (US) to the UK and consolidates research associated with airport security stops in America (Sindhav et al 2006) and Israel (Hasisi and Weisburd 2011). It is also attractive due to its uniqueness.

The research that underpins this thesis, conducted for the first time an RCT within a counter terrorism context and airport field setting. In doing so, it directly addressed the desire for rigorous research requested by Lum et al (2006). The

research also operationalised component parts of experienced utility theory developed by Kahneman (Kahneman and Tversky 2000) as experimental interventions to compare and contrast differing relationships with legitimacy. This is radical. Aside from the literature and empirical value, this thesis contributes to the wider research community in marking an incremental step towards bridging an accessibility and proximity gap between the research community and the counter terrorism operational arena. It starts the process of slowly removing the perceived veil of secrecy associated with counter terrorism policing (Lum et al 2006). This thesis is important and has the potential to support significant advances in the field.

Aims of Present Research

The overarching aims of this thesis fall into five broad themes: first, clarification of what is meant by the term legitimacy, its importance and exploring procedural justice as a core antecedent; second, a critical assessment of existing procedural justice and legitimacy research in respect of airport security stops; third, clarification of Kahneman's concept of experienced utility and specifically the 'peak and end' rule (Kahneman and Tversky 2000); fourth, successful implementation of an experiment, in which the effect of procedural justice and experienced utility treatments were tested on levels of police legitimacy within an airport security setting. Lastly, suggested future policy recommendations based on the evidence.

This thesis incorporates the following: within Chapter 2, the multi-dimensional nature of legitimacy is signposted and its importance within policing re-emphasised; the background to procedural justice will be outlined and its intimate relationship with legitimacy discussed; the findings from a targeted review of past theoretical and

empirical literature related to airport security stops is given detailing previous limitations and opportunities progressed through this research; in Chapter 3, the research hypothesis is detailed; in Chapter 4, the research methods covering the experimental design, participants, materials, procedure and data analysis is described; results of analysis are described in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 explains how future findings could be utilised to improve existing guidance and practice and also limitations associated with this research; Chapter 7 presents the conclusion to the thesis.

CHAPTER TWO:

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The literature review introduces the scholastic framework within which this study has placed its focus. To address the stated research aims this chapter is divided into six sections. Firstly, it will explore the meaning of legitimacy, confirm the lack of 'critical consensus' and outline important police legitimacy by-products: public willingness to co-operate and compliance. Secondly, procedural justice theory as an antecedent of legitimacy is described. The third section assesses the rigour of the evidence associated with previous procedural justice and legitimacy research. The fourth section evaluates the paucity of studies that have investigated procedural justice and legitimacy within an airport security stops setting. Given this limited research, the review parameters are broadened to incorporate other counter terrorism studies. Within the fifth section, the limitations of legitimacy research associated with airport security and other counter terrorism settings are highlighted. Finally, the review examines experienced utility theory. No application of experienced utility theory exists within a policing context therefore the concept is explored by reviewing core components described and previous studies.

Legitimacy – Definition and Importance

There are instrumental and normative mechanisms that contribute to the achievement and maintenance of social order. One normative mechanism is

legitimacy. Legitimacy is not a new concept. Zelditch (2001:4) argued that: “It is one of the oldest problems in the history of social thought.” It is a phenomenon that has received extensive debate within political science, yet remained for a time on the periphery of social science interest (Tankebe 2013). This phenomenon lacks scholarly consensus in terms of conceptualisation (Hyde 1983; Suchman 1995; Fallon 2005). Abel (1980:825) confirmed this stating: “Perhaps most fundamental the concept of legitimation has neither precise definition nor a clear behavioural correlative.”

The roots of modern references to legitimacy lie with Weber (1978). For Weber the concept of legitimacy was one of a number of pillars that supported the structure of political authority. He argued that ‘domination’ rests on the ability to influence but, most importantly, on “authority” or, “the power to command and duty to obey” (Blau 1963:306). To have “authority” was important as it engendered the “unconditional willing obedience on the part of subordinates” (Blau 1963:307). Weber (1978) within his typology confirmed three types of authority: legal, traditional and charismatic, all of which lay on a bedrock of beliefs which socially legitimised the exercise and application of control. According to Weber, it is legal authority that plays the more prominent role of the three, particularly in terms of explaining the law abiding nature of modern states.

Weber (1978) argued that generating ‘audience legitimacy’ was not a one off transaction, but rather a continuing interaction between the power holder and the public. Bottoms and Tankebe (2012) embraced this Weberian observation referring to it as a ‘dialogic’ relationship requiring ‘perpetual discussion’. Whilst Weber’s framing of legitimacy retains contemporary relevancy (Tyler 2004) some subsequent theoretical dissections claimed Weber had distorted the ‘essential meaning’ of

legitimacy (Grafstein 1981) and that the Weberian model was, “problematic and unproven and at best probably wrong” (Hyde 1983:385).

Other political science conceptualisations of legitimacy exist. Merelman (1966:548) stated it was a “sense of moral rightness” assigned to a regime by the population. Easton (1975:436) referred to the term “diffuse support” as a deliberate and persuasive “synonym for legitimacy” that provided: “a reservoir of favourable attitudes or good will that helps members to accept or tolerate outputs to which they are opposed” (Easton 1975:444). This spectrum of conceptualisation of legitimacy was impressive and further enriched by the developing social science contribution.

Legitimacy and Police Work

Political science interest in legitimacy eventually perforated social science discussion. The influential work of Beetham (1991) propagated a gathering criminological interest in legitimacy and its role in stimulating public law abidingness (Tyler and Darley 2000; Tyler 2001; 2011). Beetham argued legitimacy resulted from a critical interplay between societal rules, shared values and public consent. Beetham (1991:26) defined legitimacy as: “the right that it gives to those in authority to require obedience in principle regardless of the content of any particular law or instruction.” Importantly, this emphasis on rules, values and consent is strikingly similar to a later contribution by Coicaud (2002).

Social scientists have offered definitions of legitimacy with varying specificity. These offerings included; a sense of “empowerment” (Tyler and Mitchell 1994:710), “a belief that the authority enforcing the law has the right to do so” (Meares

2000:398) and “institutional loyalty - support not contingent upon satisfaction with the immediate outputs of the institution” (Gibson et al 2005:188). Limits of space prevent coverage of all social science offerings, but scholarly work by Tyler and associates is helpful in exploring further the issue of conceptualisation.

Tyler (1997:323) argued that legitimacy consists of “internalised social values” that informs individual and group judgements which in turn influences degrees of self regulation, personal deference to authority and personal consent (Tyler 2003; Tyler 2006; Tyler 2006a; Tyler et al 2007), all of which are crucial for effective policing. Sunshine and Tyler (2003:514) provided added clarity confirming that: “legitimacy is a property of an authority or institution that leads people to feel that the authority or institution is entitled to be deferred to or obeyed.” For Tyler (2004), obligation to obey, was the most direct manifestation of the concept of legitimacy, resulting in it becoming a main feature of the measurement of legitimacy by Tyler (2003) and other scholars (Reisig and Lloyd 2009). However, Tankebe (2013) observed that ‘obligation to obey’ cannot entirely be due to legitimacy and that regard should be given to the influence of fear, powerlessness, and ‘dull compulsion’ or, the acquiescence to power holders in abstention of genuine legitimacy (Carrabine 2004).

The Benefits of Legitimacy for Policing

Effective societies require stability and order and a means of ensuring that the public follow norms and laws that both preserve peace and tranquillity. This is a primary function of policing (Herbert 2006). As the empowered overt agents of social stability and control, the police need to be seen as legitimate executors of state bestowed powers (Hough et al, 2010). Legitimacy is one of the “ultimate values”

(Abel 1980:822) by which policing is judged and it creates a “cushion of support” (Rasinski et al 1985:386) for police in times of difficulty and an anchor point for the achievement of other police organisational benefits including levels of public compliance and public co-operation (Mazerolle et al 2013).

Studies have illustrated the benefits to policing that can be achieved in securing legitimacy based deference to laws and police directives (Mastrofski et al 1996; Tyler 2003; Tyler 2004; Hinds 2009; Gau and Brunson 2010; Mazerolle et al 2012). Traditionally, public compliance has been achieved through the adoption of an instrumental or ‘deterrence philosophy’ approach, manifested as the threat or risk of punishment, rather than normative means associated with legitimacy (Tyler 2009). Tankebe (2008) amongst others has questioned the future sustainability of deterrence as an effective regulatory strategy.

Alternatively, voluntary deference achieved through a normative approach, encourages self regulation and the right foundations to achieve a “law abiding society” (Tyler 2004:96). Scholars have also shown (Tyler 2004; Murphy et al 2008; Tyler and Fagan 2008; Kochel et al 2012) that legitimacy mobilised the public to co-operate with police in controlling crime and disorder by reporting crimes, providing intelligence and supporting crime prevention initiatives. This “one theoretical rubric” (Gau et al 2012:333) provided an enhanced policing capacity and effectiveness and inspired compliance and co-operation which supported the achievement of police organisational goals and social stability. What factors then are necessary to create and sustain legitimacy? The widely recognised antecedent is procedural justice, the origins of which started with the work of Thibaut and Walker (1975).

Antecedents of Police Legitimacy - Procedural Justice

Thibaut and Walker (1975) discovered two elements of court settings that influenced litigant feelings of satisfaction: trial outcome; conduct of trials in terms of the 'distribution of control' and 'evidence presentation'. The latter aspect they labelled procedural justice. Subsequent investigations revealed that procedural justice constituting process control (voice in the decision making process) and decision control (ability to influence outcomes) were important criteria for procedural justice (Thibaut and Walker 1978). For Lind and Tyler (1988:5) Thibaut and Walker's work was a, "seminal event in the emergence of the social psychology of procedural justice." The procedural justice seed was sown.

That seed soon germinated and flowered. It became apparent that procedural justice or the, "conceptual container for thinking about how we are treated" (Lane 1988:189), was portable to different real life settings including; courts (McEwen and Maiman 1984; Tyler 1984), work organisations (Dowling and Pfeffer 1975; Alexander and Ruderman 1987; Greenberg and Tyler 1987), police (Tyler and Folger 1980; Tyler 1987; Tyler 1988; Tyler et al 1989), legal authorities (Wemmers et al 1995; Paternoster et al 1997) and prisons (Sparks et al 1996).

Since the early work, the theoretical advancement of procedural justice can largely be attributed to Tyler and associates (Tyler and Huo 2002; Sunshine and Tyler 2003; Tyler 2003; 2006; 2006a; 2011). Tyler's theoretical approach includes two main arteries of psychological theory: distributive justice and procedural justice. Distributive justice concerns achievement of fair outcomes and fair distribution of outcomes. The other theoretical artery, procedural justice, embodies: "the perceived fairness of the procedures involved in decision-making and the perceived treatment

one receives from the decision maker” (Murphy et al 2009:2). This thesis focuses on procedural justice.

Through the subsequent theoretical development of the process based model (Tyler and Huo 2002; Tyler and Blader 2003; Tyler 2006; Dai et al 2011; Schulhofer et al 2011), procedural justice was shown to be operationally defined by two key dimensions: quality of treatment which incorporated politeness and respect and dignity; quality of decision making reflecting opportunities to participate, unbiased decisions, trustworthiness and error correction. The literature illustrated that when holding those two key dimensions under a theoretical microscope, greater specificity of constituent ingredients was ascertained. Four key components were identified (Tyler et al 2007; Gau 2011; Wolfe 2011); public voice, neutrality in decision making, trustworthiness and treatment with dignity and respect. The theory posits, manifested through the process based model, that the police can acquire legitimacy if they routinely deploy these four components during interactions with the public (Tyler 2000; 2003; 2006; Wells 2007; Hinds 2009; Goodman-Delahunty 2010). There is then a distinct theoretical traceability between procedural justice associated with legal authority, police decision making and the way and manner in which authority is exercised when implementing or enforcing the law, which in turn generates legitimacy (Tankebe 2008).

Research Evidence on the Effect of Procedural Justice on Police Legitimacy

It is clear that much of the police legitimacy research is US centric (Tyler and Huo 2002; Sunshine and Tyler 2003; Tyler 2003; 2004; 2006; Fagan 2008; Tyler and Fagan 2008; Gau and Brunson 2010). But there is a gathering interest in police

legitimacy research within other socio-political environments including; Australia (Hinds and Murphy 2007; Murphy et al 2008; Hinds 2009; Murphy 2009; Murphy and Cherney 2011), Slovenia (Reisig et al 2012; Reisig et al 2013), Jamaica (Reisig and Lloyd 2009), Trinidad and Tobago (Kochel 2012), Ghana (Tankebe 2008; 2009), UK (Huq et al 2011) and South Africa (Bradford et al 2013). Harnessing the breadth of existing research to formulate a coherent view on the available evidence was challenging.

Fortunately, the systematic review undertaken by Mazerolle et al (2013) was enormously helpful, revealing 963 studies associated with police legitimacy and procedural justice and policing. Following a review of data, a final set of 30 studies contained data suitable for meta-analysis. The analyses confirmed that those police interventions that incorporated dialogue between the police and public with a procedural justice element enhanced levels of police legitimacy. The review suggested that the delivery mechanism that enabled the police to engage with the public was less important than the style of the interaction itself. This supports Bottoms and Tankebe's (2012) 'dialogic' approach.

There were however, some important methodological imperfections. As instructive as the meta-analysis was, there was a noted lack of rigour associated with the research which was largely survey or observational based (Feucht et al 2009). The absence of random assignment between intervention and control groups was an important factor that may have introduced bias into study findings, inhibiting the ability to specifically isolate the elements of the policing intervention that may have been responsible for improving levels of police legitimacy.

Despite extensive literature on the topic, the number of rigorous studies was extremely limited. Only one RCT appeared to exist that explicitly set out to use the ingredients of procedural justice to enhance legitimacy. This was in the context of road side breath tests in Australia (Mazerolle et al 2012). The experiment known as the 'Queensland Community Engagement Trial' (QCET) tested the impact of police using the four key components of procedural justice during encounters with the public stopped for a drink driving assessment. The findings confirmed a statistically significant difference between the treatment and 'business as usual' groups on perceptions of police fairness, police respect and confidence. The results supported findings from previous research which investigated the impact of procedural justice approaches on public perceptions of satisfaction and willingness to comply (Hinds and Murphy 2007; Murphy et al 2008). However the main weakness with this research was the low survey response rate of 13.16%, raising the threat of non respondent bias.

Procedural Justice and Legitimacy - An Airport Security Setting

In the context of airport security stops, police legitimacy research is scarce. There is an absence of rigorous scientific evidence both in this and the broader counter terrorism arena (Lum et al 2009; Lum and Kennedy 2012). In a Campbell Collaboration systematic review (Lum et al 2006; Lum et al 2006a) on counter terrorism strategies and interventions over 20,000 items of literature were reviewed. Only seven studies used at least moderately rigorous scientific methods. This was largely attributed to a lack of access to field settings and data, poor receptivity to

research by the counter terrorism community and counter terrorism strategies being “shrouded in secrecy” (Lum et al 2006:33).

Some noteworthy exceptions did exist. For example, a study was undertaken at an airport in the Mid West US (Sindhav et al 2006). The research hypothesis examined whether passenger perceptions of procedural justice during airport security screening processes positively influenced passenger satisfaction more so than distributive justice. The study included a clear description of the population from which the sample was drawn along with clear eligibility criteria. It also clarified the process of data collection by surveying passengers immediately after the screening procedure.

The reliability of the survey as a measuring tool was strengthened by the fact that it was based on previous research and pre tested on 100 individuals. Having completed 775 surveys, the relationship between fairness perceptions and satisfaction was examined. The results confirmed procedural justice had the strongest impact on overall passenger satisfaction. This indicated that the way in which legislation was practically implemented and applied by officials was critical to passengers service experience.

Supporting these findings, Hasisi and Weisburd (2011) described how Israeli Arabs subjected to airport security screening processes felt humiliated and deliberately targeted by security officials administering the procedures. Examination of the passenger survey revealed construct validity associated with the legitimacy dependent variable and accompanying five independent variables; ethnic identity, socio demographic background, evaluations of the security process, reason for travelling and characteristics of the security process. The results confirmed that both

Israeli Arabs and Jews considered treatment of passengers as the most influential factor that cultivated perceptions of legitimacy. Furthermore, that: “the most sensitive stage in the airport security procedures is the public interaction between the passenger and the security personnel” (Hasisi and Weisburd 2011:888).

More recently, Lum et al (2013) reported the findings of a field study conducted at an East Coast airport in the US. The purpose of this study was to ascertain whether passengers held perceptions of differential treatment by airport security officials across gender, race and age types. The population from which the sample was drawn was clearly outlined along with eligibility criteria for participants. Surveys of 505 passengers were conducted. The findings confirmed the existence of procedural fairness type behaviours amongst airport security officials resulted in satisfactory feedback from passengers.

Given the small number of studies a broader review of the literature associated with counter terrorism was commenced.

Research on Legitimacy in the Broader Context of Counter Terrorism

The lack of research in respect of counter terrorism policing was recognised by Tyler et al (2010). They addressed an important question: whether models of social control developed within mainstream policing have relevance to counter terrorism policing? The aim of the study was to explore instrumental approaches, in the form of deterrence, versus normative approaches, in the form of legitimacy, as rival explanations for co-operation with police in respect of countering terrorism. Specifically, the study assessed the circumstances under which Muslim Americans in

New York City voluntarily co-operated with police to combat terrorism. The study recognised the Tylerian process based model and sought to confirm whether the model could be transposed into the terrorism context and within a defined community group. The study findings confirmed procedural justice positively influenced Muslim American attitudes towards co-operation with police in the context of counter terrorism. Instrumental explanations only received weak support. The findings suggested that, in accordance with those from general policing research, procedural justice is important in maintaining police legitimacy and motivating co-operation with the police.

Similarly, Huq et al, (2011) examined the effects of counter terrorism policing tactics and practices on the willingness to co-operate amongst Muslim communities in London with a similar research tool used in Tyler et al (2010), which was conducted over the telephone achieving an 81% response rate. The study indicated that procedural justice strongly predicted the willingness to co-operate with the police.

Whilst this limited evidence portrays an encouraging picture regarding the approaches and findings associated with this small number of studies, it is also important to sensitively highlight some of the research limitations.

Research Lags in Previous Research

Amongst all of the studies that have been described there is a common limitation: lack of methodological rigour. All of the studies are correlation or observational designs. In blunt terms: there were no experiments. This prevented

identification of causal relationships between variables. Furthermore, referring to the Maryland Scientific Methods Scale (SMS) (Sherman et al 1998), which scores the methodological rigour of research designs, the studies are Level 1 or 2. This exposed the studies to the adverse influence of confounding variables and threats to internal validity, which undermines the credibility of reported findings (Campbell and Stanley 1963). As such, these airport security stop studies are informative, but, nevertheless non experimental which limits our understanding of causal inference.

Whilst general limitations have been identified, there are also those bespoke to each particular study. Sindhav et al (2006) are silent on the issue of low response rate bias associated with the survey and what steps were taken to minimise collusion amongst passengers when completing it. In respect of the sample, there are issues of bias which receive only passing commentary: the sample size classified as 'Caucasian' (90%); the terminal predominantly serviced passengers travelling for leisure purposes thereby largely omitting those travelling for other purposes. Finally, there is the issue of the limited generalizability of the research findings with the study being conducted in one terminal within one airport in one state within the US.

In respect of the study by Tyler et al (2010), the sample size associated with the study at 300, was likely to be under-powered, the response rate was relatively low as well at 47%. The lack of public participation in the survey received little commentary. There were also issues of limited generalizability associated with this research: one Muslim community in one location.

Existing research then, within an airport security setting is extremely limited and confined to the lower rungs of the SMS ladder. However, procedural justice continued to perform strongly. Yet, some scholars have suggested that the

theoretical linkage between procedural justice and legitimacy was unnecessarily narrow (Murphy et al 2009; Reisig and Mesko 2009) and that other factors were responsible for cultivating police legitimacy? With this in mind, the review of the literature will now move to describe experienced utility theory.

Experienced Utility Theory

Careful examination of the literature indicates that the assumed monopoly position of procedural justice as a 'key antecedent' of police legitimacy may not be without challenge. The generating effect of procedural justice whilst influential, should not discount consideration of other calibrating factors (Bottoms and Tankebe 2012). Sufficient research exists to confirm that other factors in different contexts and socio-political environments did indeed act as stimuli to generating legitimacy. These alternative generators have included distributive fairness, performance, police lawfulness and police effectiveness (Hinds 2009; Reisig et al 2012; Bradford et al 2013; Mazerolle et al 2013; Tankebe 2013). Smith (2007) in particular argued that not all phenomena that create 'audience legitimacy' had been covered. One such factor could be experienced utility.

For policing scholars and legitimacy theorists, experienced utility is an unfamiliar concept. No existing examples of research drawing upon the concept of experienced utility within an airport security stops context, other counter terrorism setting, or indeed, within any other policing studies were located. It is a novel approach.

The concept of experienced utility dates back to Jeremy Bentham and his definition of utility being the experience of pleasure and pain which are the 'sovereign masters' that influence, "what we ought to do, as well as determine what we shall do" (Kahneman and Tversky 2000:673). Nobel Prize winner, Daniel Kahneman (Kahneman and Tversky 1984; Kahneman et al 1997) developed a more comprehensive theory around Bentham's utility model. For Kahneman, the two key foundations of experienced utility are 'moment utility' which refers to the experienced utility of an episode in real time and 'remembered utility' which relates to retrospective "global evaluations" of previous incidents in life that are made (Varey and Kahneman 1992:180).

With the remembered utility aspect, it is suggested that recalling a particular incident or occasion is determined by a "representative moment" (Kahneman and Tversky 2000:694), which is assessed according to the level of pleasure or pain at that particular time. This moment influences the remembered self and creates a memory. Memories are important because they build a person's bank of knowledge that determines which, "stimuli are to be approached and which are to be avoided" (Kahneman and Tversky 2000:768) in future deliberations. Kahneman (2011:381) suggested that the remembered self: "is the one that keeps score and governs what we learn from living and it is the one that makes decisions."

Remembered utility then, is sensitive to experiential effects at particular points, notably the most extreme or, those encountered at the conclusion of an experience (Varey and Kahneman 1992). These are defining moments which translate how an entire episode or experience is assessed. Research refers to this process as the "peak and end rule" (Kahneman and Tversky 2000:694).

How is the peak and end rule relevant to public policy? According to Read and Lowenstein (1999), the 'rule' stipulates that people's global evaluations of previous experiences are constructed by two moments: the most intense and the ending. Therefore, the creation of a memory trace of the 'peak and end' of a policing experience potentially influences future decisions and choices made by the public shaped by assessments of these 'representative moments' (Carmon and Kahneman 1995). These moments create, snapshots of the "affective experience" (Fredrickson and Kahneman 1993:45) that represent particularly poignant aspects of episodes. This is important as: "one or two moments then, play a privileged role in guiding people's choices about which past experience they should avoid, and which they should repeat, or recommend to others" (Fredrickson 2000:588). Thus, identifying these moments can bear significant implications for policing and policies in ways explored below, however, a review of the available evidence is presented first.

Previous Research on the 'Peak and End Rule' and 'Happy Endings'

The limited studies which tested experienced utility and manipulations of the peak and end rule incorporated an interesting spectrum of settings including; film clips (Fredrickson and Kahneman 1993), medical procedures (Redelmeier and Kahneman 1996), pain (Kahneman et al 1993), aversive sounds (Ariely and Zauberman 2000; Schreiber and Kahneman 2000), queuing (Carmon and Kahneman 1995), economic policy (Kahneman and Sugden 2005; Kahneman and Thaler 2006), subjective well being (Kahneman and Krueger 2006) and autobiographical events (Kemp et al 2008).

Fredrickson and Kahneman (1993) studied the effects of film clips that varied in intensity, which demonstrated that when people provided a global evaluation of past experiences they referred to particular segments of footage that coloured their retrospective evaluation. Participants used the peak and the ending moments within the clips to formulate an overall assessment. Later studies also endorsed these findings.

A real-life study undertaken by Redelmeier and Kahneman (1996) extended these findings to the retrospective evaluation of an invasive medical procedure: colonoscopy. Patients undergoing colonoscopy rated their levels of pain discomfort at regular intervals from the initial insertion of the colonoscope to its removal. The subsequent retrospective global assessments of the procedure were predicted using assessment procedures that incorporated measurements of the greatest discomfort (peak) and the discomfort during the concluding moments of the medical intervention (end). Later studies (Redelmeier et al 2003) examined the memories of patients undergoing colonoscopy and lithotripsy which reinforced Redelmeier and Kahneman's (1996) original findings that retrospective evaluations are framed based on the intensity of pain at its most extreme and during the concluding stages of the experience. In concurrence with the 'peak and end' rule, a 'happy ending' resulted in more positive retrospective evaluations or remembered utility of the overall procedure.

Further evidence was presented when testing subjects exposed to cold water experiences (Kahneman et al 1993). In this trial, participants submerged their hands in cold water for a period of 60 seconds with a similar water temperature throughout, and then a longer period of 90 seconds where for the final 30 seconds the temperature of the water was raised slightly. Following the two procedures

participants were then invited to repeat one of the two treatments. Counter intuitively, most participants preferred to repeat the longer trial, despite it incorporating all the discomfort of the shorter trial and an additional period of submergence. This preferred choice was influenced by the diminishing degree of discomfort at the end of the experience. Again, a 'happy ending' had the greatest effect in generating more positive global evaluations of the experience.

These studies reveal a common finding: that memory of an aversive episode can be improved by reducing levels of discomfort during the closing stages. Selected moments create better memories which then influence prospective choices. Yet how applicable are these seemingly universal elements in police practices? While conceptually convincing, there is no research available on experienced utility in real life compliance, let alone in the framework of legitimacy and the 'peak and end' rule has only been tested in a limited number of settings (Kahneman and Tversky 2000). This begs the question: is experienced utility applicable to the topic de jour? This thesis is one attempt to provide evidence on the effect of the 'peak and end' rule in the specific context of counter terrorism. The focus of this thesis is to test and compare the presence of an association between the provision of a 'happy ending' to airport security stops and police legitimacy.

Summary

The varying conceptualisation of legitimacy and the valuable co-operation and compliance by-products that accrue from its cultivation have been explored. A review of the literature illustrated that procedural justice is a recognised antecedent of legitimacy. Yet procedural justice does not hold a monopoly in terms of its

precursor relationship with legitimacy. Alternative explanations exist. This provides fertile conditions to test the concept of experienced utility theory and a branch of that theory: remembered utility. This theory has never been tested in a criminological context.

In reviewing existing evidence, a systematic review (Mazerolle et al 2013) revealed the general lack of methodological rigour associated with existing research. Only one experiment was recorded (Mazerolle et al 2012). Similarly, there is a paucity of available procedural justice and legitimacy studies associated with airport security stops settings. Those that existed lacked methodological rigour and were affected by high non response rates, presence of bias and questionable internal validity. No evidence was found in these contexts involving experienced utility. These lags in the research lend themselves to further investigation and by implication justify the needs of the present study.

CHAPTER THREE:

HYPOTHESIS

The literature review illustrated that procedural justice seemingly holds a commanding status as the recognised antecedent of police legitimacy. The theory posited that the police acquired legitimacy through the deployment of four components; voice, neutrality, dignity and respect and trustworthiness, during interactions with the public (Hinds 2009; Sunshine and Tyler 2003; Tyler 2003; Goodman-Delahunty 2010). Critically, however, studies were primarily US centric, restricted by limited sample sizes and correlational designs. The QCET (Mazerolle et al 2012), is the only RCT to test relationships between procedural justice and legitimacy yet suffers from extremely low response rates. Whilst results were encouraging, Mazerolle et al (2012) urged the research community to test the checklist intervention in different types of police initiated encounters.

The literature further confirmed that some scholars remain unconvinced of the merits of procedural justice and suggested its premier status was generally misguided. Plausible alternatives to procedural justice were proffered (Hinds 2009), but these remain largely minor oppositions.

For this thesis, a unique alternative is suggested: Kahneman's experienced utility theory. The theory purports that achievement of positive psychological effects are associated with the optimisation of certain moments, notably 'happy endings'. A better ending has traction in influencing memories of an experience (Kahneman 2011). Yet, experienced utility has never previously infiltrated social science research

and has only been tested in a limited number of settings. This provides an exciting opportunity to address both of these shortcomings.

In light of these two arguably competing theories, this thesis tested procedural justice and experienced utility theories on police legitimacy within an airport security setting. A non-directional hypothesis was thus formulated, as the evidence on directionality was lacking. This approach encapsulated the desire to compare the relative causal link between procedural justice and experienced utility on the police legitimacy dependent variable. The hypothesis was therefore as follows:

'A checklist of procedural justice dimensions and enhancing experienced utility in Schedule 7 TA 2000 procedures at Birmingham Airport, in cases in which suspicion of terrorism threat at airport security was unsubstantiated, will result in different levels of perceived legitimacy.'

The next chapter outlines the research design and apparatus that enabled this hypothesis to be tested.

CHAPTER FOUR:

RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to bridge the theoretical emphasis in the previous chapter and the empirical findings associated with the causal research. The aim of the chapter is to explain and justify key decisions that were made in designing the research strategy: an RCT comparing procedural justice versus experienced utility approaches on levels of police legitimacy. This chapter contains twelve sections: a description of the research design; a descriptive account of the research field setting; details of the research participants and the chosen sampling method; insight into the research treatments; explanation of the experimental procedures; confirmation of pilot testing; completion of an experimental protocol; the choice of measuring instrument and details of content and structure; defined measures; efforts to maximise response rate; estimation of sample size through statistical power analysis; key strands of the data analyses.

Choice of Research Design

This study was designed to compare the effect of procedural justice versus experienced utility interventions on levels of police legitimacy, using a Level 5 SMS design (Sherman et al 1998). The experiment was designed to test two treatment groups in the embarkation and disembarkation areas within the main airport terminal. A Level 5 SMS, according to Sherman et al (1998), provides the pre-conditions to

secure high levels of internal validity through the process of random assignment. Random assignment, aided by the Cambridge randomiser (Ariel et al 2012), provided the best means of achieving equalisation of the two treatment groups and nurtured the right conditions to control for rival causal factors that are often associated with the lower rungs of the SMS ladder. Rival causal factors adversely affect the plausibility and availability of different explanations for treatment effects. Hence, any outcome differences observed between the treatment groups on levels of police legitimacy and other strands of the research can likely be attributed to the effects of the administered treatments (Campbell and Stanley 1963). As Shadish et al (2002:13) commented: “the randomised experiment is often referred to as the gold standard for treatment outcome research.”

As mentioned, this study involved the comparison of two treatments on two groups at two locations, though one treatment group incorporated two specific types of intervention. There was no control group. There were justifiable reasons for this: to sustain sufficient sample size necessary to secure statistical power; all Counter Terrorism Unit (CTU) ports officers were briefed in one of the treatments, which in turn presented a significant risk that with the existence of a control group there could be treatment cross over. Put differently, because the same group of officers would deliver the treatment and the ‘business as usual’ control conditions, any assumption the control group is in fact ‘clean’ would be inaccurate.

Research Setting

The field setting was a busy international airport in the Midlands region which handled approximately 10 million passengers a year, with 50 airlines operating 80,000 scheduled and charter services to over one hundred destinations worldwide.

Three teams of CTU ports officers worked within the embarkation and disembarkation areas at the airport and with the support of partner agencies held the specific remit for border security. These teams of officers were principally responsible for the exercise of the Schedule 7 TA 2000 powers.

CTU ports officers were carefully positioned at specific locations within the airport to maximise utilisation of the powers afforded to them under Schedule 7 TA 2000. Officers monitored passenger movements from behind private security operated search cordons in embarkations and from behind staffed Immigration and United Kingdom Border Agency (UKBA) kiosks within the disembarkation area. Prior to this research, a Schedule 7 TA 2000 encounter between a CTU ports officer and passenger was a fairly austere experience reflecting current training and national guidance (Home Office 2009).

This airport setting provided an ideal environment in which to progress social science research due to high levels of daily police-passenger contact generated through Schedule 7 TA 2000 procedures and the permanent 'in situ' presence of police resources. The ability to utilise existing capacity, rather than artificially pump prime the research with additional resources, encourages future replication and promotes external validity.

The airport is a substantial commercial enterprise. To conduct causal research within this environment required authorisation from the relevant Airport Authorities. This was a very demanding and protracted process that took a period of three months to negotiate with the Director of Terminal Services to secure the necessary access. Further authorities to implement the research design were also required from the UKBA, national security services, the Association of Chief Police Officers

Terrorism and Allied Matters business area and from the National Coordinator of Ports Policing. With the necessary authorities secured the RCT commenced, on the 19th April 2013 and continued for a period of 24 weeks, concluding on 2nd October 2013. This was unique.

Participants

Within this study the units of analysis were passengers stopped within embarkation and disembarkation, for the purposes of establishing whether they were involved in the commission, preparation or instigation of acts of terrorism. The sampling frame incorporated all passengers embarking and disembarking within the main airport terminal who were subject of Schedule 7 TA 2000 procedures: this was the population from which the sample was drawn. Cases were accessed by CTU ports officers who were present in these areas during the normal course of their duties. The sampling method that was employed was 'trickle flow', whereby all passengers subject of Schedule 7 TA 2000 examinations were assessed on a case by case basis for eligibility. This sampling method was selected because practically these locations naturally supported such a method, but also because there was a transparency to the approach with no 'creaming' or preferential selection of cases.

The eligibility criteria against which passengers were assessed were clearly defined and included all passengers subject of Schedule 7 TA 2000 and all passengers 18 years and over. The exclusion criteria incorporated all those passengers who were under 18 years, passengers excluded at behest of national security agencies and passengers detained for a terrorism related offence. All cases were assessed for eligibility using the Cambridge randomiser. Once eligibility was

confirmed a block random pseudo-randomisation sequence allocated cases equally between the procedural justice and experienced utility treatment groups, blocked by embarkation and disembarkation areas at the airport.

Treatments

Treatment A: Procedural Justice Checklist

Mazerolle et al (2012), in their study on random roadside random breath tests, operationalised a 'legitimacy script' and supporting checklist reflecting the four key components of procedural justice; voice, neutrality, dignity and respect and trustworthiness. The procedural justice checklist and script provided an excellent opportunity to replicate this apparatus in the present study. However, during meetings with CTU ports officers it became clear that a proposed script was too operationally constraining and, if pursued, would affect the nature of the Schedule 7 TA 2000 encounter. There was a practitioner unease with this approach which was both recognised and respected.

Therefore, the Mazerolle et al (2012) procedural justice checklist that accompanied the script was modified using workshops with CTU ports officers to facilitate the necessary changes. The workshops also encouraged cultural buy-in from the officers, which was critical to the successful adoption of this proposed new way of working and the future internal validity of the experiment. The ensuing product was an operationalised procedural justice checklist, the independent variable, suitable for a police-passenger encounter within an airport security setting.

Practically, the checklist was made into a pocket note book sized aide memoire for officers to carry whilst operationally deployed. During March 2013 a Phase One pilot was undertaken and this apparatus was tested. The results of the pilot led to additional refinements in terms of sequence of verbal delivery and language used. The checklist that was finally put to use is at **Appendix A**.

Treatment B: Experienced Utility

In respect of the concept of experienced utility, the second independent variable, two completely new ways of operationalising a 'happy ending' were invented. Firstly, an offer of a complimentary fast track airport security lane voucher for use during any period of future travel from the airport, accompanied by the offer of a complimentary luggage trolley token to assist in collecting baggage from the disembarkation area at the end of the Schedule 7 TA 2000 encounter. Both these complimentary 'offers' were ordinarily purchased for a small fee within the airport terminal. Secondly, within embarkations, the offer of a personal escort by a CTU ports officer of the passenger to an embarkation gate or, for contact to be made with the embarkation gate confirming the passenger was on route.

To successfully operationalise these unique treatments necessitated prolonged consultation with the relevant commercial providers in the UK and Europe, representatives from the airport, legal services expertise and the consent of senior police leaders. Authorisation was successfully obtained and a pre-test of the 'happy ending' treatments was undertaken in March 2013. The 'wrap round' procedures and randomisation processes that co-ordinated the allocation and application of the independent variables will now be described.

Procedures

Procedures – Embarkation

Within embarkation, when CTU ports officers stopped passengers and commenced Schedule 7 TA 2000 procedures, they immediately notified, via radio, the duty supervisor and operations co-ordinator. The operations co-ordinators responsibilities encapsulated; activating the randomisation sequence, assessing passengers against the eligibility and exclusion criteria, enrolling eligible passengers in the Cambridge randomiser, confirmation and communication of the assigned treatment to the examining ports officer and duty supervisor, provision of specific case reference numbers to the examining ports officer and duty supervisor and completion of accurate and detailed duty logs.

The Cambridge randomiser was a key enabler. It promptly assigned eligible cases to treatment groups at both locations. Within the embarkation location the randomised treatments consisted of two types: the procedural justice checklist; an experienced utility offer of a CTU ports officer escort to the embarkation gate or ports officer contact and update to airport staff at the embarkation gate. Also built into the experimental design to support the integrity of treatment application, a CTU ports unit supervisor was required to be present, at a discrete distance, to observe and verify, through completion of a duty log, that each treatment delivery was applied as assigned. Overall, ports supervision oversaw 92% of all experienced utility treatments and 94% of procedural justice treatments at this location. The embarkation procedures are illustrated at **Appendix B**.

Procedures - Disembarkation

Within disembarkation, the process of identifying cases suitable for randomisation mirrored those previously detailed for embarkation: those passengers stopped to ascertain whether they were involved in the commission, preparation or instigation of acts of terrorism. The randomised treatments, allocated to passengers successfully meeting the eligibility criteria included the use of the procedural justice checklist as the independent variable. However, the experienced utility offer, the other independent variable, incorporated the offer to supply at the conclusion of the encounter, a complimentary voucher providing access to a fast track airport security check lane during the next period of travel from the airport, accompanied by the supply of a complimentary trolley token to assist with the removal of luggage. Ports supervisors were also deployed and oversaw 97% of all experienced utility treatments and 93% of all procedural justice treatments within disembarkations. The disembarkation procedures are illustrated at **Appendix C**.

Phase One Pilot

A four week Phase One pilot of the research design, random assignment procedures, interventions and accompanying apparatus took place in March 2013. Eighty Schedule 7 TA 2000 cases were randomised. The pilot highlighted methodological refinements that were required to enhance treatment integrity, supervision of encounters and the content of the eligibility criteria.

Experimental Protocol

A Criminological Protocol for Operating Randomised Trials was prepared and registered with the Cambridge Criminology Registry of Experiments in Policing Strategy and Tactics. The full Protocol is at **Appendix D**.

Measurement Instrument - Telephone Survey

To collect outcome data, telephone surveys were conducted with those passengers who met the eligibility criteria and received the randomly assigned treatments. The telephone survey was the key measuring instrument. Whilst the literature details a plethora of different options in respect of face to face interviews, mail, e-mail, web based and self-administered surveys, telephone surveys were appealing because they were meant to increase the response rate and were associated with a number of attractive advantages: ease of implementation; opportunity to build rapport with respondents; address respondent queries; reduce non-responses to questions; cost effectiveness (Kent 2001; De Vaus 2002; Fowler 2002; Hagan 2006). The practicalities of collecting and measuring the data given the constraints of time and available resources also influenced the selection of a telephone survey. Illustrative of this was the ready access and proximity to a small team of volunteers willing to assist in administering the telephone surveys.

Measures

Appendix E provides a detailed insight of the survey and questions used to construct the scales and various dimensions. In developing all aspects of the survey,

close reference was made to previous research in an effort to improve the construct validity of the variables (Tyler and Huo 2002; Sunshine and Tyler 2003; Tyler and Wakslak 2004; Reisig et al 2007; Hasisi and Weisburd 2011). Developing questions relating to experienced utility questions was more challenging given that the theory had not previously been operationalised within a survey.

Notably, the procedural justice scale was constructed using twenty four survey items. The items reflected the previously described four dimensions of procedural justice; voice, neutrality, trustworthiness and dignity and respect (Reisig et al 2007; Mazerolle et al 2012; Reisig et al 2013). These survey questions asked respondents a number of closed questions indicating how much they agreed or disagreed, often on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' (De Vaus 2002).

The experienced utility scale was measured through four survey items (Kahneman and Tversky 2000). Open and closed ended questions asked respondents to comment on the 'most memorable' thing that they remembered, and the 'last thing' that they remembered throughout the entire experience and then to assess those moments on a thermometer scale of 1-10, with 1 being very negative and 10 being very positive.

The police legitimacy dimension consisted of nineteen items that combined the two recognised dimensions of the concept: obligation to obey and trust in policing (Tyler 2003; Tankebe 2009). Again, respondents were asked closed ended questions to indicate how much they agreed or disagreed, on a five point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' in respect of these perceived legitimacy questions. Finally, five items were used to create the willingness to co-operate

dimension (Tyler 2004; Huq et al 2011a). Respondents were asked closed ended questions to indicate how much they agreed or disagreed, on a four point Likert scale ranging from 'very unlikely' to 'very likely'.

The survey was designed to be sequenced. It incorporated an introductory script for the telephone surveyor to follow and an explanation of the purpose of the survey. This reflected a desire to put the respondent at ease on initial contact by surveyors. The remaining sections of the survey covered the respondents' perception of personal experience within the airport, personal views about the police and community and the police as a law enforcement organisation more generally. More sensitive questions regarding personal demographics and an expression of thanks for taking part were contained at the end of the survey.

The survey was piloted in January 2013 on 115 passengers. The pilot confirmed that the survey took approximately thirty five minutes to complete and highlighted additional modifications that were incorporated into the final instrument to improve question structure and language. The survey was also validated by two respected academic scholars.

The administration of the process of surveying was overseen by one supervisor and five telephone surveyors not associated with the CTU ports unit. The supervisor listened into calls and assessed the conduct of interviews to minimise the threat of interviewer bias. To maximise the effectiveness of this team, lesson plans on telephone surveying and the key theoretical underpinnings within the survey were delivered to each surveyor (Ruane 2005; Bachman and Schutt 2007). This was important as it provided focus on maximising the response rate and minimising the

risk of non response. Non response is a recognised threat to the validity of results and careful steps were taken to minimise its impact.

Response Rate

The response rate for a survey has been described as: “the basic parameter for evaluating a data collection effort” (Fowler 2002:40). There is no agreed response threshold to which all survey collection efforts should aim, indeed some non-response must be expected (Fowler 2002). But non-response is a potential source of bias and error. Therefore, a great deal of effort was taken within this study to maximise the response rate through a combination of different approaches: passengers were verbally informed at the conclusion of the Schedule 7 TA 2000 procedure that they would be contacted to discuss their experience; a specially designed information leaflet was distributed to passengers confirming that contact would be made to complete a confidential telephone interview (**Appendix F**); telephone surveyors delivered scripted messages of reassurance to respondents to reduce fears associated with speaking to police representatives; telephone surveyors adopted flexible duty planning and call back schedules; the telephone administration process incorporated multiple call backs before a case was recorded as a non response; access to interpreter services for non English speaking respondents. The completed survey response rate data are presented in the next chapter covering the research findings.

Statistical Power

Sensitivity analysis was conducted (Weisburd and Britt 2007) before commencing the experiment. This clarified the sample size necessary to ascertain the probability that the research would yield 'statistically significant' results (Cohen 1988). The aspiration was to obtain a sample that was as close in accuracy to the constituent make-up of the population as possible. It was also important to assess the number of cases required to conduct meaningful statistical analysis aimed at showing a difference between the procedural justice and experienced utility treatment groups on police legitimacy. Taking these important steps prevented the research being 'designed for failure' (Weisburd and Britt 2007).

Cohen (1988) argues that for an empirical study to be worth doing it should have at least 80% power. Using G*Power 3 (Faul et al 2007), the statistical power analysis associated with this study confirmed that the sample size, required to achieve a medium effect size with a two tailed test and alpha criterion of .05 with a statistical power level of .80 was 788 cases. Details of the power analysis and power curve are contained within the Criminological Protocol for Operating Randomised Trials (**Appendix D**).

Data Analysis

The principal aim of the data analysis strategy was to test the hypothesis that a procedural justice checklist and experienced utility interventions had different levels of impact on perceived police legitimacy. However, given the items and variables that were incorporated within the measuring instrument and quality of data accrued, opportunities were seized to progress additional elements of analysis: confirming

equivalence between the two treatment groups; comparisons of experienced utility and procedural justice checklist effects on survey items associated with experience at the airport; comparison of the procedural justice checklist and experienced utility on procedural justice dimensions; comparison of the procedural justice checklist and experienced utility variables impact on public willingness to co-operate. The data analysis strategy therefore consisted of five distinct strands. To enable this, some important preliminary steps were necessary.

Precursor steps included completed survey responses being quality assured: each survey was checked to ensure response completion and identification of any missing data. To prepare data for analysis the raw data responses were then coded into Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 21 (v21). Coding converted the collated responses into numerical values in accordance with a previously agreed code book. For the closed end responses, attributable to the procedural justice and legitimacy dimensions this was a straightforward process with the Likert scale responses 'strongly disagree' coded 1 through to 'strongly agree' coded 5. A similar approach was taken for the responses attributable to the co-operation variable with the Likert responses 'very unlikely' coded 1 through to 'very likely' coded 4.

The experienced utility dimension incorporated thermometer scale and open ended questions. In respect of the thermometer range of questions the values attributed ranged from 1 (very negative) through to 10 (very positive) which became the assigned coding numerical value. With the open questions, all responses were systematically reviewed and broken down into ten themes. The ten themes were then coded through the allocation of a number from 1 through to 10. In circumstances where a respondent failed to answer a question a missing data code

'99' which was distinctively different from the assigned valid codes, was inserted. Once concluded the composite series of coded responses for all dimensions generated a data file.

This data file was inputted into SPSS (v 21) which acted as a delivery vehicle for completing the data analysis. Following data input, data cleaning was undertaken to minimise the threat of data error affecting the validity of measures and thereby producing misleading results (Nueman and Wiegand 2000). Following the completion of these precursor data management steps, data analysis commenced.

To support the completion of meaningful analysis the choice of statistical test was imperative. As Black (2002:236) stated, "the choice of the wrong statistical test can leave you with no answer." The level of data associated with this research is ordinal: it is rank ordered and consists of point scales. Weisburd and Britt (2007) argued that there is no straightforward route map to refer to in deciding which test to apply for ordinal data. But they provided useful guidance which influenced the selection of statistical tests associated with this data analysis strategy. These will be briefly described.

The first strand of analysis examined equivalence, on a range of demographic characteristics, between the two intervention groups for the embarkation and disembarkation locations. Where percentage ratio differences were observed between the two groups on a particular characteristic then an independent samples *t* test was used to establish whether those differences were statistically significant or not. Equivalence between the two groups was important for the credibility of any future findings.

The second strand of analysis related to passenger experience within the airport: consisting of 32 survey items. Given the ordinal scale of the data, the Mann Whitney U statistical test, which is a non parametric test, was used to compare experienced utility and procedural justice checklist effects on each individual survey item within the two locations (Field 2011). In order to measure the magnitude of the difference between the two groups on each survey item an effect size was calculated, using Cohen's d (Cohen 1988).

The third strand compared the procedural justice dimension scores for the experienced utility and procedural justice checklist groups. The individual procedural justice items within the survey were collapsed into one of the four procedural justice dimensions; voice, neutrality, dignity and respect and trustworthiness. The average procedural justice dimensions scores along with the standard deviations for each dimension and sample size for each location were obtained. Cohen's d was then employed as the appropriate statistical test along with Comprehensive Meta-Analysis (Version 2) to compute the standardised difference in means scores between the experienced utility and procedural justice checklist groups on the procedural justice dimensions. Cohen's d was selected for this and the remaining strands of the analysis strategy as it presented the most transparent and straightforward way of presenting results across several dimensions.

When comparing procedural justice checklist and experienced utility groups effects on eight individual survey items associated with police legitimacy within embarkation and disembarkation, Cohen's d was again used as the statistical test. The process of analysis entailed gathering the average legitimacy scores for each treatment group in each question area and obtaining the standard deviation for each question and confirming the sample size broken down into the two locations. The

resulting raw scores were then taken and converted using Comprehensive Meta-Analysis (Version 2) to standardised difference in means (Cohen's *d*) for embarkation and disembarkation.

This statistical test and analytical approach was similarly applied when investigating the final strand of the data analysis strategy: comparative relationships of experienced utility and procedural justice checklist on the levels of five individual survey items associated with willingness to co-operate.

Summary

This chapter has attempted to cover the core 'principles' associated with effective research methodology (Hagan 2006). It has described a unique research setting and the complexities associated with undertaking causal research within a commercial environment. The research design is a 'true experiment' which has adopted a transparent sampling method with no 'creaming' of cases. This has never been previously attempted. The eligibility criteria supporting the selection of participants were clear as was the process of random assignment.

The details of newly invented treatments and phases of pre-testing that supported the implementation stage were outlined. The principal measuring instrument was a survey conducted by telephone. Despite the literature being replete with alternatives this selection was justified given the practicalities of time and resources available. The framework, content and advantages of this approach were explored. The threat of non-response bias was recognised, but so too were the extensive steps taken to minimise this threat.

Crucial to any experiment is statistical power. This study recognised the importance of statistical power and also confirmed the sample size that was required. The incremental steps associated with a comprehensive data analysis strategy from early editing of data, use of SPSS through to the application of statistical instruments to perform analyses with ordinal level data were also outlined. The findings resulting from those analyses are now imparted and explored.

CHAPTER FIVE:

FINDINGS

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the research results. The principal research aim, previously encapsulated within a non-directional hypothesis, was to compare the effects of the procedural justice and experienced utility interventions on levels of perceived police legitimacy. A Level 5 SMS was employed, to randomly assign experienced utility and procedural justice checklist interventions to passengers subject of Schedule 7 TA 2000 procedures. This chapter communicates a range of findings associated with that research aim.

The chapter consists of seven sections: firstly, detailing the survey response rate; secondly, provision of contextual information associated with the randomisation process; thirdly, characteristics associated with the survey sample; fourthly, presentation of statistical analysis associated with respondent experiences within the airport setting; fifthly, results of analysis completed in respect of procedural justice dimensions; the sixth section gets to the beating heart of the research hypothesis presenting results of the statistical analysis relating to levels of police legitimacy when comparing procedural justice checklist and experienced utility dimensions; the sixth section grasps an opportunity to cover an additional facet of the process based model (Tyler and Huo 2002; Tyler 2003): the 'willingness to co-operate' dimension. Finally, the chapter ends with a summary of the main findings.

Randomisation

Over 24 weeks, 781 passengers were randomly assigned to the treatment interventions. Within disembarkations, 598 passengers were randomly assigned to one of two treatments: 297 to experienced utility and 293 to procedural justice checklist. 8 cases were classified as ineligible. Within the embarkation area, 183 passengers were randomly assigned to the treatment interventions: 89 to experienced utility and 90 to procedural justice checklist. 4 cases were ineligible. The almost equal distribution of passengers between treatment groups at both locations illustrates the effectiveness of the pseudo block randomisation process achieved through the use of the Cambridge randomiser.

Response Rate

The response rate associated with the telephone survey was 52% (n= 393). This is commensurate with response rates associated with previous legitimacy research that used this data collection method (Tyler and Huo 2002; Sunshine and Tyler 2003). In terms of non-response: 24% (n=186) of cases were closed following the completion of ten call backs where no response was received; 12% (n=93) of passengers declined to participate; 13% (n=97) failed to provide a contact number. The survey completion rate revealed that whilst 49% (n=194) of surveys were completed on the first or second call back, surveys were actually completed across the full range of the 'ten call back' process justifying the adoption of multiple call backs within the design as a means of increasing the response rate.

In order to increase the response rate interpreters were used, though the interviews were mainly conducted in English (87%) a small number were also conducted in Urdu (4%), Pashto (3%), Kurdish (2%), Somali (1%), French (0.5%), Farsi (0.5%), Chinese (0.5%), Bengali (0.5%), Russian (0.5%) and French (0.5%).

Descriptive Statistics – Sample Characteristics

Examination of the characteristics associated with the survey respondent base reveals richness in terms of its diversity. Looking across the whole sample, ages ranged from 18 years through to 80 years. The mean age was 33 years, with 19-30 years (42%) and 31-45 years (48%) being the most likely age group: less than 7% were 46-60 years old.

Using the Home Office 16 + 1 ethnicity classification system, the largest ethnic group were 'Any Other' (39%), followed by 'Asian or Asian British-Pakistani' (17%), 'Black or Black British – African' (14%), 'White British' (12%), 'Asian or Asian British-Indian' (3%), 'Black of Black British-Caribbean' (1%), 'Asian or Asian British-Bangladeshi' (1%), 'Mixed Other' (1%) and 'White Irish' (1%). Additional characteristics are illustrated in **Table 1**.

Table 1 further illustrates the number of respondents randomly assigned to the treatment groups in each location and the proportions of cases, in terms of gender, marital status, educational attainment, home ownership, first language and faith categories. To confirm the comparability of the groups within each location, independent samples *t* test for proportions were undertaken to establish whether the differences between the procedural justice and experienced utility groups on each

characteristic were statistically significant. The resulting *t* test significance values confirmed a reassuring level of comparability between the two groups on all the listed characteristics, in the $p < .05$ level. This illustrates the benefits of randomisation. There is only one exception: the ‘not married’ category in the embarkation area, which did exhibit a somewhat significant difference at the $p < 0.1$ level.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics: Sample Characteristics.

Descriptive Stats.	Disembarkation			Embarkation		
	PJ	EU	Stat. tests	PJ	EU	Stat. tests
General Survey Questions						
N	165	156		41	31	
% Female suspects	7%	3%	t=-1.64	5%	3%	t=-0.34
% not married	37%	39%	t=0.39	59%	37%	t=-1.84*
% education above high school	73%	66%	t=-1.30	81%	72%	t=-0.83
% own home	34%	35%	t=0.24	24%	43%	t=1.69
% English as first language	80%	78%	t=-0.50	83%	84%	t=0.11
% Muslim	88%	88%	t=-0.01	83%	79%	t=-0.38
* $p < 0.1$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$ -						

Experience at the Airport

Passengers’ experience within the disembarkation and embarkation areas at the airport is captured through 32 survey items (**Table 2**). The scaled responses for each question, which ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), were collated and then converted to normalised scores obtained on a range from 0 to 100 for presentation purposes (however the analyses were conducted on the original scores). The standard deviation for each response is shown as well.

As described in the methods chapter, Mann Whitney *U* statistical tests were used to assess whether the different experienced utility and procedural justice group responses to each question and dimension were significant. The Mann Whitney *U* statistical test is appropriate for ordinal data and converts the scores to rank orders.

Thus, the Mann Whitney U tests are helpful in detecting whether rankings differ between one group and another (Field 2009). Two questions revealed statistically significant differences between the two groups.

Firstly, 'the police officer listened to me during the stop' (disembarkation). The mean scores indicated a higher procedural justice checklist value than experienced utility in this location. The subsequent Mann Whitney U statistical test revealed a significant difference between the procedural justice checklist and experienced utility groups: $U=11,425.0$ at the $p=0.076$. One conservative interpretation for this finding is that, since this is the only one of two significant findings, it represents a fluke in the overall non-significant differences in terms of passengers' experiences. More substantively, this could be interpreted as meaningful in that CTU ports officers utilised the procedural justice checklist and passengers perceived that the ports officer listened to them more: as this was one major premise of the checklist.

Secondly, 'I felt I was rightly compensated for my time' (disembarkation) and also, 'I felt I was rightly compensated for my time' (embarkation). The mean scores between the procedural justice checklist and experienced utility groups on this question were higher for experienced utility in both locations. The subsequent Mann Whitney U statistical test for both locations revealed differences between the two groups were statistically significant. For disembarkation: $U=7,614$ and $p=0.001$; for embarkation $U=432$ and $p=0.005$. These findings confirm passengers felt sufficiently compensated by the experienced utility offer. Whilst this may be the case, it is also important to highlight that experienced utility interventions and any associated impacts on levels of police legitimacy is a different issue covered later.

Table 2: The Experience at the Airport (normalized score out of 100)

	<u>Embarkation</u>				<u>Disembarkation</u>			
	EU [^]		PJ		EU		PJ	
The police officer was fair when making the decision to stop me.	71	(18.7)	70	(20.6)	72	(20.9)	71	(21.6)
The police officer gave me the opportunity to express my views.	83	(9.2)	78	(16.2)	78	(19.3)	78	(19.8)
The police officer listened to me during the stop*.	85	(10.1)	84	(12.0)	82	(14.5)	84	(14.7)
The police officer treated me with dignity and respect.	83	(13.0)	85	(11.9)	84	(15.2)	85	(15.0)
I felt that the police officer could be trusted.	81	(9.0)	80	(17.0)	80	(15.2)	82	(16.6)
The police officer was polite when dealing with me.	85	(13.6)	87	(12.3)	85	(13.6)	85	(14.7)
The questions asked were appropriate once I understood why I had been spoken to.	81	(9.0)	82	(15.4)	76	(18.1)	76	(17.3)
The stop contributes to my sense of security / safety when flying.	79	(14.4)	80	(17.6)	76	(19.0)	77	(19.3)
The police officers have done a good job.	80	(13.9)	81	(15.5)	82	(14.7)	81	(16.1)
I am satisfied with the police stop.	79	(12.8)	79	(17.0)	75	(19.6)	74	(22.0)
The police officers were honest with me.	81	(9.8)	82	(12.8)	79	(13.9)	80	(15.5)
The police officers gave me the feeling they cared about me.	79	(12.8)	79	(18.1)	78	(15.9)	76	(19.6)
The police officers treated me like any other passenger.	69	(18.7)	71	(20.0)	66	(21.0)	67	(22.0)
The stop included intrusive and overly personal questions.	50	(17.2)	51	(20.0)	57	(23.2)	57	(23.6)
The police officers treated me courteously.	83	(9.2)	85	(11.6)	82	(14.6)	84	(13.8)
The police officers clearly explained to me the stop process.	79	(12.3)	78	(16.6)	78	(17.3)	80	(15.9)
I trusted the police officers.	81	(10.4)	79	(15.5)	80	(14.1)	80	(15.2)
The stop caused me to feel humiliated.	48	(20.7)	48	(23.8)	57	(25.8)	54	(23.8)
The police officers listened to the answers that I gave them.	81	(8.3)	83	(12.6)	82	(12.1)	84	(12.4)
The treatment I received is different than the treatment other passengers received.	59	(20.0)	57	(17.1)	63	(20.5)	63	(21.3)
The police officers answered my questions in a satisfactory manner.	81	(6.4)	80	(13.4)	78	(14.1)	79	(15.4)
The stop is justified considering the reality of UK's security situation.	77	14.0)	79	(19.2)	80	(17.1)	79	(19.1)
I felt intimidated by the stop	52	(19.4)	52	(23.2)	51	(22.9)	49	(22.3)
Stopping people in the airport causes social tensions in the UK.	61	(20.0)	50	(20.1)	56	(20.5)	57	(21.4)
I had confidence that the police officer was doing the right thing.	80	(9.1)	80	(15.5)	79	(15.5)	79	(16.2)
The treatment I received during the stop was fair	83	(7.0)	78	(20.1)	77	(17.4)	79	(17.2)
I trust officers to make CT decisions that are good for everyone.	83	(9.4)	81	(14.1)	81	(14.8)	80	(15.6)
People's rights are generally well protected by the police when they deal with CT.	83	(9.4)	80	(15.8)	81	(13.2)	80	(15.0)
I intend to make a complaint about the stop.	37	(11.6)	33	(10.6)	36	(14.7)	36	(14.8)
I am happy with the way the case ended.	79	(12.5)	75	(19.0)	81	(15.1)	80	(16.6)
I felt I was rightly compensated for my time**.	68	(23.6)	57	(23.6)	74	(22.0)	56	(22.3)
I felt anxious about getting to my destination on time during the stop.	53	(20.2)	54	(21.2)	56	(23.7)	58	(24.5)

([^] standard deviations * $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$)

Application of Treatments - Dimensions of Procedural Justice

The next phase was to look at how participants valued the dimensions of procedural justice. As reviewed earlier, procedural justice consists of four dimensions; voice, trustworthiness, dignity and respect and neutrality. Survey questions which reflected these dimensions were collapsed into the dimensions and reflected a scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Two further dimensions were added to the process of analysis: 'outcomes' and 'delivery'. A number of questions that did not naturally fit with the recognised procedural justice dimensions were collapsed into these dimensions, though they are believed to be important predictors of legitimacy (Tankebe 2013).

Survey questions incorporated into the 'outcomes' dimension included; 'the stop contributes to my sense of safety when flying', 'the police officers have done a good job', 'I am satisfied with the police stop', 'stopping people in the airport causes social tensions in the UK', 'I intend to make a complaint about the stop', 'I am happy with the way the case ended', 'I felt anxious about getting to my destination on time during the stop' and 'the stop is justified considering the reality of the UK's security situation'. The 'delivery' dimension included; 'the stop included intrusive or overly personal questions', 'the police officers clearly explained to me the stop process', 'the stop caused me to feel humiliated', 'the police officers answered my questions in a satisfactory manner', 'stopping people in the airport causes social tensions in the UK', 'I intend to make a complaint about the stop', 'I am happy with the way the case ended' and 'I felt I was rightly compensated for my time'.

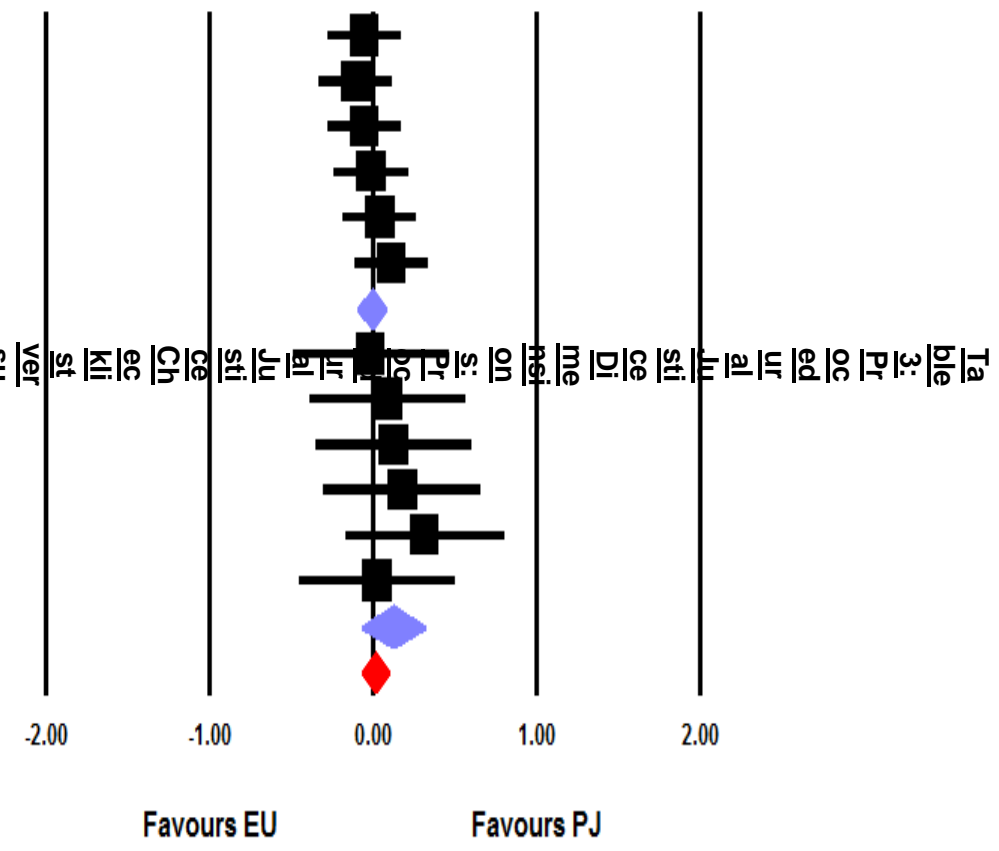
When comparing the average procedural justice dimension scores for the experienced utility and procedural justice checklist treatment groups in the

embarkation and disembarkation locations, it was natural to hypothesise a difference in favour of the procedural checklist intervention group. After all, those using a checklist were expected to follow the dimensions more rigorously than CTU ports officers who were assigned to cases that did not require adhering to procedural justice rules.

Using standardised difference of means (Cohen's d), comparisons were undertaken of the outcomes on the six dimensions in each experimental site. As shown in **Table 3**, Comprehensive Meta-Analysis (Version 2) was used to create forest plots for these standardised differences. The overall average effect size for the magnitude of the difference lies nearly right on the null hypothesis line, indicating that no overall statistically significant differences exist between the two groups on the procedural justice dimensions ($d=0.011$; $p=0.789$). This overall non-significant effect mirrors the comparisons across all individual dimensions compared.

One plausible explanation for this result is the adverse influence of a contamination effect associated with aspects of the procedural justice checklist seeping into applications of the experienced utility treatment. Since the same officers delivered both treatments it is likely that officers kept on practising the procedural justice checklist even when not tasked to follow the list. This contamination makes it difficult to observe differences between groups and violates Stable Unit Treatment Value Assumption (SUTVA) (Bloome 2009). This research limitation will be re-visited in the discussion chapter.

Dimension	Site	Statistics for each study						Std diff in means and 95% CI	
		Std diff in means	Standard error	Variance	Lower limit	Upper limit	Z-Value	p-Value	
Dignity and Respect	Disembarkation	-0.053	0.112	0.013	-0.273	0.167	-0.472	0.637	
Voice	Disembarkation	-0.105	0.112	0.013	-0.325	0.116	-0.931	0.352	
Neutrality	Disembarkation	-0.055	0.112	0.013	-0.274	0.165	-0.490	0.624	
Trustworthiness	Disembarkation	-0.013	0.113	0.013	-0.235	0.209	-0.115	0.909	
Case_outcomes	Disembarkation	0.042	0.113	0.013	-0.179	0.262	0.372	0.710	
delivery	Disembarkation	0.112	0.112	0.013	-0.108	0.331	0.996	0.319	
		-0.012	0.046	0.002	-0.102	0.078	-0.260	0.795	
Dignity and Respect	Embarkation	-0.015	0.242	0.058	-0.488	0.458	-0.062	0.951	
Voice	Embarkation	0.087	0.240	0.058	-0.384	0.558	0.364	0.716	
Neutrality	Embarkation	0.125	0.243	0.059	-0.351	0.601	0.516	0.606	
Trustworthiness	Embarkation	0.180	0.243	0.059	-0.297	0.656	0.739	0.460	
Case_outcomes	Embarkation	0.316	0.245	0.060	-0.165	0.797	1.287	0.198	
delivery	Embarkation	0.025	0.242	0.058	-0.448	0.499	0.105	0.916	
		0.119	0.099	0.010	-0.075	0.313	1.197	0.231	
		0.011	0.042	0.002	-0.070	0.093	0.268	0.789	



Main Effects - Police Legitimacy

The police legitimacy dimension is largely based on items that relate to obligation to obey the law (Sunshine and Tyler 2003; Tyler 2003; Tankebe 2009). Trust was not included in the police legitimacy dimension thereby acknowledging recent deliberations concerning how legitimacy should be operationalised (Reisig et al 2013; Tankebe 2013). Eight questions make up the legitimacy dimension on the embarkation and disembarkation location. Using Cohen's d as the appropriate statistical test and Comprehensive Meta-Analysis (Version 2) to complete the analysis reveals the findings in **Table 4**.

In relation to disembarkation the mean legitimacy scores for the procedural justice checklist versus experienced utility are combined to form one police legitimacy dimension: statistical significance is met at the $p=.066$ levels, with a relatively weak effect size ($d=-0.1$). The overall direction favours the procedural justice checklist. This finding is not repeated within the embarkation location. The significance values for the two treatment groups for each of the eight individual 'obligation to obey' items are not statistically significant. The results are mixed with a 'zigzag effect' noticeable within the forest plot. Contrary to disembarkation, even when the individual legitimacy items for this location are combined to form one summary effect size for the legitimacy dimension and further statistical analysis completed, no statistically significant differences are discovered between the procedural justice checklist and experienced utility intervention groups ($d=0.01$; $p=0.90$). Overall, when collapsing the two study sites and a mean effect across the dimensions is computed the difference between the two groups is statistically significant at the $p < 0.1$, with an overall average effect size in favour of the procedural justice checklist.

Question	Site	Statistics fo		
		Std diff in means	Standard error	Variance
Police are legitimate	Disemb	-0.074	0.112	0.013
always duty to obay	Disemb	-0.096	0.112	0.013
accept police decisions	Disemb	-0.065	0.112	0.013
should liisten to officers	Disemb	-0.081	0.112	0.013
comply even when do not agree	Disemb	0.100	0.112	0.013
do as instructed	Disemb	-0.074	0.112	0.013
obey even when do not agree	Disemb	-0.108	0.112	0.013
always follow directions	Disemb	-0.186	0.113	0.013
		-0.073	0.040	0.002
Police are legitimate	Embarkation	-0.095	0.243	0.059
always duty to obay	Embarkation	0.056	0.243	0.059
accept police decisions	Embarkation	-0.114	0.243	0.059
should listen to officers	Embarkation	0.126	0.243	0.059
comply even when do not agree	Embarkation	-0.007	0.243	0.059
do as instructed	Embarkation	0.097	0.243	0.059
obey even when do not agree	Embarkation	-0.088	0.243	0.059
always follow directions	Embarkation	0.107	0.244	0.060
		0.010	0.086	0.007
		-0.058	0.036	0.001

Table 4: Legitimacy of Police

This confirms that irrespective of the contamination effect within the experienced utility treatment, the procedural justice checklist still creates better levels of perceived police legitimacy. This is an important finding: despite being only at the $p < 0.1$ level, which may be explained by the low statistical power.

Willingness to Co-operate: Procedural Justice Checklist versus Experienced

Utility

Finally, participants' 'willingness to co-operate' is one of the utilitarian outcomes associated with procedural justice in its guise as the recognised antecedent of legitimacy. In policing, research suggests that fair treatment encourages people to report crimes and provide information which supports police in their reduction of crime and disorder role (Tyler 2004; Murphy et al 2008; Kochel et al 2012). Experienced utility however, has never been previously tested in terms of levels of public willingness to co-operate.

Within the survey, five items contributed to the construction of the 'co-operation' dimension and were measured on a scale of 1 (very unlikely) to 4 (very likely). Following careful reflection, one question, 'I would work with police officers to educate people in my community about the dangers of terrorism and terrorists' was removed from the co-operation dimension for the purposes of statistical analysis: it lacked natural fit. This question appears to indicate a high degree of personal activity which is different from the remaining items which cover the voluntary provision of information to the police. **Table 5** illustrates the descriptive findings for each constitutive item of the co-operation dimension, following the collation of the mean

scores for the experienced utility and procedural justice group in embarkation and disembarkation.

Table 5: Procedural justice Checklist versus Experienced Utility: Willingness to Co-operate with Police

(Normalised Scores – converted from scale of 1-4 into 1-100)				
	Disembarkation		Embarkation	
	<u>EU</u>	<u>PJ</u>	<u>EU</u>	<u>PJ</u>
I would work with police officers to educate people in my community about the dangers of terrorism and terrorists*	94	95	93	98
I would report to the police a person saying he or she had joined a group considered politically radical	97	96	100	98
I would report a person I overheard discussing their decision to help plant explosives in a terrorist attack	99	98	100	100
I would report a person reading religious literature I believed to be extremist	95	92	94	95
I would report a person giving money to organizations that people say are associated with terrorists	97	96	100	98

* question removed from statistical analysis.

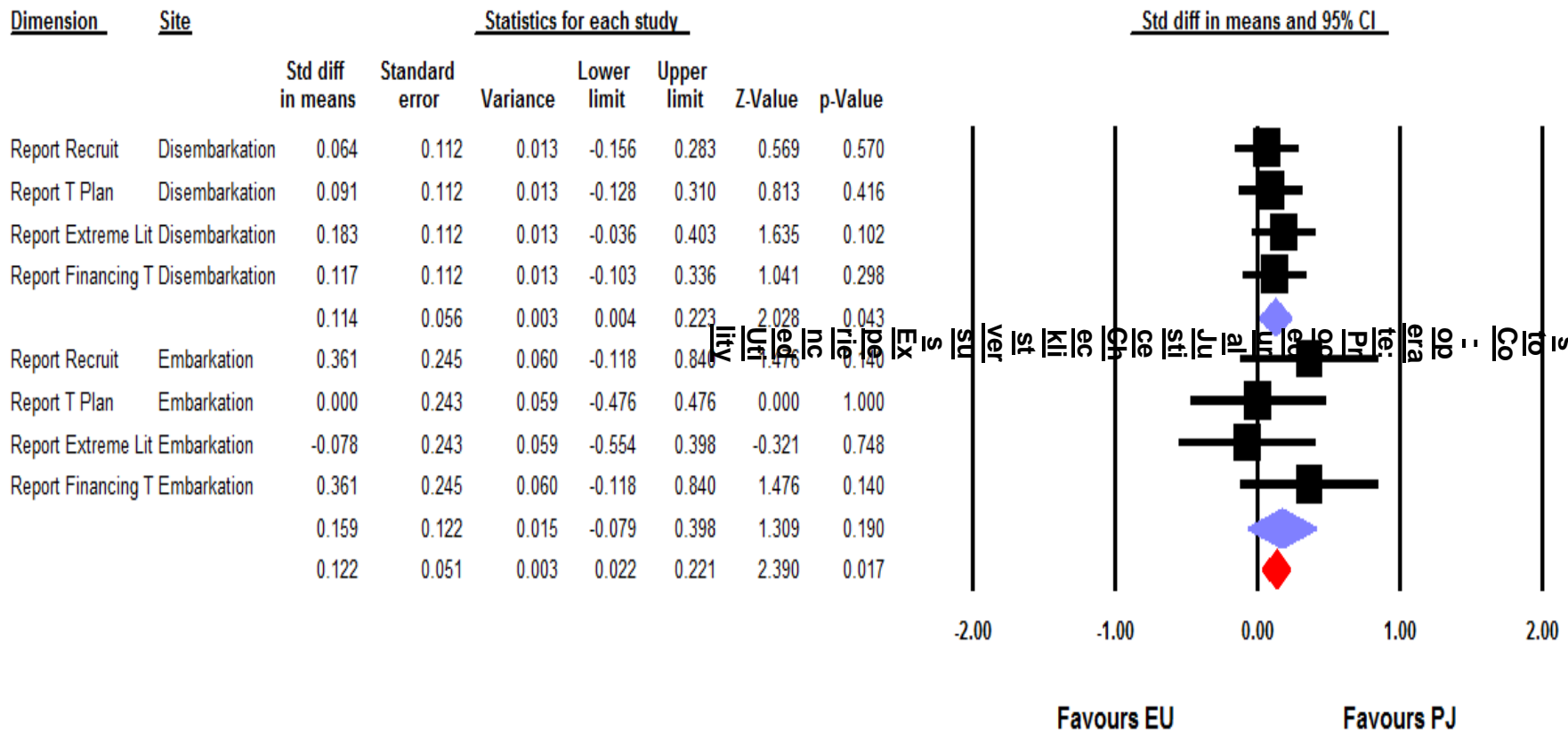
There are notable findings in the table. Firstly the mean scores are high, with some ‘perfect’ 100 scores achieved. The ‘perfect’ scores are particularly prominent and indicative of the willingness of respondents assigned an experienced utility or procedural justice checklist treatment to report individuals overheard discussing their decisions to help plant explosives in a terrorist attack (embarkation). This is further consolidated by the clear willingness across both experienced utility and procedural justice groups to supply information and report terrorist activities across all items that make up the co-operation dimension. These are major findings.

The outcomes of the statistical analysis, using Cohen's d , comparing the procedural justice versus experienced utility effects on levels of co-operation at embarkation and disembarkation are illustrated in **Table 6**. The analyses show that while there was no statistically significant difference between the groups on this dimension in embarkations ($d=0.159$; $p=0.190$), the mean scores in disembarkation, suggest a statistically significant difference between the procedural justice and experienced utility group ($d=0.114$; $p<.05$).

Across the two sites, the mean effect size was small but significant ($d=0.122$; $p<.05$). The findings suggest that a procedural justice checklist treatment caused people to be willing to co-operate more with the police in the fight against terrorism than experienced utility. The checklist may be perceived by practitioners to be mundane and systematic but it works and the public are more willing to inform the police about terrorist threats than an experienced utility approach. The experienced utility approach in terms of co-operation does not work: it actually backfired. This is a powerful finding.

Summary

This study set out to look at the comparison of a procedural justice checklist versus experienced utility impact on levels of police legitimacy. **Figure 1** illustrates the findings and the potential mechanism that plays a part in interpreting the results. The analyses have revealed that when implementing experienced utility members of the public respond to it and do feel compensated for their time during a police initiated encounter within an airport security stop setting. But the implementation of



experienced utility does not change public perceptions of police legitimacy or willingness to co-operate, it actually backfired. Another important finding is that applications of the procedural justice checklist caused greater levels of police legitimacy (even when compared to the experienced utility dimension that is contaminated through an infusion of procedural justice) and also played a significant part in directly generating a further element of the process based model which is the willingness to co-operate.

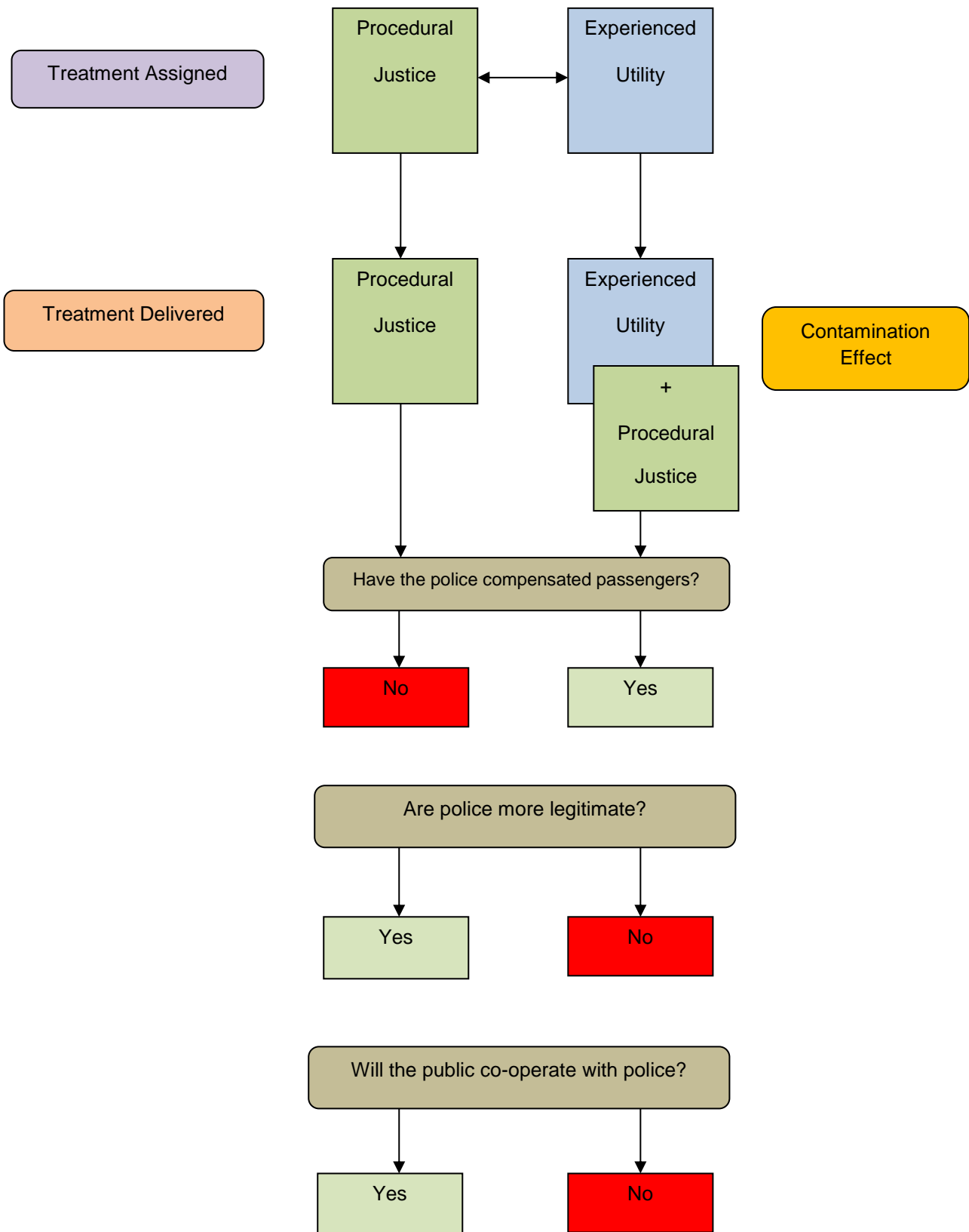


Figure 1- Findings: Possible Mechanisms

CHAPTER SIX:

DISCUSSION

Introduction

The central aim of this research was to conduct an RCT to test the comparative effects of a procedural justice checklist and operationalised experienced utility treatments on levels of police legitimacy, using passengers subject of Schedule 7 TA 2000 airport security stops as the units of analysis. This type of comparison has never been previously attempted and only one other experimental field trial has ever been conducted testing the impact of procedural justice approaches on levels of police legitimacy (Mazerolle et al 2012).

In many respects the research that accompanies this thesis is unique: it is the first Level 5 SMS design conducted in the operational theatre of counter terrorism and within a real life airport setting; the research design deployed newly invented experienced utility interventions; the sample size and survey response rates were significantly higher than those previously associated with causal research testing procedural justice effects on police legitimacy.

This chapter will firstly report on the major findings associated with the study, how they relate to the research aim and connect to findings from previous research discussed within the literature review. Secondly, the limitations and shortcomings of the study will be shared and a number of recommendations provided of where future research efforts could be focused. Thirdly, on the basis of the findings an assessment of the relevant implications for future policy and practice will be provided.

Main Findings

This study has three key findings. Firstly, procedural justice, operationalised in the form of a checklist, caused higher levels of police legitimacy than an experienced utility approach. On one level, this finding confirmed that the bespoke procedural justice checklist, when applied as assigned, elevated perceptions of legitimacy of those subject to Schedule 7 TA 2000 stops above the experienced utility intervention. This finding reinforced the generalizability of the procedural justice checklist as an operational tool, which when deployed encourages the delivery of consistent standards of behaviour and treatment which amplified perceptions of police legitimacy. In terms of the explicit value of a procedural justice checklist, this extends the findings from the QCET study (Mazerolle et al 2012). It also provides clear direction to the previously stated non-directional hypothesis in favour of the procedural justice checklist

On another level, this finding provides further evidence confirming that passenger perceptions of the police can be influenced through 'better' policing approaches. If the police behave and interact properly with citizens during airport security stops, passengers respond to this favourably. This reinforces, although at a more rigorous methodological level, the findings of previous airport security stops research undertaken by Sindhav et al (2006) and Hasisi and Weisburd (2011). Broadly speaking, therefore, the procedural justice approach is crucial given the relative infrequency of this type of police-passenger contact and the fact that a Schedule 7 TA 2000 stop is so visible. CTU ports officers therefore have to maximise each contact and consistently deliver all four procedurally fair components to enhance levels of legitimacy. The procedural justice checklist provides an evidence based vehicle to achieve this.

This particular research finding also reinforces previous survey based, correlation and observational studies conducted within the general policing arena. Previous studies suggested that fair procedures and respectful treatment increased legitimacy perceptions among the public (Sunshine and Tyler 2003; Hinds and Murphy 2007; Murphy et al 2009; Tyler and Fagan 2009; Kochel 2012; Mazerolle et al 2012). It also further strengthens the view that much of the Tylerian research conducted within the US is indeed generalizable to the UK (O'Bryan 2009; Tyler et al 2010). Against this compelling backdrop, is the experienced utility approach, an entirely redundant phenomenon within an airport security stops setting? This introduces the second key finding.

The answer to this question largely lies with the future intentions and motivations of policy makers and senior police leaders in terms of whether the policy emphasis within airport security settings is about generating legitimacy, creating perceptions of a compensatory effect, or the achievement of both. The second key finding confirmed that passengers perceived that they were satisfactorily compensated for their time following the security stop when assigned the experienced utility offer. This is an important scientific finding. The application of a 'happy ending' creates a passenger perception of a compensatory effect rather than a legitimacy effect. However, the 'happy ending' did not alter passenger perceptions of how legitimate the police were. It actually backfired. It is for senior police leaders and airport authorities to judge whether the creation of a compensatory effect amongst passengers is necessary within an airport security stop environment. But given that passengers have confirmed its compensatory value, there is a rational basis for its future adoption as a working practice in isolation of the procedural justice checklist.

The third important finding was the role of procedural justice in shaping passengers attitudes and willingness to co-operate with counter terrorism initiatives. The results suggest that procedural justice causes co-operation directly. This is an interesting finding that indicates procedural justice has an additional effect on co-operation separate from legitimacy. Legitimacy was previously identified as the mediating force between procedural justice and willingness to co-operate in previous incarnations of the process based model (Tyler and Huo 2002; Tyler 2003; 2006). The direct causal relationship between procedural justice and co-operation supports and extends, but at a higher level of methodological rigour, the previous findings of Tyler (2004), Tyler and Fagan (2008), Tyler et al (2010) and also Huq et al (2011) in general policing. But these studies were all correlational; this study is causal in nature. It also strengthens recent scholarly arguments confirming that: “normative considerations are crucial when analysing co-operation with legal authorities” (Tankebe 2013:127). This should send a powerful message to all professionals engaged in counter terrorism policing that fair treatment encourages public willingness to support authorities in countering terrorism. Generating a public willingness to co-operate unlocks avenues to information and intelligence that may reduce the omnipotent terrorism threat. This opportunity must be grasped.

Limitations of the Study

It is important to acknowledge the limitations associated with this study: contamination effects; sample size; absence of control group; conduct of the surveys affecting external validity; control for seasonality; factors affecting external validity; length of the survey as a measuring instrument; issues of generalizability.

Perhaps the most significant is the contamination effect that was identified within the procedural justice dimensions section of the results. The design planning stages of this study considered carefully the availability and capacity of resources. This context influenced the decision to provide all CTU ports staff with training inputs on procedural justice theory and the checklist. It is clear that, despite the deployment of ports supervisors during the application of the experienced utility treatments, CTU ports officers inadvertently delivered aspects of the procedural justice treatment whilst making the experienced utility offer. This can be the only plausible explanation for the results that were observed and presented within the subsequent meta-analysis for procedural justice dimensions. The bleed through of the procedural justice checklist treatment probably masked the true impact of the procedural justice checklist on the procedural justice dimensions. This highlights the importance of having a control group rather than pursuing direct comparisons between two treatment groups. On reflection, the absence of a control group was a design limitation. The emphasis on testing a comparison between two treatment groups perpetuated the contamination effect. The incorporation within future designs of a 'business as usual' group may be desirable. A potential solution to overcome this will be covered within the recommendations for future research.

A further limitation was sample size. The statistical power analysis provided a 'guide rope' for the size of the sample that was necessary. The sample size within the embarkation location was 71 cases: this was too small. This diagnosis was verified through examination of the results of the Comprehensive Meta-Analysis (Version 2) which revealed that the confidence intervals associated with the embarkation area were longer than those attributed to disembarkation. This signals

that the results in this location were less stable because of the degree of variance within the group: confirmation that the sample size was indeed too small.

Briefly, there were other limitations: the 24 week research timeline restricting the ability to control for seasonality; issues of external validity related to the fact that survey administration was conducted by police civilian employees which may have created respondent perceptions that they were talking to police officers which may have affected the responses provided; the survey consisted of 89 items and its length may have affected public willingness to participate; whilst being a major study conducted in two sites, the two sites were at the same airport which affects the generalizability of the research to other ports settings. To support improved generalizability further causal research at different airports is necessary.

Recommendations for Future Research

Lum et al (2013:16) argued vociferously that, “more research is needed” within airport security settings. This study is only one experiment comparing the component parts of procedural justice and experienced utility in one airport and covering one facet of a very broad operational counter terrorism arena. It would be desirable for future research to replicate this causal research and the operationalised interventions, in other types of ports and different types of border security setting. As a natural consequence, this will foster better relationships between social science and counter terrorism professionals and the increased adoption of evidence based approaches within airport security and counter terrorism. Further research would also continue the removal of the perceived ‘shroud of secrecy’ (Lum et al 2006).

To achieve that, necessitates that the observed contamination effects in this study be overcome. To eradicate a contamination effect, future research designs should incorporate the random assignment of passengers to a 'business as usual' control group: procedural justice treatment group versus control group or experienced utility treatment group versus control group. A further alternative approach is changing the units of analysis from passengers to CTU ports officers. Rather than randomly allocate passengers to the treatment it may be preferable in the future to train a certain number of CTU ports officers in either the procedural justice or experienced utility treatments and then randomly assign the officers to the Schedule 7 TA 2000 examination. This minimises the adverse effect of treatment 'bleed across' previously experienced.

The testing of these treatments should not be confined simply to airport security stops. The procedural justice checklist has now been tested in two different types of police initiated encounter (Mazerolle et al 2012). Continued efforts should be made to diversify the testing of the procedural justice checklist to different types of general police initiated encounters such as street based stop and search. Similarly, this is the first occasion that experienced utility theory has been operationalised and tested within a criminological setting. This is the start of the experienced utility journey and efforts should be made to maintain the momentum and test 'the peak and end' rule in other different criminological settings.

Implications of Results for Policy and Practice

This is the first causal research conducted within a counter terrorism setting and involving the operational practices associated with Schedule 7 TA 2000 airport

security stops. Previous academic debates have challenged the basis of formulating policy on the limited findings of only one study (Sherman et al 1992). However, Sherman et al (1992) offered wise counsel and persuasively argued that policy based on only limited evidence is better than no evidence at all. These research results provide the necessary “stickiness factor” (Gladwell 2000:19) and hard evidence that can be delivered to good policy advisors and communicated to the public.

At an organisational level, the scientific benefits associated with the adoption and use of the bespoke procedural justice checklist for Schedule 7 2000 TA encounters needs to be communicated and shared. There is a sound foundation upon which to argue for its adoption within mainstream operational CTU ports officer operating practices and for its inclusion within existing national guidance (NPIA 2009) and Codes of Practice (Home Office 2009) for examining officers. This should include both police and the newly formulated Border Policing Command within the National Crime Agency. In terms of future service delivery, the process of using this research to appropriately inform and influence has commenced, with the theoretical underpinnings and results associated with this research featuring within the national Ports Modernisation Programme and the planning of the forthcoming Ports Procedure and Counter Terrorism Induction Courses for CTU ports officers.

At a national policy level, this research could play an important part in providing facts that support a future evidence based debate on the powers in their current guise. Currently, there are no facts in the public policy arena, to challenge the assertion that Schedule 7 TA 2000 is eroding police legitimacy and police-community relations. The descriptive and inferential statistical findings from this study provide some of the facts and the “verifiable and quantifiable evidence” (Anderson 2012:108)

that is so desperately sought to counter the inaccuracies associated with current interpretations. This is important given the intensifying political and media scrutiny which lacks evidence but nevertheless may prejudice the future of this counter terrorism power. Importantly, the results associated with this research have already informed discussions at a senior policy advisor and official level. At a local level, the procedural justice checklist is now routinely used during Schedule 7 TA 2000 encounters at Birmingham International Airport.

At a wider service mission level, the adoption of working practices that include a procedural justice checklist may have resonance with other police initiated interactions with the public. Furthermore, police officers engaged in routine encounters with members of the public should be trained to be sensitive to citizens perceptions of procedural fairness. There is a strong argument to include procedural justice theory and research within the development of future national citizen focused training overseen by the College of Policing.

Summary

This chapter has discussed the research findings associated with this thesis and provided some interpretations as to their meaning and context in light of previous research discussed within the literature review. The findings provide direction, in favour of the procedural justice checklist, to the previously stated non-directional hypothesis. The findings add considerable methodological rigour to the spectrum of US based research that promotes the prominence of procedural justice in generating police legitimacy. But equally interesting are the direct causal links that are found between procedural justice and public willingness to co-operate. This is an

encouraging finding for the police service and other professionals engaged in the fight against terrorism. This chapter is also highly reflective as it candidly communicates a range of limitations to assist future research. This is only one study, but given the continuing threat that terrorism poses, the findings have a Gladwellian 'stickiness' (Gladwell 2000) and 'irresistibility' to make a substantial impact.

CHAPTER SEVEN:

CONCLUSION

Overview

Schedule 7 TA 2000 is an important part of current port border security measures that contribute to preventing and detecting the threats from terrorism. However it is controversial and recent events have provoked pressure for legislative change. According to several public rights organisations, these powers are perceived to be poorly administered by examining officers with consequent negative impacts on levels of police legitimacy. However there is little evidence to justify this interpretation. Rigorous research in respect of airport security stops and particularly Schedule 7 TA 2000 and relationships with police legitimacy was lacking. Similarly, research in counter terrorism was scarce (Lum et al 2012). This prompted the research that forms the subject matter of this thesis.

This concluding chapter will cover; a revisit of the main research aim, methodology and a summary of key findings and conclusions based on the research findings, recommendations based on reported conclusions and an assessment of what contribution this research makes to new social science knowledge.

Research Findings : Summary of Findings and Conclusions

The purpose of this research was to advance an understanding of what works in generating police legitimacy within airport security stops. The central aim was to conduct an RCT to compare a procedural justice checklist treatment versus an

experienced utility intervention on levels of police legitimacy associated with passengers subject of Schedule 7 TA 2000 stops. Through pursuit of rigorous research the aspiration was to identify credible tools and practices that police professionals could adopt within existing working practices to improve levels of police legitimacy associated with this contentious 'no suspicion' power.

Three key findings surfaced from this research: Firstly, passengers when comparing a procedural justice checklist versus an experienced utility offer perceived that the experienced utility offer compensated them more. Passengers appreciated the experienced utility offer at the end of the stop. The conclusion that can be drawn is that in accordance with the 'peak and end rule' the creation of a 'happy ending' at the end of an encounter causes a greater compensatory effect and remembered utility of the episode than the provision of fair treatment.

The second key finding confirmed that the procedural justice checklist caused greater levels of perceived police legitimacy than experienced utility. Passengers preferred to be treated with dignity and respect, to have an opportunity to discuss the process they were engaged in and be treated fairly rather than being provided with an experienced utility 'happy ending'. There are several conclusions that can be drawn: that within the context of airport security stops, procedural justice continues to perform as a key generator of police legitimacy and its antecedent value with legitimacy is reinforced; previous research that observed procedural justice effects within a general policing context are further validated; procedural justice theory is highly portable and generalizable to the operational counter terrorism arena and to the UK; this study further validates the benefits of using a bespoke designed procedural justice checklist within police initiated encounters, whilst it may be viewed as mechanistic, it works; it further challenges Smith's view (2007:31) that procedural

justice is simply confined “to a particular society at a particular stage of development.”

The third key finding established that the procedural justice checklist caused greater levels of willingness by the public to co-operate in police efforts in countering terrorism. Passengers, who felt that they had been treated in accordance with the four components of procedural justice, systematically delivered through the checklist, expressed a willingness to report terrorism related activities to the police rather than those receiving the experienced utility offer. So despite being selected to participate in a visible stop procedure there was a willingness to support the police in countering terrorism.

The conclusion that can be drawn from this finding is that procedural justice can directly impact on levels of co-operation without legitimacy acting as the mediating agent. It also reiterates the importance of the disciplined application of the procedural justice checklist which motivates passengers willingness to report activities associated with the commission, preparation or instigation of acts of terrorism. This is significant. It provides a powerful message to senior law enforcement officials and policy advisors for the routine incorporation of procedural justice approaches within police examining officer procedures.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions a number of recommendations are made in terms of the future progress associated with this research: firstly, further research is required in respect of Schedule 7 TA 2000, given the increasing public

sentiment associated with its use it is important that continued investment is made in acquiring 'good science'; to support the generalizability of the findings and conclusions further replication is necessary; limitations associated with this research have been identified and modifications suggested to assist the design and implementation of future research; future research should provide further opportunities for procedural justice checklists to be tested within other types of police initiated encounters; there is a stronger evidence base in favour now of the routine adoption of a procedural justice checklist by police examining officers during the execution of 'no suspicion' border security powers; existing national guidelines should be amended to include the behavioural requirements associated with the four components of procedural justice. It is testament to the importance of "little changes having big effects" (Gladwell 2000:8), that this thesis has already encouraged senior police leaders at local, regional and national level to progress at pace many of these recommendations.

Contribution to Knowledge

On reflection, this thesis plays a small, but incremental part in addressing the concerns of respected scholars (Feucht et al 2011; Lum et al 2012) regarding the scarcity of rigorous research associated with procedural justice and legitimacy in the fields of airport security stops and counter terrorism more broadly. It also adopted a unique approach in the angle it approached the subject area: being the first RCT in the operational arena of counter terrorism and in the real life setting of an international airport; the first time experienced utility was operationalised in criminological research; the development of newly invented experienced utility

treatments; the design, production and deployment of a bespoke procedural justice checklist suitable for Schedule 7 TA 2000 encounters. It is also unique in terms of the knowledge acquired through its findings. Significantly, this research established for the first time a causal relationship between procedural justice and police legitimacy and procedural justice and co-operation within the field of airport security stops.

Overall then, if the UK police service genuinely desires to improve levels of police legitimacy associated with Schedule 7 TA 2000, it has within this thesis the 'sticky' facts (Sherman 2010) and 'good science' to justify the future inclusion of a procedural justice checklist routinely within UK airport security stops processes.

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Appendix A – Procedural Justice Checklist



Landing Card URN: _____

Date/Time: _____

Examining Officer Collar No: _____

Voice / Participation

- Officer issued screening questions and asked the member of the public to provide information/viewpoint
- Officer expressed interest in receiving information from the member of the public and obtaining their viewpoint
- Officer demonstrated effective listening skills and allowed the member of the public to express his/her views

Accountability

- Officer explained to the member of the public why he or she was stopped – to make people safe for purposes of National Security and Border Control.
- Officer explained Schedule 7 legislation and associated powers
- Officer explained that there will be record of the stop made but this is not a criminal record.
- Officer informed the member of the public that he/she would be contacted to discuss further their views/experience of Schedule 7 procedure
- The leaflet was offered to the member of public explaining how he/she is able to file a complaint, if he/she wants

Neutrality

- Officer acted impartially
- Officer based decisions on facts

Dignity and Respect

- Officer was respectful to the member of the public during the encounter
- Officer offered reassurance for their welfare and well being whilst being subject of Schedule 7 procedure
- The duration of the Schedule 7 procedure was kept to the minimum required

Trustworthy motives: Showing care and concern

- Officer explained to the individual that the examination is for National Security and Border Control
Officer Signed Complete: _____ Supervisor Signed Verified: _____

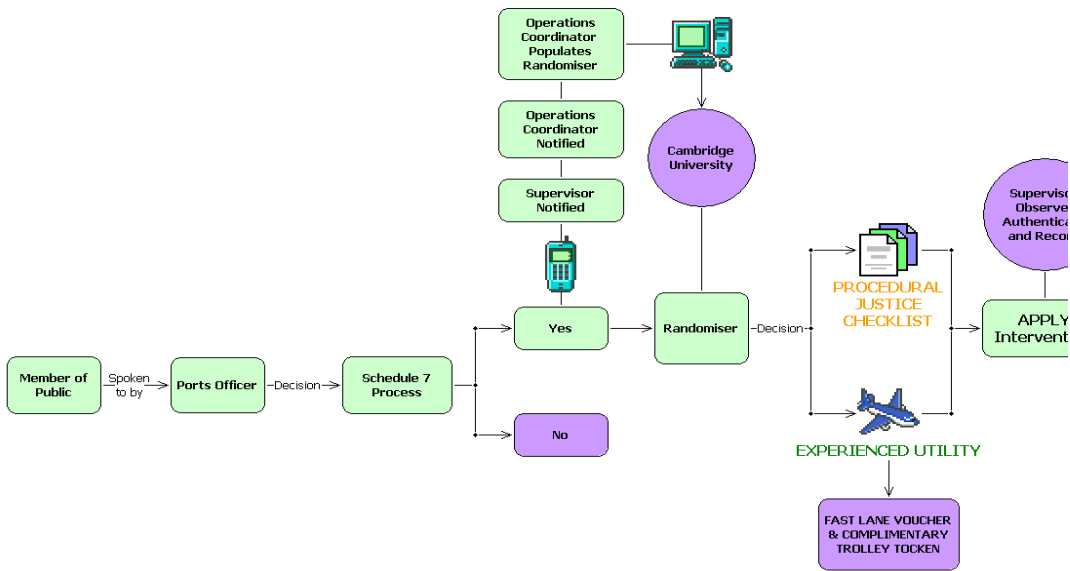
Administrative Information



Protective Marking	RESTRICTED
Reference	
Title and Version	Schedule 7 Survey Process v4 (Embarkation)
Summary	Analytical Chart to Show the Schedule 7 Survey Process
Relevant to	West Midlands Police
Author	Darren Light 57002
Date Created	14 th February 2013
Date Edited	24 th June 2013
Date Printed	24 th June 2013
Additional Information	

RESTRICTED

**SCHEDULE 7 SURVEY
PROCESS
DISEMBARKATION**



Protective Marking	RESTRICTED	<p>This chart carries the protective marking of RESTRICTED. It must therefore be afforded a level of protection commensurate with its protective marking and its contents must not be disclosed outside of official channels or discussed with those who do not have a need to know. No part of the chart should be disseminated or copied without prior approval of the requesting officer or author.</p>
Reference		
Title and Version	Schedule 7 Survey Process v4 (Disembarkation)	
Summary	Analytical Chart to Show the Schedule 7 Survey Process	
Relevant to	West Midlands Police	
Author	Darren Light 57002	
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Additional Information		

RESTRICTED

Appendix C – Procedures (Disembarkation)

Appendix D – Experimental Protocol

A RANDOMISED CONTROLLED TRIAL COMPARING PROCEDURAL-JUSTICE TO EXPERIENCE UTILITY THEORIES IN AIRPORT SECURITY STOPS

EXPERIMENTAL PROTOCOL:

Criminological Protocol for Operating Randomized Trials

@ 2009 by Lawrence W. Sherman and Heather Strang

INSTRUCTIONS: Please use this form to enter information directly into the WORD document as the protocol for your registration on the Cambridge Criminology Registry of Experiments in Policing Strategy and Tactics (REX-POST) or the Registry of Experiments in Correctional Strategy and Tactics (REX-COST).

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1. NAME AND HYPOTHESES
2. ORGANIZATIONAL FRAMEWORK
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4. ELIGIBILITY CRITERIA
5. PIPELINE: RECRUITMENT OR EXTRACTION OF CASES
6. TIMING
7. RANDOM ASSIGNMENT
8. TREATMENT AND COMPARISON ELEMENTS
9. MEASURING AND MANAGING TREATMENTS
10. MEASURING OUTCOMES
11. ANALYSIS PLAN
12. DUE DATE AND DISSEMINATION PLAN

1. NAME AND HYPOTHESES

1.1 **Name of Experiment:**

Operation Insight: a randomised controlled trial comparing procedural-justice to experience utility theories in airport security stops

1.2 **Principal Investigator:**

1.2.1 Brandon Langley

West Midlands Police and Police Executive Programme, Institute of Criminology, Cambridge

1.3 **Co-Principal Investigator:**

1.3.1 Barak Ariel, PhD

Police Executive Programme, Institute of Criminology, Cambridge
Institute of Criminology, Faculty of Law, Hebrew University

1.4 **Co-Principal Investigator:**

Justice Tankebe, PhD

Institute of Criminology, University of Cambridge

1.5 **Co-Principal Investigator:**

Badi Hasisi, PhD

Institute of Criminology, Faculty of Law, Hebrew University

1.6 **General Hypothesis:**

A Procedural-Justice approach and an approach to maximising experienced utility will result in different levels of perceived legitimacy by members of the public who have been subject to police stop-and-search.

1.7 **Specific Hypotheses:**

1.7.1 A checklist of procedural-justice dimensions and enhancing experience utility in Schedule 7 procedures at airports in cases in which suspicion of terrorism threat at airport security was unsubstantiated will result in different levels of perceived legitimacy.

1.7.2 Said hypothesis is conditional on place where Schedule 7 procedure is conducted – embarkation or disembarkation

1.7.3 List all subgroups to be tested for all varieties of outcome measures:

(Of both officers and third-parties):

1.7.3.1 Gender

1.7.3.2 Age (natural cut-off point)

1.7.3.3 Ethnicity (all subgroups available)

1.7.3.4 Flight history (natural cut-off point)

1.7.3.5 Nationality (all subgroups available)

1.7.3.6 Faith (all subgroups available)

1.7.3.7 Embarkation or disembarkation areas

1.7.3.8 Nationality (all subgroups available)

2. ORGANIZATIONAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Multiple Partnership: Operating agency delivers treatments with independent research organization providing random assignment, data collection, analysis, as well as a third-party agency providing infrastructure

2.1.1 Name of Operating Agency : **West Midlands Police CTU**

2.1.2 Name of Third-Party: **UK Border Agency**

2.1.3 Name of Research Organization: **University of Cambridge and Hebrew University**

3. UNIT OF ANALYSIS

People (Passengers)

4. ELIGIBILITY CRITERIA

4.1 Criteria Required (list all)

4.1.1 Passengers within Birmingham Airport disembarkation or embarkation areas

4.1.2 Age 18+

4.1.3 Passengers assessed by police officers as suitable for Schedule 7 procedures

4.2 Criteria for Exclusion (list all)

4.2.1 Juveniles

4.2.2 Persons excluded at behest of partner agencies

4.2.3 Suspects arrested following Schedule 7 Procedures on suspicion of terrorism

5. PIPELINE: RECRUITMENT OR EXTRACTION OF CASES

5.1 Where will cases come from?

All members of the public embarking or disembarking at Birmingham International Airport going through Schedule 7 procedures

5.2 Who will obtain them?

WMP CTU Port officers in embarkation and disembarkation areas, following eligibility screening above.

5.3 How will they be identified?

WMP CTU Port officers in embarkation and disembarkation areas.

5.4 How will each case be screened for eligibility?

CTU Ports Unit Operational Coordinators

5.5 Who will register the case identifiers prior to random assignment?

CTU Ports Unit Operational Coordinators

5.6 What social relationships must be maintained to keep cases coming?

5.6.1 Port supervisors

5.6.1 UKBA management

5.6.3 Airport Authorities

5.6.4 Head of Terminal Services

5.7 Has a Phase I (no-control, “dry-run”) test of the pipeline and treatment process been conducted?

Yes

5.7.1 How many cases were attempted to be treated?

Four weeks of 100% assignment

5.7.2 How many treatments were successfully delivered? 80

5.7.3 How many cases were lost during treatment delivery? 4

6. TIMING: CASES COME INTO THE EXPERIMENT IN

A trickle-flow process, one case at a time

7. RANDOM ASSIGNMENT

7.1 How is random assignment sequence to be generated?

Pseudo randomisation within two blocks (embarkation and disembarkation) of all cases using the Cambridge Randomiser

7.2 Who is entitled to issue random assignments of treatments?

7.2.1 CTU Ports Unit Operational Coordinator

7.2.2 Organization: WMP

7.3 How will random assignments be recorded in relation to case registration?

7.3.1 Name of data bases: Cambridge Randomiser PJEUTD (disembarkation) and Cambridge Randomiser PJEUTE (embarkation)

7.3.2 Location of data entry: Birmingham International Airport

7.3.3 Persons performing data entry: Operational Coordinator

8. TREATMENT AND COMPARISON ELEMENTS

8.1 Experimental or Primary Treatment

8.1.1 Experienced Utility: What elements must happen, with dosage level (if measured) indicated.

- 8.1.1.1 Element A (embarkation only): police offer of expedited escort to the embarkation gate
- 8.1.1.2 Element B (embarkation only) police offer of contact and update of flight personnel at embarkation gate.
- 8.1.1.3 Element C (disembarkation only) : offer of access to a Security Check 'Fast Lane' voucher for use during next period of travel
- 8.1.1.4 Element D use of a complimentary luggage trolley for baggage.
- 8.1.1.5 Element E Police supervisor present

8.1.2 What elements must *not* happen, with dosage level (if measured) indicated.

- 8.1.2.1 Element A: cross over
- 8.1.2.2 Element B: no 8.2.1.1-8.2.1.2

8.2 Secondary Comparison Treatment

8.2.1 Procedural Justice: What elements must happen, with dosage level (if measured) indicated.

- 8.2.1.1 Element A: checklist of procedural justice elements during encounter (see Appendix A)
- 8.2.1.2 Element B: Police supervisor present

8.2.2 What elements must not happen, with dosage level (if measured) indicated.

- 8.2.2.1 Element A: Cross over.
- 8.2.2.2 Element B: no 8.1.1.1-8.1.1.3

9. MEASURING AND MANAGING TREATMENTS

9.1 Measuring

9.1.1 How will treatments be measured?

- 9.1.1.1 Dichotomous measurement of treatment assignment.
- 9.1.1.2 Survey Questionnaire (Appendix B)
- 9.1.1.3 Operational Co-ordinators Log book (Appendix C)
- 9.1.1.4 Supervisors' Log book (Appendix D)

9.1.2 Who will measure them?

Principal Investigator.

9.1.3 How will data be collected?

Supervisors log, Operational Coordinators log book, survey and WMCTU analytical team.

9.1.4 How will data be stored?

Computer files.

9.1.5 Will data be audited?

Yes.

9.1.6 If audited, who will do it?

Co-Principal Investigator

9.1.7 How will data collection reliability be estimated?

Cambridge calculations.

9.1.8 Will data collection vary by treatment type?

Yes, treatment is conditional on embarkation or disembarkation blocks.

9.2 Managing

9.2.1 Who will see the treatment measurement data?

Cambridge, WMP Chief Officers and Head of CTU.

How often will treatment measures be circulated to key leaders?

Bi-monthly.

9.2.2 If treatment integrity is challenged, whose responsibility is correction?

Head of CTU.

10. MEASURING AND MONITORING OUTCOMES

10.1 Measuring

10.1.1 How will outcomes be measured?

All outcomes in terms of legitimacy survey

Supervisors log book

10.1.2 Who will measure them?

Analyst Mr Darren Light

10.1.3 How will data be collected?

Telephone Surveys and WMP Computers

10.1.4 How will data be stored?

WMP secured systems. No personalised data should exit WMP systems.

10.1.5 Will data be audited?

Yes.

10.1.6 If audited, who will do it?

Co-Principal Investigator.

10.1.7 How will data collection reliability be estimated?

Reading of all surveys during the experiment, for measurement of accuracy and precision of data.

10.1.8 Will data collection vary by treatment type?

No.

10.2 Monitoring

10.2.1 How often will outcome data be monitored?

Bi-weekly.

10.2.2 Who will see the outcome monitoring data?

Cambridge University.

10.2.3 When will outcome measures be circulated to key leaders?

Bi-Monthly.

10.2.4 If experiment finds early significant differences, what procedure is to be followed?

Discuss with WMP senior leaders.

11. ANALYSIS PLAN

11.1 Which outcome measure is considered to be the primary indicator of a difference between experimental treatment and comparison group?

Legitimacy survey results

(Mann Whitney U statistic, independent t-tests, Cohen's *d* depending on the distribution of the data.

11.2 Which outcome measure is considered to be the secondly indicator of a difference between experimental treatment and control group?

None

11.3 What is the minimum sample size to be used to analyse outcomes?

788 (4 months of Schedule 7 cases)

11.4 Will all analyses employ an intention-to-treat framework?

Yes.

11.5 What is the threshold below which the percent Treatment-as-Delivered would be so low as to bar any analysis of outcomes?

60%

11.6 Who will do the data analysis?

Cambridge University.

11.7 What statistic will be used to estimate effect size?

Standardised mean differences (Cohen's *d*)

11.8 What statistic will be used to calculate P values?

Mann Whitney U, independent sample t-test and Cohen's *d*

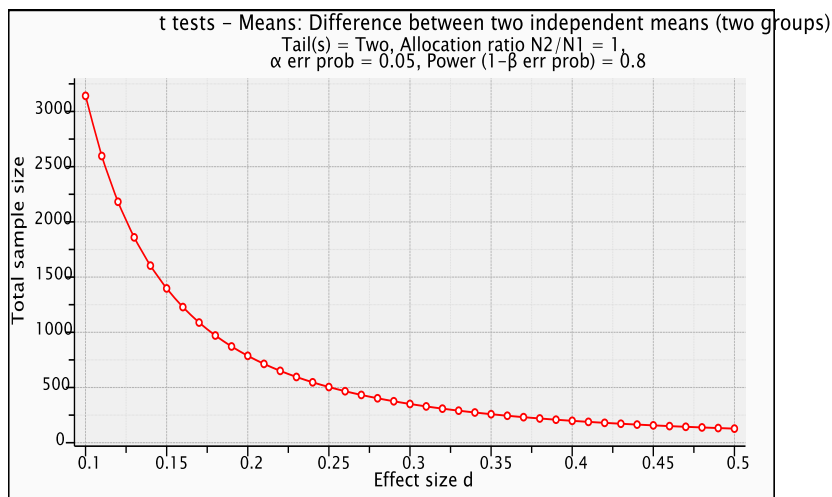
11.9 What is the magnitude of effect needed for a two-tailed, $p = .05$ difference to have an 80% chance of detection with the projected sample size (optional but recommended calculation of power curve) for the primary outcome measure (at allocation ratio between the arms of 1:1)

$d = 0.2$

Statistical power was defined by Cohen (1988) as the probability of detecting a statistically significant outcome in an experiment, given the true difference between the treatment group and the control group.

*G*Power 3* (Faul et al., 2007) was used to provide estimations that this sample size is large enough to detect medium sized effects (Cohen, 1988).

Power Calculations



11.10 Any additional analyses will be conducted?

11.11 None.

12. DISSEMINATION PLAN

12.1 What is the date by which the project agrees to file its first report on CCR-RCT? (report of delay, preliminary findings, or final result).

Within 6 months.

12.2 Does the project agree to file an update every six months from date of first report until date of final report?

Yes.

12.3 Will preliminary and final results be published, in a 250-word abstract, on CCR-RCT as soon as available?

Yes.

12.4 Will CONSORT requirements be met in the final report for the project? (See <http://www.consort-statement.org/>)

Yes.

12.5 What organizations will need to approve the final report? (Include any funders or sponsors).

WMP. WMP own the data, all documentation & papers generated.

All data and documentation should be handled in accordance with GPMS expectations.

12.6 Do all organizations involved agree that a final report shall be published after a maximum review period of six months from the principal investigator's certification of the report as final?

WMP are the sole players in determining suitability for any publication, beyond submission for academic assessment purposes.

Cambridge University cannot independently publish or quote the work, without prior discussion and consent from WMP.

12.7 Does principal investigator agree to post any changes in agreements affecting items 12.1 to 12.6 above?

Yes.

12.8 Does principal investigator agree to file a final report within two years of cessation of experimental operations, no matter what happened to the experiment? (e.g., "random assignment broke down after 3 weeks and the experiment was cancelled" or "only 15 cases were referred in the first 12 months and experiment was suspended").

Yes.

Appendix E – Telephone Survey

SCRIPT AT THE BEGINNING OF THE CONVERSATION:

Good morning/afternoon/evening. Can I speak to [named individual].

If the NAMED individual is not available identify a time to call back and terminate the call. Do not allude to the Schedule 7 TA 2000 stop to any party other than the named individual. You may say you were phoning to conduct a survey on service quality and satisfaction . TERMINATE

My name is [Name]. I am a telephone surveyor calling on behalf of West Midlands Police. It's nothing to worry about. I understand that you were recently stopped by police officers at Birmingham Airport and I am keen to obtain your feedback concerning the interaction with the police whilst you travelled through Birmingham Airport. Your responses and views will remain strictly confidential.

I would like to get some feedback about the conversation you had with the police officer at Birmingham Airport on [DATE]? I would like to find out how you felt about the time you spent with the police officer and what if anything we could do to improve the service we deliver. I would also like to ask you some questions about your thoughts of the police in general.

The Survey

Name: Telephone Surveyor	
Date of Interview	
Reference/Log number for Schedule 7 TA 2000 Stop	
Spoken to on	
Embarkation	<input type="checkbox"/>

Disembarkation	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other	<input type="checkbox"/>
Unclear	<input type="checkbox"/>
Name of Officer Conducting Schedule 7 Stop	
Age of Officer Conducting Schedule 7 Stop	
Rank of Officer Conducting Schedule 7 stop	
Gender of Officer Conducting Schedule 7 Stop	
Male	<input type="checkbox"/>
Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
Race/Ethnicity of Officer Conducting Schedule 7 Stop	
British	<input type="checkbox"/>
Irish	<input type="checkbox"/>
Any other White Background	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mixed	<input type="checkbox"/>
Indian	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pakistan	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bangladeshi	<input type="checkbox"/>
Black or Black British	<input type="checkbox"/>
Any other	<input type="checkbox"/>
First Language of Officer Conducting Schedule 7 stop	
English	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other	<input type="checkbox"/>
Date of Schedule 7 Stop	
____/____/201	

General Survey Questions

1	Was the Officer/s ID Clearly Visible?	
	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Don't Know/Can't Remember	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Did the Officer/s Introduce Himself/Herself?	
	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Don't Know/Can't Remember	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Did the Officer/s Explain What Legislation They Were Using?	
	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Don't Know/Can't Remember	<input type="checkbox"/>
	If YES – how was this done e.g. Verbally, Signage, Leaflets etc?	
4	Were there any Language issues?	
	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Don't Know/Can't Remember	<input type="checkbox"/>
	If YES – What could the officer have done to overcome these?	
5	Were there any Cultural Difficulties?	
	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>

	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Don't Know/Can't Remember	<input type="checkbox"/>
	If YES – What could the officer have done to overcome these?	
6	With whom were you travelling	
	Alone	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Friends & Family	<input type="checkbox"/>
	If FRIENDS & FAMILY - were they aware you had been stopped?	
	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Don't Know	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	How long did it take to complete the police stop?	
	Less than 5 minutes	<input type="checkbox"/>
	6 -10 minutes	<input type="checkbox"/>
	11-20 minutes	<input type="checkbox"/>
	21-30 minutes	<input type="checkbox"/>
	More than 30 minutes	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	The Police Officers could have completed the stop within a shorter amount of time?	
	1 - Not At All	<input type="checkbox"/>
	2	<input type="checkbox"/>
	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
	4	<input type="checkbox"/>
	5 – Very Much	<input type="checkbox"/>

Experience at the Airport:

Thank you I would now like to ask you some questions regarding your views on your experience with the police officer whilst at Birmingham Airport and particularly your assessment of the quality of the interaction with the police officer

9	The Police Officer was fair when making the decision to stop me.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	The Police Officer gave me the opportunity to express my views.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	The Police Officer listened to me during the stop.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	The Poice Officer treated me with dignity and respect.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	I felt the Police Officer could be trusted.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
14	The Police Officer was polite when dealing with me.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
15	The questions asked were appropriate once I understood why I had been spoken to.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
16	Stopping people at the airport contributes to my sense of security and safety when flying.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
17	The Police Officers did a good job.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
18	I am satisfied with the Police stop.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
19	The police Officers were honest with me.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
20	The Police Officers gave me the feeling they cared about me.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
21	The Police Officers treated me like any other passenger.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
22	The stop included intrusive and overly personal questions.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
23	The Police Officers treated me courteously.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
24	The Police Officers clearly explained to me the stop process.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
25	I trusted the Police Officers.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
26	The stop caused me to feel humiliated.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
27	The Police Officers listened to the answers I gave them.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
28	The treatment I received during the stop is different than the treatment other passengers received.	

	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
29	The Police Officers answered my questions in a satisfactory manner.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
30	The stop is justified considering the reality of the UK's security situation.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
31	I felt intimidated by the stop.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>

32	Stopping people in the airport causes social tension in the UK.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
33	I had confidence the Police Officer was doing the right thing.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
34	The treatment I received during the stop was fair.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
35	I trust Police Officers to make decisions that are good for everyone when they are investigating and prosecuting terrorism.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>

36	People's rights are generally well protected by Police Officers when they are investigating and prosecuting terrorism.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
37	I intend to make a complaint about the stop.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
38	I am happy with the way the case ended.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
39	I felt that I was rightly compensated for my time.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
40	I felt anxious about getting to my destination on time during the stop.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
41	What is the first thing you remember about this experience?	
42	How do you rate this experience between 1 and 10, 1 being very negative and 10 being very positive.	
	1	<input type="checkbox"/>
	2	<input type="checkbox"/>
	3	<input type="checkbox"/>
	4	<input type="checkbox"/>
	5	<input type="checkbox"/>
	6	<input type="checkbox"/>
	7	<input type="checkbox"/>
	8	<input type="checkbox"/>
	9	<input type="checkbox"/>
	10	<input type="checkbox"/>
43	What is the last thing you remember the most about this experience?	
44	How do you rate this experience between 1 and 10, 1 being very negative and 10	

	being very positive.	
		1 <input type="checkbox"/>
		2 <input type="checkbox"/>
		3 <input type="checkbox"/>
		4 <input type="checkbox"/>
		5 <input type="checkbox"/>
		6 <input type="checkbox"/>
		7 <input type="checkbox"/>
		8 <input type="checkbox"/>
		9 <input type="checkbox"/>
		10 <input type="checkbox"/>
45	Has your recent experience changed your view about the Police in the UK?	
	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
	If YES – how has it changed your view?	
46	Has your recent experience changed your view about the policing of terrorism in the UK?	
	Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
	If YES – how has it changed your view?	

Views of the Police & Community

Thank you for sharing your views about your experience within Birmingham Airport I am interested now in establishing your views concerning the interaction between the public and the police based upon ethnicity or religious background.

47	Ethnicity/Religious background is a factor when considering which people to stop to identify possible criminality.	
	Very Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Very Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
		<input type="checkbox"/>
48	Ethnicity/Religious background is a factor when considering which people to stop and question at the airport.	
	Very Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Very Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
		<input type="checkbox"/>
49	Ethnicity/Religious background is a factor when considering which people to target for enforcement.	
	Very Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Very Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
		<input type="checkbox"/>

50	Ethnicity/Religious background is a factor when looking for people in my neighbourhood to help solve problems.	
	Very Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Very Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
51	Ethnicity/Religious background is a factor when looking for people in my neighbourhood to target most effectively.	
	Very Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Very Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>

Thank you for sharing those views. I am now interested in obtaining your thoughts and feelings about how effectively you think the police work more generally.

52	The Police do a good job in dealing with the problems that really concern people in my community.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
53	The Police do a good job in my local community, working together with residents to solve local problems.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
54	The Police do a good job in preventing crime in my community.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
55	The Police are a legitimate authority and I should obey their decisions.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
56	I should accept the decisions made by Police Officers, even when I disagree with them	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
57	It is my duty to obey Police Officers, even when I do not like the way that they treat us.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
58	It is alright to go against the law, if you think the law is wrong.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
59	The more expensive your car, the more likely you are to get away with motoring offences.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
60	It's not about what you have done, but who you are, and who you know, when it comes to the Police.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>

61	Sometimes you have to bend the law to get things to come out right.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>

Thank you. I would now like to ask you a few questions regarding your views of how effective the policing services you receive are within your community.

62	The Police respect a citizens individual rights.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
63	The Poice treat people as if they can be trusted to do the right thing.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
64	I believe I should do what the Police ask me to do, even if I don't like how they treat me.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
65	I believe I should accept decisions made by the Police even when I disagree with them.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
66	I believe I should do what the police ask me, even when I dont understand or agree with the reasons.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
67	I believe I should always obey the Police even if i think they are wrong.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
68	People should always follow the directions of Police Officers even if they go against what they think is right.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
69	The Police are doing a good job in dealing with the problems that really concern people in my community.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
70	I have confidence in the Police.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
71	The Police do their job well.	
	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
72	I have great respect for the Police.	

	Strongly Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Agree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Disagree	<input type="checkbox"/>

Willingness to Co-operate

Thank you what follows are some questions concerning your views on your own willingness to help or support the police

73	I would work with Police Officers to educate people in my community about the dangers of terrorism and terrorists.	
	Very Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Very Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
74	I would report to the Police a person saying he or she had joined a group considered politically radical.	
	Very Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Very Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
75	I would report a person I overheard discussing their decision to plant explosives for a terrorist attack.	
	Very Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Very Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>

76	I would report a person reading religious material I believed to be extremist.	
	Very Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Very Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
77	I would report a person giving money to organisations that people say are associated with terrorists.	
	Very Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Somewhat Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Very Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>
78	Any other comments not covered by the questions above.	

General Background Questions.

79	Gender	
	Male	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
80	Marital Status	
	Single	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Married	<input type="checkbox"/>
81	Education	
	Postgraduate	<input type="checkbox"/>
	University/College	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Certificate/Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>
	High School	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Primary School	<input type="checkbox"/>
82	Home Ownership	
	Mortgaged	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Own Outright	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Rent	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Other	<input type="checkbox"/>
83	Race/Ethnicity	
	British	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Irish	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Mixed	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Indian	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Pakistani	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Bangladeshi	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Any Other Asian	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Black British	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Black Caribbean	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Black African	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Any Other	<input type="checkbox"/>

84	Language considered to be first language	
	English	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Other	<input type="checkbox"/>
85	Age in years	
	Years	<input type="checkbox"/>
86	Religion	
	Jewish	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Muslim	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Christian	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Other	<input type="checkbox"/>
87	Religiosity	
	Secular	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Traditional	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Practicing	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Observant	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Non Observant	<input type="checkbox"/>
88	Reason for travel.	
	Tourism	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Business	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Family Visit	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Religious Visit/Pilgrimage	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Medical Treatment	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Study	<input type="text"/>
	Other	<input type="text"/>
89	How many times have you flown during the past twelve months	
	Number	<input type="text"/>

Thank you, that concludes the questionnaire, can I thank you for the time that you have spent in answering these questions today.

I must reassure you that your responses will remain confidential. They are very important to improving the service that WMP provides to the travelling public.

Why wasn't I cautioned/given a notice of search?

Unlike many other police powers, when questioned under Schedule 7, you need not be cautioned. Where searches are made, there is no requirement for a written notice of a search to be provided to you.

Can you take my fingerprints, DNA and photograph?

Yes, in the circumstances set out under Schedule 8 of the Terrorism Act 2000.

Where can I complain about my treatment or find out more information?

West Midlands Police welcomes any comments or concerns you may have about your experience during this process. Contact (telephone) 0345 113 5000.

Additional information may also be found on the following websites:
www.west-midlands.police.uk

Home Office website:
<http://security.homeoffice.gov.uk/news-publications/publication-search/terrorism-act-2000/Code-of-Practice-for-Exam1.pdf>

Independent Police Complaints Commission website:
<http://www.ipcc.gov.uk/>

Tackling Terrorism Together

West Midlands Police acknowledges your support and cooperation. Everyone has a role to play in combating terrorism, not just the police.

The threat of terrorism is real and serious. Recent events have shown that a minority of people seek to attack the UK at any time and at any place without warning. West Midlands Police has a key role in countering that threat and in maintaining national security.

Please remain alert and vigilant at all times. If you are suspicious about someone's behaviour or activities, or you have information that could relate to terrorist activity, please call the confidential Anti-Terrorist Hotline telephone number given below.

West Midlands Police are dedicated to providing an excellent service. To support continued improvements in customer experience you may be contacted by a representative from West Midlands Police over the next few days to establish in confidence your views and experience of the Schedule 7 process.

**IF YOU SUSPECT
IT REPORT IT**

CALL 0800 789 321

**CONFIDENTIAL
ANTI-TERRORIST HOTLINE**

Text phone for people with speech or hearing difficulties 0800 032 4539

If you believe there is an immediate risk always dial 999 or 112

39634



Information on the use of UK Terrorism Legislation

at Ports

Schedule 7 Terrorism Act 2000

Police officers at ports play a key role in countering the current terrorist threat and have powers under Schedule 7 of the Terrorism Act 2000 to stop, question, search and if necessary, detain people entering or leaving the UK. This also applies to those travelling within the UK on board a ship or aircraft.

Terrorists need to travel in order to plan, prepare and commit their crimes. The legislation is used by police officers to determine whether a person appears to be (or has been) concerned in terrorism. When it extends beyond a short encounter this process is commonly known as an examination.

Our overriding priority is to keep the public safe by working together with all our communities to defeat terrorism.

Appendix E - Schedule 7 Information Leaflet

This leaflet provides answers to some frequently asked questions regarding Police interventions at ports:

Our powers to stop and question you come from Schedule 7 of the Terrorism Act 2000. The use of this legislation is regularly and independently reviewed. The legislation is unique and applies only at a port or border area. Some people may find being stopped by the police inconvenient and embarrassing, but we have a duty to protect our communities from terrorism and your patience and understanding helps us to do this.

Who has stopped me?

Police officers from West Midlands Police have stopped you. They work at the port to help protect our borders and to keep the UK safe. These officers do not have to give you their names. They will give you their force identification number if you request it. You may also be stopped under other legislation by staff from the UK Border Agency or other government enforcement agency.

Why have I been stopped?

Unlike most other police powers, the power to stop, question, search and, if necessary, detain persons under Schedule 7 does not require prior authority or any suspicion that the person stopped is involved in terrorism.

There is a Code of Practice the police adhere to. You can ask the officer to see it, or get a copy from the Home Office website:

<http://security.homeoffice.gov.uk/news-publications/publication-search/terrorism-act-2000/Code-of-Practice-for-Exam1.pdf>

Why have you asked for my passport?

This is so that you can be identified. Other forms of documentation that can positively identify you may also be acceptable. You must also give the officer any other documents or information they request.

Can you search me or my luggage?

Yes, you can be searched, together with anything you have with you or belonging to you that is on an aircraft, ship or train, including any vehicle you might be travelling in. The officer can also search anything belonging to you which may have been, or is about to go, on a ship, aircraft, or international train. The officer can seize any property they find (see below).

How long can you keep my property?

Property is normally returned to you straight away, or at the conclusion of the examination. If this is not possible, documents and other belongings found during the search can be held for up to seven days for further examination. Property can be kept for longer where it may be required for use as part of a criminal investigation.

How long can you keep me?

Most examinations take only a short time, however the law allows for up to 9 hours. You can be detained for longer if you are arrested under other powers available to the officer. If this is the case, it will be explained to you. (During long periods, your personal needs will be considered, such as refreshments.)

What if I don't want to stay here or comply with any of the requests that you make of me?

A police officer has the power to detain you, using reasonable force if necessary. You commit an offence if you fail to comply with a request made by an officer under this legislation. This could result in a prison sentence, a fine or both.

What is my right to legal advice?

You can request legal advice. Your examination will not be delayed pending the arrival of a solicitor and your failure to answer questions may constitute an offence. If you are formally detained under Schedule 7 powers, your rights will be explained to you.

Will a record be kept of my details?

The police are required to keep a record when their interaction with you extends beyond a short encounter. This is for statistical and reference purposes only and does not constitute any kind of criminal record.